ORGANISATIONAL CULTURE THEORIES

Dimensions of organisational culture and office layouts

Kusal Nanayakkara and Sara Wilkinson*

1 Background

Typically, full-time employees spend eight hours a day at their workplaces and about half their active life at work during their working lives (Chatzitheochari & Arber, 2009). The number of persons working 50 or more hours per week has risen dramatically over the last 15 years in some countries, including the USA and the UK (Cohen, 1992). As a result, the corporate culture of organisations affects both employees' work lives and their personal lives. Several disciplines, including human resources management, marketing, management, nursing and community health, emphasise the importance of appropriate organisational cultures (Bhaskaran & Sukumaran, 2007; Ingelsson, Bäckström, & Snyder, 2018; Nuutinen & Lappalainen, 2012; Plimmer, Bryson, & Teo, 2017). Studies have also examined the effect of organisational culture on various aspects of organisations, such as their profitability, employee satisfaction and productivity (Patterson, Maguin, Dulmus, & Nisbet, 2013; Rashid, Sambasivan, & Johari, 2003).

1.1 What is organisational culture?

One of the main objectives of an organisation is to achieve sustained profitability from its operations. The culture of an organisation in any industry is an intangible mechanism contributing to profitability (Cawood, 2008), and it has a significant influence on the long-term success of an organisation (Wiewiora, Trigunaryah, Murphy, & Coffey, 2013). With very few exceptions, every organisation develops a distinctive culture that is clearly identifiable by its key stakeholders and, if it is the right culture, it may be a legacy of an organisation (Bieliková, 2008). Organisational culture became a popular concept in the 1980s in academia and industry (Reiman & Oedewald, 2002). Several studies emphasised the importance of studying organisational culture to understand the policies, practices and regional differences of an organisation (Budhwar & Sparrow, 2002; Rajagopal & Rajagopal, 2006; Wilkins & Ouchi, 1983). Existing organisational and behavioural management literature discusses the significance of organisational culture for a company's intangible aspects such as its values, practices and assumptions extensively. However,

*Corresponding author: Hiniduma.Nanayakkara@alumni.uts.edu.au

Fairs (2016) and Igo and Skitmore (2006) suggest that, until recently, limited attention had been paid to its impacts on a company's tangible aspects, such as its office layout, corporate logo and uniform.

Every organisation, from establishment, lives and operates within a certain cultural framework and gradually develops its own culture which is suited to the organisation in the long run (Ingelsson et al., 2018; McCarthy, 1998). Although there is no common definition of organisational culture (Chandler, Heidrich, & Kasa, 2017; Denison & Spreitzer, 1991), it can be categorised into four key areas (Martin, 1992; Martin & Siehl, 1983). Firstly, it is an interpretation of the history of the organisation and provides guidance for members of the organisation on how to discipline themselves and how they are expected to behave in the organisation. Secondly, culture helps to enhance employees' commitment to the values of the organisation and its management philosophy; as a result, they feel that they work for values they believe in (Munter, 1993). Thirdly, organisational culture is a mechanism of organisational control and includes policies, procedures and norms (Chandler et al., 2017). Fourthly, it is a mechanism related directly to the performance, productivity and profitability of the organisation (Kinjerski & Skrypnek, 2006; Wilkins & Ouchi, 1983).

1.2 Definitions of organisational culture

Organisational culture is defined in management and organisational behaviour in different ways. For example, Schein (1992) defined organisational culture as:

a pattern of shared basic assumptions that a 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.

(p. 12)

The culture of an organisation can be identified by evaluating its mission statement, which answers three main questions: 'who are we?'; 'what do we do?'; and 'where are we headed?' The answers help to identify its corporate culture, as well as the company's philosophy, ethical policy, pathway and target destination (Hofstede, Hofstede, & Minkov, 2010).

Martin (1992) argued that three perspectives are deployed by social scientists in studying organisational culture: integration, differentiation and fragmentation. The integration perspective considers an organisation as a whole and does not pay attention to its subcultures. It maintains consistency in relation to manifestations, which are artefacts such as office layouts, symbols and practices, while uncertainty is excluded. No consistency in manifestations can be observed in the differentiation perspective, and ambiguity is included to some extent. In contrast, ambiguity is the essence of the fragmentation perspective, and there is no clear consistency, or inconsistency, in relation to manifestations and no special focus is given to sub- or main cultures (Martin, 1992).

In addition, an organisational culture is made up of shared elements and common understandings in an organisation such as philosophies, behaviours, traditions, values, norms, assumptions, perceptions, ideologies, exceptions, sayings and heroes (Lau & Ngo, 1996). These manifestations can be summarised into three categories: practices, artefacts and content (Martin & Meyerson, 1988). Practices can be rules, procedures or norms, either formal or informal (Schein, 1992). A pattern of basic beliefs, assumptions and values shared by organisational members is part of organisational culture and identified as content in the management literature (Adler & Jelinek, 1986; Calori & Sarnin, 1991; Schein, 1992; Shekari, Rahmdel, & Rajabian, 2012). Artefacts refer to the physical office layout, ceremonies, rites and rituals of the organisation (Martin &

Meyerson, 1988). In broader terms, organisational culture is described as a control and exchange mechanism (Wilkins & Ouchi, 1983) or the theme (Martin & Meyerson, 1988) of an organisation. Brunetto (2001) categorised all elements in organisational culture into two groups:

- 1 Shared assumptions, beliefs, attitudes, values and rituals which shape life in an organisation.
- 2 Behaviours, values and language which reflect the culture of the organisation.

In the next section, elements or theories relating to organisational culture are discussed in detail in order to have a better understanding of the concept of organisational culture.

1.3 Elements of organisational culture

Every organisation has its own culture, which may have developed over time by practices or behaviours which become normal, or 'norms', and then, de facto, become the culture of the organisation. Another way to establish an organisational culture is by adopting standard norms, behaviours and practices introduced by the leaders of the organisation, which become the culture of the organisation over time. Organisational culture is like an iceberg (Sackmann, 1991), where the visible part of the culture is very small compared to what lies below (see Figure 12.1).

Although organisational culture has many elements, three main parts of it are labelled: artefacts, espoused values and basic underlying assumptions (Sackmann, 1991).

Expanding Sackmann's (1991) analysis further, Schein (1992) analysed organisational culture at three levels in detail: artefacts, espoused values and basic underlying assumptions. As Figure 12.2 shows, the relationships between office layout and organisational culture are clearly illustrated in his study.

Figure 12.1 Iceberg model of culture (Sackmann, 1991)

Figure 12.2 Levels of organisational culture (Schein, 1992)

1.3.1 Artefacts

Artefacts are observable features which represent the dominant culture of the organisation. These include the physical office layout, architectural design, publicly expressed lists of values, artistic creation of environment, observable ceremonies and rituals, technology and products, dress codes and uniforms, and emotional displays (Martin & Siehl, 1983; Reiman & Oedewald, 2002). These attributes are the most visible manifestations of organisational culture, which help to maintain an organisation's identity and image (Meissonier, Houzé, & Bessière, 2013).

In addition to these clearly visible manifestations, the manner of addressing each other, the language used in the organisation, the myths and stories about the organisation and the behaviour of members are considered as artefacts (Calori & Sarnin, 1991; Martin, 1992; Meissonier et al., 2013; Rajagopal & Rajagopal, 2006). This level of organisational culture can be seen, felt and heard when entering office premises (Cawood, 2008; Schein, 1992).

However, although this level of culture is very easy to observe, it is difficult to interpret and may lead to misleading assumptions about the organisation (Engstrom, 2010; Schein, 1992). The artefacts send symbolic messages to employees in terms of what attitudes and behaviours are expected from them by the organisation (Brown, 1992). Artefacts such as office layouts, interior designs and rituals help to obtain a clear understanding of an organisation's deeper level of culture, even though it cannot be generalised (Calori & Sarnin, 1991; Gagliardi, 1990; Martin, 1992). For example, organisations with casual dress codes and flexible work practices with unassigned workstations may give an inaccurate perception of inefficiency and unsatisfactory working layouts. In order to have a clear understanding of the culture of an organisation, it is essential to engage with, or live with, that culture to be able to analyse and understand the espoused values, norms and rules of that organisation (Munter, 1993). The objective of this research was to examine the effects of changes in artefacts, particularly office layouts, on the existing cultures of organisations.

1.3.2 Espoused values

Espoused values can be considered as the governing rules and perceptions of the organisation, which tend to be emotional rather than rational (Gagliardi, 1990). They can be categorised into two groups: declared values, which are displayed in charts and diagrams such as mission statements objectives, and organisational structures and discourses in the office, which are operational values used for day-to-day activities and problem-solving mechanisms (Meissonier et al., 2013).

1.3.3 Basic assumptions

Basic assumptions are similar to theories-in-use (Argyris & Schon, 1974; Mazur, 2015) which indicate to group members how to behave, think and feel about certain things. These basic assumptions are not challengeable, and therefore are extremely difficult to amend (Wilkins & Ouchi, 1983). However, some professionals have autonomy to challenge the existing deeper values and beliefs in relevant activities. For example, some senior university academics have autonomy to challenge existing deeper values and beliefs in relevant teaching activities and research findings (Brunetto, 2001).

Adding another level to Schein's 'three level culture model', Martin and Siehl (1993) suggested that management practices are the fourth level of organisational culture. This term refers to common management practices such as work practices, training, performance appraisals, reward allocation and hiring.

1.4 Theories (dimensions) of organisational culture

Management literature includes several theories of organisational culture; however, the focus here is on theories which are relevant and useful to workplaces only. Three of the most relevant theories are discussed next.

1.4.1 Competing value framework

One of the most commonly accepted frameworks developed to distinguish dimensions, or theories, of organisational culture is the competing value framework (Fairs, 2016). This framework was initially introduced to understand the values underlying organisational effectiveness and was further developed to understand organisational forms, organisational life cycles and leadership roles (Quinn & Rohrbaugh, 1981). This is a widely accepted theory of dimensions of organisational culture in management and behavioural studies (Black & Mendenhall, 1989).

The competing value framework proposed by Cameron and Quinn (2006) is the most-used descriptive framework to identify different types of organisational culture (Corfield & Paton, 2016; Chandler et al., 2017; Gupta, 2011; Suppiah & Sandhu, 2011). This framework is rooted in considerable research in the organisational culture area and aligns with well-accepted cultural categorical themes – the way people think, their values, assumptions and how they process information (Harper, 2012) (Figure 12.3).

Cameron and Quinn (2006) identified four dimensions of organisational culture in the competing value framework as follows:

- 1 Hierarchy culture.
- 2 Market culture.
- 3 Clan culture.
- 4 Adhocracy culture.

HIERARCHY/CONSISTENCY/BUREAUCRACY CULTURE

This culture type emphasises uniformity and strong control of the organisation with empowering coordination, evaluation and internal efficiency (Cameron & Quinn, 2006). The main focus is the internal organisation and stability of the organisation. Order, security, rules and regulations are common motivators while efficiency, control and stability measure the organisation's

Figure 12.3 Competing value framework (adapted from Cameron and Quinn, 2006)

effectiveness (Hartley, 2002; San Park & Kim, 2009). Implementation of rules and regulations is a key expectation of the leaders. Clearly defined decision-making procedures and well-established rules and regulations help to keep employees under control and accountable (Cameron & Quinn, 2006; Übüs & Alas, 2009).

MARKET/RATIONAL CULTURE

In the late 1960s it was perceived that the hierarchy culture could not provide sufficient flexibility for organisations when meeting strong market competition, and the market/rational culture emerged as a result (Cameron & Quinn, 2006). The achievement of well-defined objectives and goals are emphasised in this culture, which focuses mainly on the external layout instead of the internal functions (Denison, Haaland, & Goelzer, 2004). The main focus is how to compete and reach set goals with unsupportive external factors, such as government regulations, license restrictions, customers' expectations, suppliers' limitations, external contractors and trade unions. Competition and successful achievement are the motivational factors, while control, efficiency and stability measure the effectiveness of the organisation (Denison & Spreitzer, 1991). Increasing the market segment, profitability, customer base and targets are the primary focus of the organisation, and competitiveness and productivity are key values and attributes.

CLAN/GROUP/INVOLVEMENT/CONSENSUAL CULTURE

The main focus of clan/group/involvement/consensual culture is maintaining better relationships and providing greater flexibility to employees to perform their job. Leaders of the organisation actively engage with employees and have concern for their well-being (Denison & Spreitzer, 1991). Extensive support of staff and interaction between employees are encouraged in this culture. Trust, involvement, teamwork and corporate commitment to staff are the key characteristics of this dimension. Loyalty and tradition play an important role in clan culture, and customers are best thought of as partners. Collaboration is the main orientation of this culture, while leaders act as facilitators, mentors or team leaders (Denison et al., 2004). Employees feel that they have input into decision-making processes and can contribute to the organisation's goals.

DEVELOPMENT/ADHOCRACY/ROLE CULTURE

The development/adhocracy/role culture emerged when the developed world moved to the information age from the industrial age (Cameron & Quinn, 2006). In this culture, most employees contribute to special committees or task forces which are dissolved once the task is complete. The main focus is creativity, innovation and resource acquisition (Fairs, 2016). Leaders are expected to take risks, as entrepreneurial and idealistic approaches are the keys to this dimension. Growth of the organisation, the acquisition of new resources, stimulation and development of a vision for the future are major concerns of this type of culture (Denison & Spreitzer, 1991; San Park & Kim, 2009). Individualism in the workplace is significant, as innovation is a major expectation in day-to-day tasks.

1.4.2 Four core dimensions of organisational culture by Harrison and Stokes (1992)

Harrison and Stokes (1992) introduced a theory of four core dimensions of organisational culture. They are:

- 1 *Power-oriented culture:* Power is the dominant feature of this dimension of culture and can be seen in organisations which have limited availability or limited access to resources. Control over people accessing resources, obtaining better working conditions, earning good money, accessing privileges, and having high job security are the main objectives of this dimension (McCarthy, 1998). The major incentive in this culture is rewards and excitement to be with high-ranking leaders who have the power to decide what is good for the organisation and staff (Rodriguez & Gomez, 2009).
- 2 *Role culture:* This outlines a power-oriented culture and is underpinned by structures and procedures, which enable the management and control of large organisations. Although delegated responsibility and authority provide more efficiency for an organisation, along with justice and stability, this approach constrains innovation and rational decision-making. In particular, difficulties in changing current procedures and structures cause issues when there is high market competition (McCarthy, 1998).
- 3 *Achievement orientation culture:* This culture type assumes that members of the organisation are committed to work and want to make a significant contribution to the organisation. This culture is a combination of power-oriented culture and role culture and gives individual members opportunities to learn, grow, make decisions and be responsible for their

own decisions (McCarthy, 1998). Recognition of individual work commitments, achievements, ongoing challenges, continuous learning and rewards are motivational factors for this culture (McCarthy, 1998).

- 4 *Support and person-oriented culture*: This type, based on mutual trust between the management and staff and mutual support by staff members of their co-workers, is the key feature. This culture is very useful for organisations to achieve their common goals, as individuals are personally committed to the workplace and high levels of collaboration and teamwork are involved (McCarthy, 1998).

1.4.3 Three paradigms of organisational culture by Rodriguez and Gomez (2009)

Rodriguez and Gomez (2009) introduced different dimensions of organisational culture, labelled the 'three paradigms of organisational culture' which are as follows:

- 1 *Pessimistic/fatalistic paradigm*: A dominant managerial style and a strong hierarchical structure are the main characteristics. All decisions are made by top management and others are expected to follow them. Individuals work under pressure and are rewarded based on their level of obedience and the nature of their relationship with higher management.
- 2 *Optimistic/maniac paradigm*: This type is most suitable for highly skilled professionals and individuals who have the ability and freedom to work efficiently and productively. Employees are encouraged to offer new ideas and innovations and are rewarded for their creativity and knowledge.
- 3 *Pragmatic/bureaucratic paradigm*: In this type of organisational culture individuals are expected to follow advice from management without question; formal rules, practices and procedures are commonplace. No teamwork or collaborative work practices are allowed, and interpersonal relationships are limited.

1.5 Dimensions of organisational culture and types of organisations

It would be useful to understand some specific characteristics and applications of each cultural dimension briefly.

Hierarchy culture: As implementing rules and regulations is a key expectation of leaders, clearly defined decision-making procedures and well-established rules and regulations help to keep employees under control and accountable. The main focus of this culture is the internal organisation and stability of the organisation. Order, security, rules and regulations are common motivators while efficiency, control and stability measure the effectiveness of the organisation. Military forces and police organisations are good examples of hierarchy cultures. Although this type of culture is common in the public sector, some private corporates adopt this culture.

Market culture: As increasing the market segment, profitability, the customer base and targets are the primary focus of the organisation, market culture can be observed in result-oriented workplaces such as insurance companies, telecommunication companies and sales-target-oriented business organisations.

Clan culture: Trust, involvement, teamwork and corporate commitment to staff are the key characteristics. Loyalty and tradition play an important role in clan culture and customers are best thought of as partners. As collaboration is the main characteristic, this culture can be found in organisations with modern management strategies, such as service organisations, banks, healthcare and insurance companies.

Table 12.1 Cultures compared and organisation types

<i>Culture</i>	<i>Characteristics</i>	<i>Organisation type adopting culture</i>
Hierarchy	Uniformity	Military forces
	Strong control	Police
	Empowering coordination	Most government organisations
	Order, security, rules and regulations	
Market	Profitability	Insurance companies
	Customer base	Telecommunications
	Targets	Sales
	Results	Target-oriented organisations
Clan	Trust	Service organisations
	Involvement	Banks
	Teamwork	Healthcare
	Corporate commitment to staff	Insurance companies
Adhocracy	Loyalty and tradition	
	Individualism	Research organisations
	Innovation	Software firms
		Innovation and development projects
		Consulting firms

Adhocracy culture: Individualism in the workplace is significant, as innovation is a major expectation in day-to-day tasks. Therefore, this type of organisational culture is visible in industries such as research, software development, consulting and aerospace. Table 12.1 summarises the cultures, their characteristics and organisation types.

2 Applicability to workplace studies

Within property and real estate literature, organisational culture remains a relatively less researched area, despite its importance for the behaviour of property market practitioners, particularly within corporate real estate. Corporate real estate, more specifically office layout and design, has significant implications for the corporate culture of an organisation (Nanayakkara, 2019). It is important to examine various cultural aspects prevailing in organisations to obtain a deeper understanding of the effects of changes in office layout on the corporate culture of organisations (Chow, 2012).

For large corporates, the relationship between organisational culture and artefacts such as office layouts, architectural design and interiors, and the people who work in the office buildings is much more complicated. Furthermore, organisations which understand this relationship minimise problems related to recruitment, retention and motivation and achieve higher levels of employee productivity and satisfaction (Earle, 2003).

When workplace is discussed, it comprises three major parts: office layouts, interior designs and work practices. All are very much connected to the productivity and efficiency of day-to-day work and, ultimately, the output of the entire organisation. On the other hand, organisational culture is referred as an unforeseen mechanism to profitability (Cawood, 2008). It is important to see how organisational culture could be incorporated with office layouts, work practices and interior designs as this would provide a pleasant, productive and efficient workplace. The competing value framework proposed by Cameron and Quinn (2006) is useful in this context.

Hierarchy culture: This culture type emphasises uniformity and strong control of the organisation with empowering coordination, evaluation and internal efficiency. Traditional or bureaucratic work practice is the common work practice. In terms of office layout arrangements, the traditional office layouts are the most appropriate since they facilitate strong hierarchical cultures within the organisation. Traditional office layouts refer to layouts that provide individual offices for high-ranking officers and depend on their level within the hierarchy of the organisation. All general staff are in open-plan offices with dedicated individual space.

Market culture: Organisations which adopt this culture mostly embrace high-involvement work practices as the most suitable work pattern. In relation to office space configurations, open-plan office layouts were introduced into large corporates to facilitate this type of culture in the late 1990s. Open-plan office layouts allow team members to meet, discuss, share their knowledge and collaborate with each other in order to maximise their performance at work.

Clan culture: Organisations could empower their individuals with clan culture. Employees feel that they are very valuable members of the organisation and they can contribute to the organisation's goals. Flexible work practices appear to be the most suitable for this cultural dimension as they provide various options to choose from according to the type of employees and the nature of their work. In addition to highly involved work practices (HIWP), flexible working is extensively used in this cultural dimension, since it provides flexibility and autonomy for skilled workers to carry out their work. Employees are encouraged to use activity-based working, flexi-time and teleworking practices, as they provide various financial and non-financial advantages to the organisation.

Adhocracy culture: In this culture, most employees contribute to special committees or task forces which are dissolved once the task is complete. The main focus is external layout and creativity, innovation, and resource acquisition. Leaders are expected to take risks, as entrepreneurial and idealistic approaches are key to this dimension. Growth of the organisation, the acquisition of new resources, stimulation and the development of a vision for the future are major concerns of this type of culture. Since it is important to provide quiet working spaces with minimum disturbances for work which requires intense concentration, large individual space allocation or individual offices for employees with sufficient spaces for team collaboration are considered suitable office layout arrangements for this type of culture. Table 12.2 summarises the culture type and preferred office layout found in the literature.

This chapter mostly discussed the relationship between organisational culture and office layout, and this is mainly due to the limited publications available which discuss this relationship. However, organisational culture is a powerful tool which influences many other areas in workplace. There is a relationship between organisational culture and office designs (Voordt, Meel, Smulders, & Teurlings, 2003). Researchers further try to understand the relationship of type of building, interior atmosphere, furniture and colours associated with organisational culture type.

Some studies have identified that there is a positive relationship between organisational culture and company performance (Cawood, 2008; Ngo & Loi, 2008). The market culture and

Table 12.2 Summary of cultures and preferred office layout

Culture	Characteristics
Hierarchy culture	Traditional office layouts
Market culture	Open-plan office
Clan culture	Activity-based working
Adhocracy culture	Large individual space allocation or individual offices

Source: (Nanayakkara, 2019)

adhocracy culture tend to outperform the clan and bureaucratic cultures in specific sectors (Deshpandé, Farley, & Webster, 1993), and highly integrative cultures show the highest organisational performance followed by companies with market culture (Tsui, Wang, & Xin, 2006). Organisational culture may affect the effectiveness of participation at different levels of management in the decision-making process (O'Connor, 1995). The existing studies have identified positive correlations between certain attributes of their corporate culture, such as their values, team spirit, quality, consistency, adaptation and work-related responsibilities (Calori & Sarnin, 1991). The nature of the existing corporate culture in an organisation also has significant implications for employee commitment, their productivity and overall satisfaction (Green, 1988; Rashid et al., 2003). If managers cannot implement necessary psychological contacts with employees, this will cause significant negative impacts, such as high employee turnover, high levels of absenteeism and a demotivated workforce (Silverthorne, 2004).

Based on a study in China, Tsui et al. (2006) identified that employees working in highly and moderately integrated culture types, such as clan and adhocracy cultures, have the highest level of perceived organisational support and commitment to the company and the lowest level of turnover intention. From a study based in Taiwan, Silverthorne (2004) identified that bureaucratic culture causes the lowest level of organisational commitment, while innovative culture and supportive cultures cause the highest levels of commitment. It was also found that staff well-being, job satisfaction and organisational commitment were correlated significantly with organisational culture in business organisations in the UK (Santos, Hayward, & Ramos, 2012). Communication between employees and any level of management is well established in Japanese companies, and it is a main part of the culture of Japanese organisations (Yuen & Kee, 1993). Ngo and Loi (2008) confirmed that there is a direct effect of organisational culture on human resources practices and human resource-related performance. Several studies in the management discipline emphasise the influence of organisational culture on the efficiency and effectiveness of organisations (Alvesson, 1990; Calori & Sarnin, 1991; Cawood, 2008; McCarthy, 1998; Schein, 1992).

Therefore, organisational culture is a very important tool which could influence many parts of the workplace. If it is used appropriately and carefully, organisational culture would be one of the most powerful and effective elements in organisational success.

3 Methodology/research approach

It is important to understand how to apply organisational culture theory to workplaces. No one single type of organisational culture exists in an organisation; instead, it is a mix of some or all of the culture types. When conducting a research in organisational culture, it is very important to identify the dominant culture type. It can be complicated, as different departments may have one dominant culture, while the organisation as a whole may have a different culture type. Therefore, it is important to ensure that your research sample represents the entire organisation.

Qualitative methodology is often used in organisational culture research, though mixed methods are helpful to analyse the cultural dimensions in detail. Different research methods could be used in collecting data to analyse the culture and its dimensions. In-depth interviews, questionnaire surveys and observations are effective data collection methods for this kind of research. Questionnaire data can be used to measure the dimensions of organisational culture, and interviews and observations can be used to analyse them in greater depth. It is important to evaluate culture from both management and employee perspectives, as they may have different views of the culture existing within an organisation.

If an organisation wants to change the existing culture, the first step is to measure the dimensions of the existing culture(s). Once the dimensions and level of changes required are identified, the

process of introducing new elements of organisational culture can commence. This involves changes in work practices, office layouts, office design, employees behaviour, organisational rules and regulations, key performance indicators and attitudes. These changes are crucial for the organisation and need careful attention throughout the entire process, which can take some years to complete.

Organisational culture is a relatively novel area in the domain of corporate real estate research. Therefore, there are a number of new areas for future research to be undertaken. It would be interesting to see how different generations cope with organisational culture changes along with other changes such as those in work practices and office layouts. It would also be interesting to see how subcultures have been influenced due to changes in dimensions of main culture types. Furthermore, in 2020 the world has been gripped by economic and social change brought about by the COVID pandemic. This has caused many people to work remotely, and many predict that the likelihood of all employees returning to full-time office-based work after the pandemic is slim. Opportunities exist to research which of the four cultures thrive in the post-pandemic workplace and how workplaces are adapting.

4 Limitations

The previous analysis has identified and described the main cultures within organisations; however, some further iterations/factors can add more complexity in practice:

- 1 Some subcultures may co-exist within an organisation's main culture, and this theory does not address those subcultures.
- 2 National culture is an important cultural theory which exists within organisations, and this model does not discuss national culture and its impact at all.
- 3 It is difficult to understand the main organisational culture type that exists in an organisation. Therefore, management must evaluate the existing culture(s) and the culture which the organisation prefers to promote before designing a new workplace.
- 4 Organisational culture is a complicated theory and is connected to workplace and work practices. It is very important to understand the nature of the organisation and work practices that exist, in particular the organisational type, when conducting research on organisational culture.
- 5 It is necessary to use more than one method to collect the data to understand and measure the organisational culture. Those methods can include interviews, questionnaire surveys and participant observation. Selecting an appropriate sample from the research population is critically important too.

5 Theory relevance to practice

Leaders always look for possibilities to increase their organisation's profit. They attempt to do this by increasing income and reducing expenses. The largest expenditure source of any organisation is the salaries/wages of its employees. Improving productivity and efficiency is one way of increasing profitability. Large organisations introduce different work practices such as flexible working, collaborative working and high-involvement work practices to increase productivity and efficiency. New office layouts and design are introduced to support the new work practices. Similarly, large organisations tend to reduce their office spaces to minimise the cost of corporate real estate. Different work practices such as flexible working, teleworking, agile working, working from home and satellite offices are introduced to reduce office space without reducing the number of employees.

However, most leaders do not understand the influence of changing work practices and how the workplace would influence the existing organisational culture. As mentioned earlier, organisational culture is an unseen mechanism to profitability for business organisations. If new office layouts and work practices do not support the preferred organisation culture, the ultimate impact on the bottom line would not be the one that management has anticipated. Therefore, understanding the theories and relationships between organisational culture, physical office environment and work practices is essential before making any changes to the workplace.

Since organisational culture is one of the biggest assets in an organisation, it is important to understand the type of organisational culture an organisation adheres to. In most cases, management believes that the organisation has their preferred culture type; however, it may not be the case in practice. Therefore, it is important to understand the existing organisational culture type and preferred organisational culture type, to see if there are differences before making any decision of changing office environment.

6 Further reading

- Nanayakkara, K. (2019). *Understanding the influence of changes in physical office layouts on the organisational culture of large organisations*. Retrieved from <https://opus.lib.uts.edu.au/handle/10453/140171>
- Schein, E. H. (1992). How can organizations learn faster? The problem of entering the Green Room. *MIT Sloan Management Review*. Retrieved from <https://sloanreview.mit.edu/article/how-can-organizations-learn-faster-the-challenge-of-entering-the-green-room/>
- Van der Voordt, T., van Meel, J., Smulders, F., & Teurlings, S. (2003). Corporate culture and design. *Environments by DESIGN*, 4, 23–43.

7 References

- Adler, N. J., & Jelinek, M. (1986). Is organization culture culture bound? *Human Resource Management*, 25(1), 73–90. <https://doi.org/10.1002/hrm.3930250106>
- Alvesson, M. (1990). On the popularity of organizational culture. *Acta Sociologica*, 33(1), 31–49.
- Argyris, C., & Schon, D. A. (1974). *Theory in practice: Increasing professional effectiveness*, San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass Publishers Inc.
- Bhaskaran, S., & Sukumaran, N. (2007). National culture, business culture and management practices: Consequential relationships? *Cross Cultural Management: An International Journal*, 14(1), pp. 54–67. <https://doi.org/10.1108/13527600710718831>
- Bieliková, A. (2008). Corporate culture: The way of increasing the work quality in transport organisation. *Promet – Traffic – Traffico*, 20(1), 43–45.
- Black, J. S., & Mendenhall, M. (1989). A practical but theory-based framework for selecting cross-cultural training methods. *Human Resource Management*, 28(4), 511–539. <https://doi.org/10.1002/hrm.3930280406>
- Brown, A. (1992). Organizational culture: The key to effective leadership and organizational development. *Leadership & Organization Development Journal*, 13(2), 3–6. <https://doi.org/10.1108/01437739210009545>
- Brunetto, Y. (2001). Mediating change for public-sector professionals. *International Journal of Public Sector Management*, 14(6), 465–481. <https://doi.org/10.1108/09513550110408639>
- Budhwar, P. S., & Sparrow, P. R. (2002). An integrative framework for understanding cross-national human resource management practices. *Human Resource Management Review*, 12(3), 377–403. [https://doi.org/10.1016/S1053-4822\(02\)00066-9](https://doi.org/10.1016/S1053-4822(02)00066-9)
- Calori, R., & Sarnin, P. (1991). Corporate culture and economic performance: A French study. *Organization Studies*, 12(1), 49–74. <https://doi.org/10.1177/017084069101200104>
- Cameron, K. S., & Quinn, R. E. (2006). *Diagnosing and changing organizational culture: Based on the competing values framework* (p. 294). San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.

- Cawood, S. (2008). Company culture: The intangible pathway to profitability. *Employment Relations Today*, 34(4), 27–35. <https://doi.org/10.1002/ert.20173>
- Chandler, N., Heidrich, B., & Kasa, R. (2017). Everything changes? A repeated cross sectional study of organisational culture in the public sector. *Evidence-based HRM: A Global Forum for Empirical Scholarship*, 5(3), 283–296. Retrieved from <https://ideas.repec.org/a/eme/ebhpps/ebhrm-03-2017-0018.html>
- Chatzitheochari, S., & Arber, S. (2009). Lack of sleep, work and the long hours culture: Evidence from the UK Time Use Survey. *Work, Employment and Society*, 23(1), pp. 30–48. <https://doi.org/10.1177/0950017008099776>
- Chow, I. H. (2012). The roles of implementation and organisational culture in the HR–performance link. *International Journal of Human Resource Management*, 23(15), 3114–3132. <https://doi.org/10.1080/09585192.2011.639553>
- Cohen, G. L. (1992). Hard at work (the number of persons working 50 or more hours per week has risen dramatically over the last 15 years). *Perspectives on Labour and Income*, 4(1), 8–14. <https://link.gale.com/apps/doc/A30507998/AONE>
- Corfield, A., & Paton, R. (2016). Investigating knowledge management: Can KM really change organisational culture? *Journal of Knowledge Management*, 20(1), 88–103 <https://doi.org/10.1108/JKM-12-2014-0502>
- Denison, D. R., Haaland, S., & Goelzer, P. (2004). Corporate culture and organizational effectiveness: Is Asia different from the rest of the world? *Organizational Dynamics*, 33(1), 98–109. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.orgdyn>
- Denison, D. R., & Spreitzer, G. M. (1991). Organizational culture and organizational development: A competing values approach. *Research in Organizational Change and Development*, 5(1), 1–21. Retrieved from www.denisonconsulting.com/sites/default/files/documents/resources/denison-1991-competing-values-approach_0.pdf
- Deshpandé, R., Farley, J. U., & Webster, F. E., Jr. (1993). Corporate culture, customer orientation, and innovativeness in Japanese firms: A quadrad analysis. *Journal of Marketing*, 57(1), 23–37. Retrieved from www.jstor.org/stable/1252055
- Earle, H. A. (2003). Building a workplace of choice: Using the work environment to attract and retain top talent. *Journal of Facilities Management*, 2(3), 244–257. <https://doi.org/10.1108/14725960410808230>
- Engstrom, C. L. (2010). Rhetorical criticism as a method for examining cultural pressures on organisational form. *Qualitative Research in Organisations and Management*, 5(3), 259–279. <https://doi.org/10.1108/17465641011089872>
- Fairs, M. (2016). *Architecture and design an support or even change company culture*. Retrieved from www.dezeen.com/2016/03/22/haworth-white-paper-research-how-to-create-a-successful-organisational-culture-working-styles-office-design
- Gagliardi, P. (1990). *Symbols and artifacts: Views of the corporate landscape*. Berlin, New York: de Gruyter. https://doi.org/10.1515/9783110874143_p5-32
- Green, S. (1988). Strategy, organisational culture and symbolism. *Long Range Planning*, 21(4), 121–129. [https://doi.org/10.1016/0024-6301\(88\)90016-7](https://doi.org/10.1016/0024-6301(88)90016-7)
- Gupta, B. (2011). A comparative study of organizational strategy and culture across industry. *Benchmarking: An International Journal*, 18(4), 510–528. <https://doi.org/10.1108/14635771111147614>
- Harper, S. (2012). The leader coach: A model of multi-style leadership. *Journal of Practical Consulting*, 4(1), 22–31. Retrieved from www.regent.edu/acad/global/publications/jpc/vol4iss1/JPC_Vol4Iss1_Harper.pdf
- Harrison, R., & Stokes, H. (1992). *Diagnosing organizational culture* (pp. 1–32). Hoboken, NJ: John Wiley & Sons.
- Hartley, J. (2002). Leading communities: Capabilities and cultures. *Leadership & Organisation Development Journal*, 23(8), 419–429. <https://doi.org/10.1108/01437730210449311>
- Hofstede, G., Hofstede, G. J., & Minkov, M. (2010). *Cultures and organisations: Software of the mind* (3rd ed., pp. 3–48). New York, NY: McGraw-Hill London.
- Igo, T., & Skitmore, M. (2006). Diagnosing the organizational culture of an Australian engineering consultancy using the competing values framework. *Construction Innovation: Information, Process, Management*, 6(2), 121–139. <https://doi.org/10.1108/14714170610710659>
- Ingelsson, P., Bäckström, I., & Snyder, K. (2018). Strengthening quality culture in private sector and health care: What can we learn from applying soft measures? *Leadership in Health Services*, 31(3), 276–292. <https://doi.org/10.1108/LHS-02-2018-0012>
- Kinjerski, V., & Skrypnik, B. J. (2006). Measuring the intangible: Development of the spirit at work scale. In K. Mark Weaver (Ed.), *Proceedings of the sixty-fifth annual meeting of the academy of management* (pp. 2–16). Retrieved from <https://www.kaizensolutions.org/sawscale.pdf>

- Lau, C. M., & Ngo, H. Y. (1996). One country many cultures: Organizational cultures of firms of different country origins. *International Business Review*, 5(5), 469–486. Retrieved from <https://ideas.repec.org/a/eee/iburev/v5y1996i5p469-486.html>
- Martin, J. (1992). *Cultures in organizations: Three perspectives* (pp. 25–185). Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Martin, J., & Meyerson, D. (1988). *Organizational cultures and the denial, channeling and acknowledgement of ambiguity* (p. 126). New York, NY: John Wiley.
- Martin, J., & Siehl, C. (1983). Organizational culture and counterculture: An uneasy symbiosis. *Organizational Dynamics*, 12(2), pp. 52–64. [https://doi.org/10.1016/0090-2616\(83\)90033-5](https://doi.org/10.1016/0090-2616(83)90033-5)
- Mazur, M. (2015). Basic assumptions of organizational culture: In religiously diverse environments. *International Journal of Contemporary Management*, 14(3), 115–132. <https://doi.org/10.4467/244989391JCM.15.007.4309>
- McCarthy, E. (1998). The dynamics of culture, organisational culture and change. *AI & SOCIETY*, 12(3), pp. 155–184. Retrieved from <https://link.springer.com/article/10.1007/BF01206194>
- Meissonier, R., Houzé, E., & Bessière, V. (2013). Cross-cultural frictions in information system management: Research perspectives on ERP implementation misfits in Thailand. *International Business Research*, 6(2), 150–159. Retrieved from <http://citeseerx.ist.psu.edu/viewdoc/download?doi=10.1.1.989.7110&rep=rep1&type=pdf>
- Munter, M. (1993). Cross-cultural communication for managers. *Business Horizons*, 36(3), 69–78. Retrieved from <https://go.gale.com/ps/anonymou?id=GALE%7CA13183249&sid=googleScholar&v=2.1&it=r&linkaccess=abs&issn=00076813&p=AONE&sw=w>
- Nanayakkara, K. (2019). *Understanding the influence of changes in physical office layouts on the organisational culture of large organisations*. Retrieved from <https://opus.lib.uts.edu.au/handle/10453/140171>
- Ngo, H., & Loi, R. (2008). Human resource flexibility, organisational culture and firm performance: An investigation of multinational firms in Hong Kong. *International Journal of Human Resource Management*, 19(9), 1654–1666. <https://doi.org/10.1080/09585190802295082>
- Nuutinen, M., & Lappalainen, I. (2012). Towards service-oriented organisational culture in manufacturing companies. *International Journal of Quality and Service Sciences*, 4(2), 137–155. <https://doi.org/10.1108/17566691211232882>
- O'Connor, N. G. (1995). The influence of organisational culture on the usefulness of budget participation by Singaporean-Chinese managers. *Accounting, Organisations and Society*, 20(5), 383–403. [https://doi.org/10.1016/0361-3682\(94\)00034-S](https://doi.org/10.1016/0361-3682(94)00034-S)
- Patterson, D. A., Maguin, E., Dulmus, C. N., & Nisbet, B. C. (2013). Individual worker level attitudes toward empirically supported treatments. *Research on Social Work Practice*, 23(1), 95–99. <https://doi.org/10.1177/1049731512463442>
- Plimmer, G., Bryson, J., & Teo, S. T. T. (2017). Opening the black box: The mediating roles of organisational systems and ambidexterity in the HRM-performance link in public sector organisations. *Personnel Review*, 46(7), 1434–1451. <https://doi.org/10.1108/PR-10-2016-0275>
- Quinn, E. R., & Rohrbaugh, J. (1981). A competing values approach to organisational effectiveness. *Public Productivity Review*, 5(2), 122–140. <https://doi.org/10.2307/3380029>
- Rajagopal, & Rajagopal, A. (2006). Trust and cross-cultural dissimilarities in corporate environment. *Team Performance Management*, 12(7), 237–252. <https://doi.org/10.1108/13527590610711796>
- Rashid, M. Z. A., Sambasivan, M., & Johari, J. (2003). The influence of corporate culture and organisational commitment on performance. *Journal of Management Development*, 22(8), 708–728. <https://doi.org/10.1108/02621710310487873>
- Reiman, T., & Oedewald, P. (2002). *The assessment of organisational culture: A methodological study*. VTT Technical Research Centre of Finland. VTT Tiedotteita – Research Notes No. 2140. Retrieved from www.vtt.fi/inf/pdf/tiedotteet/2002/T2140.pdf
- Rodriguez, J. K., & Gomez, C. F. (2009). HRM in Chile: The impact of organisational culture. *Employee Relations*, 31(3), 276–294. <https://doi.org/10.1108/01425450910946479>
- Sackmann, S. A. (1991). Uncovering culture in organizations. *The Journal of Applied Behavioral Science*, 27(3), 295–317. <https://doi.org/10.1177/0021886391273005>
- San Park, J., & Kim, T. H. (2009). Do types of organizational culture matter in nurse job satisfaction and turnover intention? *Leadership in Health Services*, 22(1), 20–38. <https://doi.org/10.1108/17511870910928001>
- Santos, A., Hayward, T., & Ramos, H. M. (2012). Organisational culture, work and personal goals as predictors of employee well-being. *Journal of Organisational Culture, Communications and Conflict*, 16(1), 25–48.
- Schein, E. (1992). *Organizational culture and leadership* (2nd ed., pp. 25–411). San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass Publishers.

- Shekari, G., Rahmdel, H., & Rajabian, E. (2012). Study of factors affecting improvement of organisational culture, based on the model's denison (case study: Agricultural bank branches in Mashhad). *Interdisciplinary Journal of Contemporary Research in Business*, 4(5), 790–798. Retrieved from <https://journal-archives23.webs.com/790-798.pdf>
- Silverthorne, C. (2004). The impact of organisational culture and person-organisation fit on organisational commitment and job satisfaction in Taiwan. *Leadership & Organisation Development Journal*, 25(7), 592–599. <https://doi.org/10.1108/01437730410561477>
- Suppiah, V., & Sandhu, M. S. (2011). Organisational culture's influence on tacit knowledge-sharing behaviour. *Journal of Knowledge Management*, 15(3), 462–477. <https://doi.org/10.1108/13673271111137439>
- Tsui, A. S., Wang, H., & Xin, K. R. (2006). Organizational culture in China: An analysis of culture dimensions and culture types. *Management and Organization Review*, 2(3), 345–376. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1740-8784.2006.00050.x>
- Übüs, Ü, & Alas, R. (2009). Organizational culture types as predictors of corporate social responsibility. *Inzinerine Ekonomika-Engineering Economics*, 61(1), 90–99. Retrieved from <https://inze.ktu.lt/index.php/EE/article/view/11597>
- Voordt, T. J. M., van der Meel, J., van, Smulders, F., & Teurlings, S. (2003). Corporate Culture and Design. *Environments by DESIGN*, 4(2), 23–43. Retrieved from www.cfbp.nl/media/uploads/publicaties/upload/voordt_2003_corporateculture.pdf
- Wiewiora, A., Trigunaryah, B., Murphy, G., & Coffey, V. (2013). Organizational culture and willingness to share knowledge: A competing values perspective in Australian context. *International Journal of Project Management*, 31(8), 1163–1174. Retrieved from <https://eprints.qut.edu.au/57104/>
- Wilkins, A. L., & Ouchi, W. G. (1983). Efficient cultures: Exploring the relationship between culture and organizational performance. *Administrative Science Quarterly*, 28(3), 468–481. <https://doi.org/10.2307/2392253>
- Yuen, E. C., & Kee, H. T. (1993). Headquarters, host-culture and organisational influences on HRM policies and practices. *MIR: Management International Review*, 33(4), 361–383. Retrieved from www.jstor.org/stable/40228170