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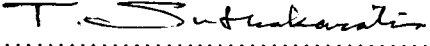
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A Dissertation Submitted in Partial
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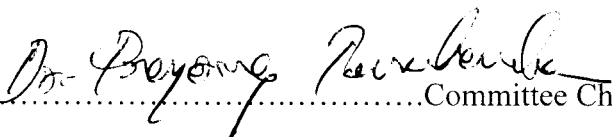
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ABSTRACT

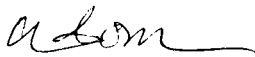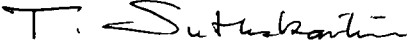|	
Title of Dissertation	Analysis of Organizational Culture and Commitment to the Ministry of Public Health under the Central Administration: A Comparative Study of Service Agents and Policy Agents
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The purpose of this study was to determine the perceived and preferred organizational culture types, organizational culture profile, levels of organizational commitment, and relationship between organizational culture and commitment. This research was a single organization case analysis of the Ministry of Public Health (MOPH) that compared service agents and policy agents.

This study extended previous research into the public organization context by using three survey instruments: the Organizational Culture Assessment Instrument (OCAI) developed by Cameron and Quinn (1999); the Organizational Culture Profile (OCP) developed by Sarros et al. (2005), and the Organizational Commitment Questionnaire (OCQ) developed by Meyer and Allen (1991). Six hundred and ninety questionnaires were distributed with a completed survey return rate of 73.8%; 374 from service agents and 135 from policy agents. Frequency distributions, mean, standard deviation, and t-test were used to analyze the data. A stepwise regression was also used to identify which independent variables were predictors of organizational commitment.

The results indicated that service agents and policy agents perceived their current type to be hierarchical and their preferred culture type was the clan with an increase in adhocracy. This study found that there were statistically significant agent differences for all types of values perceived (rewards, innovation, and performance culture) and two types of commitment level (AC and CC). The study found that the organizational commitment of service agents was driven by many variables, while that of policy agents was driven by rewards culture only. Distinct patterns of antecedents also emerged across the dimensions of commitment. Implications for encouraging commitment are discussed at the end of the study. Some limitations and recommendations for future research are also proposed.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

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ABBREVIATIONS

Abbreviations	Full Description
AC	Affective commitment
ADHOC	Adhocracy culture
ADHOC_C	Current Adhocracy Culture
ADHOC_P	Preferred adhocracy culture
CC	Continuance commitment
CIVIL	Civil servant
CLAN	Clan culture
COMPE	Competitiveness
CVP	Competing Value Framework
HRACHY	Hierarchy culture
INNOVA	Innovation
MARKET	Market culture
MKT_C	Current market culture
NC	Normative commitment
NPM	New Public Management
OC	Organizational commitment
OCAI	Organizational Culture Assessment Instrument
OCI	Organizational Culture Inventory
OCP	Organizational Culture Profile
OCQ	Organizational Commitment Questionnaire
OSC	Organizational Social Context
PERFOM	Performance orientation
REWARD	Emphasis on rewards
SOCIAL	Social responsibility
STABTY	Stability

SUPORT	Supportiveness
TIME_O	Time spent at the organization
TOC	Overall commitment
TOL	Tolerance value
VIF	Variance Inflation Factor

CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

This chapter provides a statement on the significance of the study, the purpose of the study, research questions, the scope of the study, expected benefits of the study, and the structure of the dissertation.

1.1 Statement on the Significance of the Study

The public sector has been confronted by many of the same external factors as the private sector. Public sector reform has become an international phenomenon during the past twenty years in responding to economic, institutional, and ideological changes in the sector (Bennington and Cummane, 2000: 2). Governments in many developing countries have experienced different types of reforms since their independence (Hyden and Brattoon, 1992: 8). Varieties of factors such as budget deficits, multilateral pressures, and the rise of market economics are compelling governments to address the increasing concerns about the cost and size of government in relation to the growth of the private sector. Eliassen and Sitter (2008: 42-51) state that globalization affects states in several ways. First, it is difficult to isolate or insulate national politics, governance and authority from the international scene. The input into national policy-making is increasingly linked to or driven by global or regional political and economic organizations such as the WTO and the EU, or is derived from ideologies and events at these supranational levels. At the same time, a decision in one country is likely to have direct implications for other countries. This makes the analysis and understanding of public sector management in individual countries much more challenging. Second, globalization affects not only decision-making processes but also the policy content at the national level. Globalization may restrict the policy options available to any given state government, either through formal agreements or as the effects of increased trade. Globalization alters the

allocation of resources, and may generate pressure on national labour markets and even on unemployment in some sectors. Given this situation, there have been many phases of public sector reform over the recent years including the reduction of administrative overhead, the use of information technology to improve financial systems, the adoption of strategic planning, and performance management regimes.

In 1991, Christopher Hood coined the term New Public Management (NPM) to label broad set of changes. The term soon became a label for a broad set of programmes that sought to reorganize public organizations, to introduce elements of competition into public service provision, as well as to borrow some private sector management techniques. There is no single key theorist of NPM and no authoritative exposition of what it is. Rather, there are many and various specifications of what constitutes NPM. NPM is particularly varied in a definitional sense. Behn (2001: 26)for example, defines the new public management paradigm as the entire collection of tactics and strategies that seek to enhance the performance of the public sector to improve the ability of government agencies as well as their nonprofit and for-profit collaborators to produce results and sees it as a worldwide phenomenon but with different strategies employed in different governments and in different situations.

Pollitt (1993: 52) summarized four major elements of NPM as the use of market-like mechanisms, decentralization, improvement of service quality, and consumer satisfaction. Pollitt and Bouckaert (2011: 72) further stated that NPM aims to achieve the virtuous three E's: economy, efficiency and effectiveness. NPM principles have been introduced not only to industrialized OECD member countries, such as Australia, Canada, New Zealand, the UK, and the USA, but also to developing countries, including India, Jamaica, and Thailand (McLaughlin, Osborne, and Ferlie, 2002: 22). According to Hood (1991: 4-5), NPM principles can be summarized in the following seven main points:

1. An emphasis on hands-on professional management skills for active, visible, discretionary control of organizations (freedom to manage);

2. Explicit standards and measures of performance through clarification of goals, targets, and indicators of success;

3. A shift from the use of input controls and bureaucratic procedures to rules relying on output controls measured by quantitative performance indicators;

4. A shift from unified management systems to disaggregation or decentralization of units in the public sector;

5. An introduction of greater competition in the public sector so as to lower costs and to achieve higher standards through term contracts;

6. A focus on private-sector-style management practices, such as the use of short-term labour contracts, the development of corporate plans, performance agreements, and mission statements;

7. A focus on cost-cutting, efficiency, parsimony in resource use, and "doing more with less."

The reform of the public sector to the NPM system has had fewer effects on the numbers of personnel, and on the position and functions of the managers of organizations than on the conditions of their jobs and the way in which public servants are expected to operate (Bovaird and Loffler, 2009: 52). The boundaries between the public and private domain have been lifted. Market-type mechanisms have been introduced such as internal markets in the public sector. Cooperation with organizations in the private sector has increased, both in public-private partnerships and through outsourcing of public tasks (Laegreid and Christensen, 2003: 162). To facilitate these changes, managers are given more flexibility (managerial autonomy) and responsibility (accountability requirements) in their work. This is reflected in the reforms of personnel policies in the public sector. These reforms focus on issues including a reduction of security of permanent tenure by appointing top officials on a temporary basis and often on performance-related contracts (Pollitt and Bouckaert, 2011: 74). This is consistence with the OECD countries' job employment situation. According to the OECD survey (Organization for Economic Co-operation and Development, 2005) on strategic human resources management, 12 countries have changed the status of their civil service over the past five to ten years as shown in Appendix A.

The implementation of NPM has focused on identifying each organizational process and developing performance indicators aimed at measuring outputs at different stages of the process. Public managers have expanded significantly to incorporate more functions affecting how employees work. They are now far more involved in performance management, monitoring, and evaluation. Hence, public

sector employees may experience a move in the administrative subculture from being process-oriented to a more performance-based management style. Performance-based pay has gained popularity in the public sector. It assumes that workers seek maximum fulfillment of needs by calculating efforts, valuation of rewards, expenditures of resources, and benefits to self. The performance-based pay system is commensurate with the NPM in its view that competencies can be defined and measured according to a rational economic framework and that individuals are motivated to perform by promise of financial gain and fear of monetary loss. The system employs "core competencies" based on what is required to meet organizational goals for competitive efficiency and effectiveness. As such their supervision may also change to include greater monitoring and evaluation of employees.

Employees in the public sector are confronted with three new professional challenges arising from the introduction of new principles and tools inspired by the shift to new public management. First, it is difficult to attract or retain capable human resources in the public sector. Reform programs require skilled and educated employees at various levels. The number of employees with tertiary-level education is minimal. After a reform, there are two types of employees: classified and unclassified. The title "unclassified" refers to the positions that are not required to be filled by people selected through traditional testing or ranking procedures. The principal benefit of being a classified employee that any effort to remove an employee or to take any other adverse action was subject to third-party review and there had to be a stated reason for the action which could be disputed or challenged by the employee. While all new hires are now placed in unclassified service, there are still many employees under the protection of the old merit system considered as classified employees, though their number and percentage are decreasing. As a result, classified and unclassified employees are working side by side in positions with exactly the same position description and salary range. However, some employees are protected by a traditional merit system and other employees are "at-will" employees (Ingraham, 1995).

Second, the issue of redundancy has become sensitive. The process has to be seen from both economic and social perspectives. While the economic rationale justifies for ever-greater business flexibility, the social rationale demands a certain

degree of job security for workers. If the previous public enterprise had a sound management system, it was expected that the introduction of business-like management would bring about managerial efficiency in the restructuring entities. The NPM favours decentralization as an appropriate service. Some officials exploit and take advantage of the new opportunities presented by decentralized structures to pursue personal gains. Performance management systems need to be designed in such a way that the indicators are the right ones. Because the competition mechanism changes the values of public servants by overemphasizing results, The mechanism adopts undesirable means just to produce better results. It does not matter how to reach the results; what matters is the results themselves. Therefore, performance management and emphasis on results have made managers cheat the system by reporting high performance scores even if they obtained low results (Haque, 2000: 610).

Third, Kim (2002: 396) has observed that traditional hierarchical forms of accountability have been seriously diminished, on the assumption that new forms of accountability and particularly performance measurement are a better alternative. For example, the traditional hierarchical promotion for a certain agent due to the respect for seniority is increasingly opposed to another important value he need to compensate for performance.

The most critical period in an organizational lifecycle is when a radical change occurs. Rainey (2009: 388) has examined administrative reforms in government for decades by drawing from and challenging the complex and sprawling literature on the management of organizational change. He contends that the change within government departments and agencies is demanding, complex, and emotional for the employees. Hence, it is important to understand the state of the workforce once the change has taken place. The employer-employee relationship is best explained by the research of Bennett and Durkin (1999), who investigated levels of commitment following reform. They found that employee commitment levels are very much associated with how the change process is managed. If the purpose of an organizational reform is to be more productive and the employees' needs are not met throughout or after the reform process, the workforce can decline following the transformation due to turnover.

As previously mentioned, organizational change inevitably impacts employee turnover intention to some degree. The effects include reduced job satisfaction and distrust (Bateman and Strasser, 1984: 104), a decline in motivation, absenteeism (Mowday, Porter and Steers, 1982: 64), and health and job insecurity (Begley and Czajka, 1993: 554). All of these effects have an enormous influence on organizational commitment. Many scholars believe that maintaining and fostering commitment among employees can contribute to speed and ease during the period of organizational transformation. For many organizations, monitoring levels of commitment on an ongoing basis is a standard procedure that tends to be conducted both informally and formally. In the past, the concept of the employment relationship was relatively simple: individuals were hired and expected to perform duties and tasks outlined by the employers, for which they were compensated. Today, however, there is competition involved in attracting and maintaining the best people amongst organizations that perform similar activities. As such, employment relationships have grown to include measures that encourage employees to remain committed to the organization. The benefits of this type of relationship are mutual; the employer gains a productive employee and the employee gains an employment framework that responds to his or her needs.

There are vast numbers of works that have found a relationship between organizational commitment and attitudes and behaviors in the workplace (Porter Steers, Mowday, Boulian, 1974: 604). Early research focused on defining the concept and current research continues to examine organizational commitment through two popular approaches, commitment-related attitudes and commitment-related behaviors. As described in the management and behavioral science literature, organizational commitment is considered as a key factor in the relationship between individuals and organizations. Organizational commitment refers to the degree of loyalty shown by employees toward their organization. Employees are regarded as committed to an organization if they willingly continue their association with the organization and devote considerable effort to achieving organizational goals. The higher level of efforts exerted by employees through a greater level of organizational commitment leads to a higher level of performance and effectiveness at both the individual and organizational levels (Mowday, 1998: 391). Meyer and Allen (1997: 24), furthermore,

point out that organizational commitment could lead to beneficial consequences, such as organizational effectiveness, improved performance, and reduced turnover and absenteeism.

Contemporary research has suggested that strong cultures affect productivity, performance, and commitment. Organizations that learn to manage their cultures may be able to improve their overall performance (Owens and Valesky, 2010: 226). Mullins and Christy (2010: 746) attests that organizational culture helps to account for variations among organizations and mangers. Culture helps to explain why different groups of people perceive things in their own way and perform things differently from other groups. It provides consistency in outlook and values, and makes possible the process of decision making, coordination, and control. Schein (2010: 318) suggests that organizational culture is even more important today than it was in the past. Increased competition, globalization, mergers, acquisitions, and alliances and various workforce development have created a greater need for coordination and integration across organizational units in order to improve efficiency, quality, process innovation, and effective management.

Studies have found that organizational culture is a strong predictor of commitment (Sikorska-Simmons, 2005: 203). Although numerous studies have produced empirical evidence supporting the study of organizational commitment, it is surprising that there have been relatively few empirical studies exploring the impact that organizational culture might have on commitment (Silverthorne, 2004: 594). Furthermore, there has been very limited research on the relationship between organizational culture and commitment in the field of public employees. This study has the potential to contribute to the understanding of organizational culture and commitment as they relate to public organizations. The independent variable in this study is the organizational culture of the public organization while the dependent variable is organizational commitment. The Ministry of Public Health in Thailand is used as a case to study the relationship of those two variables.

1.2 Purposes of the Study

This study investigates the relationship between organizational culture and commitment in the Ministry of Public Health (MOPH), with an emphasis on comparing the relationship between service agents and policy agents. The purpose of the study is:

1) To determine the current and preferred culture types

2) To assess the perception of current organizational culture and to investigate the level of organizational commitment

3) To examine whether there is a relationship between the perceptions of organizational culture and commitment

4) To compare organizational culture types, organizational culture profile, and organizational commitment between service agents and policy agents

1.3 Research Questions

This study addresses six research questions:

1) What is the dominance of the current and preferred culture type?

2) What is the organizational commitment level and are there any significant differences in organizational commitment between service agents and policy agents?

3) Are there any significant differences in the perceptions of current culture types from the Competing Value Framework (CVF) with respect to organizational commitment?

4) Are there any relationships in the perceptions of organizational culture type toward the dimensions of the Organizational Culture Profile (OCP)?

5) What is the perception of organizational culture under the OCP and are there any significant differences in the organizational culture profile between service agents and policy agents?

6) To what degree is the organizational culture of the OCAI, OCP and control variables related to organizational commitment?

1.4 Scope of the Study

The scope of the study can be described in terms of its specific area of focus. The specific organization under the study and the specific population of the study are as follows:

Specific area: This study emphasizes organizational culture and organizational commitment. The researcher attempts to identify the causal relationships of those variables.

Specific organization: The organization under study is the Ministry of Public Health under the central administration and the relationship between service agents and policy agents is explored.

Specific population: The population under study consists of employees working for the Ministry of Public Health under the central administration. There are nine departments including the Office of the Permanent Secretary, the Department of Medical Services, the Department of Thai Traditional and Alternative Medicine Development, the Department of Mental Health, the Department of Disease Control, the Department of Health, the Department of health Service Support, the Department of Medical Sciences, and the Food and Drug Administration.

1.5 Expected Benefits of the Study

Public organizations are currently intensively competitive service organizations and service performance is related to organizational culture and commitment. The expected benefits of the study can be defined in terms of academic interest and management practice:

Academic benefits: As research on organizational culture and commitment on the part of public organizations in Thailand is limited, this study attempts to contribute to management theory particularly in terms of the relationships among organizational culture and commitment by testing existing theory with empirical evidence.

Management benefits: The understanding of organizational culture and organizational commitment will not only enable the MOPH to implement appropriate

human resource strategies, but more importantly will enable the MOPH to understand what their employees think and feel. Therefore, the MOPH will know how to better treat their employees in order to ensure and increase organizational effectiveness and organizational performance.

1.6 The Structure of the Dissertation

This study is organized into five chapters. Chapter one describes the significance of the study, the purpose of the study, the research questions, the scope of the study, the expected benefits of the study, and the structure of the dissertation. Chapter two reviews the relevant research on the characteristics and challenges of public organizations, the Ministry of Public Health, and organizational culture and commitment. The conceptual model is also included. Chapter three presents the research methodology, measurement and instrument of variables, and data collection procedures and analysis. Chapter four reports the data analysis and findings. Finally, in chapter five the discussion and implications and recommendations for future research are presented.

CHAPTER 2

LITERATURE REVIEW

This chapter provides key information relevant to the study of the relationship between organizational culture and commitment to the Ministry of Public Health. The review of the literature is presented in six major sections, which include: 1) the characteristics and challenges of public organizations, 2) the new public management, 3) the Ministry of Public Health, 4) organizational culture, 5) organizational commitment, and 6) the relationships between organizational culture and commitment. These major sections are subsequently divided into subheadings for discussion. The final section of this chapter proposes the model of the study.

2.1 The Characteristics of Public Organizations

Appleby (1945) states that public organizations are different from other organizations in society. The key difference is the political influence in public organizations that directly affects their internal processes. It is important to distinguish public organizations from the entire universe of organizations. Generic organization theory assumes that organizational managerial issues are identical in public, private and non-profit organizations. Public organizations serve a larger role in providing public services, and in creating and implementing public policy.

According to market theory, private sector organizations seek economic enhancement. Their objective is to increase financial profitability through voluntary exchange and transactions. Public organizations are not linked to markets in the same

way as private sector organizations. By giving public organizations responsibility for tasks for which the market is inappropriate or for unprofitable services, such as care of the poor, market theory implicitly recognizes differences in the economic roles of private and public sector organizations. More significantly, market theory fails to recognize that the economic role of public organizations essentially is not economic in nature. Public organizations certainly have functions that do not directly involve the economic system and that entail basically non-economic objectives. Enforcing affirmative action laws, protecting endangered species, and administering elections are examples of such functions. Some may argue that even these policies have economic implications, which is true. But the key point is that the objectives of public sector organizations are varied; social and political, not economic, considerations are paramount.

Differences between public and private organizations have been approached in a variety of ways. Gortner, Nichols and Ball (2007: 34) summarize their review as a list of propositions about public organizations compared with private organizations on a number of characteristics, as shown in Table 2-1.

Table 2.1 Comparison of Public and Private Organizations

Comparison Characteristics	Public Organizations	Private Organizations
Societal role	Administer the law	Serve as economic engine
Fundamental purpose	Benefit all within the political jurisdiction by serving a specific function	Benefit owners by selling goods and services
Who determines purpose	Officials outside the organization	Owners of the organizations
Principal funding	Legislated appropriations from taxes	Sales of goods and services
Basic accountability	To the public through legislative oversight	To owners, including stockholders
Trust expectation	Extreme	Moderate
Level of operational transparency	Moderately high to high	Moderately low for publicly-held firms; very low for privately-held firms

Source: Adapted from Gortner et al., 2007

As Table 2.1 illustrates, public organizations are fundamentally unlike private organizations in their legal, economic, and political nature and roles. The constitution and the law are major forces in determining the context and content of public organization activities because the law itself sets out purposes and structures. Empowerment can be considered the government's power to implement and administer the law. Actions undertaken within the constitutional framework carry the formally sanctioned weight of the governmental system's legitimated force. Compliance in the public organizations is mandatory as they embody the power and authority of the state. Therefore, legal empowerment raises other questions, especially questions of accountability and control.

Denhardt (2010: 121) describes public organizations as part of the government process designed to carry out government policies developed through a political

process. They could be agents of some unit of the government. The purpose of public organizations and public management is to facilitate the integration and convergence of social values. Public organizations have maximum political authority and little economic authority. This political emphasis creates public ownership. Financial support of public organizations is largely through taxation of the citizens. Control of public organizations is through political forces, not market forces.

It is also important to recognize that public organizations cannot redefine their mission themselves. Their main objectives and authorities are set out in laws and regulations. As well, many factors, such as mission and operating environment, make each public service organization unique (Kiel, 1994: 54). Therefore, what may be perceived as a necessary change for one public service organization may not be appropriate for others.

People management in the public sector often has higher standards than in the private sector. For example, supervision in the public sector requires a thoughtful and balanced approach that takes into consideration complex issues such as fairness, equity, and responsiveness (Cayer, 1994: 153). According to Rainey (2009: 242), one of the most consistent empirical findings related to public organizations is that they experience more highly-structured, externally-imposed human resource practices than the private sector. Further evidence of the constraints related to human resource practices faced by public sector organizations was confirmed by a meta-analytic comparison of the public sector and the private sector (Rovertson and Seneviratne, 1995: 552). It was revealed that public sector organizations are subject to a greater range of rules and regulations than the private sector, including inflexible reward systems and specialized job designs.

Public sector organizations are faced with their greatest challenge in decades in order to be a New Public Management. Three challenges are discussed below:

1) Red Tape: A public organization is a typical administrative organization corresponding to legal domination and has many distinct characteristics, e.g. high degree of specialization, a hierarchical authority structure with limited areas of command and responsibility, impersonality of relationships between organizational members, recruitment of officials on the basis of ability and technical knowledge (Weber, 1997: 334; Bozeman, 2000: 132). Organizational factors affecting

perceptions of red tape can be divided into two categories, including structural and process variables. Formalization, administrative intensity, and the size of the decision-making group are parts of the structural variables, while administrative delay is the process variable. Recent studies suggest that public organizations are more likely to have red tape in personnel, purchasing, and budgeting domains (Bozeman and Bretschneider, 1994: 211). Organizations are concerned predominantly with rules and administrative details which may limit workers' creativity in how they complete their assignment. These bureaucratic structures are part of the reason why federal managers have lower organizational commitment (Buchanan, 1975: 428). Particularly, studies have shown that centralization is negatively associated with affiliation-based and identification-based commitment (Nyhan, 1999: 68), and standardization is negatively associated with attitudinal commitment (Moon, 2000: 186).

2) Performance Appraisal: The performance appraisal process has an impact upon how an employee interacts with his or her organizations. Most civil services have three specific systems in operation that focus on senior management, middle management, and lower grades. Each system has been shown to have serious defects. For instance, Ingraham (1995: 19) has shown that pay-for-performance schemes applicable to senior managers in the public services reflect some fundamental tensions between pay-for-performance and the civil service environments in which they operate. Pay-for-performance stresses decentralized decision making, individual discretion, and individual performance, while the civil service environment has typically stressed centralization, standardization, and equal treatment of employees. They also found notable negative commonalities, such as lack of adequate and stable financial resources, performance evaluation, rating inflation, and difficulty in linking individual performance to organizational goals and objectives. Varma, Denisi, and Perters (1996: 354) have shown that subjective performance measures are influenced by interpersonal affect more than by objective measures. Bain (2001: 33) argues that the least accurate perception of how an employee is progressing is his/her own rating; and the supervisor's assessment falls somewhere in between, depending on the employee's relationship with the supervisor.

However, according to Murphy and Cleveland (1995: 332), performance appraisal represents one of the least popular aspects of human resource management.

Neither supervisors nor subordinates look forward to appraisal, and neither is likely to be totally satisfied with the appraisal systems in their organization. The results of a recent survey of more than 48,000 employees indicated that managers and CEOs from 126 organizations in the United States stated that just 13 percent of employees and managers and only 6 percent of CEOs said their organization's performance appraisal system was useful (Brown, 2005: 3). However, there are several reasons that many organizations still use the appraisal system. The first and most popular reason is for making administrative decisions. Appraisals are most frequently used to determine pay increases, promotions, and demotions. Some other reasons that performance appraisals are needed include providing feedback, counseling employees to perform better, determining individual training and development needs, setting and measuring goals, and improving overall organizational performance (Grote, 2000: 5-6).

3) Training and Development: There is a paradox that contemporary public sector organizations exhibit all of the essential characteristics of training and development (Berman, Boman, West, Wart, 2010: 276). First, everyone emphasizes the importance of training and development today, but training is often the forgotten budget. Basic technical skills, organizational operations, and general supervisory skills have always been essential. There is no evidence that training and development have experienced an increase in resources or attention. In fact, the evidence seems to suggest that many organizations are reducing such resources. The cutting of management ranks and the increased responsibility of remaining managers have placed a heavier burden on the front-line supervisor. The World Bank (2003: 4) has identified the importance of lifelong learning, specifically recommending the development of decision-making skills and problem-solving skills. Lewis (2002: 131) described training environments as favorable communication venues, helping to define the company's direction, strategy, and vision. Milkovich and Boudreau (1997: 321) defined training as a systematic process that fosters innovation, acquisition of skills, rules, concepts or attitudes that result in an improved match between employee characteristics and employment requirements.

2.2 The New Public Management

2.2.1 NPM Paradigm

The NPM paradigm is a notoriously difficult and slippery concept to pin down. This is the case as it has a "number of facets or ingredients and from one country and time to another the emphasis may vary between these" (Pollitt, 2003: 27). This hinges on the fact that "there is no simple convergence on one new public management model, but rather that a range of options is available" (Ferlie, Ashburner, Fitzgerald, and Petigrew, 1996: 20). In addition, different authors emphasize different aspects of the concept calling it different names in the process. For instance, it is called the "entrepreneurial government" by Osborne and Gaebler (1992); Pollitt (1990) calls it "managerialism". Hood (1991) refers to it as "new public management" and Kaul (1997) names it "new public administration".

According to Hood (1991: 5), NPM has two primary dimensions. First, portability and diffusion are identified as providing for the ability of NPM to solve many different management problems in varied contexts. Political neutrality is the second dimension of NPM. The claim of NPM is to be apolitical, with the pursuit of many differing values being possible within the movement's framework because the management systems can adjust to accommodate various political priorities and circumstances. Hood summarizes the NPM movement by presenting a group of doctrines, as shown in Table 2.2

Table 2.2 Hood's Doctrinal Components of NPM

Doctrine	Meaning	Typical Justification
Hands-on professional management	Active, visible control by those free to manage the organization	Accountability requires clear assignment of responsibility – not diffusion of power
Explicit standards and performance measures	Well-defined quantifiable goals and targets	Accountability requires clear goals and close examination of objectives
Increase focus on output controls	Resource allocation linked to performance	Focus on results rather than procedures
Disaggregation of units	Division of monolithic units into specialized corporate units	Manageable units increase productivity, facilitate contract operations
Competition	Use of term contracts and public tendering procedures	Rivalry and competition lowers costs and raises standards
Private sector management style	Public service ethic is replaced with increased flexibility through private techniques	Private sector tools are proven, should be used in the public sector
Discipline in use of resources	Reduce direct costs, increase discipline in labor force, resist union demands	Do more with less by controlling public sector resource demands

Source: Hood, 1991: 3-19.

Hood characterizes the "doctrinal elements" into four categories, as follows:

The first element is the implementation of hands-on professional management in the public sector. This means "active, visible discretionary control of organizations from named persons at the top, free to manage since accountability requires clear assignment of responsibility for action" (Hood, 1991: 4). According to Hughes (2003:

61), this implies that managers would themselves be responsible for the achievement of results rather than being an administrator, following someone's (politicians) directives.

The second aspect is the adoption of output- or result-oriented public service management. This entails a shift in the focus of management from inputs and process towards outputs and outcomes (Pollitt, 2003: 27). In this regard, resource allocation and rewards are linked to measured performance (Hood, 1991: 4). In terms of budgeting, the performance and programme budgeting systems that look at "outputs rather than inputs" (Kaul, 1997: 23) replace the older line item budgeting (Hughes, 2003: 92) and link performance information with the budget (United Nations, 2001: 40). This makes managers accountable to politicians for results and outcomes rather than inputs and processes.

Third, for output-based public service to materialize, there is a need for the adoption of explicit standards and measures of performance. According to Hood (1991: 4), this entails the definition of goals, targets, and indicators of success. The argument is that performance management would ensure managerial autonomy so that managers work at their best, address problems of accountability (United Nations, 2001: 14), and regulate the activities of public managers (Minogue, 1998: 142). Performance measurements also entail the development of citizen charters which set out the standards of services which the public has the right to receive and offer some regress for failure to achieve those standards (Hollis and Plokker, 1995: 45). In this regard, citizens are no longer considered as "passive recipients of services but active customers" (Kaul, 1997: 15).

Fourth, NPM stresses the practice of private sector styles of management in public service. The argument is that the private sector is efficient because it uses market principles and therefore these principles make the government more efficient. In this regard, NPM stresses greater flexibility and autonomy in hiring and rewards, and use of proven private sector management tools (Hood, 1991: 5), which include customer service where citizens are regarded as customers to be served instead of to be managed (Kettl, 2005: 452). In addition, there should be "greater discipline and parsimony in resource use" (Hood, 1991: 5). This entails cutting costs, raising productivity, and doing more with less, directing resources to emphasize those

programmes which most assist the attainment of strategic goals (Hughes, 2003: 65), cost effectiveness, and value for money (Kroukamp, 2001: 24). In this regard NPM empowers public officers to be entrepreneurial(Osborne and Gaebler, 1992) and makes them cost conscious and more transparent.

A move towards the new public management in a number of OECD countries during the 1970s and 1980s centered around a shift towards "the introduction of ever-more explicit cost categorization into areas where costs were previously aggregated, pooled or undefined" (Hood, 1995: 98). Thus the cutting of budgets, adoption of market mechanism such as privatization of public agencies deemed to be wasteful, contracting out of public services, competitive tendering, introduction of vouchers and converting some departmental units into quasi-autonomous non-governmental organizations became the focal point of the administrative reforms undertaken in the 1970s and 1980s through the world (Hood, 1995: 98).

According to Nikos (2000), the NPM is heavily premised on the notion servicing the customer. Hence, the advocates of the New Public Management believe that public agencies should be realigned and reoriented with a view to embracing a mentality akin to that of the private sector entities. In line with Nikos (2000) states that the NPM shifts emphasis from traditional public administration to public management as it pushes the state toward managerialism. As he puts it, "The traditional model of organization and delivery of public services, based on the principles of bureaucratic hierarchy, planning, centralization, direct control and self-sufficiency, is apparently being replaced by a market-based public service management or enterprise culture."

The Weberian bureaucratic model is deemed to be rigid, rule-bound, slow, costly, inefficient, and unresponsive to the needs of the customers. Hence, the NPM is touted as a model providing a "future for smaller, fast moving service delivery organizations that would be kept lean by the pressures of competition and that would need to be user-responsive and outcome-oriented in order to survive" (Larbi, 1999: 33). Since the proponents of the NPM contend that the problem is not what governments do, but how they do it, it is argued that public managers must be freed from an oppressive bureaucratic system characterized by senseless red tape for them to drastically improve productivity within the public sector. The failure of public

institutions to provide long-term solutions to the socio-economic and political problems faced by numerous countries is usually used to justify the need to embrace private sector management techniques and strategies.

Scholars and practitioners that extol the virtues of the NPM simply believe that market mechanisms should be used to guide public programs, and public managers are expected to learn from their private sector (Terry, 2005: 198). According to Kettl (2005: 63), it is usually argued that the existing structures make managers reactive as well as chain them to standard operating procedures and limit their vision. Hence, there is need for managers to be given the flexibility that they need to solve their problems so that they can promote "organizations that can adapt and government that work better" (Kettl, 2005: 63).

2.2.2 NPM Critics

The continuation and expansion of the reinventing government and NPM movements raise fundamental questions for public administration scholars and practitioners. The NPM goal of embedding economic values of business and the market into the activities of government has been challenged by many critics (Hood, 1991: 11).

Cohen and Eimicke (1997: 102) note that since reinvention places a direct emphasis on entrepreneurship, public administration scholars are critical of the movement for its avoidance of constitutional law and representational democracy. Critics often argue that real entrepreneurs cannot be created in government, that market incentives cannot be substituted for law, and that reinventors undermine public management capacity by eliminating management layers in the effort to empower lower levels of public employees (Moe and Gilmour, 1995: 138; Schachter, 1995: 534).

Nagel (1997: 352) notes that the debate continues among practitioners and theorists alike concerning NPM. In 1998, the journal "Public Administration Review" held a symposium on leadership, democracy, and public management. NPM was a highly-debated topic. Contradictions in the movement (Fox, 1996: 259), and the values inherent to the movement (DeLeon and Denhardt, 2000: 94), were discussed.

Blair (2000: 525) contends that the source of this debate is the adoption of entrepreneurial management strategies that require administrators to take calculated risks using business strategies. Proponents see this aspect of NPM as fundamental to the success of the approach. Opponents of NPM view entrepreneurial practices as a threat to democratic governance (Adams, 2000: 499; Terry, 1998: 196). There is a need to examine the characteristics of the techniques being utilized by practitioners in order to gain a better understanding of the implications, and thus inform the debate.

Terry (1998: 197) has attempted to make the field aware of the potential threat of ignoring the constitutional regime values that should guide governance when returning to a business orientation. In his work on neo-manageralism, Terry (1998: 197) discusses the issues and concerns that NPM brings to the pursuit and achievement of a democratic polity with regard to the practice of public administration. A negative view of human nature, in the context of neo-managerialism, embodies the entrepreneurial management movement. Terry (1998: 198) sees a direct conflict with the promotion and protection of democratic theory in the context of an entrepreneurial tone of government that is market driven and competitively motivated. Moreover, the argument is made that the public choice-oriented character of neo-managerialism, as the foundation of entrepreneurialism, creates forth the opportunistic, self-interested, self-serving, and deceitful managers (Terry, 1998: 198).

Frederickson (1995: 5) argues that business and government have very different goals and therefore the techniques of private sector entrepreneurship are seldom appropriate and often result in unethical behavior for public officials. Frederickson also contends that unethical behavior in government is increasing due to the emphasis on managing government organizations like private business. Moe and Gilmour (1995: 144) argue that the market element of NPM is inappropriate due to the fact that the two sectors, public and private, are derived from and based upon completely different legal doctrines.

Williams (2000: 524) contends that NPM makes contradictory prescriptions in the call for a more business-like government while also lacking a complete and historically-accurate understanding of public administration. Williams also argues that

NPM provides conflicting advice characterized by ambiguity. He goes on to state that NPM is merely inconsistent and inaccurate, and that it could be simply ignored.

Pollitt (2003: 42) takes this argument further by elaborating on the alternative logics posed by NPM by arguing that there is a contradictory message being presented to public managers. When the concern over accountability and the primacy of politics, which restricts the manager, intersects with the NPM call for letting managers manage through the liberation motive, the message becomes mixed. The demands for increased performance evaluation and stakeholder participation complicate the message even more, as now the public entrepreneur is to be both creative and responsive, transparent and measured or audited, while not making any decisions that will affect particular groups without involving those groups in the process.

The movement away from the public law tradition that has intellectually grounded the field in the past, Moe and Gilmour (1995: 145) argue, has left public administration open to the management principles of a business orientation. They suggest that "broken" government can be "fixed" by casting aside red tape, focusing on customer satisfaction, decentralizing authority, and working better and costing less.

Critics propose that the market approach does not capture the political considerations prevalent in local government (Hefetz and Warner, 2004: 183). Critics also challenge that the movement has limited value and negative implications for democracy, because it neglects issues such as accountability, the issue of separating politics and administration, difficulty in attaining social equilibrium among citizens/consumers, and some contradictions in trying to run a government like a business (Terry, 1998: 199).

2.3 Ministry of Public Health

2.3.1 Overview of MOPH

After the major bureaucratic reform in 2002, the Office of the Public Sector Development Commission (OPDC) was established. It has proposed the restructuring of the bureaucratic system to the Government, placing special emphasis on the principles of "citizen-centered" and on the well-being of the people. This OPDC bureaucratic system reform did not only respond to the globalization challenge, but also the application of various innovative conceptual frameworks. The Ministry of Public Health can be regarded as minor changes as below.

In October 2002, the Ministry of Public Health in Thailand reorganized its organization, which covers the roles, functions and structures of the ministry. The MOPH is the principal agency responsible for promoting, supporting, controlling, and coordinating all health service activities for the well-being of the Thai people. There are three clusters and the Office of Permanent Secretary, as shown in appendix B. Following is a summary of each cluster:

1) The Office of Permanent Secretary performs functions related to the formulation of health policies and strategies, monitoring and evaluation, production and development of health personnel, and management of the information system. Provincial administration is also under this office.

2) The Medical Service Development Cluster is composed of three departments: Medical Services, Thai Traditional Medicine and Alternative Medicines, and Mental Health. These three departments are technical departments and perform functions related to development of technical aspects and systems of services for physical medical services, Thai traditional medicine and alternative medicines, and mental health services.

3) The Public Health Development Cluster is composed of two departments: the Department of Disease Control and the Department of Health. These two departments perform the functions related to health promotion, and disease control and prevention.

4) The Health Service Support Cluster is composed of the Department of Health Service Support, the Department of Medical Science and the Department of

Food and Drug Administration. This cluster performs supportive functions to the implementing agencies especially in health services, medical service, and consumer protection.

In today's changing world, Thailand is inevitably linked with the world economy and society. Strengthening Thailand's health care system toward a future vision is needed.

Vision: Thailand's health development will contribute to achieving the highest attainable quality of life, and healthy Thailand. Every person in Thai society has equal access to quality health services and the right to live in a healthy environment. Thailand will be a world class "Medical Hub."

Goals:

1. Strengthening the healthcare system means ensuring equal and ready access to high-quality healthcare services for all.

2. Increasing capacities in healthcare include human, physical, and technological resources, and require changes not only in the number of each but also their distribution across the country's different regions.

3. Health risk factors are important determinants of mortality and morbidity. Each risk-reduction intervention can potentially be incorporated into long-term plans for the future of healthcare provision and delivery of medical services.

2.3.2 Thai Healthcare System

The Thai healthcare system has undergone several reforms. In 1952, the area of responsibility for the Ministry of Public Health was extended by adding a healthcare infrastructure and the development of human resources to provide healthcare services throughout the country. Various health polices were on the agenda of the national development plans, beginning with the First National Economic Development Plan of 1961 and notably the successive National Economic and Social Development Plans, since 1971, and their implementation. The National Health Development Plan and the Thai Health Policy and Plan Development are summarized in Appendix C.

Healthcare in Thailand is organized and provided by the public and private sectors. The Ministry of Public Health (MOPH) is the principal agency responsible

for promoting, supporting, controlling, and coordinating all health service activities. In addition, there are several other agencies that play significant roles in medical and health development programmers such as the Ministry of Education, the Ministry of Interior, the Ministry of Defense, the Bangkok Metropolitan Administration, state enterprises, and private-sector enterprises. They operate health facilities including hospitals, that provide primary, secondary, and tertiary medical services. During the last ten years, private hospitals and clinics have been expanding rapidly in Bangkok and provincial cities.

In 2008, public-sector healthcare facilities were categorized as follows:

In Bangkok, there were five medical-school hospitals, 26 general hospitals, 14 specialized hospitals and institutions, as well as 68 health centers and 77 health centre branches. Throughout the country, beyond the city of Bangkok, public health facilities included 6 regional-level medical-school hospitals, 25 regional-level hospitals, 47 specialized hospitals, 70 provincial-level general hospitals under the auspices of the MOPH, and 59 hospitals operated by the Ministry of Defense and 1 Police Hospital. These medical facilities were underpinned by 730 community hospitals at the district level as well as 214 municipal health centers. At the sub-district (tambon) level, there were 9,762 health centers as well as 66,223 rural and 3,108 urban primary healthcare centers. The last two types of health facilities were managed by village health volunteers (close to 1,000,000 in 2009) under the supervision of the health personnel of sub-district health centers.

The private sector has also played a significant role in providing curative care. In 2007, there was one private medical school in Bangkok, 344 private hospitals (102 in Bangkok and 242 in other provinces), 16,800 clinics, 13,329 drugstores (1st and 2nd class), and 2,096 traditional medicine drugstores.

In 2007, the overall ratio of hospital beds to population was 1:223 in Bangkok, compared to the ratio of 1:468 in all provinces. The ratio of physicians to population was 1:3,182 for the whole country, ranging from 1:867 for Bangkok and 1:7,015 for the northeastern region.

Thailand's health care system reflects the entrepreneurial market-driven nature of its economy. It is a cross-over system of public-sector and private-sector interfacing in both healthcare financing and provision. Recently, the overall resources

allocated to health care have markedly increased. Total health expenditure has steadily increased, at a faster rate than the growth of the gross domestic product (GDP). In 2007, the total health expenditure equaled 3.5% of the GDP, of which a higher proportion (64.4%) was covered by the public sector than by the private sector (35.6%).

2.3.3   Current Government Health-Related Policies

The Universal Health Care Coverage Policy: The "Universal Health Care Coverage Policy" is focused on creating universal health insurance coverage for the entire population. Prior to its implementation, 20% of the population was not covered by any insurance scheme. The health service benefit package includes inpatient/outpatient treatment at registered primary care facilities and referral to secondary and tertiary care facilities (except emergency cases), dental care, health promotion/prevention services, and drug prescription. To ease the financial burden on patients, users are required to make an out-of-pocket payment of the flat-rate fee of 30 baht per visit, with the exception of the very poor for whom this fee is waived. However, since the end of 2006, the fee of 30 baht per visit was waived for all.

Health Promotion, Disease Prevention   and   Control   and   consumer Protection: The government set a national agenda on "Health Promotion, Disease Prevention and Control, and Consumer Protection." Health promotion is a key strategy for sustainable health development of individuals, families, communities, and society. Each individual is encouraged to adopt healthy practices such as exercising at least three times per week, eating nutritious and safe food, and staying away from unsafe sex and drugs.

Thailand has employed the principles of good manufacturing practice (GMP) for drug, food and cosmetic products and recently for toxic substances. This effort has been aimed at raising the manufacturing standards to the international level. As of December 2005, 85 percent of the drug-producing industrial enterprises obtained the GMP certification.

Promotion of Thai Traditional & Herbal Medicine and Alternative Medicine: Policy support for the development of traditional and herbal medicine was launched through the Sixth National Economic and Social Development Plan, 1987-1991, and

was reinforced through successive government policies as well as national pharmaceutical ventures (Ministry of Public Health, 2011). The period of 1991 to 2000 was designated as the "Decade of Thai Traditional Medicine Development," focusing on research and development of health-related products and technologies and resulting in the increased capacity to produce traditional medicines and training in Thai traditional massage.

The government has promoted traditional and herbal medicine by integrating it into primary healthcare. Accordingly, all herbal traditional prescriptions have become subject to regulation. Research and development (R&D), applying modern technology, have resulted in innovative, modern herbal medicinal products.

For almost one century, Thai traditional medicine had been a non-formal medical care system without any substantial support or development from the government. Only in the last two decades did the Ministry of Public Health launch ventures to develop the entire system of indigenous medicine. In 1993, the National Institute of Thai Traditional Medicine was established, and in 2002 it was reorganized as the Department of Thai Traditional Medicine and Alternative Medicine.

Strengthening the Country's Health Related Capability for Income Generation and Export: In recent years, the "One Tambon One Product (OTOP) Project" has become an effective means to encourage villagers to use local resources and skills for the production of qualitatively competitive goods, ultimately fit for export. The Ministry of Public Health and the private health sector have also participated in this project by advising villagers how to produce health-related goods such as preserved food, herbal concoctions, and Thai traditional remedies, as well as training to develop the skills required to practice Thai massage. These also include many health resorts and spas providing traditional medical care.

2.4 Organizational Culture

2.4.1 Defining Organizational Culture

Numerous organizational researchers and managers have attempted to examine and define organizational culture over time. Scholars in organizational behavior have presented two schools of thoughts conceptualizing the meaning of organizational culture. One school defines organizational culture as observable traits focusing on the physical characteristics of the organization such as architecture, artwork, dress patterns, language, stories, myths, behavior, formal rules, rituals, ceremonies, and appearances (O'Reilly, Chatman, and Caldwell, 1991: 488; Rowden, 2002: 156). The other school argues that physical characteristics are not culture types rather they are symbolic constructs of the unobservable characteristics of culture such as the norms, beliefs, assumptions, ideologies, values, and shared perceptions held by members of organizations (Nahavandi, 2011: 53).

The field of organizational culture has a number of theorists, each of which have focused on subsets of perspectives or variables related to organizations. Major theorists whose work is most relevant to this organizational study are listed in Table 2.3. These theorists are Van and Barley, Kilmman, Saxton and Serpa, Schein, and Cooke and Rousseau.

Van and Barley (1985: 32) define organizational culture as a collection of solutions used to solve problems that the group has encountered over time. These solutions are promulgated to new group members as the best and most accepted way to think or act in a situation. That is, the solutions are believed to be the best survival strategies for the group and so are reinforced among group members.

Kilmann, Saxton, and Serpa (1986: 89) define organizational culture as the "shared philosophies, ideologies, values, assumptions, beliefs, expectations, attitudes, and norms that knit a community together." These aspects of culture interrelate and convey how decisions are made, problems are handled, and "the way things are done around here". Behavior norms are at a more superficial level of culture, while assumptions and human nature are much deeper. The impact that culture has on organizational effectiveness is associated with three interrelated characteristics of the culture: directions taken, pervasiveness of the culture among group members, and

strength or pressure felt by group members as a result of organizational culture. Four dimensions of culture can be measured: task support, task innovation, social relationships (and group norms), and personal freedom (of expression).

According to Schein (1992: 12), organizational culture is defined as "a pattern of shared basic assumptions that the group learned as it solved its problems of external adaptation and internal integration, that has worked well enough to be considered valid and, therefore, to be taught to new members as the correct way to perceive, think, and feel in relation to those problems." Schein, in his several writings, but particularly in his book, Organizational Culture and Leadership, addresses the deepest dimensions of culture, such as reality, truth, time space, human nature, relationships, socialization, ethics, and leadership in the creation and maintenance of cultures. He eschews morality labels and speaks to a worker's match to an organization's culture: thus, it is not lazy, but rather, there is a lack of fit, or cultural understandings, or communication within an organization.

Over the last several decades, Cooke and Szumal (2000: 149) have developed a theoretical perspective of organizational culture in which organizational culture is described as encompassing common assumptions, values, and beliefs shared by its members, which guide how individuals think and behave in a particular organizational setting. In their research, Cooke and Lafferty (1987) developed an empirically-grounded and useful description of the behavioral expectations within an organization, referred to as behavioral norms, which can be organized into three clusters representing general organizational styles. These three general clusters or styles of organizational culture have been identified and labeled as follows: constructive, passive-defensive, and aggressive-defensive. Each cluster consists of four sets of similar behavioral norms that define the cluster. These organizational culture styles and their associated behavioral norms can be examined using the Organizational Culture Inventory (Cooke and Lafferty, 1987).

Table 2.3 Comparison of Definitions and Core Concepts from Major Organizational
Culture Theorists

Theorist	Brief Definition	Core Concept/ Goals/Time
Van & Barley (1985)	A collection of solutions used to solve problems that the group has encountered over time	- Shared solutions (values) - Problem solving; group survival - Over time
Kilmann et al. (1986)	Shared philosophies, ideologies, values, assumptions, beliefs, expectations, attitudes, and norms that knit a community together	- Shared values - Community cohesiveness - Over time
Schein (1992)	Pattern of shared basic assumptions that the group learned as it solved its problems of external adaptation and internal integration	- Share values, assumptions - Problem solving; adaptation - Over time
Cooke & Rousseau (1998) Cooke & Szumal (2000)	Common assumptions values, and beliefs shared by members in an organization that become the accepted and expected ways of doing things	- Shared values, assumptions - Guides behavior - Over time

Since organizational culture has become a popular issue, scholars have increasingly used questionnaires to measure the behaviors, values, and expectations of individuals in their attempts to understand organizational culture. Recently researchers have proposed using scales developed specifically for the measurement of organizational culture, such as the Organizational Culture Inventory (OCI) by Cooke and Lafferty (1987), the Organizational Culture Profile (OCP) by O'Reilly et al. (1991), the Competing Values Framework OCAI) by Cameron and Quinn (1999), and Organizational Social Context (OSC) by Glisson (2007).

1) Organizational Culture Inventory (OCI)

The OCI measures behavioral norms within the two broad dimensions of whether behavioral norms are people-oriented or task-oriented, and whether behavioral norms address satisfaction or security needs. Based on these two dimensions, the 12 sets of behavioral norms measured by the OCI are categorized into Constructive culture, Passive/Defensive culture, and Aggressive/Defensive culture, a typology described by Cooke and Lafferty (1987) and Cooke and Szumal (2000).

Constructive culture refers to the degree to which members are encouraged to interact with people and engage in tasks that help members meet higher-order satisfaction needs such as achievement, self-actualization, humanistic-encouragement, and team-building norms. A passive/defensive culture refers to the degree that members are involved in interacting with people and how they approach tasks so that their own security needs are not threatened. A passive/defensive culture is characterized by norms of approval, conventionality, dependency, and avoidance. An aggressive/defensive culture refers to the extent to which members use forceful responses to protect their status and security needs. Aggressive/defensive cultures are characterized by norms of opposition, power, and competition norms.

2) Organizational Culture Profile (OCP)

The OCP is another questionnaire used to obtain quantitative data. This instrument consists of 54 value items designed to measure individual and organizational values and explores the relationship between preference for organizational values and preference for individual personality values (O'Reilly et al., 1991: 504).

To measure organizational culture based on values, O'Reilly and his colleagues state that an organization's culture can be characterized by innovation and risk taking, attention to detail, orientation toward outcome or results, aggressiveness and competitiveness, supportiveness, emphasis on growth and rewards, collaborative and team orientation, and decisiveness. These factors show patterns of person-organization fit when measuring organizational culture. For example, individuals with a high need for achievement tend to show strong preference for aggressive, competitive, and outcome-oriented cultures. Individuals with a high need for

autonomy tend to show preference for an innovative culture and negative responses to a culture that emphasizes teamwork.

3)   Competing Value Framework (CVF)

In Cameron and Quinn's (1999: 31) framework, two axes create a matrix differentiating organizations' effectiveness criteria. One differentiates effectiveness in terms of degree of organic flexibility versus the degree of mechanistic stability of their organizational forms, organic and mechanistic being the terms for the extremes of this axis. The second axis differentiates effectiveness in terms of the internal or external orientation of the organization. Each quadrant of the graph developed from the application of these axes has a classification based on the most notable distinction determined for organizations to be within that quadrant. The classifications of cultures assigned to the quadrants are clan, adhocracy, market, and hierarchy.

4)   Organization Social Context (OSC)

The OSC was created by Glisson (2007) to better understand organizational culture and climate. This instrument consists of 105 items that focus on the ways in which organizational culture and climate play central roles in the social context of an organization. The OSC is similar to Schein's concept of organizational culture in that the OSC includes the norms, values, and expectations of the members of an organization. In the first stage of social context studies, Glisson and James (2002: 775) used several scales from the OCI to understand team-level organizational culture and its effects on work attitudes, service quality, and turnover. Their findings show that a constructive culture in team-level organizations explains the variance in service quality and turnover in child welfare and juvenile justice management team organizations.

The OSC assesses organizational culture as a rigid culture, proficient culture, or resistant culture. A rigid culture is characterized by service providers that are granted little discretion or flexibility and are required to follow bureaucratic rules and regulations (red tape). This culture places an emphasis on paperwork. A proficient culture is characterized by service providers that are thought to have sufficient knowledge and to are competent in providing services. A resistant culture is characterized by service providers that are believed to have little interest in change or in new ways of providing services.

In addition, other scholars have studied organizational culture typology. Based on the work of Trompenaars and Hampden-Turner (1998: 161), they categorize organizational culture into four main types as below:

1) The family (a power-oriented culture). Within this culture there is a strong emphasis on hierarchy and orientation toward the person. Employees within this type of an organization are directed by a leader, who not only directs them, but also is seen as a parental figure.

2) The Eiffel Tower (a role-oriented culture). The strong emphasis in this organization is toward hierarchy and tasks. This is an organization with many layers, narrow at the top and wide at the base. Roles within this organization are clearly defined and directed from the top.

3) The Guided Missile (a task-oriented culture). The emphasis in this organization is on equality and orientation toward the task. The focus is on getting the job done. With that in mind, all organizational structures, processes, and resources are focused on achieving a specific goal or task. Power is derived from expertise within this organization instead of a hierarchy.

4) The incubator (a fulfillment-oriented culture). Herre emphasis is on equality and being person oriented. This organizations' main purpose is self-expression and self-fulfillment of its members.

Other researchers, Vestal, Fralicx and Spreier (1997: 344), believe that the majority of cultures have evolved into four primary types that can be found in most organizations: the functional culture, the process culture, the time-based culture, and the network culture. The first is the functional culture, which is viewed as the traditional culture designed around the specialization of individuals with deep levels of managerial hierarchies. In this culture, decision makers are clearly different from the actual decision executors. The key attributes in assessing the functional culture is that it is highly organized, maintains clear authority and accountability, and respects the chain of command. In a process culture, work is designed around teams and planning instead of being individual-driven. The customer is involved in the decision making of these cultures and execution and control are customer focused. Other key attributes include focusing on the customers' viewpoints, having cross-functional skills, participating in training and continuing education, and encouraging teamwork.

Organizations with a time-based culture have become faster, more agile, and able to react quickly to market or legislative changes. In order to accomplish this, these organizations are flatter and have leaner managerial hierarchies. Other key attributes include maintaining a high sense of urgency, quickly adapting to changes in the environment, being flexible and adaptive in thinking and approach, and pioneering new ways of doing things. Due to their need for teamwork and cross-functional skills, time-based cultures need people that can lead others and that have very flexible and agile employees. The last core culture as noted by Vestal, Fralicx and Spreier is the network culture. Here the organization is characterized by its need to seek outside technical expertise for its projects, implementing strategic partnerships. Work is designed around strategic alliances which are needed to complete specific projects. The network culture requires a new type of leader, one that not only manages but also can facilitate and negotiate. Their employees need to be highly skilled with the ability to gain skills rapidly. Network members need to be able to rapidly develop working relationships within the network. They need to be able to handle high risk and low security employment.

Lastly, in a somewhat different approach to the assessment of culture, Recardo and Jolly (1997: 4-7) study organizational culture and its use of teams. They measure culture by how well organizations have implemented teams and how productive these teams have been. Recardo and Jolly divide companies into four different types, depending on the types of teams found within the organizations. The four different types of teams are simple problem solving teams, task force teams, cross-functional teams, and self-directed work teams. From these four teams, the researchers have developed eight dimensions found within organizations that can measure culture: communication, training and development, rewards, decision making, risk taking, planning, teamwork, and management practices. Table 2.4 illustrates the above six key scholars' cultural variables.

In summary, four basic dimensions or conceptual domains appear to be common to most questionnaires. First, a "people orientation" reflecting perceived support, cooperation, mutual respect, and consideration between organizational members is prevalent. This orientation refers, for instance, to the group culture quadrant of the Competing Values Model or to the support culture in the

Organizational Culture Index. Some questionnaires, such as the Organizational Culture Profile distinguish a sub-dimension referring to teamwork. Others, such as the Culture Inventory and Hofstede et al.'s practices questionnaire, oppose the same continuum "people orientation" to "task orientation." Probably also related to a people orientation is the emphasis on human resources development assessed by different instruments (the Organizational Norms Opinionnaire, Rohrbaugh's Competing Values Model, and Calori and Sarnin's Instrument).

Second, an "Innovation" dimension, indicating general openness to change and propensity to experiment and task risks, is also apparent. In Reynolds's (1986: 340) instrument, risk and innovation are opposed to safety and stability. The construct of stability is measured by a specific scale in the Organizational Culture Profile and the Organizational Culture Inventory.

Third, "control" is another significant component. It focuses on the level of work formalization, the existence of rules and procedures, and the importance of the hierarchy. This construct is similar in tone to the "bureaucratic" dimension prevalent in some instruments (e.g., in the Organizational Culture Index, the Competing Value Model, and Reynolds' instrument). Attention to detail (present in the Organizational Culture Profile) is probably close though conceptually narrower.

Finally, the "results/outcome orientation" is another core dimension, which measures the level of productivity or performance expected inside an organization. In Hofstede's practices questionnaire, this dimension is bipolar. Conceptually, it is close to Reynolds' construct of external and internal emphasis, which refers to the task of satisfying customers or clients.

To diagnose organizational problems, researchers have developed tools to identify the various elements of an organization's culture. O'Reilly et al. (1991: 488) state that

> one way to assess culture quantitatively is to focus on the central
> values that may be important to an individual's self-concept or identity
> as well as relevant to and organization's central value system.

Saffold (1988: 554) suggests that in order to appropriately study organizational culture in terms of central values, researchers must establish a range of relevant values and then assess the degree of intensity and crystallization of these values among members of an organization. The Organization Culture Assessment Instrument (OCAI) (Cameron and Quinn, 1999) and the Organizational Culture Profile (OCP) (O'Reilly et al., 1991) are used. Both quantitative instruments measure the intensity and consensus of values. The OCAI uses value statements to measure culture type, while the OCP specifically measures organizational culture values. Thus, the OCAI and OCP are the instruments used in this research and are summarized in the following paragraphs.

Table 2.4 Dimensions of Organizational Culture Examined

OCI (Cooke and Lafferty, 1987 and Cooke and Szumal, 2000)	OCP (O'Reilly, Chatman, and Caldwell, 1991)	OSC (Glisson, 2007)
Constructive:	- Innovation	**Proficient**
-Achievement/motivation	- Attention to detail	- Responsiveness
- Self- actualizing/individualistic	- Outcome orientation	- Competence
- Humanistic/supportive	- Aggressiveness/	**Rigid**
Passive/Defensive	competitiveness	- Centralization
- Approval/consensus	- Supportiveness	- Formalization
- Conventional/conformity	- Emphasis on rewards	**Resistant**
- Dependent/subservient	- Collaborative/team orientation	- Apathy
Aggressive/Defensive	- Decisiveness	- Suppression
- Oppositional/safe decision		
- Power/control subordinates		
- Competitive/win-lose frame		

Trompenaars and Hampden-Turner (1998)	Vestal, Fralicx and Spreier (1997)	Recardo and Jolly (1997)
- A power-oriented culture (hierarchy and person)	- Functional culture: Highly organized, clear lines of authority and accountability and respect the chain of command	- Communication
- A role-oriented culture (hierarchy and tasks)		- Training and development
		- Rewards
- A task-oriented culture (equality and task)	- Process culture: team and planning	- Decision making
	- Time-based culture: fast, more agile, and react quickly to market or legislative changes	- Risk raking
- A fulfillment-oriented culture (equality and person)		- Planning
		- Teamwork
	- Network culture: seek outside technical expertise, implementing strategic partnerships	- Management practices

2.4.2 The Competing Values Framework (CVF)

The Competing Values Framework draws together the underlying value systems of organizational theory and illustrates the various emphases given to values in an organization's culture (Cameron and Ettington, 1998: 359; Cameron and Freeman, 1991: 24). This model also allows for systematic comparisons between organizations, organizational subcultures or subgroups, and individuals, furthermore, acknowledging organizational theory, which suggests that all organizations do not possess homogeneous cultures (Cameron and Ettington, 1998: 359). The Competing Values Framework was originally developed based upon studies that noted the major indicators of effectiveness (Cameron and Quinn, 1999: 19). In 1974, Campbell, Bownas, Peterson, and Dunnette (1974) identified thirty-nine indicators that were claimed to represent an exhaustive set of all practicable measures of organizational effectiveness. Quinn and Rohrbaugh (1983: 363-377) analyzed these indicators in order to determine if the set of thirty-nine indicators could be reduced to patterns or clusters that would better identify the most significant factors that could determine effectiveness. Statistical analyses revealed that the set of comprehensive indicators created by Campbell et al. (1974) could be reduced to two major dimensions that grouped the thirty-nine indicators into four main clusters or quadrants (Quinn and Rohrbaugh, 1983: 363-377). The first dimension identified by Quinn and Rohrbaugh differentiated effectiveness criteria on the basis of flexibility versus stability, while the second dimension differentiated effectiveness criteria based upon internal versus external orientation. Cameron and Quinn (1999: 30) describe the first dimension as differentiating "effectiveness criteria that emphasize flexibility, discretion, and dynamism from criteria that emphasize stability, order, and control." In this dimension organizations can be perceived as effective if they have the ability to change or to be adaptive, while other organizations can be viewed as effective if they demonstrate stability and predictability. The second dimension was described by Cameron and Quinn as differentiating "effectiveness criteria that emphasize an internal orientation, integration, and unity from criteria that emphasize and external orientation, differentiation, and rivalry". In this second dimension, some organizations may be judged as effective if they are cohesive, while other organizations may be

perceived as being effective if they are focused on competition (Cameron and Quinn, 1999: 31).

When the two dimensions are viewed together, they form four quadrants, each representative of a cluster of organizational effectiveness indicators. These distinct sets of indicators of organizational effectiveness define the core values associated with organizational performance perceptions. Specifically, the four clusters of criteria described can be utilized to define the core values that organizational members use to make organizational judgments (Cameron and Quinn, 1999: 31). Notably, these four core value clusters represent opposed or competing organizational assumptions (Cameron and Quinn, 1999: 32). Denison (1997: 46) describes the theory of organizational culture and effectiveness in a similar manner. In his framework he proposed the principal means by which organizational culture can influence effectiveness. Denison further suggests a culture and effectiveness model based upon four major hypotheses. They are described as follows: 1) The Involvement Hypothesis, which shows the sense of ownership and responsibility that is created by high levels of internal organizational participation; 2) The Consistency Hypothesis, which is based upon the internalization of shared values and implicit control systems; 3) The Adaptability Hypothesis, which encompasses the external ability of an organization to accept and interpret signals from its environment in order to conduct internal changes; and 4) The Mission Hypothesis, which aids organizations in defining their social role and external focus. The schematics of Denison's Culture and Effectiveness Model (Figure 2.1) and the Competing Values Approach (Figure 2.2) are shown below.

Point of Reference	External	Adaptability	Mission
	Internal	Involvement	Consistency
		Change and Flexibility	Stability and Direction

Figure 2.1 Schematics of the Culture and Effectiveness Model adapted from Denison, 1997

Flexibility

Human Relations Model

Team, Clan, Group Culture

Means: cohesion, morale
Ends: development or
human resource

Open Systems Model

Adhocracy or Development Culture

Means: adaptability,
readiness
Ends: resource
acquisition and
growth

Internal ——————— External

Means: stability,
control
Ends: rules
The Hierarchy, Bureaucracy
Hierarchical Culture

Means: productivity,
efficiency
Ends: contract
Market, The Firm or
Rational Culture

Internal Process Model

Rational Goal Model

Control

Figure 2.2 Schematics of the Competing Values Framework adapted from Colyer (2000) quoted in Cameron and Freeman (1991); Cameron and Quinn, 1999)

The competing values framework presented above encompasses the four dimensions or major theoretical models or organizational culture and effectiveness theory. As described by Cameron and Freeman (1991), Cameron and Quinn (1999), and Denison (1997), these dimensions and models are as follows: 1) the human relations model, reflecting flexibility and internal focus; 2) the open systems model, which shows flexibility with an external focus; 3) the rational goal model, which emphasizes control and external focus; and 4) the internal process model, which emphasizing control but with internal focus (Colyer, 2000: 329). Subsequently, each quadrant that corresponds to the models described above is labeled based upon its dominant characteristics and represents four major culture types, as shown in figure 2.3 (Cameron and Quinn, 1999: 32). The human relations model is associated with a Clan Culture, the open systems model is consistent with an Adhocracy Culture, the rational goal model supports a Market Culture, and the internal process model indicates a Hierarchy Culture. The Organizational Culture Assessment Instrument (OCAI) instrument allows organizations to diagnose their dominant culture type, cultural strength, and cultural congruence (Cameron and Quinn, 1999: 24).

Flexibility and Discretion

Internal Forces and Integration	Clan	Adhocracy	External Forces and Differentiation
	Hierarchy	Market	

Stability and Control
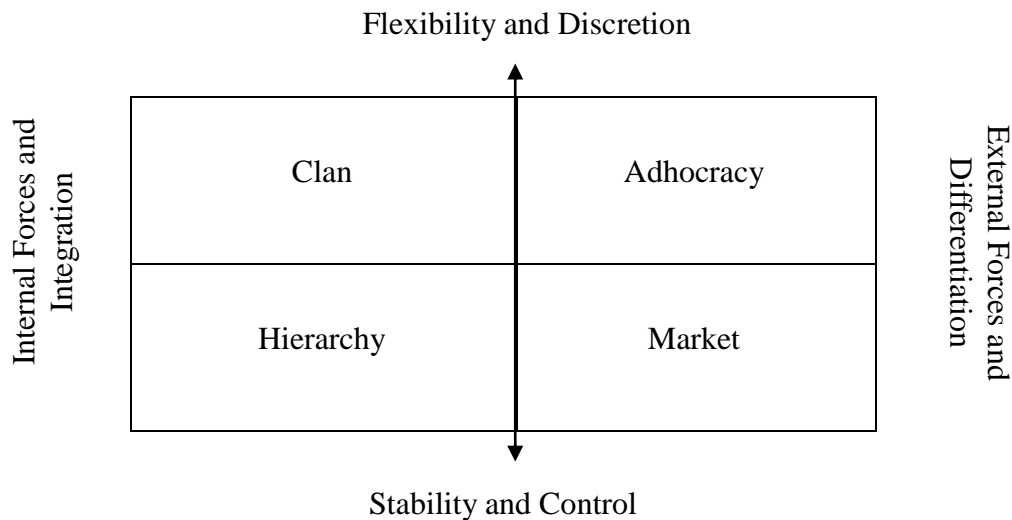
Figure 2.3 The Competing Values Framework (Cameron and Quinn, 1999)

In depicting how organizational culture actually becomes operational in the work environment, Cameron and Quinn (1999) have created a model known as the Competing Values Framework which is a model that looks at organizational culture along the dimensions of culture types including the clan culture, the adhocracy culture, the market culture and the hierarchy culture. A summary of each attribute is presented in table 2.5.

Table 2.5 The Attributes of Organizational Culture in the Work Environment of CVF

The Clan Culture	The Adhocracy Culture
A very friendly place to work where people share a lot of themselves. It is like an extended family. The leaders, or the heads of the organization, are considered to be mentors and perhaps even parent figures. The organization is held together by loyalty or tradition. Commitment high. The organization emphasizes the long-term benefit of human resources development and attaches great importance to cohesion and morale. Success is defined in terms of sensitivity to customers and concern for people. The organization places a premium on teamwork, participation, and consensus.	A dynamic, entrepreneurial, and creative place to work. People stick their necks out and take risks. The leaders are considered innovators and risk takers. The glue that holds the organization together is commitment to experimentation and innovation. The emphasis is on being on the leading edge. The organization's long-term emphasis is on growth and acquiring new resources. Success means gaining unique and new products or services. Being a product or service leader is important. The organization encourages individual initiative and freedom.
The Hierarchy Culture	The Market Culture
A very formalized and structured place to work. Procedures govern what people do. The leaders pride themselves on being good coordinators and organizers who are efficiency-mined. Maintaining a smooth-running organization is most critical. Formal rules and policies hold the organization together. The long-term concern is on stability and performance with efficient, smooth operations. Success is defined in terms of dependable delivery, smooth scheduling, and low cost. The management of employees is concerned with secure employment and predictability.	A results-oriented organization whose major concern is with getting the job done. People are competitive and goal-oriented. The leaders are hard drivers, producers, and competitors. They are tough and demanding. The glue that holds the organization together is an emphasis on winning. Reputation and success are common concerns. The long-term focus is on competitive actions and achievement of measurable goals and targets. Success is defined in terms of market share and penetration. Competitive pricing and market leadership are important. The organizational style is hard-driving competitiveness.

Source: Cameron and Quinn, 1999: 58

The section that follows explains these culture types and explains each culture type as typified by the OCAI instrument.

1) Clan Culture

The clan culture encompasses the typical characteristics of teamwork, employee involvement, and organizational commitment to employees. The basic assumptions of this culture type signify management through teamwork, employee development and empowerment, and viewing customers as partners. Organizations that possess this type of culture promote informality, employee ownership, and work teams. Assessment by the OCAI reveals that clan-type cultures define success in terms of concern for people and internal climate and that the criteria for effectiveness are: 1) cohesion, 2) high levels of morale and employee satisfaction, 3) teamwork, and 4) human resource development (Cameron and Quinn, 1999: 35). An example of a clan culture would be the Disney Corporation, which fosters integration of employees (Cameron and Quinn, 1999: 36). Additionally, it has been shown by several authors that nearly two thirds of college and universities in the United States currently have a clan culture, and academic respondents also view this culture type as the most effective for this setting (Berrio, 2003; Smart and John, 1996: 222).

2) Adhocracy Culture

The adhocracy culture is grounded in its definitional roots, where its root word ad hoc means dynamic, specialized, or temporary (Cameron and Quinn, 1999: 38). In this sense, adhocracy-type cultures are centered around adaptability, flexibility, and creativity. Likewise, cultures of this type are also characterized by uncertainty, ambiguity, and decentralized power or authority relationships. Adhocracy cultures are generally fostered by organizations in the aerospace, software development, and consulting industries. In such organizations the emphasis is placed upon individuality, risk taking, and anticipation. Following their analysis of an adhocracy culture, Quinn and Cameron (1983: 46) described the characteristics as: 1) no organizational chart (the organization changed too frequently); 2) temporary physical space (no designated office spaces); 3) temporary roles (staff was assigned and reassigned based upon changing needs; and 4) creativity and innovation (staff was encouraged to be creative and invent new solutions to problems). Success in adhocracy cultures is characterized by the ability to produce unique and original

products and services. Assessment by the OCAI instrument reveals that adhocracy cultures are dominant in dynamic, entrepreneurial, and innovative organizations that are committed to experimentation. Such organizations are dominated by effectiveness criteria linked to the ability to provide new products and services, cutting-edge ideas, expansion into new markets, and creative problem-solving. Examples of organizations that possess adhocracy cultures are IBM and Apple Computer Company, which both struggled in the 1980's and still strive today to be more innovative than the other (Cameron and Quinn, 1999: 39).

3) Market Culture

The market culture is based upon a different set of assumptions than the hierarchy culture and is significantly based upon the work of Ouchi (1981: 196). This culture type focuses on external function and is characterized by the primary objectives associated with profitability, market strength, niches within the market, targets, and the customer base. Assumptions of the market culture are linked to the ideal that external constituencies have choices and that the value an organization creates can dictate competitive position, productivity, results, and profits. Organizations that possess a market culture hold that a well-defined purpose and aggressive strategies will drive productivity and profitability (Cameron and Quinn, 1999: 35). The market culture, when assessed through using the OCAI instrument, point toward a results-oriented organization that strives to meet target goals through demanding efforts with a focus on winning. Success in an organization with a dominant market culture is defined by market share and market penetration. Achievement of goals, outpacing competitors, enhancing revenues, and increasing market share are the most valued criteria of effectiveness in market-type cultures. Organizations that lose market share and revenues to other organizations are most likely to adopt a dominant market culture (Cameron and Quinn, 1999: 36).

4) Hierarchy Culture

The hierarchy culture is basically a bureaucracy that strives toward efficiency and predictability. This culture type is characterized by stability, consistency or uniformity, and control. In a hierarchy culture there are easily distinguishable lines of decision-making authority that are governed by uniform, organization-wide rules and procedures. Hierarchy cultures value formalization, structure, and accountability as

keys to success. As assessed in the OCAI instrument, hierarchy cultures are those that maintain efficiency through collective conformity to policies and procedures. In effect, organizations that possess this culture type are viewed as reliable based upon their other dominant traits. Effectiveness criteria that theoretically foster success in a hierarchy culture are dominated by values that embody timeliness, smooth operations, and predictability that in turn support the hierarchical operational theory that control drives efficiency, and furthermore propels effectiveness (Cameron and Quinn, 1999: 33). Typical examples of hierarchical cultures are government agencies (Internal Revenue Service) and major conglomerates (Ford Motor Company), although small organizations may also be dominated by this culture type (Cameron and Quinn, 1999: 34).

As described above, each culture type has its own distinct features and assumptions of how organizations are conducted. Although these four dimensions (culture types) of organizational theory focus upon varying underlying philosophies, it is suggested that the framework is stable (Colyer, 2000: 338; Quinn and Rohrbaugh, 1983: 374). Cameron and Freeman (1991: 46) point out that organizational effectiveness can be influenced by the type of culture identified in an organization and that each culture type is distinctly effective in respect to activities that are aligned with the prevailing characteristics of an organization. For example, market cultures are most effective in circumstances where external function and market driven objectives are important, hierarchy cultures are more effective when organizations are control oriented, the effectiveness of adhocracy culture is better in situations where organizational dimensions relate to the external environment, and clan cultures are more effective than other cultures in respect to human resource concerns (Cameron and Freeman, 1991: 52; Ouchi and Wilkins, 1985: 467).

2.4.3 Organizational Culture Profile (OCP)

The original OCP version (Chatman, 1989: 336; O'Reilly et al., 1991: 494-495) required each subject to sort 54 cards, each of which contained a single descriptive characteristic, into stacks forming a forced distribution. The two most and least representative characteristics of the subject's personal value structure (or organization's value structure or perceived ideal organizational structure) formed the

polar extremes, and the remaining characteristics were arranged from most to least representative in stacks of 2-4-6-9-12-9-6-4-2.

Cable and Judge (1996: 301) reduced the list of OCP characteristics from 54 to 40. Cable and Judge also altered the data collection process to use a paper-and-pencil questionnaire approach, which asks a series of questions to guide the respondents through a forced ranking of values from 1 to 9 (1=least descriptive; 9 =most descriptive). The paper-and-pencil version is easy to administer and it guides the respondents through the decision-making process. Since the respondents have to compare each value to every other value, the reduction in number from 54 to 40 characteristics means that the number of pairwise comparisons is almost halved. Therefore, less time is required to complete the OCP. Redundancy of terminology is also reduced.

O'Reilly et al.'s (1991) exploratory factor analysis of the original 54 items, and Cable and Judge's (1997) confirmatory factor analysis of the 40 established and confirmed the existence of seven organizational value structure factors, including innovation, stability, respect for people, outcome orientation, attention to detail, team orientation, and aggressiveness, as well as seven individual value structure factors, including innovation, supportiveness, emphasis on rewards, outcome orientation, attention to detail, team orientation, and aggressiveness. A researcher could examine the effects of these latent factors on outcome variables and/or examine the effects of the fit between the organizational and individual value batteries on outcome variables. Though Chatman's (1989: 341) model did not depict them, direct effects of the factors, or possibly even the individual value items, could be measured, and the interaction effect could be separated from any main effects to determine whether the organizational values, individual values, or the interaction between the two explain more of the variance in a given outcome variable, such as organizational commitment.

2.4.4 Cultural Assessments

2.4.4.1 Competing Value Framework (CVF)

The Organizational Culture Assessment Instrument (OCAI) was utilized to determine the organizational culture types of respondents working for the Ministry of Public Health. Specifically, the OCAI was employed to both determine the current state of Ministry's cultures and to determine the preferred organizational culture types as viewed by the members. The OCAI requires members to respond to six groups of items that describe the cultural dynamics of their organization (dominant characteristics, organizational leadership, management of employees, organizational glue, strategic emphases, and criteria of success). These same six groups of items were used to determine current and preferred organizational culture types. In completing the OCAI instrument, respondents provided a "snapshot" of how their organization operated and the values that it was characterized by. To complete the OCAI, the respondents answered six questions, each of which had four alternatives. The respondents divided 100 points among the four alternatives, depending upon the extent to which each alternative reflected similarities to their organization. Basically, the respondents assigned a higher number of points to the alternative(s) that was most similar to their organization. The OCAI was scored using simple arithmetic calculations that computed average scores for each of the four alternatives across all six OCAI questions (see appendix F). Finally, the OCAI results were assessed in order to provide a profile of organizational culture types (Cameron and Quinn, 1999: 24).

The OCAI has been reported to be valid and reliable in previous studies (Berrio, 2003; Cameron and Freeman, 1991; Quinn and Spreitzer, 1991). In 1988, Cameron and Ettington reviewed relevant literature in order to seek psychological archetypes for determining culture. They utilized the Competing Values Framework to identify aspects of organizations that reflected core values and assumptions. The major findings of their research demonstrated that there were six content dimensions in alignment with the Competing Values Framework for identifying culture and that organizational effectiveness was more closely tied to the type of culture instead of with the strength or congruence of the culture. Additionally, these authors identified the OCAI as an instrument that was congruent with the dimensions of the Competing

Values Framework and that could be used to determine culture type, congruence, and strength, subsequently helping create six profiles that could be interpreted individually or compared.

One of the first studies to test the reliability and validity of the OCAI was conducted by Quinn and Spreitzer (1991). These researchers studied 796 executives from 86 different public utility organizations and found that respondents consistently rated their organization's culture across the six dimensions of the OCAI. This study established the convergent and discriminant validity of the OCAI and computed Cronbach alpha coefficients for each culture type (0.74 Clan, 0.79 Adhocracy, 0.73 Hierarchy, and 0.71 Market). In general, Cronbach's alpha reliability coefficients greater than 0.70 are considered acceptable (Nunnally and Bernstein, 1994: 258).

On a larger scale, Yeung, Brockbank, and Ulrich (1991: 66) tested the reliability of the OCAI using 10,300 executives in 1,064 organizations. These researchers determined that in their sample most organizations were dominated by hierarchical culture. Similar to the previously-cited study by Quinn and Spreitzer (1991); Yeung et al., (1991) computed Cronbach alpha coefficients for each culture type at 0.79 Clan, 0.80 Adhocracy, 0.76 Hierarchy, and 0.77 Market.

Zammuto and Krakower (1991: 86) changed the scope of OCAI research slightly by shifting the focus from business-oriented organizations to organizations within higher education. Their 1991 study tested the reliability and validity of the OCAI by studying 1,300 administrators, department chairs, and trustees at institutions of higher education. This research showed the validity of the OCAI by demonstrating strong associations between specified factors and the core values associated with each culture type. The reliability coefficients for each culture type in this study were at 0.82 Clan, 0.83 Adhocracy, 0.67 Hierarchy, and 0.78 Market.

Cameron and Freeman (1991) extended the study of the OCAI in the educational setting. They studied organizational culture in 334 institutions of higher education representative of the entire population of four-year colleges and universities in the United States (12-20 respondents per university; 3,406 total respondents) in order to test the validity of the instrument. This study found that no organization was totally characterized by a single culture type. Rather, dominant culture types were identified for most institutions, significant differences existed in terms of

effectiveness when comparing culture types (culture strength and congruence did not significantly predict effectiveness), and validity of the instrument was determined by matching culture type and domains for effectiveness.

Berrio (2003) studied the organizational culture of an Ohio University extension, utilizing a sample of 297 professionals, paraprofessionals, and support staff. They determined the reliability of the OCAI for current culture type at 0.80 Clan, 0.75 Adhocracy, 0.62 Hierarchy, and 0.90 Market and preferred culture type at 0.77 Clan, 0.72 Adhocracy, 0.79 Hierarchy, and 0.84 Market.

2.4.4.2 Organizational Culture Profile (OCP)

The original OCP (Caldwell and O'Reilly, 1990; Chatman, 1989; O'Reilly et al., 1991), the first revised OCP (Cable and Judge, 1997), and the latest revision of the OCP (Sarros, Gray and Densten, 2002), have been shown to be valid and reliable. O'Reilly et al. (1991), in an attempt to better measure organizational culture, developed a set of factor names that best matched organizational culture and core values as described by the relevant literature. In their research they used exploratory factor analysis to identify eight dimensions of organizational culture (innovation, attention to detail, outcome orientation, aggressiveness, supportiveness, emphasis on rewards, team orientation, and decisiveness). Based upon these dimensions and 54 value statements administered using Q-sort methodology, these authors created the OCP instrument. The original average reliability coefficient of the OCP was reported at 0.88. In general reliability coefficients greater than 0.70 are considered acceptable (Nunnally and Bernstein, 1994). Building upon the research of O'Reilly et al. (1991); Chatman and Jehn (1994) investigated the relationship between industry characteristics and organizational culture by studying 15 firms from four industries in the service sector. Chatman and Jehn's research used the original OCP and Q-sort methodology to characterize firms from various industries and found that the same eight dimensions set by O'Reilly et el. (1991) were valid across industries.

The OCP has been revised and shortened. In 1997, Cable and Judge made an attempt to shorten the OCP from 54 to 40 value statements. These researchers condensed the set of value statements by consulting ten organizational researchers that grouped similar items to make the OCP more manageable. This group then

utilized this condensed version of the OCP by studying 38 interviewers making hiring decisions about 93 applicants, specifically, interviewers' perceptions of person-organization fit and organizational selection decisions. Their results suggested that interviewers can assess applicant-organization fit with accuracy and the reported overall test-retest reliability was 0.87. The OCP has since been revised and shortened again.

Sarros et al. (2002: 11-18) attempted to further shorten the OCP instrument to make it more user-friendly. These researchers published the AIM-Monash University Leadership Report, and studied 1,918 respondents from Australian companies. They utilized their abbreviated version of both the original and revised versions of the OCP. This revised instrument reduced the original and revised OCP instruments to 28 items covering seven dimensions of organizational culture. This Sarros et al. (2002) shortened and revised OCP adopted a Likert-type scale that overcame the limitations of the Q-sort methodology by converting to a normative scale. The mean Cronbach's alpha coefficient from all subscales for this revised OCP was reported at 0.75 across multiple tests (Sarros, Gray, Dentsen and Cooper, 2005: 168), which is considered acceptable for Cronbach's alpha.

The current study utilized the most updated revision of the OCP (Sarros et al., 2002). In doing so, this study supported the suggestion made by Stanton, Sinar, Balzer and Smith (2002: 189) that reducing the total items of an instrument demonstrates good psychometric practice. Additionally, Vandenberghe (1999) states that the OCP should be used across industries in order to further test the OCP's suitability for particular samples. This present research utilized the revised OCP (Sarros et al., 2005) in a new setting and investigated its usefulness in examining organizational culture (see appendix G).

2.5 Organizational Commitment

2.5.1 Defining Organizational Commitment

Organizational commitment has been a very popular construct in the organizational literature due to the powerful implications it has for organizational health. In reviewing the organizational commitment literature, there has been little consensus regarding what the term means. Researchers from various disciplines provide different explanations of organizational commitment as shown in table 2.6.

According to Porter et al. (1974: 604), commitment in the context of an organization is concerned with how strongly a person identifies with and is willing to be involved in a specific organization. Their definition of commitment also includes the following three characteristics: (a) a strong belief in and acceptance of the organization's goals and values; (b) a willingness to exert considerable effort on behalf of the organization; (c) a definite desire to maintain organizational membership. Porter et al. (1974: 606) developed the Organizational Commitment Questionnaire (OCQ) to assist in this process. Mowday et al. (1979: 228) revalidated the instrument and confirmed their definition of organizational commitment using a sample of 2,563 individuals from nine companies with a broad range of jobs. Results indicated that the definition has validity. Using the Porter et al. (1974: 605) definition of commitment and the OCQ, studies have demonstrated the legitimacy of the construct and have begun addressing its antecedents. Steers (1977: 49) used the preceding definition and instrument to investigate the formative processes of commitment in a sample of 382 hospital employees in the Midwest of the United States and 119 scientists and engineers in a major research laboratory. Steers found three categories including: (a) personal characteristics (need for achievement, age, education); (b) job characteristics (task identity, optional interaction, feedback); and (c) work experience (group attitudes, organizational dependability, personal import). Each category had a causal effect on commitment although work experiences appeared to be more important than the others. If work experiences have a cause and effect relationship with commitment, then it is probable that other organizational variables will affect levels of commitment on the part of organizational members.

Table 2.6 Defining Organizational Commitment

Author	Explanation
Buchanan (1974)	A committed employee will emotionally remain devoted to the goals and values of an organization because of their attachment to the organization.
Mowday, Porter and Steers (1979)	The relative strength of an individual's identification with and involvement in a particular organization
O'Reilly and Chatman (1986)	The psychological attachment felt by the person for the organization; it will reflect the degree to which the individual internalizes or adopts characteristics or perspectives of the organization.
Meyer and Allen (1991)	Commitment is the employee's relationship with the organization and the implications for the decision to continue membership in the organization. The attachment to the organization is a result from identification with the attitudes, values, or goals of the organization.
Bishop and Scott (2000)	A multidimensional phenomenon that occurs in the organization, which involves both employee factors and organizational factors.
Bell-Roundtree (2004)	A committed workforce identifies more closely with an organization and is willing to participate with management in improving performance and productivity.

Penley and Gould (1988: 43-59) appear to be the first to have introduced a multidimensional model of commitment, which theorized and tested three dimensions of commitment. The sample of 1,114 subjects was from a range of groups, including employees from a large financial institution and southern municipality to college undergraduates. Penley and Gould confirmed the existence of three components of commitment suggesting that their work provides support for the empirical independence of the three dimensions of organizational commitment. Moral commitment is characterized by the acceptance and identification of organizational goals. Calculative commitment is based on the employee's receiving inducements to match contributions. Alienated commitment emanates from a perceived absence of alternatives. Penley and Gould's multidimensional model of commitment has not had much exposure in the literature. The review of the literature found one other study using their instrument to assess a multidimensional construct of commitment. However, it is foundational for developing an applicable multidimensional model of commitment.

Public administration researchers suggest that organizational commitment is the key to increasing public service motivation and retention of quality employees. They also suggest that more empirical studies on employee commitment are needed to understand its motivational base in public organizations (Liou and Nyhan: 1994, 112). These researchers contend that committed employees are generally believed to take pride in organizational membership and support organizational goals and values (Steinhaus and Perry, 1996: 281).

A major contribution to commitment theory is the work of Meyer and Allen (1991), who articulated a three-component construct of commitment that has received wide attention in the literature. Their model includes affective, continuance, and normative commitment. The authors maintained these as components rather than types of commitment because it is possible for a person to experience all three components to varying degrees. In addition to developing the three-component model of commitment, Meyer and Allen developed and validated an instrument designed to assess an individual's level of commitment.

Meyer and Allen's (1991) three-component approach of commitment has gained particular attention from organizational researchers and is becoming widely

accepted (Culpepper, 2000: 608; Hercovitch and Meyer, 2002: 477). Numerous studies have utilized Meyer and Allen's instrument, and it has proven validity for its psychometric characteristics and demonstrates good internal consistency reliability (Hackett et al., 1994: 18; Sage, 1998: 161). Meyer and Allen (1991) separated commitment into three separate scales, labeled affective commitment, continuance commitment and normative commitment and have developed measurements for all three constructs.

2.5.2 Meyer and Allen's Model of Organizational Commitment

Meyer and Allen (1991) propose a model of organizational commitment composed of three components, including affective commitment, continuance commitment, and normative commitment. The literatures on those three components has been reviewed and summarized below.

2.5.2.1 Affective Commitment

Affective commitment refers to the employee's emotional attachment to, identification with, and involvement in the organization (Meyer and Allen, 1991: 67). Employees with a strong affective commitment continue working with the organization because they want to do so. Affective commitment falls into the following categories: personal characteristics, structural characteristics, and work experience. From reviewing many scholars' work related to these categories, Meyer and Allen found relationships of those variables with commitment. First, regarding personal characteristics, personal dispositions such as need for achievement, affiliation, and autonomy, higher order need strength, personal work ethic, locus of control, and central life interest in work have a correlation with this commitment. Second, regarding structural characteristics, affective commitment is related to decentralization of decision making and formalization of policy and procedure, but mediated by work experiences such as employee/supervisor relations, role clarity, and feeling of personal importance. Third, regarding work experience, affective commitment develops with the results of experiences that satisfy employees' needs and values. Work experience variables could be divided into the need to feel comfortable in the organization and the feelings of competence in the work role. The variables related to affective commitment include confirmation of pre-entry

expectations, equity in reward distribution, organizational dependability, organizational support, role clarity and freedom from conflict, and supervisor consideration, while the competence-related experiences include accomplishment, autonomy, fairness of performance-based rewards, job challenge, job scope, opportunity for advancement, opportunity for self-expression, participation in decision making, and personal importance to the organization.

Empirical evidence shows that affective commitment is strongly related to the results that organizations value the most. So, the management should implement policies which will increase this type of commitment. These policies could be divided into two groups: short-term and long-term policies (Camilleri, 2002: 23-25):

Short-term policies leading to increased affective commitment are:

1) Treating the employee with respect and consideration; employees must feel that they are valued and appreciated,

2) Organizations are to be customer-oriented; employees tend to identify with an organization that respects them as well as its customers,

3) Management must clearly define the job and responsibilities of employees; supervisors must precisely communicate to their employees what has to be done and what their expectations are,

4) Designing stimulating jobs; a task that allows employees to use their skills, professional knowledge and judgment, offers job enrichment and employee autonomy. This significantly contributes to increasing organizational commitment, and,

5) Providing high-quality information to employees about company's plans and activities; this is extremely important during periods when the company is experiencing a crisis since, at that time, employees feel insecure and uncertain about the future.

Long-term polices leading to increased affective commitment are human resource management practices which are valid for a long period of time. These practices are:

1) Recruitment and selection. Recruitment strategies may be designed to influence the desirable type of commitment. Organizations may provide practical job previews that describe both positive and negative aspects of the job. When

organizations provide such information, applicants are better able to determine whether the job will meet their specific needs.

2) Socialization and training. Providing a supportive environment tends to be a very effective strategy for a strong sense of employee commitment. Training, otherwise, might lead to different forms of commitment. Employees that receive training might perceive that the organization values them as individuals and therefore develop stronger affective commitment. The same training could lead to the development of continuance commitment if it provides specific skills which are valuable only to that organization.

3) Assessment and promotion. The perception of fairness in the assessment and promotion process is also very important. Affective commitment is likely to decrease when employees perceive assessment and procedures as unfair.

4) Compensation and benefits. Compensation and benefit packages may be viewed in two different ways. If the employees view a compensation and benefits package from a purely financial viewpoint, then continuance commitment may increase. If however, the employees perceive the organization as one that is fair in rewarding its employees, then affective commitment is likely to increase.

Meyer and Allen (1997: 97) concluded that considerable evidence across various samples and performance indicators suggests that employees with strong affective commitment are valuable to their organizations. These employees tend to have low turnover rate, low voluntary absenteeism, and perform better in-role and extra-role tasks.

2.5.2.2 Continuance Commitment

Continuance commitment refers to an awareness of the costs associated with leaving the organization. Employees whose primary link to the organization is based on continuance commitment remain because they need to do so. The most frequently-studied antecedents have been side bets or investments, and the availability of alternatives. According to Becker's (1960: 35) side-bets theory, an individual is bound to the organization by interests such as pensions and seniority rather than by affective attachment. Side-bet theory suggests that employees feel committed to the organization because it would be too costly to leave. It seems reasonable to assume that continuance commitment will develop as a function of lack of alternative

employment opportunities. Research into continuance commitment suggests that this component of commitment consists of two related subdimensions: personal sacrifice and perceived lack of alternatives (Meyer, Allen and Gellatly, 1990: 714).

Regarding personal sacrifice, the antecedents of continuance commitment include recognition by the employee of organization-relevant investments and perceptions of the labor market. Organization-relevant investments are concerned with organization-based skills, education, and pensions, as well as perceptions of self-investment or the extent to which the employees feel that they had invested themselves in the organization (i.e., time and energy spent). Research suggests that continuance commitment is inversely related to employees' perceptions about the transferability of their skills (Meyer et al., 1990: 716) and their education (Lee, Ashford, Walsh and Mowday, 1992: 29), as well as employee perceptions of other investments such as pension funds, status and job security that employees might lose by leaving the organization (Whitener and Walz, 1993: 277).

A second facet of continuance commitment is the perceived availability of employment alternatives. Antecedents for this subdimension are assessed by asking employees how easily they think they could obtain comparable or better employment in another organization. Several studies have found a negative correlation between continuance commitment and employees' perceptions of alternative employment opportunities (Meyer and Allen, 1991; Lee et al., 1992).

How employees experience job dissatisfaction is related to continuance commitment. Meyer and Allen (1991) found that before an employee decides to leave, there is a period of disenchantment. During this phase, employees may respond to dissatisfaction in three ways: they may express ideas about improvement (voice), they may express a willingness to accept things the way they are (loyalty), or they may withdraw (neglect). Researchers noted that the stronger an individual's continuance commitment, the more likely he or she is to withdraw.

Employees with continuance commitment tend to be the "poorer performers" in their organizations. They stay with the organization not because they are committed but because there is no other choice. Meyer and Allen (1997: 58) recognize that in order for them to be continuance commitment between the employee and organization, the employee must be able to identify alternatives. Studies examining

different types of work sectors have found that government employees have higher levels of continuance commitment than other sectors. Lio (1995: 244) states that facing today's difficult times, many public employees appreciate the relatively secure job situation associated with public employment and consider it a major reason for this organizational commitment.

2.5.2.3 Normative Commitment

The normative component of commitment concerns the employee's belief about his or her responsibility to the organization. Normative commitment has been conceptualized in previous research as the totality of internalized normative pressures to act in a way which meets organizational goals and interests. Employees remain with the organization because they believe it is the right and moral thing to do (Weiner, 1982: 421). Normative commitment is influenced by the individual's experiences prior to and following entry into the organization. The receipt of benefits such as tuition and training also may create within the employee a sense of obligation.

Feelings of obligation are the result of family, cultural, and organizational socialization. Meyer and Allen (1997: 717) suggest that those employees that have been led to believe, via various organizational practices, that the organization expects their loyalty would be most likely to have strong normative commitment. Thus, while an employee's general sense of morality and loyalty develops prior to joining the organizations, organizations may foster feelings of obligation through management of the work environment. Dunham, Grube, and Castaneda (1994: 374) found significant correlations between employees' normative commitment and that of their co-workers. Ashford and Saks (1996: 162) found evidence of a relationship between normative commitment and organizational socialization tactics which focused on providing new employees with institutionalized rather than individualized early work experiences. Meyer and Allen (1997) began to examine normative commitment in their research. They attempted to understand the development of the psychological contract between the employee and the organization. Psychological contracts are the beliefs that a person has about what will be exchanged between them, the employee and the organization, therefore influencing his or her obligation to the organization.

As past research suggests that normative and affective commitment is

positively correlated (Meyer and Allen, 1997: 717; Hackett, Bycio and Hausdorf, 1994: 19; Meyer, Allen and Smith, 1993: 548), it is not surprising that these two components of commitment have common antecedents. Measures of the quality of work experience including job satisfaction are associated with both affective and normative commitment. In addition to work experience, previous research has focused on the extent to which an employee believes that the organization expects loyalty (Meyer et al., 1990: 714) and the employee's general sense of obligation to others (Meyer et al., 1993: 550) as antecedents of normative commitment.

2.5.3 Antecedents of Organizational Commitment

As one begins to examine the antecedents of organizational commitment, it quickly becomes apparent that there exist a lot of variables that have been studied as predictors. One useful way of organizing the antecedent of organizational commitment is by utilizing Meyer and Allen's three-component model of organizational commitment. Just as each of three components of organizational commitment have their own unique and defining characteristics, they also have different configurations of predictors.

A number of important patterns have been found regarding the antecedents of affective commitment. A number of studies have found personal demographics to be antecedents of organizational commitment. Variables such as age and organizational tenure have typically been found to have positive correlations with affective commitment, although these correlations have generally been low. Years of education have also been found to have low correlations with affective commitment, although this relationship has been negative (Meyer et al., 2002: 44).

As affective commitment represents an attachment to an organization based on an employee's values, it has generally been theorized that this component will be predicted by value-related work experiences. More specifically, these variables have often been identified as those that make an employee feel comfortable or competent within the organization, including the degree to which a job challenges the employee, the level of perceived organizational support (Meyer et al., 2002: 45), and the level of perceived justice within an organization (Lambert, Hogan and Jiang, 2008: 478).

One important variable that relates to an employee feeling comfortable within an organization includes job satisfaction. While affective commitment represents individuals' affective feelings toward an organization, job satisfaction refers to individuals' affective feeling toward their specific jobs. Put most simply, job satisfaction is the degree to which individuals like or dislike their jobs (Lambert et al., 2008: 481). Closely related to the concept of job satisfaction is pay and reward satisfaction. Researchers such as Meyer et al. (2002) have found this variable to be moderately correlated with affective commitment.

Another variable that has been identified as an antecedent of affective commitment is involvement in decision-making. A number of studies have found that affective commitment is positively correlated with participative decision-making (Lambert et al., 2008: 484) and negatively correlated with lack of involvement in decision-making (Gilbert and Ivancevich, 1999: 391). Following the logic of affective commitment, it has been theorized that employees' participation in decision- making influences attachment to an organization by increasing a sense of felt responsibility and committed choices (Harrison and Hubbard, 1998: 611).

Employees who rate their boss or work group as supportive and fair also have high levels of affective commitment. Kacmar, Carlson, and Brymer (1999: 987) found that a positive interaction with a supervisor was a strong antecedent to affective commitment. Conversely, when supervisors are perceived as being difficult or difficult to communicate with, there is a decrease in affective commitment.

Affective commitment has also been found to have positive correlations with the ability to build consensus in the organizations strategic decision-making (Carney, 2007: 654), supervisor rating job performance, and organizational citizenship behavior (Meyer et al., 2002: 46).

Continuance commitment can also be predicted by a unique configuration of predictor variables. One group of antecedents of continuance commitment has been identified as alternative and investment variables. Continuance commitment predicts that employees that have greater investments in organizations will experience higher levels of attachment, while employees that have viable alternatives to their current employing organization will have lower levels of attachment. Research has confirmed many of these predictions, and found that continuance commitment has positive

correlations with variables such as retirement benefits (Mayer and Schoorman, 1998: 23), and negative correlations with variables such as opportunities for alternative employment (Meyer, Allen and Gellatly, 1990: 716).

Another set of predictors for continuance commitment includes demographic variables. One demographic predictor is education, which is weakly and negatively correlated with continuance commitment (Mayer and Schoorman, 1998: 68; Sikorska-Simmons, 2005: 202). As education is considered an important component for seeking employment, this negative correlation has been considered to result from employees' higher expectation for alternative job possibilities. In short, more educated people may not remain in particular jobs as long as those with less education because those with more education have more job alternatives.

Other demographic variables such as age and tenure with an organization have been found to have positive correlations with continuance commitment (Mayer and Schoorman, 1998: 68; Meyer et al., 2002: 46). Based on continuance commitment's emphasis on side bets, older employees and employees with more tenure would seem to have accumulated more investment in a firm in the form of pension plans and benefits, thereby establishing greater attachment (Sikorska-Simmons, 2005: 204).

In contrast to the previous two components of organizational commitment, researchers have had a much more difficult time identifying unique predictors of normative commitment. Instead, many of the variables that have been found to be predictors of normative commitment are also predictors of affective and continuance commitment, including both demographic variables and value-related work experiences (Meyer et al., 2002: 47). Lambert et al. (2008: 486) found that variables such as employees' perceived sense of organizational fairness, and employees' ability to contribute to organizational decision-making, were not only correlated with affective commitment but also with normative commitment. Similarly, Meyer et al. (1990: 717) found that each of the predictors of normative commitment in their regression model, including employee's role clarity, goal clarity, and residence in the local community, was also a significant predictors of affective commitment. Meyer et al.'s (2002)meta-analysis found that many variables such as job and satisfaction were positively correlated with normative commitment, although with less strength than was experienced with affective commitment.

2.6 Relationship between Organizational Culture and Commitment

Researchers find that organizational culture and commitment are closely related. Norms, symbols, values, beliefs, and basic assumptions shape commitment. Peterson and Martin in their study (cited in Shaw and Reyes, 1992: 299) proposed that elements of culture are related to the degree of commitment. The significance of this relationship may be shown analysis of the commitment to an organization.

Certain types of individuals are drawn to certain types of organizations that have values similar to their own (Wilkins and Ouchi, 1983: 471). These values are reinforced as new entrants are assimilated and socialized. Culture is also seen as a control mechanism to create organizational commitment (Sackmann, 1991: 145). Wilkins and Ouchi (1983: 476) stated that organizations with richer and stronger cultures have employees that are more committed to the organization (cited by Cameron and Ettington, 1988: 392).

Both Deal and Kennedy (2000: 257) and Peters and Waterman (2004: 283) suggest that organizational culture exerts a considerable influence in organizations, particularly in areas such as performance and commitment. Organizational commitment begins with a strong belief in the acceptance of the organization's goals and values (culture) (Porter et al., 1974: 606). Odom, Boxx and Dunn (1990:164); Quinn and Spreitzer (1991: 137), and Cameron and Freeman (1991: 48) have reported findings that organizational culture characterized as people-oriented, supportive, and personal were associated with positive organizational commitment. Odom et al. (1990: 166) found that the bureaucratic nature of the work environment neither improves nor distracts from an employee's commitment. They also suggested that innovation-oriented cultures might be associated with similar positive organizational commitment. In addition, they found that employees that work in a supportive environment have a greater level of organizational commitment. They proposed that removing bureaucratic barriers may contribute to creating commitment, whereas significant improvement will occur only if positive action is taken to increase supportive and innovative culture (Chen, 2004: 436).

In another important study, Caldwell et al. (1990: 652) used the OCQ to investigate 291 respondents from 45 firms and demonstrated that socialization

practices which emphasize strong organizational value systems are positively related to organizational commitment. This is an important finding in the effort to understand the culture and commitment connection since values are a key component of organizational culture (Schein, 2010: 38).

Chieffo (1991: 20) had another view in studying community colleges administrators that are committed and have a shared vision will make valuable contributions. Presidents need to build higher levels of commitment and satisfaction. This is done by motivation and through vision and organizational culture. It is predicted that individuals that are highly committed to an organization's goals and are willing to devote a great deal of energy toward those ends would be inclined to remain with the organization in an effort to assist in the realization of such highly-valued objectives.

A study of 387 public transportation employees (Boxx, Odom and Dunn, 1991: 204) found that commitment would be enhanced if the agencies adhered to the organizational values identified as being related to performance and excellence in the marketplace. These values include such things as superior quality and service, being the best innovation, the importance of people as individuals, the importance of the details of execution, the importance of informality to enhance communication, and the importance of profit orientation and goal accomplishment. In addition, Boxx et al., 1991) found that the more employees believed these excellence criteria to be in place and a part of their culture, the more they were satisfied and had greater levels of commitment.

Empirical studies have found that affective commitment is more prevalent than continuance commitment among public employees (Liou, 1994: 114), which suggests that among public sector employees, intrinsic rewards and identification with organizational mission and values are more important than extrinsic and material rewards (i.e., pay satisfaction and advancement opportunities).

Kalliath et al. (1999: 1182) used Quinn and Spreitzer's (1991) competing values instrument and Mowday et al.'s (1979) OCQ to examine both main effects and value congruence effects on organizational commitment. They used hierarchical, polynomial regression to test the hypotheses and found that the main effects were powerful, but that congruence effects were largely absent. The main effects for

internal process, open systems, human relations, and rational goal values were strong (p<.01) both when the person held the values and when the person perceived that the organization reflected those values.

Finegan (2000) examined both the interaction effect between person and organizational values and the direct effects of each on the organizational commitment of 121 employees of a petrochemical plant. She used Meyer et al.'s (1993) affective, normative, and continuance commitment scales, and McDonald and Grandz's (1991,1992) 24-value taxonomy. In her hierarchical multiple regression analysis, Finegan controlled for the direct effects of personal and organizational values, then entered the interaction and squared personal and organizational values terms, allowing for the possibility of curvilinear relationships. In this individual-level analysis, organizational values were represented by the individual's perceptions of the organization's values, as opposed to the cross-level approach advocated by Chatman (1989) and her colleagues (O'Reilly et al., 1991).

Finegan (2000) discovered some interesting three-dimensional relationships. Individual values did not directly affect affective organizational commitment, but two organizational values did. When individuals perceived humanity or vision factors as being characteristic of the organization, their affective commitment was higher. When the interaction term was added, significant incremental variance in affective commitment was explained by the similarity between individual and organizational values.

Finegan (2000) found that humanity and vision factors also produced positive main effects on normative commitment. Additionally, the individuals that highly valued "obedience, cautiousness and formality" were highly normatively committed, and when individuals perceived that the organization either highly valued or did not value at all obedience, cautiousness, or formality, they were less normatively committed.

Humanity and vision factors did not produce main effects on continuance commitment, but when individuals perceived that the organization highly valued obedience, cautiousness and formality, they were highly continuatively committed, and when individuals perceived that the organization highly valued a "bottom line,"

they were highly continuatively committed. The bottom line factor did not significantly affect affective or normative commitment.

Goodman, Zammuto, and Gifford (2001: 62-69) used the competing values framework to examine the affects of particular corporate culture orientations on organizational commitment. They found that "group" cultures, which were primarily concerned with human relations, were positively related to affective organizational commitment, whereas "hierarchical" cultures, which emphasized formal coordination, centralization, stability, and control, were inversely related to affective commitment. They did not find statistically significant relationships among organizational commitment and "rational" (efficiency oriented) or "developmental" (growth/adaptability oriented) culture.

Silverthorne (2004: 592-599) studied the impact of organizational culture on organizational commitment and job satisfaction in Taiwan. She operationalized the constructs using: 1) Wallach's (1983) OCI for organizational culture; 2) Mowday et al.'s (1979) OCQ for organizational commitment; and 3) the Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire (Weiss, Davis, England, and Lofquist, 1967) for job satisfaction. Based on a sample of 360 corporate employees (120 at each of three companies), Silverthorne found that the organization dominated by a bureaucratic organizational culture showed the lowest level of organizational commitment, an innovative culture reflected a middle level of commitment, and a supportive culture showed the highest level of organizational commitment. The one-way analysis of variance and post hoc t tests indicated that all of the differences among organizational cultures were statistically significant with respect to organizational commitment.

2.7 Model of the Study

This study integrates the conceptual model based on the Competing Values Framework (Cameron and Quinn, 1999), Organizational Culture Profile (O'Reilly et al., 1991 and Sarros et al., 2005), and Organizational Commitment (Meyer and Allen, 1991). The independent variables in the models of study comprise organizational culture and personal demographics, while the dependent variable is organizational commitment. The Competing Values Framework is used to assess the culture types and strengths including clan culture, adhocracy culture, market culture and hierarchy culture. Organizational Culture Profile is used to determine the perceptions of public employees toward the values of the organization in terms of competitiveness, social responsibility, supportiveness, innovation, emphasis on rewards, performance orientation, and stability. Organizational commitment is assessed according three aspects, including affective commitment, continuance commitment, and normative commitment. The model is proposed in Figure 2.4.

Independent Variable:

Organizational culture

Dependent Variable:

Organizational Commitment

Competing Values Framework

- Clan culture
- Adhocracy culture
- Market culture
- Hierarchy culture

Organizational Culture Profile
- Competitiveness
- Social Responsibility
- Supportiveness
- Innovation
- Emphasis on Rewards
- Performance Orientation
- Stability

Organizational Commitment

- Affective
- Commitment

- Continuance
  Commitment

- Normative

- Commitment

Demographic Variables

┈┈┈┈▶ Not the primary focus of the study

Figure 2.4 The Model of Organizational Culture and Commitment to the Ministry of
Public Health

CHAPTER 3

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

The purpose of this study was to investigate the relationships that existed between organizational culture and commitment for the respondents working for the Ministry of Public Health under the central administration in Thailand. The chapter discussed the research methodologies that were used to analyze both organizational culture and commitment. The research designs and sample frames were described, along with the instrumentation used to measure and analyze the data. The data collection procedures were presented, followed by the data analysis plan. This was a quantitative study using a survey as the method of data collection. Thus this chapter also described the reliability and validity associated with the pretest instruments.

3.1 Population and Sample

3.1.1 Population

There was a total of 209,921 full-time members including civil servants, state employees, and permanent employees employed by the Ministry of Public Health (MOPH, 2011). Due to the number of the employees, the target population for this survey only comprised of 34,705 employees working under the central administration as they were influenced directly by the organizational culture. There were nine departments in the MOPH, including the Office of the Permanent Secretary, the Department of Medical Service, the Department of Thai Traditional and Alternative Medicine Development, the Department of Mental Health, the Department of Disease Control, the Department of Health, the Department of Health Service Support, the Department of Medical Sciences, and the Food and Drug Administration (see appendix B). The Department of Thai Traditional and Alternative Medicine Development was excluded from the study as it is a new department and in the process of restructuring its organization. The employees were divided into two

groups- those working as service agents providing service directly to the public and policy agents whose responsibilities were concerned with policy and planning-related issues. The employees working under the Office of the Permanent Secretary were classified as policy agents. The policy agents also included those working under planning division of each department. The total numbers of possible participants were 34,705 (see appendix D), Of which amount, 71 percent were service agents and 29 percent was policy agents.

3.1.2 Samples

The samples were drawn from the population of service agents and policy agents. In order to achieve adequate statistical power for the study, Krejcie and Morgan's table for determining sample size was used. According to the table, a total population of approximately 40,000 should have a sample size of 380. In order to increase a higher degree of representation, the researcher assigned 690 samples to this study. A proportion method was used to divide 490 samples into service agents and 200 samples into policy agents (see appendix E).

The multistage sampling methodology was implemented to draw 490 samples from individual departments to represent the service agents. First, the stratified sampling method was used to ensure that the subgroups or departments within the sampling frame adequately represented the population (Ary, Jacobs, Razavieh, and Sorensen, 2009: 151). Second, random sampling was applied because each division in the population had an equal probability of being selected (Creswell, 2009: 154). Numbers were assigned to each division in an individual department. Due to time constraints, only one division from each department was selected. Third, the convenience sampling method was used to select the individual respondents to participate in the survey as it would have been difficult to obtain the names of all employees in order to choose every nth respondent to do the survey.

In order to draw 200 samples from the policy agents, the stratified sampling method was used to ensure that the subgroups within the sampling frame adequately represented to the population. The convenience sampling method was used to select the individual respondents to participate in the survey.

This sample was limited to employees that had been working at the MOPH for one year or more as they were more familiar with the culture. The sampling frame is shown in appendix E.

3.2 Measurement and Instrumentation

Four instruments were selected to collect the data from the sample with regard to Demographics, Organizational Culture Assessment Instrument (OCAI), Organizational Culture Profile (OCP) and Organizational Commitment. All instruments were translated to the Thai language to ensure clarity of understanding of the sample. These four instruments are described as follows:

Table 3.1 The Purpose, Items and Dimensions of Each Instrument

Section	Instrument and Dimensions	Item and Scoring Key	Purpose
I	Demographics	8 items	To know the respondents' profile
II	OCAI	24 items	To test the current
	• Clan	6 (1a, 2a, 3a, 4a, 5a, 6a)	and preferred type of
	• Adhocracy	6 (1b, 2b, 3b, 4b, 5b, 6b)	organizational culture
	• Market	6 (1c, 2c, 3c, 4c, 5c, 6c)	
	• Hierarchy	6 (1d, 2d, 3d, 4d, 5d, 6d)	
III	OCP	28 items	To test the
	• Competitiveness	4 (7, 13, 15, 20)	employees' perceived
	• Social Responsibility	4 (6, 16, 19, 23)	organizational culture
	• Supportiveness	4 (2, 17, 21, 26)	
	• Innovation	4 (3, 8, 14, 28)	
	• Emphasis on Rewards	4 (4, 10, 25, 27)	
	• Performance Orientation	4 (9, 12, 18, 22)	
	• Stability	4 (1, 5, 11, 24)	
IV	Organizational Commitment	18 items	To test the
	• Affective	6 (1, 2, 3, 4R, 5, 6)	employees' level of
	• Continuance	6 (7, 8, 9, 10, 11, 12)	commitment
	• Normative	6 (13R, 14, 15, 16, 17, 18)	

Note: R = reverse scored questions

3.2.1 Demographics

There were eight questions asked of the respondents and which required them to provide information on their gender, age, education level, marital status, employment status, length of employment in the department, management position and time spent at the current position.

Although these variables could also be considered independent, they were not of primary interest in this study and thus were better used to control extraneous variance in the dependent variables.

3.2.2 Organizational culture

Keyton (2010: 172) states there are two ways to study organizational culture quantitatively. One way is by using survey instruments that classify an organization into a culture type. The other option is by using multiple dimensions to measure culture. This study used the Competing Values Framework to determine culture type and the Organizational Culture Profile to measure the cultural dimensions.

Competing Values Framework: The OCAI was researched and developed by Cameron and Quinn (1999) to diagnose an organization's culture type. It first aimed at identifying the MOPH's current culture, and then determining the preferred organizational culture types as viewed by the respondents from the MOPH. The OCAI used six categories as shown in appendix F to measure organizational culture: 1) dominant characteristics, 2) organizational leadership, 3) management of employees, 4) organizational glue, 5) strategic emphases, and 6) criteria of success. Each category had four alternatives including clan, adhocracy, market, and hierarchy culture. In order to complete the OCAI, individuals had to divide the 100 points among the four alternatives. An alternative that was most similar to the organization would receive the highest number of points. For instance, if description A was very similar to their organization and B was somewhat similar, but C and D were not, description A could be given 80 points, B would be given 20 points, and C and D would each have 0 points. The description for A was the clan culture type, B was the adhocracy type, C was the market type, and D description was the hierarchy type.

The points for A, B, C, and D were totaled for the four different categories and divided by four, resulting in a mean score. The institution type with the highest mean

score would be the culture type perceived or preferred by the respondent. For instance, A could have a mean score of 70, B could have 20, C could have 10, and D could have 0. The culture type perceived by the respondent would be A, which is the clan culture type.

It was noted if an individual had two culture types for the highest mean score resulting in a dual culture. An example of this would be if A had 40, B had 40, C had 15, and D had 5. This tie resulted in a dual culture of A/B or a Clan/Adhocracy culture type (Cameron and Quinn, 1999: 62-63).

Organizational Culture Profile (OCP): The OCP was used to determine the dominant organizational cultural values as perceived by the respondents of the MOPH. The version utilized in the current study consisted of 28 value statements (see appendix G) that represented seven key dimensions of organizational culture: competitiveness, social responsibility, supportiveness, innovation, emphasis on rewards, performance orientation, and stability (Sarros et al., 2005: 167). Participants were asked to indicate the extent to which they perceived the characteristic of each organizational culture item of their department and its value. A five-point Likert-type scale was used to assess how the participant's organization was perceived to be similar to the questions, where 1 was "strongly disagree," 2 was "disagree," 3 was "neither agree nor disagree," 4 is "agree," and 5 is "strongly agree."

3.2.3 Organizational Commitment

Meyer and Allen (1991) described commitment as the extent to which a person identified him/herself with a certain organization. Their definition included affective commitment, continuance commitment and normative commitment. Though these three variables tended to be somewhat intercorrelated, they were conceptually different, and they have been treated separately in over 150 previous empirical studies (Meyer et al., 2002: 33). Therefore, the measurement of organizational continuance commitment and normative commitment in this study was based on the instrument proposed by Meyer and Allen's revised version in 1997. The researcher developed five organizational affective commitment items in order to meet the specific needs of the study and one remaining item from Meyer and Allen's, which was "I would be very happy to spend the rest of my career in this organization" (see apendix H). Thus,

each dimension of commitment was measured by a series of six questions requiring responses on a 5-point Likert scale ranging from 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree). The six item scores for each dimension were averaged for each respondent in order to derive the final scores for the three dimensions of commitment.

3.3 Validity and Reliability

3.3.1 Validity

The content validity of measurement in this study was reviewed by scholars in the field. As the scales utilized in the literature were all in English, they needed to be translated into the Thai language for use in this study. The translation was undertaken with caution, with the assistance of a professional translator to ensure that all questions carried the same meanings as intended. In order to ensure construct validity, all scales were processed through factor analysis for validity testing purposes. Factor analysis using principal component extraction and Varimax rotation sorting for higher score order was undertaken.

3.3.2 Reliability

In order to ensure the reliability of the measurement instruments, reliability was obtained by the Statistical Package for Social Sciences to analyze the data on the proposed scales. The coefficient was calculated by using Cronbach's alpha internal consistency method. Thus, a coefficient of internal consistency was calculated for each of the individual variables of the framework in the proposed model.

3.4 Pretesting

A pretest was carried out to evaluate the survey. According to Fowler (2008: 43), the sample size for the pretest is generally in the range of twenty-five to thirty respondents. Thirty-two respondents participated in the pretest with twenty-nine questionnaires returned.

The acceptability of the coefficient alpha should be 0.7 and reliabilities are considered unacceptable if they are less than 0.4 (Houser, 2011: 263). Thus, the

results of all of the variables in this study were considered acceptable, as shown in appendix I. The Cronbach's alpha values of the three variables (competitiveness, performance orientation, and stability) in the OCP had a possibility of being increased. If item 20, "Being competitive," was deleted, the Cronbach's alpha of the "Competitiveness" variable increased to .6753. If item 22, "Being highly organized," was deleted, the Cronbach's alpha of the "Performance Orientation" variable increased to .8821. If item 1, "Stability," and 5, "Being calm," were deleted, the Cronbach's alpha of the "Stability" variables increased to .7915 (see appendix I).

There were some remaining variables that had a Cronbach alpha below 0.7, but they were not deleted. The reason was due to too small a sample size for the pretest and/or the translation of those variables was unclear. One scholar was asked to review the translation of the items in the "Market" variable. The translation of some of the items was changed in order to clarify their meaning.

The OCP instrument was rearranged as there were four items deleted (see appendix J). Table 3.2 shows the scoring keys of an individual dimension.

Table 3.2 Scoring Key for the OCP Dimension

Dimension	No. of Item	Scoring key
Competitiveness	3	5, 11, 13
Social Responsibility	4	4, 14, 17, 19
Supportiveness	4	1, 15, 18, 22
Innovation	4	2, 6, 12, 24
Emphasis on Rewards	4	3, 8, 21, 23
Performance Orientation	3	7, 10, 16
Stability	2	9, 20
Total	24	

Once the reliability of the pretest scales was determined, the validity of the pretest scales was examined. Content validity and construct validity were important for this study.

Content validity was a rational judgment on the part of the researcher. It referred to whether the scales contained items that were adequate to measure what they were intended to measure. In the pretest, all of the constructs measured on the scales were considered to have content validity, since all of the measurement items were selected from the existing literature after an exhaustive review.

Construct validity referred to whether an item measured the construct that it was designed to measure. Factor analysis was considered to examine the construct validity of the pretest scale. However, a factor analysis is normally used for a large sample procedure. The minimally-adequate sample size is 100 (Hatcher and Stepanski, 1994: 239). The small pretest data set was not given a conclusive result. Therefore, factor analysis was not done in the pretest.

3.5 Data Collection and Analysis

According to Sekaran and Bougie (2010: 184), the data collection methods are an integral part of research design. There are several data collection methods, each with its own advantages and disadvantages. The data collection strategy used in this study was the self-administered questionnaire method. Prior to the initiation of data collection, approval of the study was gained from the Permanent Secretary and approval letters were sent to the selected division heads. Arrangements were made with each division to begin administering the survey.

At the data-gathering session, the researcher began by ascertaining whether all participants were voluntary and willing to participate. The completed surveys were gathered through in-person administration by the researcher's assistant. The survey took approximately 15 minutes to complete.

Various forms of data analysis were implemented using the quantitative method. The independent and dependent variables in the questionnaire were defined and standardized through Statistical Package for Social Sciences. Data were processed through editing, coding, and tabulation before analysis.

This study was analyzed using descriptive and inferential statistics techniques. Descriptive statistics were computed for the demographic data, 24 items for the OCP, 18 items for commitment, and the OCAI. Additionally, the descriptive statistics computed for the OCAI instrument allowed the researcher to determine the organizational culture type profile for each item on the OCAI, for the overall perceived current status of the OCAI, and for the overall preferred status of the OCAI in order to answer research question one. Cameron and Quinn (1999: 70) note that such information may be important for observing the emergence of trends. The culture-type strength from the OCAI was also reported; less than a five point difference from the nearest culture type was weak, a 5-10 point difference from the nearest culture type was moderate, and more than a 10 point difference from nearest culture type was strong.

Analysis of variance (ANOVA) was used to determine whether there were any differences between service agent employees and policy agent employees regarding the variables in answering question two, three and five. Question four was tested using Pearson Correlation.

Stepwise regression analysis was used to determine the relationships between organizational culture and commitment for the sixth research question. Demographic variables were included in the analysis, as it was anticipated that they may provide additional interesting information.

CHAPTER 4

RESULTS OF THE STUDY

The purpose of this study was to determine and analyze the relationship of organizational culture and commitment regarding the respondents' work for the Ministry of Public Health under the central administration by comparing service agents and policy agents.

The chapter presented the results in five sections. The first section reported the response rate. The second section provided descriptive data about the respondents' characteristics. The third section indicated validity and reliability. The fourth section depicted the revised model of the study. The final section presents the results of the analysis to answer the research questions. For ease of identification, the variable names were classified as pronouns and abbreviations were used.

4.1 Response Rate

The study was conducted at the MOPH. Surveys were given to 690 public employees, of which amount, 490 surveys were distributed to service agents working in seven departments and 200 surveys to policy agents working in eight departments. Total returned survey was 509 or a 73.8% return rate. The returned rate from service agents and policy agents was 76% and 68% respectively (see appendix K).

The survey consisted of four sections. Section one asked for demographic information. Section two determined the culture type at the MOPH as the perceived and preferred culture type of the respondents. Section three was the culture perceivedmeasured into the dimensions of the OCP. Section four was the organizational commitment questionnaire that determined each individual's level of commitment. One hundred thirteen surveys were returned blank and sixty-eight surveys were eliminated. Different situations led to the elimination of the sixty-eight

surveys. Forty- two did not complete section two and eight did not complete section four. Eighteen left section two and/or section three blank.

4.2 Characteristics of Respondent Group

The results of the entire samples as indicated in Table 4.1 showed that eighty percent of the respondents were female. There were a few more females for service agents and a few more males for policy agents. In terms of age, the majority of respondents (52%) were within the 40-59 age range with an average age and standard deviation of 40 and 9.7. The youngest in the sample was 22 and the oldest was 59. Service agents and policy agents had no differences in average age or standard deviation.

The majority of respondent's level of education was a bachelor's degree (57.4%). Education attainment of policy agents was considerably higher than that of service agents, About 90% of the policy agent respondents had bachelor degree or higher, while only 80% of service agents had a bachelor degree.

Single participants comprised 53 percent and married participants comprised 43 percent of the responders. The remainder was comprised of separated, widowed, or divorced participants. Service agent respondents and policy agent respondents had quite a similar distribution.

The majority distribution of respondents by employment status was civil official (74%). Service agents were comprised of a few more permanent employees, while policy agents were comprised of a few more state employees.

With respect to time spent at the MOPH, the findings indicated that about 60% had over 10 years of experience. The average time was 13.6, with a standard deviation of 10.1. The minimum time was one year and the longest time spent was 39 years. On average, the respondents from the service agent groups had spent more time at the MOPH than policy agents- 14 years with a standard deviation of 10 for service agents and 12 years with a standard deviation of 9.3 for policy agents.

In terms of managerial position, 20.8% of the entire sample reported that they held a managerial position. A few more service agents reported holding a managerial position compared with policy agents

With respect to the period of working at their current position, 63% of the respondents worked more than 5 years. The average time was 9.9 years, with a standard deviation of 8.7. The minimum time was one year and the longest time spent was 39 years. The same was true for agents as well.

4.3 Validity and Reliability of the Study

4.3.1 Validity

Validity was defined as the best available approximation of the truth of a given proposition, inference, or conclusion. Other descriptions included the extent to which the instrument measured what it was supposed to measure (Leedy and Ormrod, 2009: 42). As mentioned by Hair, Black, Babin and Anderson (2010: 64), the scales must be tested for content validity before any further validation is undertaken. Content validity was addressed before the survey was administered. All the measurement items were selected from the existing literature after an exhaustive review. Academicians, practitioners, and advisors were asked to review the items. Their comments were then considered and incorporated into the survey instrument.

Table 4.1 Demographic Variables for Samples of the MOPH Service Agents and Policy Agents

Demographic Variables	Service Agents (N = 374)		Policy Agents (N = 135)		Combined (N = 509)	
	Number	%	Number	%	Number	%
Gender:						
Male	68	18.2	31	23.0	99	19.4
Female	306	81.8	104	77.0	410	80.6
Age:						
Below 30 yrs. old	68	18.2	18	13.3	86	16.9
30 – 39 yrs. old	109	29.1	47	34.8	156	30.6
40 – 49 yrs. old	112	29.9	40	29.6	152	29.9
50 – 59 yrs. old	85	22.7	30	22.2	115	22.6
Education:						
< Bachelor degree	76	20.3	14	10.4	90	17.7
Bachelor degree	215	57.5	77	57.0	292	57.4
Master degree or higher	83	22.2	44	32.6	127	25.0
Marital status:						
Single	199	53.2	70	51.9	269	52.8
Married	158	42.2	62	45.9	220	43.2
Other	17	4.5	3	2.2	20	3.9
Employment status:						
Civil official	273	73.0	102	75.6	375	73.7
State employee	33	8.8	14	10.4	47	9.2
Permanent employee	68	182	19	14.1	87	17.1
Time spent at MOPH:						
< 10 yrs.	145	38.8	61	45.2	206	40.5
10 -19 yrs.	99	26.5	37	27.4	136	26.7
20 yrs. or above	130	34.8	37	27.4	167	32.8
Management position:						
Yes	84	22.5	22	16.3	106	20.8
No	290	77.5	113	83.7	392	79.2
Time spent at this position:						
< 5 yrs.						
5 – 9 yrs.	142	38.0	47	34.8	189	37.1
10 yrs. or above	70	18.7	30	22.2	100	19.6
	162	43.3	58	43.0	220	43.2

Construct validity is the degree to which a measure is tied to concepts and theoretical assumptions. There are several different types of validity. The two validity types used to validate the OCAI were convergent validity and discriminant validity. Convergent validity is the degree to which the operationalizaton is similar to other operationalizations to which it should be theoretically similar. Discriminant validity is the degree to which concepts that should not be related theoretically are not interrelated in reality (Donnelly and Trochim, 2007: 301). Testing for convergent and discriminant validity was conducted using a multitrait, multimethod analysis and multidimensional scaling analysis (Cameron and Quinn, 1999: 142). Two different instruments were used to assess the organizational culture (i.e. the OCAI and a Likert-type sacle). The objective of the analysis was to determine if the variance between the four culture types exceeded the variance between the two instruments. Significantly different correlation coefficients in the same culture quadrants indicated evidence of validity. According to Cameron and Quinn (1999: 142), the correlation coefficients were statistically different from zero and ranged between 0.212 and 0.515. Several tests were performed to demonstrate discriminant validity. In one test, the scales in the same culture quadrant were evaluated to see if the correlation was higher than with scales of different culture quadrants measured using different instruments. Several other tests were performed yielding a Kendall coefficient of concordance of 0.764 (p < .001), indicative of strong support for discriminant validity (Cameron and Quinn, 1999: 142). As of 2010, more than 4,800 public and private organizations have used the OCAI to identify, assess, and change their organizational culture.

Factor analysis is a statistical technique which provides a means of condensing the information contained in a number of original variables into a smaller set of variables (i.e., factors) with a minimal loss of information. The results of a factor analysis reveal a number of factors and corresponding factor loadings for each variable. Ideally, each variable should load on only one factor, indicating that the variable makes a significant contribution to the factor. Factor analysis was done with the OCP and commitment variables. For this study, principal components were selected for analysis. A factor matrix was produced that was used to distinguish the specific factor loadings for each construct. Hair et al. (2010: 117) state that factor loadings greater than 0.3 are considered necessary to meet the minimal level; loadings

of 0.4 are considered more important; and if the loadings are 0.5 or greater, they are considered practically significant. As a result, throughout this analysis, validity values less than 0.3 were eliminated. An appropriate rotation was investigated that yielded more easily interpretable factors. Varimax rotation was used since it maximizes the sum of the variance of the loading vectors.

A common method is to rotate all factors with an Eigenvalue greater than 1. The Eigenvalue for a factor represents an estimate of the variance associated with a factor. An Eigenvalue of 1 indicates that there is variance associated with the factor equal to that potentially generated by a single variable across all factors. The higher the Eigenvalue, the more likely the factor represents common rather than specific variance (Hair et al., 2010: 109).

The Organizational Culture Profile (OCP) was utilized to measure respondents' perceptions of core cultural values. The OCP revised version (Sarros et al., 2002) was utilized in the current study. As described in Chapter 3, participants in the current study reported their perceptions of organizational values according to seven dimensions of organizational culture (competitiveness, social responsibility, supportiveness, innovation, rewards, performance and stability).

Exploratory factor analysis was employed as a variable reduction technique to identify the latent constructs and underlying factor structure of the 24 items (see appendix J) of the OCP and to report on the consistency of using the revised OCP in the MOPH setting. This type of factor analysis of the profiles of the MOPH was also used to examine the dimensionality of the revised OCP by exploring the possible underlying factor structure.

The results of the exploratory factor analysis are presented in appendix L. The exploratory factor analysis utilized a Varimax rotation method with Kaiser Normalization and converged into 15 iterations. Analysis of the 24 OCP items revealed that all items had factor loadings greater than 0.40. A minimum Eigenvalues of one was established as an initial cut off. Following a varimax rotation with a Kaiser normalization of .945, the exploratory factor analysis indicated that a pattern emerged showing that the items as scored by respondents could be characterized by only three factors. These factors were rewards (Eigenvalue = 9.831, variance explained = 40.961), innovation (Eigenvalue = 1.438, variance explained = 5.991), and

performance (Eigenvalue = 1.122, variance explained = 4.676). These three factors accounted for 51.62% of the variance in how organizational core cultural values were interpreted.

The results of the exploratory factor analysis for organizational commitment are presented in appendix M. The goal was to look at a new set of values to see if the results after the rotation made it easier to interpret public employees' commitment. The exploratory factor analysis indicated that there were three factors. They were affective commitment (Eigenvalue = 4.547, variance explained = 25.263), continuance commitment (Eigenvalue = 3.476, variance explained = 19.311), and normative commitment (Eigenvalue = 1.346, variance explained = 7.477). These three factors accounted for 52.05% of the variance in how organizational commitment was interpreted.

4.3.2 Reliability

Cronbach's alpha coefficient was calculated for all of the variables of service agents, policy agents, and combined samples. The acceptability coefficient alpha should be 0.7 and reliabilities were considered unacceptable if they were less than 0.4 (Houser, 2011: 443). Thus, the results of this study were considered acceptable. Internal consistency reliability was assessed for each item of the subscales of organizational culture assessment instrument (OCAI), organizational culture profile (OCP) and organizational commitment, as shown in Table 4.2. As to the entire samples, the Cronbach alpha coefficient for each dimension was explained as follows: as to OCAI, the reliability of the current culture type was .73 clan, .72 adhocracy, .75 market and .83 hierarchy. The reliability of the preferred culture type was .71 clan, .74 adhocracy, .74 market and .81 hierarchy. As to the OCP scale, the subscale of rewards had an alpha of .90, innovation had an alpha of .83, and performance had an alpha of .73. As to organizational commitment, the Cronbach alpha for the AC, CC, and NC was .79, .83, and .76 respectively.

Table 4.2 Results of Reliability Analysis for Scale

Scale/ Subscale	Cronbach's Alpha Coefficient		
	Service Agents	Policy Agents	Combined
OCAI: Current			
Clan Culture	.78	.71	.73
Adhocracy Culture	.64	.77	.72
Market Culture	.78	.67	.75
Hierarchy Culture	.87	.76	.83
OCAI: Preferred			
Clan Culture	.73	.61	.71
Adhocracy Culture	.68	.77	.74
Market Culture	.75	.72	.74
Hierarchy Culture	.82	.71	.81
OCP:	.93	.94	.94
Rewards	.90	.89	.90
Innovation	.82	.86	.83
Performance	.71	.77	.73
Organizational Commitment:	.77	.80	.79
Affective commitment	.79	.76	.79
Continuance commitment	.83	.86	.83
Normative commitment	.74	.82	.76

4.4 Revised Model of the Study

The data obtained from the respondents to the questionnaire were processed through the quantitative technique using factor analysis to rearrange the scales in the context of public organization in the proposed model in chapter two. The revised model is depicted in Figure 4.1.

Independent Variable: **Dependent Variable:**

Organizational culture   Organizational Commitment

Competing Values Framework

- Clan culture
- Adhocracy culture
- Market culture
- Hierarchy culture

Organizational Commitment

- Affective Commitment

- Continuance Commitment

- Normative Commitment

Organizational Culture Profile
- Rewards
- Innovation
- Performance Orientation

Demographic Variables

⋯⋯⋯► Not the primary focus of the study

Figure 4.1 The Revised Model of Organizational Culture and Commitment to the
                    Ministry of Public Health

4.5 Results of Research Questions

This section discusses the steps undertaken to address each research question, including: 1) What is the dominance of the current and preferred culture type?; 2) What is the organizational commitment level and are there any significant differences in organizational commitment between service agents and policy agents?; 3) Are there

any significant differences in the perceptions of current culture types of the CVF with respect to organizational commitment?; 4) Are there any relationships in the perceptions of organizational culture type towards the dimensions of the Organizational Culture Profile (OCP)?; 5) What is the perception of organizational culture under the OCP and are there any significant differences in the organizational culture profile between service agents and policy agents?; 6) To what degree is the organizational culture of the OCAI, OCP and control variables related to organizational commitment?

4.5.1 Research question 1 asked, What is the dominance of current and preferred culture types?

The organizational culture type of perceptions and preferences collected from the OCAI instrument allowed for the creation of culture profiles. The current study focused on reporting the dominant culture type and strength of the dominant culture type for both current and preferred culture. The dominance culture type was reported as the culture type with the highest OCAI score (Cameron and Quinn, 2011: 70). The strength of the dominant culture type has traditionally been reported by comparing OCAI culture scores and noting point differentials. Cameron and Quinn (2011: 71) suggested looking for differences of ten points or more to denote strong variability in culture types.

Table 4.3 showed the results of the OCAI with respect to the samples from combined agents, service agents, and policy agents. The OCAI scores were reported as means ± SD for current and preferred culture types reflective of overall organizational culture types (clan, adhocracy, market, or hierarchy).

Table 4.3 Mean and Standard Deviation of OCAI Scores by Culture Type

Dimension	Current	Preferred	t value
Combined:			
Clan	24.71 ± 5.11	**28.39 ± 4.66**	13.59*
Adhocracy	23.27 ± 3.26	25.59 ± 2.74	13.63*
Market	25.00 ± 4.01	23.12 ± 3.18	-9.17*
Hierarchy	**26.99 ± 5.22**	23.26 ± 3.84	-13.31*
Service Agents:			
Clan	24.84 ± 5.41	**28.61 ± 4.83**	11.11*
Adhocracy	23.21 ± 3.27	24.98 ± 3.16	11.03*
Market	24.93 ± 4.30	22.91 ± 3.20	-8.06*
Hierarchy	**26.99 ± 5.42**	23.52 ± 3.99	-10.17*
Policy Agents:			
Clan	24.34 ± 4.13	**27.79 ± 4.11**	8.59*
Adhocracy	23.44 ± 3.23	26.02 ± 2.79	8.21*
Market	25.19 ± 3.08	23.70 ± 3.04	-4.39*
Hierarchy	**26.98 ± 4.64**	22.53 ± 3.28	-9.47*

Note: * Significant at .05

As indicated in Table 4.3, the current dominant culture type for the entire samples was hierarchy for current (26.99) and clan for preferred (28.39) conditions. The strength of this dominant hierarchy culture in the current condition was fairly weak, as it was different from the nearest market culture (25.00) by only 1.99 points (Culture type strength: < 5 point difference from nearest culture type = weak, 5-10 point difference from nearest culture type = moderate, > 10 point difference from nearest culture type = strong). In the preferred condition, the dominance of the clan culture was also weak, as it was different from the nearest adhocracy culture (25.59) by 2.80 points. A consistent pattern was seen in the service agents and policy agents as well.

The results of the paired sample test showed that the mean scores for current and preferred cultures were statistically significantly different with respect to all four culture types in the entire samples. Clan and adhocracy were scored significantly higher for preferred conditions, and market and hierarchy were scored significantly lower. The congruent views were the same for service agents and policy agents.

Table 4.4 displayed a summary current and preferred culture by showing the dominant culture type and culture ranking for service agents and policy agents and entire samples.

Table 4.4 Summary of Current and Preferred Dominant Culture Type and Culture
Type Ranking

Condition	Service Agents		Policy Agents		Combined	
	Dominant Culture Type	Culture Type Ranking	Dominant Culture Type	Culture Type Ranking	Dominant Culture Type	Culture Type Ranking
Current	Hierarchy	Hierarchy	Hierarchy	Hierarchy	Hierarchy	Hierarchy
		Market		Market		Market
		Clan		Clan		Clan
		Adhocracy		Adhocracy		Adhocracy
Preferred	Clan	Clan	Clan	Clan	Clan	Clan
		Adhocracy		Adhocracy		Adhocracy
		Hierarchy		Market		Hierarchy
		Market		Hierarchy		Market

4.5.2 Research question 2 asked, What is the organizational commitment level and are there any significant differences in organizational commitment between service agents and policy agents?

The organizational commitment scale was comprised of 18 items segmented into three groups: affective commitment, continuance commitment, and normative commitment (Meyer and Allen, 1991). Mean and standard deviation values for overall and each organizational commitment variable are provided in Table 4.5. Each organizational commitment variable ranged from a 1-5 scale, where 1 measured strongly disagree to 5 measuring strongly agree. The mean score of overall

organizational commitment scale was 3.37, with a standard deviation of 0.46. The overall mean score for the organizational commitment scale, including the three sub-indicators, was calculated by combining the scores of all the items in a scale and dividing the combined scores by the number of items. The item with the highest average score was affective commitment (M = 3.60, S.D. = 0.54). The item with the lowest average score was continuance commitment (M = 3.05, S.D. = 0.84).

Table 4.5 Mean Values and Standard Deviations of Organizational Commitment for All Samples (N = 509)

Variable	Unit	Mean	S.D.
Overall Commitment	1-5 Scale	3.37	.46
Affective Commitment	1-5 Scale	3.60	.54
Continuance Commitment	1-5 Scale	3.05	.84
Normative Commitment	1-5 Scale	3.19	.91

As seen in Table 4.6, the average score for service agents (3.40) was slightly higher than that of policy agents (3.30). The differences in the average scores was statistically significant, given the t =4.42 (p = 0.036).

As the overall commitment score represents the combination of the three commitment types, the researcher now turned to an explanation of the three commitment types, including affective commitment (AC), continuance commitment (CC), and normative commitment (NC). A general pattern can be observed. Affective commitment was the highest score both from service agents and policy agents. Continuance commitment was lower than normative commitment of service agents. However, Policy agent respondents scored higher on CC than NC scores. At a glance, only the AC score and CC score were statistically different between service agents and policy agents.

Table 4.6 ANOVA – Organizational Commitment Scores: Comparison of Agents

Variable	Service Agents		Policy Agents		t	P
	Mean	S.D.	Mean	S.D.		
Overall Commitment	3.40	0.45	3.30	0.49	4.42	.036*
Affective Commitment	3.67	0.53	3.39	0.53	28.85	.000*
Continuance Commitment	2.99	0.82	3.20	0.88	5.984	.015*
Normative Commitment	3.21	0.91	3.15	0.93	0.472	.492

Note: * Significant at .05 level

4.5.3 Research question 3 asked, Are there any significant differences in the perceptions of current culture types of CVF with respect to organizational commitment?

Based on the unit scale ranging from 1-5 for commitment scales, the mean scores, as shown in Table 4.7, reflected that all of the respondents that perceived culture as clan (M = 3.39, SD = 0.40) and adhocracy (M = 3.39, SD = 0.48) had a slightly higher degree of overall commitment than those that perceived culture as hierarchy (M = 3.37, SD = 0.47), with the exception of those that perceived culture as market (M = 3.32, SD = 0.50) scoring the lowest compared to the other culture perception. According to the ANOVA results, the F statistic was not significant. This indicated that there were no significant differences in overall commitment toward the perception of different culture type.

Respondents from service agents that perceived culture as clan and hierarchy had the highest commitment level. This was different from policy agents. High commitment scores from policy agents were seen with those that perceived culture as adhocracy and market type. According to the ANOVA results, the Welch statistic (variance was not equal) from service agents and the F statistic (variance was equal) from policy agents were not significant. This indicated that there were no significant differences in overall commitment toward the perception of different culture types of either agent.

Table 4.7 Mean Overall Commitment Scores by Culture Type

Culture Type	Service agents (N=374)		Policy agents (N=135)		Combined (N=509)	
	N/Mean	SD	N/Mean	SD	N/Mean	SD
Clan	96/3.43	0.33	27/3.24	0.58	123/3.39	0.40
Adhocracy	20/3.37	0.53	12/3.43	0.42	32/3.39	0.48
Market	71/3.29	0.51	27/3.42	0.46	98/3.32	0.50
Hierarchy	187/3.42	0.46	69/3.25	0.48	256/3.37	0.47
	Welch = 1.475		F = 1.131		F = .412	
	Sig. = .228		Sig =.339		Sig =.744	

According to Table 4.8, the entire respondents that perceived culture as clan had a slightly higher degree of affective commitment than those that perceived culture as others. The ANOVA results showed that there was a significant difference between clan culture (M= 3.70, SD = 0.50) and market culture (M= 3.45, SD = 0.57).

Within the service agents, the respondents who perceived culture as clan reported the highest commitment (M = 3.81, SD = 0.41). Within the policy agents, the respondents from the adhocracy culture reported the highest AC. Based on the ANOVA results, there was a significant difference in AC among each group of culture for service agents while there was not for policy agents.

Table 4.8 Mean Affective Commitment Scores by Culture Type

Culture Type	Service agents (N=374)		Policy agents (N=135)		Combined (N=509)	
	N/Mean	SD	N/Mean	SD	N/Mean	SD
Clan	96/3.81	0.41	27/3.33	0.61	123/3.70	0.50
Adhocracy	20/3.71	0.62	12/3.60	0.54	32/3.67	0.59
Market	71/3.45	0.60	27/3.46	0.48	98/3.45	0.57
Hierarchy	187/3.69	0.52	69/3.35	0.51	256/3.59	0.54
	Welch = 6.294		F = 1.020		F = 4.167	
	Sig. = .001		Sig =.386		Sig =.006	

According to Table 4.9, all of the respondents that perceived culture as market had a slightly higher degree of continuance commitment than those that perceived culture as others. The ANOVA results showed that there was no significant difference in continuance commitment toward the perception of different culture type.

For the service agents, market culture showed the highest CC (M = 3.06, SD = 0.82), followed by hierarchy (M = 3.05, SD = 0.78), clan (M = 2.88, SD = 0.85), and adhocracy (M = 2.78, SD = 0.96). For the policy agents, the highest CC score was from market as well (M = 3.38, SD = 0.90). It was noted that policy agents had a higher continuance commitment among all of the respondents' perception of culture. Based on the ANOVA results, there was no significant difference in CC among each group of culture for either service agents or policy agents.

Table 4.9 Mean Continuance Commitment Scores by Culture Type

Culture Type	Service agents (N=374)		Policy agents (N=135)		Combined (N=509)	
	N/Mean	SD	N/Mean	SD	N/Mean	SD
Clan	96/2.88	0.85	27/3.14	0.93	123/2.94	0.87
Adhocracy	20/2.78	0.96	12/3.24	0.75	32/2.95	0.90
Market	71/3.06	0.82	27/3.38	0.90	98/3.15	0.85
Hierarchy	187/3.05	0.78	69/3.14	0.87	256/3.07	0.81
	F = 1.521		F = 0.514		F = 1.431	
	Sig. = .209		Sig =.673		Sig = .233	

As shown in Table 4.10, all of the respondents that perceived culture as adhocracy had a slightly higher degree of normative commitment than those that perceived culture as others. The ANOVA results showed that there was no significant difference in normative commitment toward the perception of different culture type.

Within the service agents, the highest NC scores was for adhocracy culture (M = 3.43, SD = 0.69) and market and hierarchy had an equally low score (M = 3.18). This was in contrast to the policy agents who reported the highest score from market culture (M = 3.33, SD = 0.84) and the lowest score from clan (M = 3.07, SD = 0.58). To explore the differences among the cultures of individual agents, the F statistic was not significant. This indicated that there were no significant differences in normative commitment toward the perception of different culture types for either service agents or policy agents.

Table 4.10 Mean Normative Commitment Scores by Culture Type

Culture Type	Service agents (N=374)		Policy agents (N=135)		Combined (N=509)	
	N/Mean	SD	N/Mean	SD	N/Mean	SD
Clan	96/3.24	0.88	27/3.07	0.58	123/3.20	0.87
Adhocracy	20/3.43	0.69	12/3.17	1.11	32/3.33	0.87
Market	71/3.18	0.99	27/3.33	0.84	98/3.22	0.95
Hierarchy	187/3.18	0.92	69/3.10	0.95	256/3.16	0.93
	F = .473		F = .471		F = .373	
	Sig. = .701		Sig =.703		Sig =.773	

4.5.4 Research question 4 asked, Are there any relationships in the perceptions of organizational culture type towards the dimensions of the Organizational Culture Profile (OCP)?

In response to this question, correlation matrixes using Pearson correlation coefficients were produced to indicate if any significant associations existed between organizational culture type and organizational profile variables. Table 4.11 to 4.13 shows the correlation matrix between the variables in the organizational culture type and organizational culture profile for all of the samples, service agents and policy agents. Field (2009) suggested guidelines for measuring the size of an effect: values of r=.10 to .29 represent a small effect, r=.30 to .49 is a medium effect, and r=.50 to 1.0 is a large effect. These guidelines apply whether there is a positive or negative correlation of the r value.

For all of the samples, the results in Table 4.11 indicated that the respondents that perceived culture as clan had no significant relationships with the perception of rewards, innovation, or performance of the organization.

The perception of culture as adhocracy had a negative and medium level of significant relationship with rewards (r = -.406, p<.05). The innovation and performance characteristics variables were not found to be statistically significant.

A significant negative relationship was found between market culture and rewards and innovation. The strengths of the relationship was medium between market culture and rewards ($r = -.383$, $p < .01$), and small between market culture and innovation ($r = -.255$, $p < .05$).

The relationship between hierarchy culture with rewards, innovation, and performance was found with a negative and small effects of significant correlation ($r = -.189$, $p < .01$, $r = -.242$, $p < .01$, $r = -.132$, $p < .05$).

Table 4.11 Pearson Correlation for All Samples (N = 509)

Dimension	Clan (N=123)	Adhocracy (N=32)	Market (N=98)	Hierarchy (N=256)
Rewards	-.008	-.406*	-.383**	-.189**
Innovation	-.003	-.093	-.255*	-.242**
Performance	.113	-.091	-.174	-.132*

Note: ** Significant at .01 level

* Significant at .05 level

Table 4.12 reported the correlations between the perceptions of organizational culture type and the organizational culture profile of service agents. Neither clan culture nor adhocracy culture was found to be significantly related to rewards, innovation, or performance. Market culture would be negatively related to higher levels of rewards ($r = -.391$, $p < .01$) than innovation ($r = -.302$, $p < .05$). Hierarchy culture was found to be negatively related to rewards ($r = -.215$, $p < .01$), innovation ($r = -.313$, $p < .01$), and performance ($r = -.167$, $p < .05$). The highest correlation was with innovation.

Table 4.12 Pearson Correlation for Service Agents (N = 374)

Dimension	Clan (N=96)	Adhocracy (N=20)	Market (N=71)	Hierarchy (N=187)
Rewards	-.099	-.429	-.391**	-.215**
Innovation	-.020	-.026	-.302*	-.313**
Performance	-.013	.016	-.202	-.167*

Note: ** Significant at .01 level

     * Significant at .05 level

Table 4.13 reports the correlations between the perceptions of organizational culture type and organizational culture profile of policy agents. The results of the statistical analysis indicated that there were no significant relationships found between adhocracy, market, hierarchy culture, or culture characteristics of rewards, innovation, and performance, although negative and moderate relationships were found between adhocracy and rewards (r = -.357), adhocracy and performance (r = -.386), and market and rewards (r = -.332). Interestingly, only the performance culture characteristic was found to have a highly positive relationship and to be statistically significant with regard to clan culture.

Table 4.13 Pearson Correlation for Policy Agents (N = 135)

Dimension	Clan (N=27)	Adhocracy (N=12)	Market (N=27)	Hierarchy (N=69)
Rewards	.146	-.357	-.332	-.108
Innovation	-.047	-.260	-.010	-.071
Performance	.517**	-.386	-.199	-.054

Note: ** Significant at .01 level

     * Significant at .05 level

4.5.5 Research question 5 asked, What is the perception of organizational culture under the OCP and are there any significant differences in the organizational culture profile between service agents and policy agents?

The organizational culture scale was comprised of 24 items segmented in three groups; Rewards, Innovation, and Performance. Mean and standard deviation values overall and for each organizational culture are provided in Table 4.14. Each organizational culture of the OCP variable ranged from a 1-5 scale, where 1 measured strongly disagree to 5 measuring strongly agree. Table 4.19 shows that the mean score of the overall organizational culture of the OCP scale was 3.71, with a standard deviation of 0.51. The sub-item with the highest average score was Performance (M = 3.91, S.D. = 0.57). The item with the lowest average score was Rewards (M = 3.54, S.D. = 0.64).

Table 4.14 Mean Values and Standard Deviations of Organizational Culture Profile (OCP) for All Samples (N = 509)

Variable	Unit	Mean	S.D.
Overall OCP	1-5 Scale	3.71	.51
Rewards	1-5 Scale	3.54	.64
Innovation	1-5 Scale	3.68	.54
Performance	1-5 Scale	3.91	.57

Table 4.15 shows the means values of overall OCP values and three cultural values of service agents and policy agents. Service agents were higher in all dimensions of cultural values (overall OCP mean = 3.75, rewards mean = 3.59, innovation mean = 3.73, and performance mean = 3.95) than those of policy agents (overall OCP mean = 3.57, rewards mean = 3.40, innovation mean = 3.53, and performance mean = 3.79).

The ANOVA results showed that there were statistically significant differences between service agents and policy agents for all cultural variables including overall OCP, rewards, innovation, and performance.

Table 4.15 ANOVA – Organizational Culture Profile Scores: Comparison of Agents

	Service Agents		Policy Agents			
Variable	Mean	S.D.	Mean	S.D.	t	P
Overall OCP	3.76	0.50	3.57	0.53	13.06	.000*
Rewards	3.59	0.64	3.40	0.62	8.67	.003*
Innovation	3.73	0.52	3.53	0.57	14.34	.000*
Performance	3.95	0.50	3.79	0.53	9.617	.002*

Note: * Significant at .05 level

4.5.6 Research question 6 asked, to what degree is the organizational culture of the OCAI, OCP and control variables related to organizational commitment?

Stepwise regression was applied to examine the relationship between organizational culture and control variables as independent variables and overall organizational commitment and each of the three commitment dimensions as dependent variables. Stepwise regression models were also used to report the amount of variance accounted by the predictor variables. Adjusted R square was used, as it exhibited a more precise goodness-of-fit measure than that of the R square (Algina and Olejnik, 2000).

In running the relationship, the multicollinearity of the significant independent variables was tested to ensure that there was not a high relation among variables. If the variables are highly related, the researcher may not be able to estimate a regression model that contains the independent variables (Norusis, 2009: 587). Multicollinearity was tested with two measures: the tolerance value (TOL) and the variance inflation factor (VIF). A common cutoff threshold of the tolerance value is higher than .10, that of the VIF is below 10 (Norusis, 2009: 591).

Table 4.16 shows that the tolerance values of the variables all exceeded .38, and the VIF values were below 2.6, indicating that there were very low levels of collinearity among independent variables.

The first stepwise regression model explored overall commitment for all the samples, service agents and policy agents. The regression results were reported in Table 4.17.

The adjusted R-square from all of the samples for this model was .293, indicating that 29.3% of the variation in overall commitment can be explained by those four independent variables including, rewards, time spent at the organization, innovation, and employment status as a civil servant; the model was statistically significant. Among the antecedents, rewards explained the variation in overall commitment by 23.8%. Field (2009: 325) states that the larger the value of t, the greater the contribution of the predictor. From the magnitude of the t-statistics shown in table 4.26, rewards and time spent at the organization had a high impact on the overall commitment, whereas innovation and employment status as a civil servant had less impact. The unstandardized coefficient value showed that there was a positive relationship between the first three predictors and the overall commitment, whereas the last predictor represented a negative relationship. Although time spent at the organization had a high impact, it showed very minimal changes in overall commitment if other variables were held constant.

The adjusted R-square from service agents was .277 (P < .001), indicating that 27.7% of the variation in overall commitment can be explained by five independent variables, of which 19.6% were explained by the rewards variable. Considering the t-value, time spent at the organization showed the highest positive impact on overall commitment, followed by rewards and innovation. Employment as a civil servant and perception of culture as a market culture showed a negative impact. The adjusted R-square for the policy agents model was 0.337 (P < 0.001). Only the rewards variable contributed to the variation.

Table 4.18 shows that the tolerance values of the variables all exceeded .32, and the VIF values were below 3.1, indicating that there were very low levels of collinearity among the independent variables.

Table 4.19 shows the stepwise regression statistics on the six variables that were significant for all of the samples and those explained 41.7% of the variability in affective commitment. Rewards was the first and most influential, accounting for 35.1% of the variation in affective commitment. The other four variables accounted for an additional 6.6% of the variation in affective commitment. According to the t-value, rewards had the highest positive impact on affective commitment, while perception of cultural value as market had the second highest impact and negatively. In terms of unstandardized coefficient value, rewards had the most impact on affective commitment when holding other variables constant. Innovation and performance were the second and third respectively.

The adjusted R-square from service agents was .401 (P < .001), indicating that 40.1% of the variation in affective commitment can be explained by the five independent variables, of which 31.9% were explained by the rewards variable. Considering the t-value and unstandardized coefficient value, the results showed a contradictory meaning. Rewards had more of an impact on affective commitment (higher t-value), while the changes in cultural values of innovation resulted in a higher degree of changes in affective commitment. The adjusted R-square for the policy agents model was 0.405 (P < 0.05). Only the rewards variable contributed to the variation.

Table 4.20 shows that the tolerance values of the variables all exceeded .98, and the VIF values were below 1.10, indicating that there were very low levels of collinearity among the independent variables.

The results from the stepwise regression analysis in Table 4.21 found that time spent at the organization and the preferred cultural values as adhocracy were statistically significant. They explained the variability in continuance commitment by only 2.28%. Time spent at the organization had a positive correlation while the preferred cultural values as adhocracy had a negative correlation.

The adjusted R-square from service agents was .058 (P < .001), indicating that 5.8% of the variation in continuance commitment can be explained by time spent at the organization (4.2%) and the current cultural value perception as adhocracy (1.6%). The results showed that the former was positively related to continuance commitment and the latter was negatively related. The adjusted R-square for the policy agents was

0.164 (P < 0.001). The innovation variable contributed 12.1% of the variation and the current cultural value perception as market contributed at 4.3%.

Table 4.22 shows that the tolerance values of the variables all exceeded .50, and the VIF values were below 2.0, indicating that there were very low levels of collinearity among independent variables.

In the stepwise regression analysis in Table 4.23 for normative commitment, the variables of rewards, performance, time spent at the organization, and employment status as a civil servant, accounted for 9.2% of the total variance of all of the samples. Among the four variables considered, rewards variable was the most significant predictor, accounting for 6.2% of the variance. Rewards and time spent at the organization variables were positively related to normative commitment, while performance and employment status as a civil servant were inversely related.

The adjusted R-square from service agents was .086 (P < .001), indicating that 8.6% of the variation in normative commitment can be explained by rewards, performance, and time spent at the organization. The rewards variable was the main predictor contributing 6.3% of the variation. Rewards and time spent at the organization variables were positively related to normative commitment, with the exception that the performance variable was negatively related. The adjusted R-square for the policy agents was 0.050 (P < 0.001). Only the rewards variable contributed to the variation and had a positive correlation with normative commitment.

Table 4.16 Multicollinearity of Independent Variables to the TOC

	Service Agents			Policy Agents			Combined	
Variables	TOL	VIF	Variables	TOL	VIF	Variables	TOL	VIF
REWARD	.39	2.56	REWARD	1.00	1.00	REWARD	.41	2.46
TIME_O	.99	1.00				TIME_O	.99	1.01
INNOVA	.42	2.39				INNOVA	.41	2.43
CIVIL	.97	1.03				CIVIL	.97	1.03
MKT_C	.92	1.08						

Table 4.17 Stepwise Regression Analysis for Overall Commitment

	Service Agents			Policy Agents			Combined	
	Unstandardized			Unstandardized			Unstandardized	t-
Variables	Coefficients	t-value	Variables	Coefficients	t-value	Variables	Coefficients	value
REWARD	.185	3.753	REWARD	.468	8.311	REWARD	.238	5.613
TIME_O	.011	5.728				TIME_O	.009	5.371
INNOVA	.160	2.752				INNOVA	.162	3.285
CIVIL	-.100	-2.212				CIVIL	-.093	-2.350
MKT_C	-.010	-2.058						
Adjusted R^2 = .277			Adjusted R^2 = .337			Adjusted R^2 = .293		
F = 29.603, Sig. of F = .000			F = 69.079, Sig. of F = .000			F = 53.665, Sig. of F = .000		

Table 4.18 Multicollinearity of Independent Variables to the AC

	Service Agents			Policy Agents			Combined	
Variables	TOL	VIF	Variables	TOL	VIF	Variables	TOL	VIF
REWARD	.39	2.58	REWARD	1.00	1.00	REWARD	.35	2.86
INNOVA	.40	2.50				INNOVA	.33	3.08
MKT_C	.92	1.10				MKT_C	.93	1.07
TIME_O	.99	1.00				TIME_O	.99	1.00
ADHOC_C	.95	1.06				PERFOM	.43	2.32
						ADHOC_C	.95	1.05

Table 4.19 Stepwise Regression Analysis for Affective Commitment

	Service Agents			Policy Agents			Combined	
	Unstandardized			Unstandardized			Unstandardized	
Variables	Coefficients	t-value	Variables	Coefficients	t-value	Variables	Coefficients	t-value
REWARD	.251	4.721	REWARD	.549	9.600	REWARD	.281	5.764
INNOVA	.292	4.576				INNOVA	.184	3.100
MKT_C	-.021	-4.089				MKT_C	-.020	-4.107
TIME_O	.008	3.752				TIME_O	.007	3.914
ADHOC_C	.014	2.131				PERFOM	.139	2.612
						ADHOC_C	.014	2.476

Adjusted R^2 = .401

F = 50.949, Sig. of F = .000

Adjusted R^2 = .405

F = 92.161, Sig. of F = .000

Adjusted R^2 = .417

F = 61.523, Sig. of F = .000

Table 4.20 Multicollinearity of Independent Variables to the CC

	Service Agents			Policy Agents			Combined	
Variables	TOL	VIF	Variables	TOL	VIF	Variables	TOL	VIF
TIME_O	.99	1.00	INNOVA	.99	1.01	TIME_O	.99	1.01
ADHOC_C	.99	1.00	MKT_C	.99	1.01	ADHOC_P	.99	1.01

Table 4.21 Stepwise Regression Analysis for Continuance Commitment

	Service Agents			Policy Agents			Combined	
Variables	Unstandardized Coefficients	t-value	Variables	Unstandardized Coefficients	t-value	Variables	Unstandardized Coefficients	t-value
TIME_O	.016	3.936	INNOVA	.505	4.152	TIME_O	.012	3.175
ADHOC_C	-.036	-2.866	MKT_C	.067	2.970	ADHOC_P	-.031	-2.292
Adjusted R^2 = .058			Adjusted R^2 = .164			Adjusted R^2 = .028		
F = 12.437, Sig. of F = .000			F = 14.147, Sig. of F = .000			F = 8.254, Sig. of F = .000		

Table 4.22 Multicollinearity of Independent Variables to the NC

	Service Agents			Policy Agents			Combined	
Variables	TOL	VIF	Variables	TOL	VIF	Variables	TOL	VIF
REWARD	.54	1.86	REWARD	1.00	1.00	REWARD	.51	1.96
PERFOM	.54	1.86				PERFOM	.52	1.93
TIME_O	.99	1.00				TIME_O	.99	1.01
						CIVIL	.97	1.03

Table 4.23 Stepwise Regression Analysis for Normative Commitment

	Service Agents			Policy Agents			Combined	
Variables	Unstandardized Coefficients	t-value	Variables	Unstandardized Coefficients	t-value	Variables	Unstandardized Coefficients	t-value
REWARD	.529	5.510	REWARD	.359	2.839	REWARD	.503	5.932
PERFOM	-.324	-2.660				PERFOM	-.293	-2.876
TIME_O	.010	2.255				TIME_O	.010	2.568
						CIVIL	-.20	-2.259
Adjusted R^2 = .086			Adjusted R^2 = .050			Adjusted R^2 = .092		
F = 12.698, Sig. of F = .000			F = 8.063, Sig. of F = .000			F = 13.857, Sig. of F = .000		

CHAPTER 5

DISCUSSION, IMPLICATIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

This chapter presents the highlights of the study and discusses the implications of the findings. The chapter begins by discussing the significance of the results in relation to organizational culture and the components of organizational commitment. After that, implications of these findings are discussed, followed by a discussion of the study's limitations, and then a discussion of recommendations for future research.

5.1 Discussions

5.1.1 Current and Preferred Culture

The current study examined reliability within the OCAI dimensions and found that the Cronbach alpha coefficients measuring internal consistency for each culture type in this study were comparable to those of previous research. This study computed Cronbach's alpha coefficients for each current culture type as 0.73 for clan, 0.72 for adhocracy, 0.75 for market and 0.83 for hierarchy. This study also computed Cronbach's alpha coefficients for each preferred culture type as 0.71 for clan, 0.74 for adhocracy, 0.74 for market, and 0.81 for hierarchy. In previous research Quinn and Spreitzer (1991); Yeung et al. (1991); Zammuto and Krakower (1991) and Berrio (2003) reported on the reliability for current culture and computed coefficients with the following ranges for each culture type: 0.70-0.82 clan, 0.72-0.83 adhocracy, 0.71-0.90 market, and 0.62-0.76 hierarchy. These measures of internal consistency for each culture type and similarity to those reported in previous research indicated that the OCAI instrument provided a reliable means of examining MOPH respondents' perceptions of culture.

Overall, the current culture type profile ranked by the respondents working for the MOPH under the central administration reported that the hierarchy culture type

was dominant over other three culture types. In relation to the Competing Value Framework (see figure 2.2), they perceived their current culture as one that was dominated by internal focus and emphasized stability and control. According to Cameron and Quinn (1999: 33), a hierarchy culture typifies a highly formalized and structured workplace. Rules and procedures determine public employees' typical day-to day work activities. Leaders are characterized by efficiency, organization, coordination, and structure. Their main job is to make sure that the organization runs smoothly. Without formal rules, the organizational structure would be inefficient and ineffective. Success is defined by stability, efficiency, dependable delivery, and low costs.

Cameron and Quinn (2011) reported in their previous research that effective and successful organizations could simultaneously put an emphasis on clan and market cultures or adhocracy and hierarchy cultures, although such stereotypical culture-type paradoxes were not observed in this study. Cameron and Quinn summarized more than one thousand organizations and specific industry profiles. The results showed that the average profile was market culture dominated, followed by hierarchy, clan, and adhocracy. This is quite different from the MOPH cultural profile in the present study, which shows a culture type ranking of hierarchy, market, clan and adhocracy.

The distinct difference can be interpreted in several ways, but most organizations in the private sector are dependent upon being competitive in the market to survive, while the MOPH is a public organization funded by the government. This feature of the public organization allows for an internally-focused and integrated culture because there is less competition driving to adopt culture type and attributes associated with strict industry competition. One similarity that can be noted between the MOPH and the average industry profiles is that the adhocracy culture type ranks lowest for each group.

In the current study, the respondents from the MOPH indicated that they preferred a dominant clan type culture. This was supported by statistical analyses that the preferred clan culture score was greater than the scores of the other three culture types. The preferred ranking of the culture types showed clan as the dominant culture type, followed by adhocracy, hierarchy, and market cultures. This preferred culture

type profile indicated that the respondents from the MOPH prefer an organizational culture that emphasizes a collaborative atmosphere that is driven by values consistent with commitment, communication, and development. Effectiveness in this respect may be measured by the degree of human development and participation, and suggests that the MOPH leaders preferred to be facilitators, mentors, or team-builders (Cameron and Quinn, 2011).

The most important finding to note when comparing the current and preferred culture types is that all four culture types were statistically significantly different for the entire samples, service agents, and policy agents. Clan and adhocracy scores increased while those of market and hierarchy decreased from the current to preferred environment. The major difference was a shift from a hierarchy culture to a clan culture. There was also a shift from a stability/control and uniformity- based culture to that of a culture that involved the adhocracy culture to a higher degree, and its attributes of differentiation and adaptability. Cameron and Quinn (2011: 98) noted that highly-effective organizations emphasized adhocracy attributes such as innovation and change as well as cultural attributes associated with the other culture types. They concluded that to an extent, effective organizations posses the ability to behave in somewhat contrary ways, but this flexibility drives their effectiveness by allowing for the adoption of multiple culture-type attributes that meet the needs of all employees.

Cameron and Quinn (2011: 74) stressed that the differences between the current and preferred conditions mean various things to each and every organization and industry. In the current study, no single culture type scoring changed by more than ten points and this could indicate no obvious areas for change in culture. The clan and adhocracy scores increased just fewer than four points each and the market and hierarchy score decreased by just under four points. Evaluating the current and preferred culture and then including staff members in discussions on how to create a better work environment can lead to real answers on why there are discrepancies between current and preferred scores. No matter the discrepancies, Cameron and Quinn suggest that differences between the culture-type scores between the two environments can have certain meanings and that the widest differences can point to strategies for change.

5.1.2 Organizational Commitment

Using an Organizational Commitment Questionnaire (OCQ) as the main component of a survey distributed to the respondents at the MOPH, it was determined that the overall commitment level of the respondents working for the MOPH was moderate. This finding for the overall sample was an average of the varying commitment levels for all respondents that chose to participate in the study. The overall commitment value attributed to the entire sample would lead to the conclusion that the overall commitment for service agents was somewhat higher than policy agents. The results of the analysis, which investigated the relationship between the demographic and employment characteristics to outcomes in overall organizational commitment, found that both employment status as a civil servant and how long they have been employed at the MOPH significantly impacted overall commitment level to the organization. Therefore, the agent difference was not the factor leading to the difference in overall commitment.

Of the three organizational commitment components, affective commitment had the highest mean, followed by normative commitment and continuance commitment in service agents. These results are consistent with the findings by Meyer and Allen (1997), who suggest that, at least in theory, the optimal organizational commitment profile should have affective commitment with the highest score, followed by normative and continuance commitment scores that are considerably lower. Unfortunately for policy agents, the mean continuance commitment score was higher than that of the normative commitment score, indicating that the employees were committed by a sense of what benefits would be lost if they left the organization rather than feelings of moral obligation to remain (Meyer and Allen, 2004: 5).

Results indicate that service agents show a higher affective commitment to their organization than policy agents and very strong significant effects. It was interesting that service agents had scores higher on all items of affective commitment. Those that would like to spend the rest of their career with the organization had the highest mean difference. Employment status had some significant effects on affective commitment.

As for continuance commitment to the organization, the results showed that policy agents indicated a slightly higher desire to stay than the service agents. Both

parties scored the highest on the item mentioning that the reason for staying with the organization was a matter of necessity. Meyer and Allen (1997: 714) believe that employees with a strong sense of continuance commitment remain with their organization because the costs of leaving organizations outweigh the benefits. Costs may include losing good pay and other forms of material benefits. Sometimes employees express continuance commitment because of personal investments in nontransferable investments. These investments include some special skills that are unique to a particular organization, pension benefits, seniority, and other benefits that make it too costly for one to leave the organization and seek employment elsewhere.

The results revealed that service agents had a higher normative commitment than that of policy agents, but not statistically different. This is concerned with the obligation employees feel to remain with an organization and builds upon what Weiner (1982: 420) described as generalized cultural expectations that "a man" should not change his job too often or he may be labeled untrustworthy and erratic. It may also increase with rewards in advance such as training, payment of study costs, and consideration of special needs. Normative commitment may last only until the debt is perceived to be paid and hence is subject to rationalization if other circumstances change (Meyer and Allen, 1991: 64).

It was noted that normative commitment was quite similar to affective commitment in the context of the Thai public organization. After extracting with the factor analysis, there were only two questions left for normative commitment. This finding is supported by previous research in which Meyer and Allen's (1991) descriptions of these components of commitment suggest both constructs represent an emotional attachment to the organization. Affective commitment refers to an employees' emotional attachment to, identification with, and involvement in the organization, and normative commitment describes an individuals feeling of obligation to continue employment. Previous research done by Meyer and Allen (1991: 66) has shown a high inter-correlation between normative and affective commitment. Jaros, Jemier, Koehler and Sincich (1993: 982) suggest a need for a greater degree of operational clarity between the components by developing additional variables that tap into an employee's belief or thought about their obligation to the organization, rather than feelings.

5.1.3 Organizational Culture Profile

The exploratory factor analysis in the current study yielded a different result than the factor analysis conducted in previous research using the revised OCP. In the current study the 24 items were reduced to three composite factors (rewards, innovation, and performance; Cronbach's alpha 0.94), whereas in previous research, seven composite factors were extracted (competitiveness, social responsibility, supportiveness, innovation, emphasis on rewards, performance orientation, and stability; Cronbach's alpha 0.75) (Sarros et al., 2005). The variance between the current study and previous research could indicate that respondents from the MOPH have different conceptions of what the OCP items mean when compared to employees from other industries such as manufacturing, retail/wholesale, services, and IT and communication industries.

The results for the means and standard deviations revealed that respondents from the MOPH agreed differently with most of the rewards, innovation, and performance culture statements. Performance orientation had the highest agreement score, followed by innovation and rewards. The respondents from the service agents had a higher agreement score than that of the policy agents in all three culture dimensions. The performance dimension was a multidimensional construct that covered many concerns such as quality, efficiency, effectiveness, responsiveness, and equity (Boyne, 2002: 21). Public employees of the MOPH perceived that their organizations emphasized the culture of achievement orientation, being results oriented, and an emphasis on quality. The MOPH currently emphasizes strategy processes. Rational planning is characterized by strategies that are developed through analytical, formal and logical processes. The characteristics of the external environment and the organization itself are scanned and future circumstances forecasted; a variety of policy options which differ from the status quo are identified and evaluated; precise targets for future organizational performance are set; the best policy option is selected; and subsequent performance is regularly and rigorously monitored. The emphasis is on data, analysis, and a clear focus on organizational objectives.

One important tool constructing organizational culture was innovation. The respondents from the policy agents showed a slight agreement with the innovation

culture of their organization while the service agents demonstrated higher agreement. Although a lot of research on innovation has taken place in the corporate setting, innovation is no less important for the public sector. West and Farr (1989: 16) provided a definition of innovation that is useful for the public organization: "innovation is the intentional introduction and application within a role, group or organization of ideas, processes, products or procedures, new to the relevant unit of adoption, designed to significantly benefit role performance, the group or the wider society." Public-sector organizations have historically enjoyed captive demand, with guaranteed sources and levels of financing. Resources for public sector organizations are often based on a fixed budget allocation based on equity considerations or political pressures, rather than arising from profit based on results. Because public agencies have historically received funding for their services with no consideration of quality or quantity of output or outcomes, success is often judged on the basis of agency size or budget size, prompting Blais and Dion (1991: 32) to coin the phrase "budget maximization" to explain what motivates many public administrators. Motivation to maximize budget or agency size will likely not lead managers to encourage innovative behaviors on the part of their subordinates. Moore (1997: 54) observed that adaptability will determine the long-run value of public organizations. It is noted that a public organization will be more valuable if it can adapt new aspects of its mission or produce new value for the society it serves. An individual that is well-suited to an innovative culture is result-oriented, risk-taking, creative, exhibits optimal communication and teamwork, shows structural flexibility, empowers employees, and is enterprising and driven (Wallach, 1983: 35). However, there are negative aspects of an innovative culture in the public administration. An innovative culture produces burnout and stress, which are routine occupational hazards of the constant pressure (Wallach, 1983: 48).

5.1.4 Relationship between Organizational Culture and Commitment

The purpose of this section was to examine the relationship between organizational culture and organizational commitment. Overall commitment level of employees is usually higher when organizations provide timely and accurate information to employees, have a participatory leadership style, and emphasize group

cohesiveness, skill variety, autonomy, and job challenge (Mathieu and Zajac, 1990: 182). In addition, high affective commitment levels (employees remain with an organization because they want to) are most often found in work environments characterized by job challenge, peer cohesion, equitable treatment of employees, task interdependence, management receptiveness, decision making opportunities, feedback and growth and achievement opportunities (Mathieu and Zajac, 1990: 188; Meyer and Allen, 1991: 67).

Many of these characteristics associated with overall commitment (OC) and affective commitment (AC) were indicative of a rewards culture and innovation culture. Based on the results mentioned in chapter four, it was found that high levels of OC and AC would be found in service agents that had better perceived the value of a rewards culture and innovation culture than policy agents. Additionally, it was found that a rewards culture and innovation culture would be related positively with, and predictive of, OC and AC. A rewards culture was better explained and predictive of OC and AC than an innovative culture. The rewards culture explained 35.1% of the total variations in AC and 23.8% of the total variations in OC. The innovation culture can explain only 2.2% of the total variations in AC and 1.5% of the total variations in OC. Specifically considering individual agents, it was found that a rewards culture and innovation culture had a positive relationship with service agents' OC and AC, while only the rewards culture had a positive relationship with policy agents' OC and AC.

There are several possible explanations for this finding. It is possible that service agents perceived significant differences from policy agents in that their organizations had a better rewards culture. The highest different perceived values were ranked from having a clear guiding philosophy, opportunities for professional growth, being reflective, collaboration, high pay for good performance, being team orientated, praised for good performance, and fairness respectively. Clevelan, Murphy and Williams (1989: 133) stated that a rewards culture was reflective of the organizations' performance appraisal system. They attempted to find a way to make appraisal systems more objective, reliable, and valid. They proposed that the performance appraisal should have the characteristics of system fairness, system satisfaction, importance to the organization, and feedback. It was implied that a

performance appraisal system in service agents' organizations could create higher satisfaction than in policy agents' organizations.

In this particular study, the innovation culture was positively related to and predictive of OC and AC of service agents. Kanter (2007: 18) addresses the idea that innovation is most likely to occur in organizations that (a) have integrative structures, (b) emphasize diversity, (c) have multiple structural linkages inside and outside the organization, (d) have intersecting territories, (e) have collective pride and faith in people's talents, and (f) emphasize collaboration and teamwork. Service agents' organizations possessed those characteristics. Service organizations have to develop their work activities and develop better social services all the time. As can be seen from the finding, service agents perceived that their innovation culture was significant differences from that of policy agents in terms of being quick to take advantage of opportunities, being innovative, being socially responsible, and risk taking.

The findings also indicated that there was a positive correlation between the current adhocracy culture type and AC for service agents, indicating that as the current adhocracy culture increases, the AC for service agents increases. In addition, there was also a negative correlation between current the market culture type and AC, indicating that as the current market culture went down, AC levels went up. Both the Adhocracy culture and Market culture are externally focused on positioning the organization to react to the needs of the environment or maintenance of the organization's reactions to these needs in order to maintain compatibility within the market (Berrio, 2003: 118). The organizations of service agents should be externally focused by nature, with their primary responsibility being to serve and protect the citizens within their respective communities.

It was unexpected in this study that the innovation culture would be a positive predictor of continuance commitment for policy agents. Innovation culture accounted for a significant portion of variance (11.5%) in explaining continuance commitment. It appeared that the higher policy agents' organization's Innovation culture, the higher the policy agents' continuance commitment to their organizations.

Several other interesting findings presented themselves in this study. One was the current culture type in the model accounting for continuance commitment. The current culture type (adhocracy for service agents), as predicted, accounted for only

2.1% of the variances in CC, while the current culture type of market for policy agents accounted for 5.5% of the variance in CC. To lower the CC, it appeared that service agents' organizations should increase their current adhocracy culture and should decrease current market culture. In other words, the MOPH should develop its organizational culture type to be an adhocracy type in the future.

A similar pattern of findings was found in the relationship of the rewards culture to normative commitment (NC) and affective commitment. It was believed that high levels of NC would be found in both agents' organizations by increasing the development of a rewards culture. An unexpected finding was a negatively significant relationship between Performance culture and NC among service agents. To increase NC in service agents, it appeared that the organization should emphasize less its Performance culture. This phenomenon was contrary to the current situation. However, the performance culture accounted for only 1.5% of the variations in NC. In most cases, high normative commitment also develops when the organization presents employees with opportunities for increased personal and professional development, such as tuition reimbursement, or is accommodating in instances of personal crises, i.e. extended sick leave (Meyer and Allen, 1991: 67).

While not the original focus of the present study, the predictor of years with the organization by the service agents had a positive influence on OC, AC, CC, and NC. Years with the organization accounted for the highest portion of variance in OC (6%), followed by CC (4.2%), AC (2.1%), and NC (1.2%). The study found that the longer the service agents worked for the organizations, the higher all types of commitment they had, but surprisingly, CC was the major dominance over AC and NC.

5.2 Implications

5.2.1 Implications of Culture Type Discrepancies

The current study found that respondents working for the MOPH, both as service agents and policy agents, preferred their organizations to be more of a clan and adhocracy culture and less of a market and hierarchy culture. The increase in the overall Clan culture score from the current to preferred environment (see Table 4.3)

could mean that respondents of the MOPH desire a greater degree of employee empowerment, participation, and involvement. To this end, the service organizations and policy-related organizations under the MOPH should seek to support more cross-functional teamwork and facilitate a greater degree of horizontal communication. An increase in Clan culture may also signify employees' desire for greater recognition and a more caring climate. On the other hand, an increase in clan culture scores does not mean that organizations will adopt a tolerance for mediocrity, allow slacking off, or accept decreased standards and rigor (Cameron and Quinn, 2011: 98).

The respondents of the MOPH also indicated that they preferred a higher degree of adhocracy cultural characteristics. An increase in adhocracy culture might indicate that they strive to acquire a greater degree of employee input and that such input may be centered around creating a more innovative working environment where employees and the organization take more calculated risks. An increase in adhocracy culture can also indicate the desire of public employees to listen to service recipients more. To this point a greater adhocracy culture score is indicative of an external focus, interpreted in the current study as service recipient orientation. Innovation in the organizations of the MOPH can be linked to expanding programming opportunities, designing new and exciting programs, or sponsoring new events. Conversely, an increase in Adhocracy culture does not necessarily mean that respondents of the MOPH will undertake thoughtless risk taking or follow the latest fad. Another misconception with increasing differentiation through greater adhocracy cultural alignment is that the respondents of the MOPH will be less likely to collaborate and share ideas (Cameron and Quinn, 2011: 98). This is not necessarily true, especially since the dominant culture type for both service agents and policy agents in the preferred condition was that of a collaborative-based clan culture.

The decrease in the Market culture score between the current and preferred conditions may suggest that the respondents of the MOPH were energized employees with an ongoing commitment to excellence and that they had already achieved their goals. A decrease in market culture might indicate that they desire a less punishing environment. It is also of importance to note that a decrease in the market culture score between conditions does not mean that there is less pressure on performance,

lower standards of quality, or less competitiveness in the organizations (Cameron and Quinn, 2011: 98).

The respondents of the MOPH also reported a lower hierarchy culture score in the preferred condition. This lower hierarchy score could be indicative of their preferences for more decentralized decision making in their organizations where they encounter less red tape and are not micro-managed. On the other hand, a decreased hierarchy culture does not suggest less accountability, non-conformity to rules, or lack of performance monitoring in the organizations (Cameron and Quinn, 2011: 98).

5.2.2 Implications for Organizational Culture and Commitment

This study contributes to the areas of organizational culture and commitment as they relate to the public organization. The results will be of interest to other public organizations. This study reveals that only two of the demographic variables, employment status as civil servant and years employed with the organization, were significant and related to commitment scale. Either of these findings makes sense since the agencies of the MOPH were still civil-servant dominated and a longer time was spent in the organization - therefore, the more committed a person should be to that organization. Furthermore, this study also revealed that there were statistically significant differences in the organizational culture perceptions and organizational commitment of the two groups, service agents and policy agents.

Although the results of this study indicated that there were significant differences in the culture perceptions of the two groups of respondents from the MOPH, they did indicate that the two groups saw the organization as being oriented toward the clan and adhocracy cultures. The use of the OCAI to determine the cultural perceptions of the respondents of the MOPH can provide researchers with feedback that extends beyond the current ideology of culture and provide a foundation for improving the organizational culture type. These findings suggest a critical need for similar research on this subject, because various researchers have suggested that the effectiveness of various organizations is highly related to their dominant culture (Cameron and Ettington, 1988: 378).

The most valuable implication from this finding is that the MOPH should try to encourage AC and NC and to discourage CC. As a pattern of antecedents for the

three types of commitment, it is possible to emphasize key variables known to have positive effects on the specific types of commitment. First, affective commitment was found to be a function of three organizational value variables: rewards, innovation, and performance. As the most important AC antecedent was emphasis on rewards, which had a stronger effect in policy agents than service agents. This value factor includes perceiving fairness, praising for good performance, having opportunities for professional growth, and getting high pay for good performance. AC is also stronger when service agents perceive their organizations innovate. The innovation orientation organizational value factor includes being innovative, quick to take advantage of opportunities, risking taking, and being distinctively different from others. Service employees are more committed to their organizations out of affect when they perceive the organizations to be innovation-oriented places of work. AC is also stronger when employees perceive their organizations in general as having performance orientations. This organizational value factor includes achievement orientation, being results oriented, an emphasis on quality, taking individual responsibilities, and being people oriented. Service agents and policy agents that are high in AC tend to have better job performance, tend to be better organizational citizens, have lower absenteeism, less stress, and fewer work-family conflicts because they have emotional attachment to, identification with, and involvement in (Meyer et al., 2002: 34). The MOPH can try to make sure that its public employees see that their current organizations provide an adequate economic safety net. This might be easier to achieve in the public organizations as a public career is often seen as a life-time job, not with high pay but with honor. Public employees might already be self-selected into the idea of a lifetime career, and thus are not likely to seek other jobs. The MOPH should have good progress in implementing a new performance appraisal system, the key features of which include setting annual work targets and standards of performance between manager and subordinate, review of work performance in relation to targets, a co-ordination panel to ensure fair, transparent, and objective appraisal, and the selection of excellent employees for reward and recognition.

Moreover, NC exists when employees feel an obligation to remain with their organizations (Meyer and Allen, 1991: 63). NC is stronger when both service agents and policy agents perceive that their employing organizations have an emphasis on

rewards. Service agents and policy agents will remain with an organization longer with a sense of obligation in reciprocity for perceptions of fairness, having opportunities for professional growth, praising for good performance, and high pay for good performance in the workplace. Interestingly, NC is also stronger when service employees perceive that their employing organizations do not overly emphasize performance. When service agents perceive that their employing organizations are overly aggressive, overly competitive, or that the organizations fail to exhibit social responsibility, they are less likely to feel an obligation to remain with the organizations.

5.2.3 Implications for Managerial Practice

This study yielded important information for the leaders of the MOPH, human resource professionals, and others that work with issues related to organizational culture and commitment. A major implication of the study is that the leaders of the MOPH should stay abreast of the formal and informal cultures within their organization. Questions related to culture should be addressed promptly. By allowing culture issues to linger and to go unaddressed, commitment levels of the rank and file for public employees of the MOPH may be negatively affected.

As the nature of policies changes and those creating the policies become more diverse, changes can be expected to take place in the perceived cultural perceptions of public employees. A significant implication from the results is that organizations should assess their existing culture and the commitment of their employees before attempting to implement any change. This is important because culture has a substantial impact on an employee's commitment, which in turn influences the performance of the whole organization. Another vital implication is that it will enable organizations to create the preferred organizational culture to support the type of commitment expected from their employees.

The results of this study indicated that there were no differences in the preferred culture perceptions of the service agents and policy agents. They did indicate that the two groups preferred the organizational culture to be oriented toward a higher clan and adhocracy culture. The results, therefore, provided feedback to

leaders of the MOPH to improve their organizational culture in order to increase public employees' commitment.

The leaders of the MOPH should try to develop the values of public employees and the values of the organization to be congruent. Some studies have indicated that when organizations achieve a value congruence between an employee and his or her organization, both the affective and normative components of organizational commitment are higher. To increase affective and normative organizational commitment, the MOPH should treat its service employees with tolerance, fairness, respect, and the leaders should be innovative, risk takers, and team oriented, but less competitive and less goal oriented. However, the MOPH should emphasize a rewards culture, such as having opportunities for professional growth, high pay for good performance, being reflective, and having a clear guiding philosophy.

5.3 Limitations of the Study

There were many limitations to the current study that may have influenced the results. Examples of these limitations are useful in understanding how future research could be conducted to minimize these limitations.

The sampling method could be improved for the following reasons. The sample used for the current study was respondents that worked at their Bangkok offices. Thus, the results may not be generalized to all public employees of the MOPH. Additionally, this sample was tested in fifteen divisions or bureaus in the MOPH only. Even though an individual division or bureau operates under the MOPH, there are slight management and policy differences from one to another.

The collection of data was in a single time period. The independent and dependent variables were all measured at the same time using a single survey. However, attitudes may vary at different points in time. Therefore, a longitudinal study might have yielded results differently from this present research design. Additionally, responses to the survey questions were all based on individual level perceptions. No objective measures were used for any variables. However, individual perceptions of organizational culture and commitment level may be a function of

individual subjective perceptions of reality rather than of objective measures of reality.

.   The voluntary nature of the study is an additional limitation. This survey included only participants that were accessible and willing to take part in the study. Respondents that filled out the survey might display behaviors that were a little different from others that did not fill out the survey. It is unclear whether those employees have agreed on the organizational culture or have higher or lower levels of organizational commitment. Additionally, it is impossible to know if the volunteers held unique attitudes respective to others that chose not to participate.

Unfortunately, the majority of the study participants also had very high levels of tenure with their respective organization. More variation in length of time with an organization would also enhance and clarify the relationship between culture and commitment. Also, the majority of respondents were involved in some type of culture change process at the time they participated in the survey. A better sampling of individuals involved in change and those not involved in change may have enhanced the research findings.

The wording of some of the questions on the OCAI, OCP, and OCQ survey might have been unclear, which could have biased the results. Some surveys resulted in inflated organizational culture and commitment scores and this can possibly be attributed to the wording of the questions. The survey was value based, and it is possible that participants did not understand certain questions, or did not wish to disclose their true perceptions. There was also the potential that the survey failed to identify the key values of the public employees.

5.4 Recommendations for Future Research

There are a number of recommendations for future research that will contribute to the general increase of knowledge about culture and commitment worth consideration. Since one of the contributions of this study to the literature about commitment involves the need to develop and test a comprehensive model of the causes of commitment, it seems necessary to develop a more robust model of the antecedent variables of affective, continuance, and normative commitment. This

model should include variables such as personality preference, job satisfaction, culture congruence, leadership style and effectiveness, and even individual motivation. It would be useful to develop and validate an assessment instrument designed to measure these possible antecedents in the context of public organizations.

The effect of time on an individual's commitment levels was not addressed using this cross-sectional research design. There may be much to be learned by conducting a longitudinal study of the causal relationship between organizational culture and commitment to better understand the possible effects of time on the interaction between these variables.

Further, it would beneficial to determine how the organizational culture or components of commitment impact public employees relevant outcomes such as quality of life and job satisfaction. The results and implications drawn from the findings may have been limited because the research setting of the study employed only one large organization; that is the MOPH. Therefore, other research using a similar approach is necessary to expand the generalizability of the findings. Further research investigating the relationship between organizational culture and commitment to change is needed as public organizations are on the transition to change to new public management. Thus, longitudinal research might be helpful in making a comparison of before and after the change and could measure the impact of culture and the change implementation on public employees' organizational commitment over a period of time.

A debate of the measurement of organizational culture in the context of public organizations exists. Cameron and Quinn (2011) have argued that organizational culture can be measured by other means, such as with a holistic approach or through observation, or with a metaphorical or language approach. This would allow for multiple viewpoints to be considered in evaluating the attributes of an organization's culture. Therefore, additional dimensions of the organizational culture should be examined and attempting to develop or improve the measurement of organizational culture that generally fits public organizations.

It is the belief of this author that a limiting factor was a lack of strength in the culture type of the organizations sampled (the difference score less than 10 from the nearest). Future studies examining the relationship between culture type and level of

commitment would be well rewarded by using organizations with strong, varying culture styles. A strong culture would enhance any relationships that might exist between clan, adhocracy, market, and hierarchy culture and commitment.

A final recommendation involves the integration of qualitative research methods in studying culture and commitment. Sherwood's (1988: 16) asserts that culture and commitment should be developed in an environment where leaders work to enlist people's hearts, providing an image that is inherently qualitative and which may be best understood using qualitative methods. For example, it would be interesting and useful to conduct structured interviews with study participants to better understand their perceptions about their level of cultural perception and commitment to their organizations. This kind of research may lead to the discovery of additional precursors of commitment in the development of the comprehensive model described earlier.

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APPENDICES

Appendix A

Changing Civil Service Status in OECD Countries

Changing Civil Service Status in OECD Countries

Countries	Development of civil service status
Australia	The ratio between "ongoing" and "non-ongoing" employees is more or less the same since 1996. Neither ongoing nor non-going employees are guaranteed life-long employment. Ongoing employees may retrenched if they are not needed following a change in workplace needs.
Belgium	Six-year "mandate" system for managers (Director General, and two levels below).
Canada	The ratio of term/casual employees is increasing against employees on indeterminate terms.
Denmark	Significant reductions are to be expected in the number of civil servants. Civil service employment is being replaced by collective agreement employment. Temporary employment is becoming more popular in hiring at the managerial level. In 2001 about 19% of all heads of divisions had fixed employment contracts.
Finland	In jobs of a permanent nature, permanent contracts/employment relationships are used. But there is no tenure *i.e.* there is always a possibility to give notice if there are legal grounds. There is also a possibility to use fixed-term contracts if needed on operational grounds.
Hungary	In 2001, 18,930 administrators and blue collar workers were placed under the scope of the Labour Code. Following a 2003 new amendment to the Civil Service Act, administrators have been placed back under the rules of the civil service act, but lower ranking officials remain under the scope of the general labour code.

Countries	Development of civil service status
Ireland	Contractualisation has taken place on an *ad hoc* basis and applies to a minor proportion of civil or indeed public service staff and affects only lower grade staff.
Korea	Since 1998, 20% of senior posts in central government have been open for competition. Those recruited from non-government sectors are appointed under a fixed-term contract.
New Zealand	In the public service, 93% of staff are on open-term contracts, 7% are on fixed-term contracts.
Sweden	With the exception of very few positions (such as judges), all lifelong employment in the Swedish Government administration has been replaced by employment on a permanent contract basis. This means that government employees are under the same legislation for employment protection as any employee in Sweden. Today, more than 95% of government staff are employed under a permanent contract basis
Switzerland	As from 1 January 2002, there are no more civil servants. All federal staff have employee status except only a small category of personnel such as members of federal appeals commissions.
United Kingdom	The civil service makes use of both fixed-term and casual appointments alongside its permanent staff in order to give managers flexibility to meet genuine short-term needs sensibly and economically.

Source: OECD, 2005

Appendix B

Organization Chart of the Ministry of

Public Health by Cluster

Structure of the Ministry of Public Health by Cluster

| Professional Councils | Ministry of Public Health | National Health Board |

Office of the Minister

Permanent Secretary | Cluster of Medical Services Development Deputy Permanent Secretary | Cluster of Public Health Development Deputy Permanent Secretary | Cluster of Public Health Services Support Depute Permanent Secretary

- **Office of the Permanent Secretary**
  - Bureau of Central Administration
  - Information and Communication Technology Center
  - Praboromarajchanok Institute of Health Manpower Development
  - Bureau of Inspection and Evaluation
  - Bureau of Policy and Strategy

Provincial Administration
- Provincial Public Health Offices
- District Health Offices

Source: Ministerial Regulations of the Ministry of Public Health

- **Department of Medical Services**
  - Office of the Secretary
  - Personnel Div.
  - Finance Division   - Planning Division
  - Nopparat Rajathanee Hospital
  - Mettapracharak Hospital
  - Rajavithi Hospital- Lerdsin Hospital
  - Priest Hospital
  - The Sirindhorn National Medical Rehabilitation Center
  - Institute of Dentistry
  - Institute of Pathology
  - Prasat Neurological Institute
  - National Cancer Institute
  - Thanyarak Institute of Drug Abuse
  - Chest Institute
  - Institute of Dermatology
  - Institute of Geriatric Medicine
  - Queen Sirikit National Institute of Child Health
  - Bureau of Nursing
  - Bureau of Medical Technical Development
- **Department of Thai Traditional and Alternative Medicine Development**
  - Office of the Secretary
  - Division of Alternative Medicine
  - The Institute of Thai Traditional
  - Medicine
- **Department of Mental Health**
  - Office of the Secretary
  - Personnel Division - Finance Division
  - Planning Division - Psycho-Social Div.
  - Srithunya Psychiatric Hospital
  - Mental Health Regional 1-12
  - Galyarajanagarindra Institute
  - Somdet Chaopraya Psychiatric Institute
  - Rajanukul Mental Retardation Institute
  - Mental Health Technical Development Bureau

- **Department of Disease Control**
  - Office of the Secretary
  - Personnel Division
  - Finance Division
  - Planning Division
  - Bamrasnaradura Institute
  - Rajprachasamasai Institute
  - Office of Disease Prevention and Control 1-12
  - Bureau of Epidemiology
  - Bureau of Occupational and Environment Diseases
  - Bureau of General Communicable Diseases
  - Bureau of Vector-Borne Diseases
  - Bureau of AIDS, TB and STIs
- **Department of Health**
  - Office of the Secretary
  - Personnel Division
  - Finance Division
  - Dental Health Division
  - Planning Division
  - Nutrition Division
  - Community Sanitation and Health Impact Assessment Division
  - Food and Water Sanitation Division
  - Reproductive Health Division
  - Division of Physical Activities and Health
  - Health Promotion Center 1-12
  - Bureau of Health Promotion
  - Bureau of Environmental Health

- **Department of Health Service Support**
  - Bureau of Administration
  - Medical Registration Division
  - Division of Design and Construction
  - Medical of Engineering Division
  - Primary Health Care Division
  - Health Education Division
  - Bureau of Health Service System Development
- **Department of Medical Sciences**
  - Office of the Secretary
  - Division of Cosmetics and Hazardous Substances
  - Division of Biological Products
  - Division of Planning and Technical Coordination
  - Division of Radiation and Medical Devices
  - Regional Medical Sciences Center 1-12
  - National Institute of Health
  - Medicinal Plant Research Institute
  - Bureau of Quality and Food Safety
  - Bureau of Laboratory Quality Standards
  - Bureau of Drug and Narcotics
- **Food and Drug Administration**
  - Office of the Secretary
  - Medical Device Control Division
  - Drug Control Division
  - Narcotics Control Division
  - Food Control Division
  - Food and Drug Inspection Port Div.
  - Technical and Policy Administration
  - Public and Consumer Affairs Division
  - Rural and Local Consumer Health Products Protection Promotion Div.

Appendix C

The National Health Development Plan (1961-2011)

The National Health Development Plan (1961-2011)

1 The 1st – 3rd National Health Development Plan (1961-1976)

During the 1st – 3rd Plan, development activities were influenced by Western health systems, focusing on efforts to make people health, so that they would be able to participate in economic development undertakings. Thus, in this phase investment was made on health infrastructure, particularly on hospitals, medical schools at various universities, and provincial hospitals, as well as on the production and development of nurses and midwives, and health workers, including other health personnel. Major health programs in this phase include those on family planning, maternal and child health, communicable disease control, and medical services for the poor, with the support from international health organizations such as WHO and UNICEF.

With the WHO collaboration, the Ministry of Public Health had realized that there was a need to get the assistance from WHO in building systems and methods in health planning in order to improve effective allocation of resources. In 1974 with the collaboration of WHO, Thailand had participated in "Country Health Programming" method for the preparation of national health development plan which was highly recognized by the National Economic and Social Development Board (NESDB). In addition, Health Statistics Division was transferred to be under the Office of Permanent Secretary in 1974.

2 The 4th – 5th National Health Development Plan (1977-1986)

In this phase, the government realized the negligence of social and rural development that resulted in disparities of income distribution and growth. This had led to the adoption of the "Primary Health Care" approach which support the community and the people to realize local problems and their causes, including new knowledge that help them resolve their own problems. These primary health care strategies aim to achieve the long term goal "Health for All by the Year 2000". With this approach, community – based activities, emphasizing community participation have been promoted as well as the expansion of the health infrastructure including health facilities to cover all rural communities.

The fourth five-year National Health Development Plan (1977-81) was the product of the two-year systematic planning process. This paved way to decentralized management in the health sector down to provincial, district, sub-district, and village levels. At the end of the fourth five-year plan, although the standard of health care delivery in general had improved remarkably and considerable expansion of coverage has been achieved, the majority of rural population continued to suffer from pressing health problems related to poor living conditions, inadequate sanitary facilities, deteriorated natural environment, malnutrition, and other behavioral factors.

Not only the health planning expertise was supported but also important health policy issues were suggested by the WHO. The health policy transition toward WHO "Primary Health Care" in 1978 had led Thailand to a more comprehensive health project approach which has had an impact on health policy and plan development. Thailand is fully committed to achieving WHO's global goal of "Health for All by the Year 2000". During this period, a close partnership has been developed between RTG officials and WHO secretariat at all levels i.e. WHO Representative and staff at country level, Regional Director and staff at WHO SEARO, and Director-General and staff at WHO headquarters.

3 The 6th – 9th National Health Development Plan (1987-2006)

During the Sixth plan, the country has experienced an epidemiological and population transition, with an increasing incidence of non-communicable disease linked to changes in lifestyle. However, the situation and trends in health problems are more complex due to the rapid change in population, society, politics, economics, and environment. Managerial Process for National Health Development (MPNHD) had been utilized as a tool in the sixth plan (1987-91) and also had been transferred to the provincial health planners as "Managerial Process for Provincial Health Development.

During the sixth and eight plans from 1986 to 1999, Thailand has realized that the importance of health information, health economics and health care financing would be important in health planning. Therefore, with USAID and WHO assistance, trainings in health economics have been undertaken during the sixth plan (1987-91) and workshops in health care financing during the seventh plan (1992-97). Moreover, human resources for health planning, management of health information system,

epidemiological situation, monitoring and evaluation of health plans have also been emphasized during the seventh plan. Financial resource from WHO supported planning activities such as Provincial Health Surrey, improvement of health information management and a computer system for communicable disease control purposes.

At the end of the seventh plan throughout the eighth plan, WHO has introduced Health Futures Studies to the Ministry of Public Health which could be used as a tool in supporting health policy and planning formulation. During this eighth plan, the economic crisis occurred. The public sector reform was on the government agenda. Health sector reform was unavoidable.

The 9th National Health Development Plan (2001-2006) was a strategic plan. This plan emphasized a clear vision on people-centered approach and the Philosophy of Sufficiency Economy. Due to the numerous changing trends, formulation was based on three groups of strategies that aimed to provide guiding directive for health development in response to complex and dynamic current situations and trends. The objectives were: first to strengthen and stabilize domestic economy, develop an early warning system and carry out economic restructuring in order to upgrade production efficiency and international competitiveness of the country; second was to lay out a firm foundation for national development in the long run, with greater flexibility to external changes; third was to promote governance at all levels in the Thai society; and the last objective was to alleviate poverty problem as well as increase potential and opportunities of the Thai people to become self-reliant.

The 9th National Health Development Plan aimed at well being and entire health system development. The vision of this plan focused on health security and universal health care coverage for every person in Thai society through people participation process. The objectives were as follows:

1. To foster proactive health promotion, consumer protection, food safety and food security, occupational health and environment protection, and disease prevention and control.

2. To establish health security and equal access to quality health services.

3. To build up people capability in health promotion and in health system management.

4. To establish mechanism and measures in generating knowledge through research and development utilizing both local and international health wisdom.

Under the 9th National Health Development Plan, there are 6 strategies as follows:

Strategy 1 Expedition of Proactive Health Promotion

Strategy 2 Establishment of Universal Health Insurance

Strategy 3 Reform of Administrative Structure and Mechanisms on health

Strategy 4 Civil Society Strengthening on health

Strategy 5 Health Knowledge and Wisdom Management

Strategy 6 Health Manpower Development Serving New Changing Health Reform

4 The 10th National Health Development Plan (2007-2011)

The present 10th Plan follows the 9th Plan vision "people-centered approach and the Philosophy of Sufficiency Economy." Based on the collaborative efforts of all sectors in the society, the concept framework to formulate the plan is built on three groups of capitals that aim to provide guiding directive of the plan: economic capital (physical capital, financial capital/assets, and intangible capital), social capital (education, health and human security), and natural resource and environmental capital (based on biodiversity management). Health is under the social capital and health services sector is also considered as a new wave for Thailand competitiveness in the global trend of trade liberalization. This plan will set health strategies as follows: to improve the development of population from new born babies, to reform health services by improving the quality and standard of care focused on disease surveillance and prevention for the Thai and migrant labors in Thailand, to build up a new health system to strengthen community and individuals, to campaign on health activities and sports for healthy behaviors and lifestyles, and to prepare for aging population.

Landmarks in the Thai Health Policy and Plan Development

Year	Health Policy and Plan Development
Before 1828	There was only traditional herbal medicine. There was no formal health care system. People relied on self care and home remedies.
1828-89	Western medicine had been introduced to Thailand by the American Presbyterian Mission Board. The first incentive to public health work was to combat epidemic diseases such as cholera, smallpox, yaw and malaria. The smallpox vaccine was introduced into Thailand since 1841. The first western medical school was established at Siriraj Hospital in 1989.
1936-60	Other lower levels of health personnel were produced in 1936. By 1950, a provincial hospital was established in each province.
1946	Thailand was one of fifty-one members of the United Nation and attended the International Conference in New York in 1946 for the establishment of WHO in 1948 and the First World Health Assembly was held in 1948.
1949	In 1949, there was a health survey of Bangkok children 10-14 years, the most common conditions were trachoma, skin diseases, lice, bow-legs and goiter. The death rate from pulmonary tuberculosis was 250.5 per 100,000 population in 1948. Yaws and leprosy were present. The infant mortality rate was 68.1 per 1,000 live births in 1949. The health of the population had deteriorated by the end of the war. However, Thailand was affected in a lesser extent compared to Burma, Indonesia, and India.
1973-77	WHO introduced a planning process in the field of health during the late 1950s based on the modern science and technology. During 1973-77, the strengthening of health services, the development of health manpower, disease prevention and control, and health promotion have been emphasized through many programs such as family planning, EPI,

Year	Health Policy and Plan Development
	drug abuse and environment health.
1975	Although the constitution has stated that government should provide health services to the low-income group since 1975, the policy has been fully implemented just before the 5th plan in 1981.
1976-86	The alarming worldwide trends in smoking-related mortality and morbidity was started. Activities on smoking and health had developed and after an inter-country seminar on smoking heal in Kathmandu in 1884 had made strong recommendations for controlling the smoking epidemic in the Southeast Asia Region which Thailand as a member country support by WHO/SIDA to hold national meetings and formulated plans of action. Since then Thailand has been actively participated in controlling smoking.
1977	The fist WHO Model List of Essential Drugs was published which contained 208 pharmaceutical products; "essential drugs for basic needs, drugs which satisfy the health care needs of the majority of the population and should be available at all times in adequate amounts and in the appropriate dosage forms. Its effectiveness as a tool for drug supplies, for education and for highlighting lacunae in therapeutic needs…". Thailand has started developing the National List of Essential Drugs since 1981 and the last revision is in 1999.
1978	A landmark in the development of health policy was the health policy transition toward WHO Health For All goal in 1978. Thailand has experienced health development through practicing WHO initiative Country Health Programming which has had an impact on health policy and plan development. This lead to a more comprehensive health project approach such as Primary Health Care Program. After that Thailand has developed the Basic Minimum Needs Approach and Health Card Project during the 1980's.
1985	Since the first cases of AIDS were recognized in the United States,

Year	Health Policy and Plan Development
	Thailand has responded to the emergence of HIV and AIDS as early as 1985 and was the first country in the SEARO region to put AIDS Prevention and Control Program in the National Health Development Plan (1992-1996).
1986	Promotion of healthy lifestyles such as Healthy Cities Project and a new concept of "Health Promotion" under the Ottawa Charter in 1986 convinced country members to set up strategies and program in health promotion. Since then Thailand has also advocated to health promotion for the year beyond 2000.
1990	Thailand enacted the Social Security Law in 1990 which increases the coverage of health insurance to workers in the formal sector. This marks a progress on compulsory health insurance after an initiative voluntary health card insurance project.
1992	Health Systems Research Institute has been established.
1994	Experimental development models have been implemented in many provinces funded by many organizations. The Office of Health Care Reform Project has been established in 1996.
1997	The 8th Plan is the first plan to focus on human-centered development which is in line with the new people constitution. Economic crisis in Asia and in Thailand has affected the health sector as a whole. Health budgets have been cut. Many reforms have been called for such as Civil Servant Medical Benefit Scheme Reform, Drug Management Reform, and Good Health at Low Cost Policy.
1998-2000	International organizations have come in to assist in health care reform in order to address to allocative and technical efficiency issues and other support for important health programs. Seven hospital have been selected as pilots for implementation of autonomy.
2001	Thailand got a new government in early 2001. Public sector reform and health care reform together with the implementation of the new

Year	Health Policy and Plan Development
	government health policy of "30 baht universal health care coverage policy" in 2001 have an impact on health care system of Thailand. By April 2002, Thailand claimed for "Universal Coverage".
2003	Healthy Thailand, a strategic approach initiated by the Ministry of Public Health, was adopted as a National Agenda to use as a guideline to reduce behavioral health risks and solve major health problems in pursuing the MGDs targets by 2015.
2005	In August 2005, the Global Conference on Health Promotion adopted the Bangkok Charter on Health Promotion.
2005-2006	Modernizing Health Care Systems in Thailand was planned to enhance the development of e-health, excellent medical services and health research centers to pursue a proactive international and regional health policy in conjunction with domestic health policy.
2006-2007	The 10th Plan started in October 2006, applying sufficiency economy philosophy to health sector.
2008	Established National Institute of Emergency Medical Services. Strengthening National TB Control program.
2009	Established Sub-district Health Promotion Hospital (2009-2013). Mega project investment in health. ASEAN Summit on Regional Control of Pandemic Influenza AH1N1 Adopted National Elderly Plan.

Sources: Regional Office for South-East Asia, World Health Organization, Bureau of Policy and Strategy, Ministry of Public Health.

Appendix D

Numbers of Public Employees Working for the MOPH under the

Central Administration as Service Agents and Policy Agents

Numbers of Public Employees Working for the MOPH under the Central Administration as Service Agents and Policy Agents

Service Agents	No. of Public Employees	Policy Agents	No. of Public Employees
1. Department of Medical Service	8,766*	1. Planning Division – Dept. of Medical Service	38
2. Department of Mental Health	5,004*	2. Planning Division – Dept. of Mental Health	27
3. Department of Disease Control	5,149*	3. Planning Division – Dept. of Disease Control	36
4. Department of Health	3,013*	4. Planning Division – Dept. of Health	23
5. Department of Health Service Support	1,078*	5. Planning and Strategy Division – Dept. of Health Service Support	22
6. Department of Medical Sciences	1,284*	6. Planning Division – Dept. of Medical Sciences	23
7. Food and Drug Administration	613*	7. Technical and Policy Administration Division – Dept. of Food and Drug Administration	37
		8. Office of the Permanent Secretary**	9,586
Total	24,907	Total	9,798

Source: MOPH, 2011

Note: * Excluded Planning Division

    ** Bureau of Policy and Strategy has 324 employees

Appendix E

Samples of the Study for the MOPH Employees

Samples of the Study for the MOPH Employees

Service Agents	No. of Public Employees	Policy Agents	No. of Public Employees
1. Department of Medical Services		1. Planning Division – Dept. of Medical Service	18
1.1 Rajavithi Hospital	172		
2. Department of Mental Health		2. Planning Division – Dept. of Mental Health	13
2.1 Rajanukul Institute	98		
3. Department of Disease Control		3. Planning Division – Dept. of Disease Control	16
3.1 Bureau of General Communicable Diseases	100		
4. Department of Health		4. Planning Division – Dept. of Health	11
4.1 Bureau of Nutrition	59		
5. Department of Health Service Support		5. Planning and Strategy Division – Dept. of Health Service Support	7
5.1 Primary Health Care Division	22		
6. Department of Medical Sciences		6. Planning Division – Dept. of Medical Sciences	12
6.1 Bureau of Quality and Food Safety	25	7. Technical and Policy Administration Division – Dept. of Food and Drug Administration	18
7. Food and Drug Administration			
7.1 Bureau of Food	14	8. Bureau of Policy and Strategy	105
Total	490	Total	200

Appendix F

Organizational Culture Assessment Instrument (OCAI)

Organizational Culture Assessment Instrument (OCAI)
Cameron & Quinn (1999)

The OCAI consists of six questions. Each question has four alternatives. You will be asked to complete the six questions for both your organization's current state and your preferred state of the organization.

Please read the question headings and divide 100 points among the four alternatives depending on the extend to which each alternative is representative of your current or preferred organizational culture.

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

	2. Organizational Leadership	Current	Preferred
A	The leadership in the organization is generally considered to exemplify mentoring, facilitating, or nurturing.		
B	The leadership in the organization is generally considered to entrepreneurship, innovating, or risk taking.		
C	The leadership in the organization is generally considered to exemplify a no-nonsense, aggressive, results-oriented focus.		
D	The leadership in the organization is generally considered to coordinating, organizing, or smooth-running efficiency.		
	Total		

	3. Management of employees	Current	Preferred
A	The management style in the organization is characterized by teamwork, consensus, and participation.		
B	The management style in the organization is characterized by individual risk-taking, innovation, freedom, and uniqueness.		
C	The management style in the organization is characterized by hard-driving competitiveness, high demands, and achievement.		
D	The management style in the organization is characterized by security of employment, conformity, predictability, and stability in relationships.		
	Total		

4. Organization Glue		Current	Preferred
A	The glue that holds the organization together is loyalty and mutual trust. Commitment to this organization runs high.		
B	The glue that holds the organization together is commitment to innovation and development. There is an emphasis on being on the cutting edge.		
C	The glue that holds the organization together is the emphasis on achievement and goal accomplishment. Aggressiveness and winning are common themes.		
D	The glue that holds the organization together is formal rules and policies. Maintaining a smooth-running organization is important.		
	Total		

5. Strategic Emphases		Current	Preferred
A	The organization emphasizes human development. High trust, openness, and participation persist.		
B	The organization emphasizes acquiring new resources and creating new challenges. Trying new things and prospecting for opportunities are valued.		
C	The organization emphasizes competitive actions and achievement. Hitting stretch targets and winning in the marketplace are dominant.		
D	The organization emphasizes performance and stability. Efficiency, control and smooth operations are important.		
	Total		

6. Criteria of Success		Current	Preferred
A	The organization defines success on the basis of the development of human resources, teamwork, employee commitment, and concern for people.		
B	The organization defines success on the basis of having the most unique or newest products. It is a product leader and innovator.		
C	The organization defines success on the basis of wining in the marketplace and outpacing the competition. Competitive market leadership is key.		
D	The organization defines success on the basis of efficiency. Dependable delivery, smooth scheduling, and low-cost production are critical..		
	Total		

Appendix G

28 Items of the OCP

28 Items of the OCP

OCP Items

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1. Stability
2. Being people oriented
3. Being innovative
4. Fairness
5. Being calm
6. Being reflective
7. Achievement orientation
8. Quick to take advantage of opportunities
9. Having high expectations for performance
10. High pay for good performance
11. Security of employment
12. Enthusiasm for the job
13. An emphasis on quality
14. Risk taking
15. Being distinctive-different from others
16. Having a good reputation
17. Being team oriented
18. Being results oriented
19. Having a clear guiding philosophy
20. Being competitive
21. Sharing information freely
22. Being highly organized
23. Being socially responsible
24. Low conflict
25. Opportunities for professional growth
26. Collaboration
27. Praise for good performance
28. Taking individual responsibility

Note: Adapted from Sarros, Gray, Densten and Cooper, 2005.

Appendix H

18 Items of the Organizational Commitment

18 Items of the Organizational Commitment

Items

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1. I am willing to put special efforts in order to help this organization achieve its goals or missions.
2. This organization provides me an opportunity to use skills and knowledge in performing my job.
3. I feel that my supervisor exerts all efforts to treat me with respect and consideration.
4. I feel that this organization has much emphasis on rules and procedures which limits my ability to work effectively and efficiently.
5. This organization develops me regularly to be efficient in performing my work or tasks.
6. I would be very happy to spend the rest of my career in this organization..
7. It would be very hard for me to leave my organization right now, even if I wanted to.
8. Too much of my life would be disrupted if I decided I wanted to leave my organization right now.
9. Right now, staying with my organization is a matter of necessity as much as desire.
10. I believe that I have too few options to consider leaving this organization.
11. One of the few negative consequences of leaving this organization would be the scarcity of available alternatives.
12. One of the major reasons I continue to work for this organization is that leaving would require considerable personal sacrifice; another organization may not match the overall benefits I have here.
13. I do not feel any obligation to remain with my current employer.
14. Even if it were to my advantage, I do not feel it would be right to leave my organization now.
15. I would feel guilty if I left my organization now.
16. This organization deserves my loyalty.
17. I would not leave my organization right now because I have a sense of obligation to the people in it.
18. I owe a great deal to my organization.

Source: Adapted from Meyer and Allen (1991)

Appendix I

Pretest's Internal Consistency of All Responses of the Samples

Pretest's Internal Consistency of All Responses of the Samples

		Cronbach's alpha coefficient		
			Item	
Variable	Item	Before	Deleted	After
OCAI- Current:				
Clan	1a, 2a, 3a, 4a, 5a, 6a	.6378	-	.6378
Adhocracy	1b, 2b, 3b, 4b, 5b, 6b	.7485	-	.7485
Market	1c, 2c, 3c, 4c, 5c, 6c	.4954	-	.4954
Hierarchy	1d, 2d, 3d, 4d, 5d, 6d	.8318	-	.8318
OCAI- Preferred:				
Clan	1a, 2a, 3a, 4a, 5a, 6a	.7191	-	.7191
Adhocracy	1b, 2b, 3b, 4b, 5b, 6b	.7585	-	.7585
Market	1c, 2c, 3c, 4c, 5c, 6c	.5925	-	.5925
Hierarchy	1d, 2d, 3d, 4d, 5d, 6d	.7117	-	.7117
OCP:				
Competitiveness	7, 13, 15, 20	.5218	20	.6753
Social Responsibility	6, 16, 19, 23	.8008	-	.8008
Supportiveness	2, 17, 21, 26	.7320	-	.7320
Innovation	3, 8, 14, 28	.7574	-	.7574
Emphasis on Rewards	4, 10, 25, 27	.8951	-	.8951
Performance Orientation	9, 12, 18, 22	.7912	22	.8221
Stability	1, 5, 11, 24	.5025	1, 5	.7915
OC				
Affective Commitment	1, 2, 3, 4R, 5, 6	.7423	-	.7423
Continuance Commitment	7, 8, 9, 10, 11, 12	.9029	-	.9029
Normative Commitment	13R, 14, 15, 16, 17, 18	.7999	-	.7999

Appendix J

24 Items of the OCP

24 Items of the Revised OCP

OCP Items

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1. Being people oriented
2. Being innovative
3. Fairness
4. Being reflective
5. Achievement orientation
6. Quick to take advantage of opportunities
7. Having high expectations for performance
8. High pay for good performance
9. Security of employment
10. Enthusiasm for the job
11. An emphasis on quality
12. Risk taking
13. Being distinctive-different from others
14. Having a good reputation
15. Being team oriented
16. Being results oriented
17. Having a clear guiding philosophy
18. Sharing information freely
19. Being socially responsible
20. Low conflict
21. Opportunities for professional growth
22. Collaboration
23. Praise for good performance
24. Taking individual responsibility

Note: The items were rearranged after pre-test

Appendix K

The Returned Surveys of the Study

The Returned Surveys of the Study

Service Agents	Return	%	Policy Agents	Return	%
1. Department of Medical Services			1. Planning Division		
1.1 Rajavithi Hospital	117	68	– Dept. of Medical Service	9	50
2. Department of Mental Health			2. Planning Division		
2.1 Rajanukul Institute	85	86	– Dept. of Mental Health	10	77
3. Department of Disease Control			3. Planning Division		
3.1 Bureau of General	82	82	– Dept. of Disease Control	14	87
Communicable Diseases			4. Planning Division		
4. Department of Health			– Dept. of Health	10	91
4.1 Bureau of Nutrition	38	64	5. Planning and Strategy Division		
5. Department of Health Service			– Dept. of Health Service Support	5	71
Support			6. Planning Division		
5.1 Primary Health Care Division	17	77	– Dept. of Medical Sciences	7	58
6. Department of Medical Sciences			7. Technical and Policy		
6.1 Bureau of Quality and Food	21	84	Administration Division		
Safety			– Dept. of Food and Drug	12	67
7. Food and Drug Administration			Administration		
7.1 Bureau of Food	14	100	8. Bureau of Policy and Strategy	68	65
Total	374	76	Total	135	68

Appendix L

Exploratory Factor Analysis of OCP Items

Exploratory Factor Analysis of OCP Items

OCP Item	Factor Loading
REWARD	
OCP20 Low conflict	.785
OCP21 Opportunities for professional growth	.730
OCP23 Praise for good performance	.694
OCP22 Collaboration	.667
OCP3 Fairness	.666
OCP8 High pay for good performance	.555
OCP15 Being team oriented	.497
OCP17 Having a clear guiding philosophy	.482
OCP4 Being reflective	.464
OCP9 Security of employment	.432
OCP18 Sharing information freely	.413
INNOVATION	
OCO13 Being distinctive-different from others	.772
OCP14 Having a good reputation	.650
OCP12 Risk taking	.553
OCP7 Having high expectations for performance	.550
OCP6 Quick to take advantage of opportunities	.490
OCP10 Enthusiasm for the job	.480
OCP2 Being innovative	.445
OCP19 Being socially responsible	.409
PERFORMANCE	
OCP5 Achievement orientation	.765
OCP16 Being results oriented	.680
OCP11 An emphasis on quality	.530
OCP24 Taking individual responsibility	.519
OCP1 Being people oriented	.440

Appendix M

Exploratory Factor Analysis of

Organizational Commitment Items

Exploratory Factor Analysis of Organizational Commitment Items

Organizational Commitment Item	Factor Loading
AFFECTIVE COMMITMENT	
OC2 This organization provides me an opportunity to use skills and knowledge in performing my job.	.769
OC3 I feel that my supervisor exerts all efforts to treat me with respect and consideration.	.749
OC5 This organization develops me regularly to be efficient in performing my work or tasks.	.708
OC1 I am willing to put special efforts in order to help this organization achieve its goals or missions.	.662
OC16 This organization deserves my loyalty.	.643
OC6 I would be very happy to spend the rest of my career in this organization..	.628
OC18 I owe a great deal to my organization.	.589
OC17 I would not leave my organization right now because I have a sense of obligation to the people in it.	.574
OC4 I feel that this organization has much emphasis on rules and procedures which limits my ability to work effectively and efficiently.	.476
OC13 I do not feel any obligation to remain with my current employer.	.408
CONTINUANCE COMMITMENT	
OC10 I believe that I have too few options to consider leaving this organization.	.832
OC11 One of the few negative consequences of leaving this organization would be the scarcity of available alternatives.	.809
OC9 Right now, staying with my organization is a matter of necessity as much as desire.	.722
OC12 One of the major reasons I continue to work for this organization is that leaving would require considerable personal sacrifice; another organization may not match the overall benefits I have here.	.713
OC8 Too much of my life would be disrupted if I decided I wanted to leave my organization right now.	.707
OC7 It would be very hard for me to leave my organization right now, even if I wanted to.	.594
NORMATIVE COMMITMENT	
OC15 I would feel guilty if I left my organization now.	.836
OC14 Even if it were to my advantage, I do not feel it would be right to leave my organization now.	.817

Appendix N

Survey Questionnaire

ชุดที่.......

<div style="border: 1px solid black; padding: 10px; text-align: center;">
สำหรับข้าราชการ พนักงานราชการ และลูกจ้างประจำ
</div>

แบบสอบถาม

วัฒนธรรมและความผูกพันต่อองค์การของพนักงานกระทรวงสาธารณสุข:
ศึกษาเปรียบเทียบระหว่างพนักงานที่ทำงานในหน่วยงานบริการและหน่วยงานด้านนโยบาย

<u>**คำชี้แจง**</u> : แบบสอบถามฉบับนี้เป็นส่วนหนึ่งของการทำวิทยานิพนธ์สำหรับการศึกษาใน
หลักสูตรปรัชญาดุษฎีบัณฑิต (การบริหารการพัฒนา) คณะรัฐประศาสนศาสตร์
สถาบันบัณฑิตพัฒนบริหารศาสตร์ กรุณาตอบแบบสอบถามตามความเป็นจริง
แบบสอบถามฉบับนี้ไม่มีการเปิดเผยชื่อและข้อมูลส่วนตัวของผู้ตอบแบบสอบถาม
ผู้วิจัยใช้ข้อมูลที่ท่านตอบเพื่อการศึกษาทางวิชาการเท่านั้น

ส่วนที่ 1 ข้อมูลส่วนบุคคล

1. เพศ
      (   ) 1. ชาย   (   ) 2. หญิง

2. อายุ _____ ปี

3. ระดับการศึกษา
      (   ) 1. ต่ำกว่าปริญญาตรี (   ) 2. ปริญญาตรี
      (   ) 3. ปริญญาโท   (   ) 4. ปริญญาเอก

4. สถานภาพสมรส
      (   ) 1. โสด   (   ) 2. สมรส   (   ) 3. อื่น ๆ

5. สถานภาพการจ้างงาน
      (   ) 1. ข้าราชการ   (   ) 2. พนักงานราชการ (   ) 3. ลูกจ้างประจำ

6. ระยะเวลาที่ทำงานในหน่วยงานนี้จำนวน _____ ปี (โดยประมาณ)

7. ท่านทำงานในตำแหน่งบริหารหรือไม่ (ตำแหน่งบริหารหมายถึงตำแหน่งที่มีผู้ใต้บังคับบัญชา)
      (   ) 1. ใช่   (   ) 2. ไม่ใช่

8. ระยะเวลาที่ทำงานในตำแหน่งปัจจุบันจำนวน _____ ปี (โดยประมาณ)

ส่วนที่ 2 เครื่องมือการประเมินประเภทของวัฒนธรรมองค์การ

คำชี้แจง : แบบสอบถามในส่วนนี้มีทั้งหมด 6 ข้อ และแต่ละข้อประกอบด้วยข้อย่อย 4 ข้อ
โปรดปฏิบัติดังต่อไปนี้

ขั้นตอนที่ 1 ในช่อง "สภาพปัจจุบัน" ให้ท่านทำข้อที่ 1 ลักษณะเด่นของหน่วยงาน
โดยแบ่งคะแนน 100 คะแนนให้แก่ข้อย่อยทั้ง 4 ข้อ ข้อที่ได้คะแนนสูงสุดหมายถึงหน่วยงาน
ท่านมีลักษณะตรงตามที่อ่านมากที่สุด คะแนนรวมของ 4 ข้อย่อยต้องเท่ากับ 100 คะแนน

ขั้นตอนที่ 2 ให้ท่านทำข้อที่ 1 ในช่อง "สภาพที่อยากให้เป็น" โดยแบ่งคะแนน 100
คะแนนให้แก่ข้อย่อยทั้ง 4 ข้อ ข้อที่ได้คะแนนสูงสุดหมายถึงท่านอยากให้หน่วยงานมีลักษณะ
ตรงตามที่อ่านมากที่สุด คะแนนรวมของ 4 ข้อย่อยต้องเท่ากับ 100 คะแนน

ขั้นตอนที่ 3 เมื่อท่านทำข้อที่ 1 เสร็จ ให้ท่านทำข้อที่ 2 ข้อที่ 3 ข้อที่ 4 ข้อที่ 5 และ
ข้อที่ 6 ตามลำดับ

ตัวอย่าง

| ข้อ 1. ลักษณะเด่นของหน่วยงาน | | สภาพ
ปัจจุบัน | | สภาพที่
อยากให้เป็น |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| 1) | ให้ความสำคัญกับความสัมพันธ์ระหว่างบุคลากร
โดยถือเสมือนว่าเป็นบุคคลในครอบครัวเดียวกัน
ช่วยเหลือซึ่งกันและกันในการทำงาน | 25 | | 35 |
| 2) | ให้ความสำคัญกับการเปลี่ยนแปลง การคิด
สร้างสรรค์ และวิธีการปฏิบัติงานที่สอดคล้องกับ
สภาพแวดล้อมที่เปลี่ยนแปลงไป | 15 | | 20 |
| 3) | ให้ความสำคัญกับผลสำเร็จ บุคลากรในหน่วยงาน
มีการแข่งขันกันและมุ่งเน้นความสำเร็จ | 25 | | 20 |
| 4) | ให้ความสำคัญกับ กฎระเบียบ แบบแผน และ
การบริหารงานเป็นไปตามขั้นตอนที่กำหนด | 35 | | 25 |
| รวม | | 100 | | 100 |

ข้อ 1. ลักษณะเด่นของหน่วยงาน		สภาพปัจจุบัน		สภาพที่อยากให้เป็น
1)	ให้ความสำคัญกับความสัมพันธ์ระหว่างบุคลากร โดยถือเสมือนว่าเป็นบุคคลในครอบครัวเดียวกัน ช่วยเหลือซึ่งกันและกันในการทำงาน			
2)	ให้ความสำคัญกับการเปลี่ยนแปลง การคิด สร้างสรรค์ และวิธีการปฏิบัติงานที่สอดคล้องกับ สภาพแวดล้อมที่เปลี่ยนแปลงไป			
3)	ให้ความสำคัญกับผลสำเร็จ บุคลากรในหน่วยงาน มีการแข่งขันกันและมุ่งเน้นความสำเร็จ			
4)	ให้ความสำคัญกับ กฎระเบียบ แบบแผน และ การบริหารงานเป็นไปตามขั้นตอนที่กำหนด			
รวม		100		100

ข้อ 2. ลักษณะภาวะผู้นำของผู้บังคับบัญชา		สภาพปัจจุบัน		สภาพที่อยากให้เป็น
1)	คอยติดตามงาน ให้คำปรึกษา และสนับสนุน ผู้ใต้บังคับบัญชา			
2)	กล้าตัดสินใจ และมีความคิดสร้างสรรค์			
3)	ดำเนินงานในเชิงรุก เน้นมาตรฐานงาน และ ความสำเร็จของงาน			
4)	เน้นการประสานงาน การกำกับดูแลเพื่อให้การ ทำงานราบรื่น			
รวม		100		100

ข้อ 3. ลักษณะของผู้บริหารในหน่วยงาน		สภาพปัจจุบัน		สภาพที่อยากให้เป็น
1)	ส่งเสริมให้มีการทำงานเป็นทีม สมาชิกมีส่วนร่วมในการตัดสินใจ			
2)	ส่งเสริมให้พนักงานมีความคิดสร้างสรรค์ และมีอิสระในการตัดสินใจ			
3)	ส่งเสริมให้เกิดการแข่งขันในการทำงานเพื่อให้บรรลุผลสำเร็จตามเป้าหมาย			
4)	มุ่งเน้นการจ้างงานที่มั่นคง การทำงานตามสายบังคับบัญชาและปฏิบัติตามกฎระเบียบ			
รวม		100		100

ข้อ 4. ลักษณะของบุคลากรภายในหน่วยงาน		สภาพปัจจุบัน		สภาพที่อยากให้เป็น
1)	มีความจงรักภักดีต่อหน่วยงาน ให้ความเชื่อถือซึ่งกันและกัน และมีความผูกพันต่อหน่วยงานนี้อย่างแน่นแฟ้น			
2)	มีความคิดสร้างสรรค์ และมีการพัฒนาตนเองอยู่เสมอ			
3)	มีการทำงานแบบเชิงรุก เน้นการแข่งขันเพื่อให้บรรลุเป้าหมายและเกิดผลสำเร็จ			
4)	ทำงานโดยคำนึงถึงกฎ และระเบียบเพื่อให้การทำงานราบรื่น			
รวม		100		100

ข้อ 5. ลักษณะยุทธศาสตร์ที่หน่วยงานมุ่งเน้น		สภาพ ปัจจุบัน		สภาพที่ อยากให้เป็น
1)	การพัฒนาบุคลากร เพื่อให้เกิดความเชื่อใจกัน และการมีส่วนร่วมในการแสดงความคิดเห็น			
2)	การสร้างสรรค์โอกาสและงานใหม่ ๆ เพื่อให้เกิด คุณค่าแก่หน่วยงาน			
3)	การทำงานเชิงรุก ให้ความสำคัญกับเป้าหมาย และผลสำเร็จเพื่อให้เกิดจุดเด่นกว่าหน่วยงานอื่น			
4)	ผลการปฏิบัติงานและความมีเสถียรภาพโดยยึด หลักความมีประสิทธิภาพ การควบคุมและการ ดำเนินงานที่ราบรื่น			
รวม		100		100

ข้อ 6. เกณฑ์การวัดความสำเร็จของหน่วยงาน		สภาพ ปัจจุบัน		สภาพที่ อยากให้เป็น
1)	การพัฒนาตนเองของพนักงาน การทำงาน เป็นทีม ความผูกพัน และความเอื้ออาทรกัน			
2)	ความสามารถในการสร้างสรรค์งานใหม่ที่โดดเด่น กว่าหน่วยงานอื่น			
3)	ความเป็นผู้นำที่สามารถบรรลุเป้าประสงค์ มากกว่าหน่วยงานอื่น			
4)	ความสามารถทำงานให้เกิดประสิทธิภาพ ปฏิบัติตามกฎระเบียบโดยไม่มีข้อบกพร่อง			
รวม		100		100

ส่วนที่ 3 เครื่องมือการประเมินลักษณะของวัฒนธรรมองค์การ

<u>**คำชี้แจง**</u> : กรุณาตอบคำถามต่อไปนี้ โดยวงกลมตัวเลขที่ท่านมีความเห็นว่าลักษณะของ
วัฒนธรรมหรือค่านิยมต่อไปนี้สอดคล้องกับสภาพที่เป็นอยู่ของหน่วยงานท่าน

    5 หมายถึง เห็นด้วยอย่างยิ่ง   **4** หมายถึง เห็นด้วย
    3 หมายถึง ไม่แน่ใจ   **2** หมายถึง ไม่เห็นด้วย
    1 หมายถึง ไม่เห็นด้วยอย่างยิ่ง

	เห็นด้วยอย่างยิ่ง	เห็นด้วย	ไม่แน่ใจ	ไม่เห็นด้วย	ไม่เห็นด้วยอย่างยิ่ง
ท่านมีความเห็นว่าหน่วยงานท่าน........					
1. เน้นความสัมพันธ์ระหว่างบุคคล	5	4	3	2	1
2. ส่งเสริมให้สมาชิกมีความคิดสร้างสรรค์	5	4	3	2	1
3. มีความยุติธรรมในการประเมินผลการปฏิบัติงาน	5	4	3	2	1
4. มีการปลูกฝังให้สมาชิกไตร่ตรองเพื่อประโยชน์ของประชาชน	5	4	3	2	1
5. มุ่งเน้นความสำเร็จของงาน	5	4	3	2	1
6. พยายามจัดโครงการต่าง ๆที่เป็นประโยชน์เมื่อมีโอกาส	5	4	3	2	1
7. สมาชิกทุกคนมีความคาดหวังต่อผลการปฏิบัติงานในระดับสูง	5	4	3	2	1
8. มีการให้รางวัลแก่ผู้ที่มีผลการปฏิบัติดี	5	4	3	2	1
9. มีการจ้างงานที่มั่นคง	5	4	3	2	1
10. มีบรรยากาศของความกระตือรือร้นในการปฏิบัติงาน	5	4	3	2	1
11. มุ่งเน้นการทำงานที่มีคุณภาพ	5	4	3	2	1
12. กล้าเผชิญกับความเสี่ยงต่าง ๆ ที่เกิดขึ้น	5	4	3	2	1
13. มีผลการปฏิบัติงานที่โดดเด่นแตกต่างจากหน่วยงานอื่น	5	4	3	2	1
14. มีชื่อเสียงที่ดีในสายตาบุคคลภายนอก	5	4	3	2	1
15. มุ่งเน้นการทำงานเป็นทีม	5	4	3	2	1
16. มุ่งเน้นผลลัพธ์ที่ได้จากการทำงาน	5	4	3	2	1
17. มีปรัชญาในการทำงานที่ชัดเจน	5	4	3	2	1

ท่านมีความเห็นว่าหน่วยงานท่าน........	เห็นด้วยอย่างยิ่ง	เห็นด้วย	ไม่แน่ใจ	ไม่เห็นด้วย	ไม่เห็นด้วยอย่างยิ่ง
18. มีการแบ่งปันข้อมูลสารสนเทศอย่างกว้างขวาง	5	4	3	2	1
19. มีความรับผิดชอบต่อสังคม	5	4	3	2	1
20. มีความขัดแย้งน้อย	5	4	3	2	1
21. เปิดโอกาสให้มีความก้าวหน้าในตำแหน่งงาน	5	4	3	2	1
22. สมาชิกทุกคนให้ความร่วมมือในการทำงาน	5	4	3	2	1
23. ให้การยกย่องผู้ที่มีผลงานดี	5	4	3	2	1
24. สมาชิกแต่ละคนมีความรับผิดชอบในการปฏิบัติงาน	5	4	3	2	1

ส่วนที่ 4 ความผูกพันต่อองค์การ

<u>คำชี้แจง</u> : กรุณาตอบคำถามต่อไปนี้โดยวงกลมตัวเลขที่แสดงความรู้สึกของท่านได้ดีที่สุด

5 หมายถึง เห็นด้วยอย่างยิ่ง 4 หมายถึง เห็นด้วย

3 หมายถึง ไม่แน่ใจ 2 หมายถึง ไม่เห็นด้วย

1 หมายถึง ไม่เห็นด้วยอย่างยิ่ง

	เห็นด้วยอย่างยิ่ง	เห็นด้วย	ไม่แน่ใจ	ไม่เห็นด้วย	ไม่เห็นด้วยอย่างยิ่ง
ความผูกพันต่อองค์การ					
1. ท่านยินดีที่จะทุ่มเทความพยายามเป็นพิเศษในการปฏิบัติงาน เพื่อให้หน่วยงานท่านสามารถบรรลุเป้าหมายหรือพันธกิจ	5	4	3	2	1
2. หน่วยงานนี้ให้โอกาสท่านได้ใช้ความรู้ความสามารถในการ ปฏิบัติงาน	5	4	3	2	1
3. ท่านรู้สึกว่าผู้บังคับบัญชาให้ความเห็นอกเห็นใจ และให้เกียรติ ท่านในการปฏิบัติงาน	5	4	3	2	1
4. ท่านรู้สึกว่าหน่วยงานท่านมีกฎและระเบียบในการทำงานมากจนทำให้ เป็นข้อจำกัดในการปฏิบัติงานให้เกิดประสิทธิผลและประสิทธิภาพ	5	4	3	2	1
5. ท่านได้รับการพัฒนาอย่างสม่ำเสมอจนสามารถปฏิบัติงานได้ อย่างมีประสิทธิภาพ	5	4	3	2	1
6. ท่านยินดีที่จะทำงานให้กับหน่วยงานนี้ไปจนเกษียณอายุ	5	4	3	2	1
7. ในช่วงเวลานี้เป็นการยากมากที่จะลาออกจากหน่วยงานนี้ทั้งที่ อยากจะลาออกก็ตาม	5	4	3	2	1
8. หากท่านตัดสินใจขอย้ายหรือลาออกในเวลานี้ จะก่อให้เกิด ความยุ่งยากและส่งผลกระทบต่อครอบครัวมากเกินไป	5	4	3	2	1
ความผูกพันต่อองค์การ					
9. การที่ท่านยังทำงานอยู่กับหน่วยงานนี้เป็นเรื่องของความ จำเป็นทางเศรษฐกิจพอๆ กับความสมัครใจ	5	4	3	2	1
10. ท่านรู้สึกว่ามีทางเลือกอื่นน้อยมาก หากตัดสินใจไม่ทำงานที่ หน่วยงานนี้	5	4	3	2	1

	เห็นด้วยอย่างยิ่ง	เห็นด้วย	ไม่แน่ใจ	ไม่เห็นด้วย	ไม่เห็นด้วยอย่างยิ่ง
11. ปัญหาหนึ่งที่จะตามมาหากท่านย้ายหน่วยงานหรือลาออกจาก หน่วยงานนี้คือความยากลำบากในการหางานอื่นทำ	5	4	3	2	1
12. เหตุผลหลักที่ท่านยังคงทำงานที่หน่วยงานนี้เพราะถ้าขอย้าย หรือลาออก ท่านอาจไม่ได้รับสวัสดิการหรือผลตอบแทนจาก หน่วยงานอื่นหรือองค์กรอื่นได้เท่ากับที่ได้รับอยู่	5	4	3	2	1
13. ท่าน***ไม่ได้***รู้สึกว่ามีภาระผูกพันที่จะต้องอยู่กับหน่วยงานนี้เลย	5	4	3	2	1
14. ท่านรู้สึกว่าเป็นการไม่ถูกต้องที่จะลาออกในเวลานี้ ถึงแม้ว่า ท่านจะได้รับข้อเสนอที่ดีกว่าจากหน่วยงานอื่น	5	4	3	2	1
15. ท่านรู้สึกผิดหากจะลาออกในเวลานี้	5	4	3	2	1
16. หน่วยงานนี้สมควรได้รับความจงรักภักดีจากท่าน	5	4	3	2	1
17. ท่านไม่คิดจะลาออกในเวลานี้เพราะมีความผูกพันต่อคนในหน่วยงานนี้ (ผู้บริหาร หัวหน้า เพื่อนร่วมงาน หรือผู้ใต้บังคับบัญชา)	5	4	3	2	1
18. หน่วยงานนี้มีบุญคุณต่อท่าน	5	4	3	2	1

ส่วนที่ 5 ข้อคิดเห็นหรือข้อเสนอแนะ

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ขอขอบพระคุณทุกท่านในความร่วมมือตอบแบบสอบถาม

Questionnaire: English Version

"Analysis of Organizational Culture and Commitment to the Ministry of Public Health: A Comparative Study of Service Agents and Policy Agents"

Direction: Please answer the questions contained in this questionnaire as accurately as possible. This questionnaire is anonymous and confidential. Your responses will only be used for the purpose of academic research study and neither your responses nor your identity will be disclosed or revealed without your permission.

Section I: Demographic Data

1. Gender:
   - ( ) 1. Male
   - ( ) 2. Female

2. Age: _____ years

3. Education level:
   - ( ) 1. Lower than bachelor
   - ( ) 2. Bachelor degree
   - ( ) 3. Master degree
   - ( ) 4. Doctoral degree

4. Marital status:
   - ( ) 1. Single
   - ( ) 2. Married
   - ( ) 3. Others

5. Employment status:
   - ( ) 1. Civil servant
   - ( ) 2. State employee
   - ( ) 3. Permanent employee

6. Time spent at this Organization: _____ years

7. Management position (you have people working under you or directly report to you):
   - ( ) Yes
   - ( ) No

8. Time spent at this position: _____ years

Section II: Organizational Culture Assessment Instrument (OCAI)

The OCAI consists of six questions. Each question has four alternatives. You will be asked to complete the six questions for both your organization's current state and your preferred state of the organization.

Please read the question headings and divide 100 points among the four alternatives depending on the extent to which each alternative is representative of your current or preferred organizational culture.

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

2. Organizational Leadership		Current	Preferred
A	The leadership in the organization is generally considered to exemplify mentoring, facilitating, or nurturing.		
B	The leadership in the organization is generally considered to entrepreneurship, innovating, or risk taking.		
C	The leadership in the organization is generally considered to exemplify a no-nonsense, aggressive, results-oriented focus.		
D	The leadership in the organization is generally considered to coordinating, organizing, or smooth-running efficiency.		
Total		100	100

3. Management of employees		Current	Preferred
A	The management style in the organization is characterized by teamwork, consensus, and participation.		
B	The management style in the organization is characterized by individual risk-taking, innovation, freedom, and uniqueness.		
C	The management style in the organization is characterized by hard-driving competitiveness, high demands, and achievement.		
D	The management style in the organization is characterized by security of employment, conformity, predictability, and stability in relationships.		
Total		100	100

4. Organization Glue		Current	Preferred
A	The glue that holds the organization together is loyalty and mutual trust. Commitment to this organization runs high.		
B	The glue that holds the organization together is commitment to innovation and development. There is an emphasis on being on the cutting edge.		
C	The glue that holds the organization together is the emphasis on achievement and goal accomplishment. Aggressiveness and winning are common themes.		
D	The glue that holds the organization together is formal rules and policies. Maintaining a smooth-running organization is important.		
Total		100	100

5. Strategic Emphases		Current	Preferred
A	The organization emphasizes human development. High trust, openness, and participation persist.		
B	The organization emphasizes acquiring new resources and creating new challenges. Trying new things and prospecting for opportunities are valued.		
C	The organization emphasizes competitive actions and achievement. Hitting stretch targets and winning in the marketplace are dominant.		
D	The organization emphasizes performance and stability. Efficiency, control and smooth operations are important.		
Total		100	100

6. Criteria of Success		Current	Preferred
A	The organization defines success on the basis of the development of human resources, teamwork, employee commitment, and concern for people.		
B	The organization defines success on the basis of having the most unique or newest products. It is a product leader and innovator.		
C	The organization defines success on the basis of wining in the marketplace and outpacing the competition. Competitive market leadership is key.		
D	The organization defines success on the basis of efficiency. Dependable delivery, smooth scheduling, and low-cost production are critical..		
Total		100	100

Section III: Organization Culture Profile Items

This section concerns the culture of the organization in which you work. Please circle a rating number to indicate your perception of how the organization values this characteristic.

	Strongly Agree	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
Organizational Culture Items					
1. Being people oriented	5	4	3	2	1
2. Being innovative	5	4	3	2	1
3. Fairness	5	4	3	2	1
4. Being reflective	5	4	3	2	1
5. Achievement orientation	5	4	3	2	1
6. Quick to take advantage of opportunities	5	4	3	2	1
7. Having high expectations for performance	5	4	3	2	1
8. High pay for good performance	5	4	3	2	1
9. Security of employment	5	4	3	2	1
10. Enthusiasm for the job	5	4	3	2	1
11. An emphasis on quality	5	4	3	2	1
12. Risk taking	5	4	3	2	1
13. Being distinctive-different from others	5	4	3	2	1
14. Having a good reputation	5	4	3	2	1
15. Being team oriented	5	4	3	2	1
16. Being results oriented	5	4	3	2	1
17. Having a clear guiding philosophy	5	4	3	2	1
18. Sharing information freely	5	4	3	2	1
19. Being socially responsible	5	4	3	2	1
20. Low conflict	5	4	3	2	1
21. Opportunities for professional growth	5	4	3	2	1
22. Collaboration	5	4	3	2	1
23. Praise for good performance	5	4	3	2	1
24. Taking individual responsibility	5	4	3	2	1

Section IV: Organizational Commitment Items

Please indicate the response that best fits of your agreement or disagreement with each statement by circling a number from 1 to 5.

	Strongly Agree	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
Organizational Commitment Items					
1. I am willing to put special efforts in order to help this organization achieve its goals or missions.	5	4	3	2	1
2. This organization provides me an opportunity to use skills and knowledge in performing my job.	5	4	3	2	1
3. I feel that my supervisor exerts all efforts to treat me with respect and consideration.	5	4	3	2	1
4. I feel that this organization has much emphasis on rules and procedures which limits my ability to work effectively and efficiently.	5	4	3	2	1
5. This organization develops me regularly to be efficient in performing my work or tasks.	5	4	3	2	1
6. I would be very happy to spend the rest of my career in this organization.	5	4	3	2	1
7. It would be very hard for me to leave my organization right now, even if I wanted to.	5	4	3	2	1
8. Too much of my life would be disrupted if I decided I wanted to leave my organization right now.	5	4	3	2	1
9. Right now, staying with my organization is a matter of necessity as much as desire.	5	4	3	2	1
10. I believe that I have too few options to consider leaving this organization.	5	4	3	2	1
11. One of the few negative consequences of leaving this organization would be the scarcity of available alternatives.	5	4	3	2	1
12. One of the major reasons I continue to work for this organization is that leaving would require considerable personal sacrifice; another organization may not match the overall benefits I have here.	5	4	3	2	1
13. I do not feel any obligation to remain with my current employer.	5	4	3	2	1

	Strongly Agree	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
14. Even if it were to my advantage, I do not feel it would be right to leave my organization now.	5	4	3	2	1
15. I would feel guilty if I left my organization now.	5	4	3	2	1
16. This organization deserves my loyalty.	5	4	3	2	1
17. I would not leave my organization right now because I have a sense of obligation to the people in it.	5	4	3	2	1
18. I owe a great deal to my organization.	5	4	3	2	1

Structure of the Ministry of Public Health by Cluster

| Professional Councils | Ministry of Public Health | National Health Board |

Office of the Minister

- **Permanent Secretary**
- **Cluster of Medical Services Development Deputy Permanent Secretary**
- **Cluster of Public Health Development Deputy Permanent Secretary**
- **Cluster of Public Health Services Support Depute Permanent Secretary**

Permanent Secretary

- **Office of the Permanent Secretary**
  - Bureau of Central Administration
  - Information and Communication Technology Center
  - Praboromarajchanok Institute of Health Manpower Development
  - Bureau of Inspection and Evaluation
  - Bureau of Policy and Strategy

Provincial Administration
- Provincial Public Health Offices
- District Health Offices

Source: Ministerial Regulations of the Ministry of Public Health

Cluster of Medical Services Development

- **Department of Medical Services**
  - Office of the Secretary
  - Personnel Div.
  - Finance Division   - Planning Division
  - Nopparat Rajathanee Hospital
  - Mettapracharak Hospital
  - Rajavithi Hospital- Lerdsin Hospital
  - Priest Hospital
  - The Sirindhorn National Medical Rehabilitation Center
  - Institute of Dentistry
  - Institute of Pathology
  - Prasat Neurological Institute
  - National Cancer Institute
  - Thanyarak Institute of Drug Abuse
  - Chest Institute
  - Institute of Dermatology
  - Institute of Geriatric Medicine
  - Queen Sirikit National Institute of Child Health
  - Bureau of Nursing
  - Bureau of Medical Technical Development
- **Department of Thai Traditional and Alternative Medicine Development**
  - Office of the Secretary
  - Division of Alternative Medicine
  - The Institute of Thai Traditional
  - Medicine
- **Department of Mental Health**
  - Office of the Secretary
  - Personnel Division - Finance Division
  - Planning Division - Psycho-Social Div.
  - Srithunya Psychiatric Hospital
  - Mental Health Regional 1-12
  - Galyarajanagarindra Institute
  - Somdet Chaopraya Psychiatric Institute
  - Rajanukul Mental Retardation Institute
  - Mental Health Technical Development Bureau

Cluster of Public Health Development

- **Department of Disease Control**
  - Office of the Secretary
  - Personnel Division
  - Finance Division
  - Planning Division
  - Bamrasnaradura Institute
  - Rajprachasamasai Institute
  - Office of Disease Prevention and Control 1-12
  - Bureau of Epidemiology
  - Bureau of Occupational and Environment Diseases
  - Bureau of General Communicable Diseases
  - Bureau of Vector-Borne Diseases
  - Bureau of AIDS, TB and STIs
- **Department of Health**
  - Office of the Secretary
  - Personnel Division
  - Finance Division
  - Dental Health Division
  - Planning Division
  - Nutrition Division
  - Community Sanitation and Health Impact Assessment Division
  - Food and Water Sanitation Division
  - Reproductive Health Division
  - Division of Physical Activities and Health
  - Health Promotion Center 1-12
  - Bureau of Health Promotion
  - Bureau of Environmental Health

Cluster of Public Health Services Support

- **Department of Health Service Support**
  - Bureau of Administration
  - Medical Registration Division
  - Division of Design and Construction
  - Medical of Engineering Division
  - Primary Health Care Division
  - Health Education Division
  - Bureau of Health Service System Development
- **Department of Medical Sciences**
  - Office of the Secretary
  - Division of Cosmetics and Hazardous Substances
  - Division of Biological Products
  - Division of Planning and Technical Coordination
  - Division of Radiation and Medical Devices
  - Regional Medical Sciences Center 1-12
  - National Institute of Health
  - Medicinal Plant Research Institute
  - Bureau of Quality and Food Safety
  - Bureau of Laboratory Quality Standards
  - Bureau of Drug and Narcotics
- **Food and Drug Administration**
  - Office of the Secretary
  - Medical Device Control Division
  - Drug Control Division
  - Narcotics Control Division
  - Food Control Division
  - Food and Drug Inspection Port Div.
  - Technical and Policy Administration
  - Public and Consumer Affairs Division
  - Rural and Local Consumer Health Products Protection Promotion Div.

BIOGRAPHY

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