

**THE IMPACT OF INSTITUTIONAL CULTURE ON WORK
ENGAGEMENT AT SELECTED PUBLIC UNIVERSITIES IN GHANA**

by

**MRS ELEANOR ARABA ANTWI
Student Number: U18296892**

**Submitted in fulfilment of the requirements
for the degree of**

Doctor of Philosophy

Education Management, Law and Policy

FACULTY OF EDUCATION

UNIVERSITY OF PRETORIA

Supervisor: Dr Nevensha Sing

September 2023

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

To God be the glory for the love and mercies He bestowed on me throughout my academic journey. Completing this thesis would not have been possible without the unwavering support of my family, friends, colleagues and supervisors.

First of all, I am indebted to my supervisor for her guidance, pearls of advice and motivation throughout the period of my studies. To Dr Nevensha Sing, thank you for your confidence in me, and the hours of support and dedication given to the completion of this thesis. The feedback, constructive critique and the patience that you demonstrated cannot be overlooked. The expertise you brought on board and the guidance that you provided have sharpened my research skills. I have learned so much from you. I look forward to future research collaborations as well as a lifetime of friendship.

I am profoundly grateful to all the employees in the selected public universities in Ghana that took time out of their tight schedules to participate in this important study. Thank you very much for your time and patience.

To my friends and colleagues, I would like to express my appreciation for all your emotional, spiritual and academic support. This support can never be taken for granted. Special thanks go to my parents, my siblings and my in-laws for their unwavering support in my bid to achieve high academic laurels.

Finally, I wish to convey my deepest and sincerest gratitude to my husband, Dr. Kwaku Dei Antwi and my children, Deborah, David and Daria, for the commitment and sacrifices made. I love you all. You are all special to me, and I am committed to making a difference in your lives. I might have neglected you during this period of my studies but your love held me strong. I am looking forward to spending quality time with you all. Remember, this comes as an inspiration to you, my children, to accomplish your aspirations in life.

It is done. It is finished!!

ETHICS STATEMENT

“The author whose name appears on the title page of this thesis, has obtained, for the research work described in this work, the applicable research ethics approval. The author declares that she has observed the ethical standards required in terms of the University of Pretoria’s Code of ethics for research and the policy guidelines for responsible research.”



.....
Mrs Eleanor Araba Antwi

20th September, 2023

.....
Date

ETHICS CERTIFICATE



UNIVERSITEIT VAN PRETORIA
UNIVERSITY OF PRETORIA
YUNIBESITHI YA PRETORIA

Faculty of Education

RESEARCH ETHICS COMMITTEE

CLEARANCE CERTIFICATE DEGREE AND PROJECT

Ghana

INVESTIGATOR

DEPARTMENT

APPROVAL TO COMMENCE STUDY

DATE OF CLEARANCE CHAIRPERSON OF ETHICS



CLEARANCE NUMBER:

EDU026/20

PhD

The impact of institutional culture on work
engagement at selected public universities in

Mrs. Eleanor Araba Antwi

Education Management and Policy Studies

04 November 2020

**CERTIFICATE
COMMITTEE:**

09 December 2021
Prof Funke Omidire

CC

Ms Thandi Mngomezulu

Dr Nevensha Sing

Prof Chika Sehoole

This Ethics Clearance Certificate should be read in conjunction with the Integrated Declaration Form (D08) which specifies details regarding:

- Compliance with approved research protocol,
- No significant changes,
- Informed consent/assent,
- Adverse experience or undue risk,
- Registered title, and
- Data storage requirements.

DECLARATION OF ORIGINALITY

I, Mrs Eleanor Araba Antwi, declare that the thesis entitled: “*The impact of institutional culture on work engagement at selected public universities in Ghana*”, which I hereby submit for the Degree of Doctor of Philosophy in Education Management and Policy Studies at the University of Pretoria, is my own work and has not been previously submitted by me for a degree at this or any tertiary institution.



.....
Mrs Eleanor Araba Antwi

20th September, 2023

.....
Date

DECLARATION OF LANGUAGE EDITOR

SCHOLARLY EDITING AND PROOFREADING SERVICES

Tel: +233244201511 P. O.

Email: scholarlyeditingservices@gmail.com

Website: <https://scholaredit.com>

Our Ref:

Your Ref:.....



Box GP 13109

Accra

Ghana

Date: 20 Sept., 2022

To whom it may concern

LANGUAGE EDITING/PROOFREADING OF THESIS

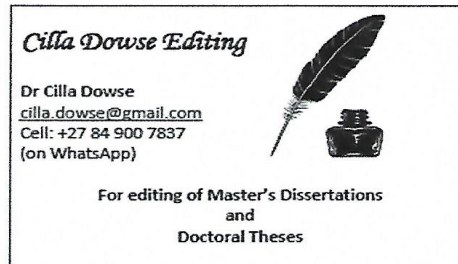
The PhD thesis titled “The impact of institutional culture on work engagement at selected public universities in Ghana” by Mrs. Eleanor Araba Antwi, Student Number: U18296892 has been edited by the Scholarly Editing and Proofreading Services, Ghana.

The exercise was completed on September 20, 2022.



Alhaj I. K. Antwi
(Editor-in-Chief)

DECLARATION OF LANGUAGE EDITOR: SOUTH AFRICA



This letter serves to confirm that editing and proofreading was done for:

MRS ELEANOR ARABA ANTWI

Doctor of Philosophy

Education Management, Law and Policy

Faculty of Education

University of Pretoria

THE IMPACT OF INSTITUTIONAL CULTURE ON WORK ENGAGEMENT AT SELECTED PUBLIC UNIVERSITIES IN GHANA



Cilla Dowse
21 August 2023

Cilla Dowse PhD in Assessment and Quality Assurance in Education and Training: University of Pretoria 2014 Basic Editing and Proofreading: McGillivray Linnegar Associates 2008 Programme on Editing Principles and Practices: University of Pretoria 2009 Editing and Proofreading for Academic Purposes: McGillivray Linnegar Associates 2021 Professional Editors' Guild Associate Member, DOW003	Rosedale Farm P.O. Box 48 Van Reenen Free State cilla.dowse@gmail.com Cell: 084 900 7837
---	--

ABSTRACT

Work engagement and its role in the performance of institutions of higher learning has gained significant attention, extending the debate that engaged employees impact productivity and efficiency. Previous research confirms the relationship between two variables, work engagement and institutional culture, in several developed countries. However, there is limited literature regarding this relationship in developing countries like Ghana, which is the primary motivation for this study. This research sought to examine the existence of a correlation between the two variables at selected public universities in Ghana. It aimed to determine the kind of institutional culture that exists in public universities in Ghana and to explore the parameters of institutional culture that significantly influences work engagement at the selected institutions of higher learning.

This study drew primarily on the theoretical understandings of Tierney and Bergquist theories on institutional culture and the Job demands resources model which focuses on work engagement. The study employed explanatory sequential explanatory mixed methods research informed by the pragmatist paradigm. Two hundred employees and thirty heads of department, were selected. Data were generated through a structured questionnaire and semi-structured interviews.

Descriptive standards such as frequency distribution, percentages and means were used to interpret the data. Pearson's correlation analysis was utilised to test the hypothesis, while multiple regression was used to determine and analyse the parameters of institutional culture. The regression analysis revealed that communication makes the strongest statistically distinct contribution in predicting work engagement.

The quantitative analysis revealed that communication is a vital parameter of institutional culture and a dominant predictor of work engagement in public institutions in Ghana. Both the quantitative and qualitative data analyses revealed that employees generally experienced low engagement levels in Ghana's public universities.

Pearson's correlation analysis showed a positive relationship between institutional culture and work engagement.

This study recommends the implementation of policies that promote effective communication among staff. The study argues that when employees feel valued, they are productively engaged, drive the institutional vision, and contribute meaningfully to institutional culture and success. This study concludes that when employees are engaged, they contribute meaningfully, and institutional culture flourishes, and when they do not feel valued and are disengaged, the institutional culture is out of balance and asynchronous.

Keywords: Institutional Culture, Work Engagement, Public University, Senior Members (Teaching & Non-Teaching), Senior & Junior Staff

LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

AU	African Union
CeMBA	Commonwealth Executive Master of Business Administration
DW	Deutsche Welle
GAUA	Ghana Association of University Administrators
GNAT	Ghana National Association of Teachers
GTEC	Ghana Tertiary Education Council
HEIs	Higher Education Institutions
HND	Higher National Diploma
ICEBSH	International Conference on Economics, Business, Social, and Humanities
IT	Information Technology
ITC	Information, Communications and Technology
JD-R	Job-Demand Resources Model
MBA	Master of Business Administration
MBI	Maslach Burnout Inventory
MEd.	Master of Education
MPA	Master of Public Administration
MPH	Master of Public Health
NAGRAT	National Association of Graduate Teachers
NCAAA	National Commission for Academic Accreditation and Assessment
OCB	Organisational Citizenship Behaviour
OCI	Organisational Culture Inventory
P-E	Person-Environment Fit Model
PhD	Doctor of Philosophy
POTAG	Polytechnics Teachers Association of Ghana
QUAL	Qualitative
QUAN	Quantitative
RECAAST	Regional Colleges of Applied Science, Arts and Technology
SGD	Sustainable Development Goal
SPSS	Statistical Package for the Social Sciences
SSSCE	Senior Secondary School Certificate Examinations
STI	Science, Technology and Innovation
TEWU	Tertiary Education Workers Union
UCEA	Universities and Colleges Employers Association
UHR	Universities Human Resource
UN	United Nations
UNDP	United Nations Development Programme
URC	University Rationalisation Committed



UTAG University Teachers' Association of Ghana
UWES Utrecht Work Engagement Scale
WASSSCE West African Senior Secondary Schools Certificate Examinations

TABLE OF CONTENTS

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS	I
ETHICS STATEMENT	II
ETHICS CERTIFICATE	III
DECLARATION OF ORIGINALITY	IV
DECLARATION OF LANGUAGE EDITOR	V
DECLARATION OF LANGUAGE EDITOR: SOUTH AFRICA	VI
ABSTRACT	VII
LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS	IX
TABLE OF CONTENTS	XI
LIST OF FIGURES	XVI
LIST OF TABLES	XVII
CHAPTER ONE	1
CONTEXTUAL BACKGROUND OF THE STUDY	1
1.1 INTRODUCTION.....	1
1.2 CONTEXTUAL BACKGROUND OF THE STUDY	2
1.2 STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM	8
1.3 AIM OF THE STUDY	9
1.4 RATIONALE.....	10
1.5 CONTRIBUTION OF THE STUDY	11
1.6 RESEARCH QUESTIONS	13
1.7 RESEARCH HYPOTHESES	13
1.8 OBJECTIVES OF THE STUDY	14
1.9 CLARIFICATION AND OPERATIONAL DEFINITION OF KEY CONCEPTS	14
1.10 AN OVERVIEW OF THE RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY	15
1.11 DATA ANALYSIS	20
1.12 STRUCTURE OF THE THESIS.....	21
1.13 SUMMARY OF THE CHAPTER	22
CHAPTER TWO	24
LITERATURE REVIEW	24
2.1 INTRODUCTION.....	24
2.2 OVERVIEW OF PUBLIC UNIVERSITIES IN GHANA.....	25
2.3 INSTITUTIONAL CULTURE.....	27
2.3.1 Evolution and History of Institutional Culture	28
2.3.2 Definition of Institutional Culture	30
2.3.3 The Implication of Institutional Cultures for Universities	31
2.3.4 Positive Perspectives and Drawbacks of Institutional Culture	35
2.3.5 Measurement of Institutional Culture	36

2.4	WORK ENGAGEMENT.....	38
2.4.1	Evolution and History of the Concept of Work Engagement.....	39
2.4.2	Definition of Work Engagement.....	41
2.4.3	Implication of Work Engagement for Universities.....	43
2.4.4	Positive Perspectives and Drawbacks of Work Engagement.....	44
2.4.5	Measurement of Work Engagement.....	45
2.5	EMPIRICAL REVIEW OF THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN INSTITUTIONAL CULTURE AND WORK ENGAGEMENT.....	46
2.6	SUMMARY OF THE CHAPTER.....	60
	CHAPTER THREE.....	61
	THEORETICAL AND CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK.....	61
3.1	INTRODUCTION.....	61
3.2	THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK.....	62
3.2.1	Towards a Theoretical Understanding of Institutional Culture.....	62
3.2.2	Towards a Theoretical Understanding of Work Engagement.....	77
3.3	CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK.....	85
3.3.1	Parameters of Institutional Culture.....	86
3.3.2	Parameters of Work Engagement.....	103
3.4	SUMMARY OF THE CHAPTER.....	110
	CHAPTER FOUR.....	113
	RESEARCH METHODOLOGY.....	113
4.1	INTRODUCTION.....	113
4.2	RESEARCH PARADIGM.....	113
4.3	RESEARCH APPROACH.....	117
4.4	RESEARCH DESIGN.....	122
4.5	RESEARCH METHODS.....	124
4.5.1	Research Site.....	124
4.5.2	Sampling Procedures.....	125
4.5.3	Sample Size.....	127
4.6	METHODS OF DATA COLLECTION.....	129
4.6.1	Questionnaire.....	130
4.6.2	Interview Guide.....	133
4.7	PILOT TEST.....	136
4.8	STANDARDS FOR THE EVALUATION OF QUANTITATIVE AND QUALITATIVE METHODS.....	137
4.8.1	Standards for the Evaluation of Quantitative Methods Validity.....	138
4.8.2	Standards for the Evaluation of Qualitative Methods Credibility.....	141
4.9	TRIANGULATION.....	145
4.10	DOCUMENT ANALYSIS.....	147
4.11	DATA ANALYSIS.....	149
4.12	ETHICAL AND POLITICAL CONSIDERATIONS.....	154
4.13	ENHANCING THE QUALITY OF THE RESEARCH.....	156
4.14	SUMMARY OF THE CHAPTER.....	158

.....	158
CHAPTER FIVE.....	159
PRESENTATION OF QUANTITATIVE DATA.....	159
5.1 INTRODUCTION.....	159
5.2 ANALYSIS OF QUANTITATIVE DATA.....	160
5.2.1 Employee Demographic Data.....	160
5.2.2 Institutional Culture.....	166
5.2.3 Work Engagement.....	172
5.2.4 Relationship between Institutional Culture and Work Engagement	175
5.3 SUMMARY OF THE CHAPTER.....	179
CHAPTER SIX.....	181
PRESENTATION OF QUALITATIVE DATA	181
6.1 INTRODUCTION.....	181
6.2 DEMOGRAPHIC PROFILES OF HEADS OF DEPARTMENT.....	183
6.3 THEME 1: NATURE OF INSTITUTIONAL CULTURE	184
6.3.1 Description of the Existing Institutional Culture.....	185
6.3.2 Determinants of Dominant Institutional Culture	187
6.3.3 Formal Procedure and Regulations that bind the Institution's Members	191
6.3.4 Structures to ensure that Employees Attain their Full Career Potential	191
6.3.5 Freedom to Engage with New Ideas and be Innovative	194
6.3.6 Involvement of Employees in Decision-Making	196
6.3.7 Performance Evaluation and Recognition of Employees.....	198
6.3.8 Institutional Structures Supporting Teamwork among Employees.....	200
6.4 THEME 2: LEVEL OF WORK ENGAGEMENT	202
6.4.1 Mental Resilience of Employees at Work	203
6.4.2 Employees' Engrossment in their Work.....	204
6.4.3 Involvement of Employees in their Work.....	205
6.4.4 Attitude of Senior Management in Getting Employees Engaged in Work	207
6.4.5 Ensuring that Employees are Fully Engaged in their Work.....	210
6.4.6 Institutional Culture motivates Employees to be Engaged.....	211
6.5 THEME 3: RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN INSTITUTIONAL CULTURE AND	
WORK ENGAGEMENT.....	213
6.5.1 Institutional Culture engaging Employees at the Workplace.....	214
6.5.2 Existing Culture Affects Work Engagement.....	215
6.6 DOCUMENT ANALYSIS	217
6.7 SUMMARY OF THE CHAPTER	221
CHAPTER SEVEN.....	223
MERGING OF QUANTITATIVE AND QUALITATIVE DATA.....	223
7.1 INTRODUCTION.....	223

7.2	NATURE OF INSTITUTIONAL CULTURE IN PUBLIC UNIVERSITIES IN GHANA	223
7.2.1	Critical Views of HoDs and other Employees in Terms of Similarities and Differences	225
7.2.2	Researcher's Reflection on the Theoretical and Conceptual Frameworks	226
7.3	LEVEL OF WORK ENGAGEMENT	227
7.3.1	Critical Views of HoDs and other Employees in terms of Similarities and Differences	228
7.3.2	Researcher's Reflection on the Theoretical and Conceptual Frameworks	228
7.4	RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN INSTITUTIONAL CULTURE AND WORK ENGAGEMENT	230
7.4.1	Critical Views of HoDs and other Employees in terms of Similarities and Differences	231
7.4.2	Reflection on the Theoretical Framework	231
7.5	CONTRIBUTION OF THE STUDY	232
7.6	SUMMARY OF THE CHAPTER	234
CHAPTER EIGHT		235
SUMMARY OF RESEARCH FINDINGS, CONCLUSIONS, AND RECOMMENDATIONS		235
8.1	INTRODUCTION	235
8.2	REFLECTIVE SUMMARY	237
8.3	PURPOSE OF THE STUDY	238
8.4	SUMMARY OF RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY	238
8.5	SUMMARY OF THE MAIN FINDINGS	239
8.5.1	Demographic Data	239
8.5.2	The Nature of Institutional Culture	240
8.5.3	Level of Work Engagement in Public Universities	241
8.5.4	Relationship between Institutional Culture and Work Engagement	241
8.6	CONTRIBUTION OF THE MAIN RESEARCH FINDINGS TO THE BODY OF KNOWLEDGE	242
8.6.1	Nature of Institutional Culture	242
8.6.2	Level of Work Engagement	243
8.6.3	Relationship between Institutional Culture and Work Engagement	244
8.6.4	Model of Institutional Culture and Work Engagement	248
8.7	IMPLICATIONS FOR PRACTICE	248
8.7.1	Implications for Government Policy Decision-Making	248
8.7.2	Implications for Public Universities	249
8.7.3	Implications for Theory and Research	251
8.8	LIMITATIONS AND DELIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY	252
8.9	RECOMMENDATIONS FOR FUTURE RESEARCH	254
8.10	CONCLUSION	255
REFERENCES		258

APPENDIX A: LETTER OF CONSENT FOR SENIOR MEMBERS/SENIOR STAFF /JUNIOR STAFF 314	
APPENDIX B: LETTER OF CONSENT FOR HEADS OF DEPARTMENT	316
APPENDIX C: LETTER OF CONSENT FOR REGISTRARS.....	318
APPENDIX D: RESEARCH INSTRUMENTS	321
APPENDIX E: SAMPLE OF TRANSCRIPTS FOR INTERVIEWS	329

LIST OF FIGURES

Figure 1.1: Proposed institutional culture of work engagement framework	12
Figure 2.1: Theoretical and conceptual framework mapping.....	62
Figure 2.2: Tierney's unique institutional culture (1988).....	63
Figure 2.3: Bergquist's institutional archetypes of culture	72
Figure 2.4: Job Demands-Resources Model	78
Figure 5.1: Academic qualification of respondents.....	161
Figure 5.2: Length of service of respondents	163
Figure 5.3: Rank of respondents	165
Figure 5.4: Responses to the description of an ideal culture with one word.....	170
Figure 5.5: Indicators of ideal culture	171
Figure 5.6: The overall level of engagement of respondents.....	173
Figure 8.1: Institutional culture of work engagement framework	248

LIST OF TABLES

Table 4.1: Data Analysis Procedure	154
Table 5.1: Age category and gender distribution of respondents	160
Table 5.2: Position in the university	164
Table 5.3: Parameters of institutional culture	166
Table 5.4: Level of satisfaction with existing institutional culture	169
Table 5.5: Parameters of work engagement	172
Table 5.6: Results of the Pearson's Correlation analysis	175
Table 5.7: Predicting work engagement using parameters of institutional culture ..	178
Table 6.1: Themes and sub-themes from the analysis of qualitative data in correspondence with research questions	182
Table 6.2: Demographic profiles of Heads of Department.....	184
Table 6.3: Document analysis	220

CHAPTER ONE

CONTEXTUAL BACKGROUND OF THE STUDY

1.1 INTRODUCTION

Literature reviewed on current themes in Higher Education, tends to favour the experiences of either academics or the student body. *Courage is the accumulation of small steps*, and as such this study aimed to give voice to understanding administrators' experiences of working in Higher Education. Stephen Covey (2022) cautions that “*management is about efficiency in climbing the ladder of success, and leadership determines if it is leaning against the right wall*”. Only through in-depth research may the ‘rightness of the wall’ be determined.

The 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs), adopted in 2015 by all United Nations (UN) Member States, provides a shared blueprint for global peace and prosperity. Its goal is to ignite transformative acts and swiftly move the world towards resilience and sustainability (UNDP, 2015). SDG goal 4 focuses on inclusive and equitable quality education, ensuring lifelong learning opportunities for everyone. The inclusion of global citizenship education in curricula promotes qualities like empathy, tolerance and cultural understanding while raising student awareness of global issues. Education is a fundamental catalyst for achieving all other SDGs (<https://sdgs.un.org/goals>), which empowers individuals, reduces inequality and promotes social and economic advancement. The UN seeks to create a more just, egalitarian and sustainable world for both present and future generations by prioritising education as one of the SDGs (<https://sdgs.un.org/goals>).

The African Union's Agenda 2063 (<https://au.int/en/agenda2063/overview>), Aspiration 1, seeks to create a prosperous Africa through inclusive growth and sustainable development. Goal number 2 under this aspiration focuses on attaining well-educated citizens through a skills revolution, with a foundation in Science, Technology and Innovation (STI). This goal acknowledges the critical function that education and skills development play in promoting economic progress and empowering the people of

Africa. The continent hopes to foster innovation, industrialisation and competitiveness on a global scale by embracing STI. Agenda 2063 Aspiration 1 and goal number 2 offer a strategic framework for making Africa affluent and inclusive while harnessing human potential and leveraging advancements in science and technology for sustainable development.

SDG Goal 4 (Quality Education) and the African Union Agenda 2063 Aspiration 1 (a prosperous Africa based on inclusive growth and sustainable development) have had a significant impact on education in Ghana. Both frameworks emphasise the importance of quality education in driving socio-economic development and fostering a sustainable and inclusive society. Overall, SDG Goal 4 and African Union Agenda 2063 Aspiration 1 provide a robust framework for guiding Ghana's education policies and initiatives. Ghana's commitment to these goals has resulted in significant progress in expanding access to quality education, improving learning outcomes and aligning education with the broader development agenda through programmes being implemented in the country's higher educational institutions to foster a prosperous, inclusive and sustainable future for Ghana.

Chapter one explores and justifies the need for research focusing on the impact of institutional culture on work engagement in public universities in Ghana. The chapter begins by contextualising the background to the problem. The chapter, then, continues to outline the problem statement, the research questions, the hypothesis, the objectives that guides the study, the rationale and the potential contribution to the area of administration in higher education institutions. In addition, I discuss the value of the theoretical framework and conclude the chapter by providing details on the research methodology, ethical considerations, delimitation and limitations, credibility and trustworthiness, and an outline of the thesis prior to giving a summary of the chapter.

1.2 CONTEXTUAL BACKGROUND OF THE STUDY

How do Higher Education Institutions (HEIs) ensure a world-class quality education for developing citizens in emerging world-class economies? Although the quality of

Ghana's education system is considered high, the financial strain of adequately training staff is a challenge. At the heart of this question is how HEIs may enhance employee productivity, efficiency and delivery of value-added service. All institutions have some basic shared assumptions, values, norms and principles that guide behaviour and distinguish one institution from another. They are referred to as institutional culture. Institutional culture is essentially the uniqueness of an institution. Hasan, Astuti, Tri Wulida, & Igbal (2020) are of the view that the culture of an institution is the knowledge, habits, behaviours, values, and attitudes created by the institution to be obeyed and carried out by all of its employees for the achievement of institutional goals. They further argue that institutional culture is a repetitive behaviour and eventually grows into habits and shapes the character of employees. The institutional culture is thus reflected in the policies shaped by values, beliefs, habits, thinking patterns and communication methods. According to Jappie (2019), institutional culture reflects a social system developed in an institution that embraces a tradition to guarantee continuity. The institutional culture reflects the policies shaped by values, beliefs, habits, thinking patterns and communication methods.

Kuh and Whitt (1988) assert that institutional culture binds a group of like-minded people. They posit that culture is how institutional members share institutional beliefs, values, assumptions and ideologies. According to Kuh and Whitt (1988), the sense of identity (who we are), facilitated in the level of allegiance (loyalty), enhanced through steadiness (how things are done), guides reasonability (how events are understood) in higher educational institutions and thereby conveys the institutional culture. It tends to define authority (who is influential). In essence, institutional culture expresses how its members behave, how the institution promotes itself and what constitutes its values and rewards.

In this study, institutional culture reflects the shared assumptions, beliefs and practices on which an institution is founded, shaping members' behaviour and distinguishing them from others. Institutional culture shows an institution's mission, communication, management and leadership styles, decision-making, rewards and recognition,

performance evaluation, innovation and change, teamwork and emphasis on training and development.

In trying to unpack and understand the phenomenon of institutional culture, the endeavour cannot be a complete picture without considering the people who work there. Institutions attract a variety of employees who are either intrinsically or extrinsically motivated to get to work every day. How they work, or the level at which they work and do their jobs, duties and responsibilities, is captured simply in another phenomenon, known as work engagement. Schaufeli and Baker (2004) describe work engagement as an optimistic, rewarding, work-related disposition of thinking which portrays a sense of vigour reflected as brisk energy while working. Schaufeli and Baker (2004) further argue that being strongly dedicated to one's effort and feeling relevant at the workplace is an outcome of work engagement. In other words, employee engagement reflects an absorption in work. Budiono, Hamidah, and Yasin (2019) also argue that work engagement is the level of affective emotion of fulfilment in relation to work, which is the degree of absorption, dedication, and vigour exhibited by an employee. In this regard, work engagement becomes a key business driver for the success of an institution. For this research, work engagement is described as an absolute investment in one's efforts with mental resilience, strong involvement and total engrossment in the workplace to develop an institution's interest. There is a saying that *when you love what you do, it no longer feels like work*. It is the ideal.

Literature confirms the correlation between culture and work engagement. Halid (2023) in a study argues that the creation of a favourable institutional culture influences employees, by making them loyal. It is further asserted that engaged employees is a distinct emanation from the culture of the institution. Therefore, work engagement draws on the circumstances under which employees generate high levels of motivation, values, belief system and a sense of pride in their work, all geared at the achievement of institutional objectives. According to a study conducted by Moore (2020) work culture has a significant influence on employee engagement. Further, Bija (2020) found that institutional culture acts as a mediator between the influence of

leadership and work engagement. This is corroborated by research by Siddique (2019) which revealed that increased work engagement among employees results in internalized institutional culture. Wagner (1995) believes that culture strongly influences employees' behaviour and attitudes. Ghanaian authors, Agyemang and Ofei (2013), perceive that cultures and work environments positively impact the employees' physical and psychological well-being. As a Ghanaian, my research interest lies in understanding the influence of institutional culture on work engagement at selected public universities in Ghana.

Although the roles of culture within universities may seem unclear, a consensus among researchers aligns with the notion that cultural values, beliefs and traditions significantly influence the operation of higher education institutions. This influence becomes evident in the configuration of institutional frameworks, channels of communication and instruction strategies that in turn, affects interactions among staff, students and the larger academic environment (Shen & Tian, 2012). Given the growing susceptibility to move with the times to change and universities' significant inherited characteristics, the missing dimension is developing a specific culture (Sporn, 1996) that engages employees in their jobs, and Ghana is no exception.

Employees may not feel that they want to get up every day and rush in peak-hour traffic to get to work. The negativity in such a mindset may be captured in the inability to want to be 'there physically or mentally' - a feeling of being disconnected. The anxiety resulting from the demands of work paired with accountability eventually leads to employees' disengagement. The disengagement may manifest in different ways; with noted examples such as frequent errors in the typing of letters and memoranda, not being punctual and poor attendance at work, low productivity, increased number of sick leave days and resultant high medical bills. It may be the case that pressure is exerted on employees at public universities in Ghana because of the non-availability of financial clearance to employ additional staff to share the increasing workloads of active staff. One of the issues that emerges is employees tending to have to take on numerous roles with many responsibilities simultaneously, resulting in them feeling overwhelmed by soaring student enrolment numbers while single-handedly doing the

jobs of many absent or non-existent colleagues. The burden of additional work may prompt feelings of vulnerability and the inability to adequately cope with the job demands.

When employees experience a culture of disengagement, the institution encounters the challenge of motivating them to do their job. Nnuro (2012) indicated that working in higher education institutions is an inherently stressful profession with heavy workloads, a large volume of work, challenging students and differing administration, teaching and learning demands. Higher education institutions' physical and psychological constraints make their employees more susceptible to high-stress levels.

The challenge is for universities, as learning institutions, to develop an institutional culture to fully engage employees in their work. Wagner (1995) asserts that culture strongly impacts employees' behaviours and attitudes. This study argues that even though many types of research have examined the correlation between work engagement and various variables (for example, performance, productivity and commitment), there is a dearth of scientific studies establishing the correlation between institutional culture and work engagement. This research, therefore, aimed to address this gap and explored how institutional culture influences the sustainability of work engagement in public universities in Ghana.

The study draws attention to the state of education in Ghana, a former British colony referred to as the Gold Coast but renamed Ghana after independence in 1957. Since independence, successive governments have introduced educational reforms, which have resulted in the educational system's near-collapse in the 1980s. In 1991, Ghana's educational reforms focused on access to quality education in line with its developmental agenda (Kweitsu, 2014). The education sector in Ghana has experienced several labour unrest incidents lately. Various unions within institutions of higher education, such as the Tertiary Education Workers Union (TEWU), the Ghana Association of University Administrators (GAUA), the University Teachers' Association of Ghana (UTAG), the Polytechnic Teachers Association of Ghana

(POTAG), the Ghana National Association of Teachers (GNAT) and the National Association of Graduate Teachers (NAGRAT) have been agitating and lobbying for better conditions of service. The last boycott of work by POTAG resulted in a temporary shutdown of polytechnics across the country, which interrupted academic work. Kweitsu (2014) found that such labour unrest adversely affects the quality of education. When these disruptions occur, the time required for significant academic work is lost, and the imbalance in deliverables is not easily regained.

Nyan (2017) examined how industrial disputes between the University of Cape Coast's management and junior staff, represented by the Teachers and Educational Workers Union (TEWU), arose and were handled. The research showed that most junior staff did not know about the institution's service conditions, which is the reference document for seeking redress pertaining to issues related to their category. The author recommended that management promptly address issues related to salaries, wages and other economic benefits of junior staff to avoid the possibility of industrial unrest. The research also suggested that the management of the university and TEWU should update junior staff on policies, rules, regulations and conditions of service from time to time. Suuk (2022), on DW (Deutsche Welle) News reported on the headline, "*University strike cripples' study*". It was indicated that public universities in Ghana were on the verge of shutting down because of an ongoing university lecturers' strike over poor working condition. The report revealed that the strike had, at the time of publishing, entered its fifth week and had left thousands of local and international students stranded.

An investigation by Kalia and Verma (2017) revealed that the accomplishment of an institution rests on the merit of an engaged workforce. McBain (2007) and Lockwood (2007) indicate that an institution's advancement builds on engaged employees, with culture being one of the agents that propels work engagement. This suggests the need to create an institutional culture to sustain employee engagement. University employees, such as faculty, university administrators and senior and junior staff, are critical to developing a culture that is crucial to employees' engagement in universities. Faculty and administrators alike see to the implementation and enforcement of policies

either verbally or by written means. The onus now lies on the institution, the disciplines, the faculty and the administration to develop and maintain a culture that engages the workforce who will invest fully to ensure the fulfilment of institutional goals. It is argued that a framework of institutional culture will provide solutions to this critical foundation for enhancing productivity among the staff of higher educational institutions (Tierney, 1988).

The challenge faced by public universities in Ghana and the review of a significant international body of theory and research (Nwugwo, 2001; Taylor, 2012) that emphasises the influence of institutional culture on employees, prompted this investigation. A critical examination of current literature has found institutional culture as a significant predictor of work engagement in the public sector of developing African countries, with emphasis on Ghana. However, this revelation has been overlooked (Brenyah & Obuobisa-Darko, 2017). This research aimed to address the identified research gap to determine how institutional culture in Ghanaian public universities influences work engagement.

1.2 STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM

Highlighted internationally and on local news, most public universities in Ghana are understaffed because the government has placed a ban on employment. The directive on the moratorium on employment in Ghana from 2010 to date (Lokko, 2015 cited in Darden & Maroney, 2018), has increased employees' workload in public universities in Ghana. What this means on the ground is that a few employees in public universities are now doing the work of many who have not or cannot be employed. Being understaffed or short-staffed exerts a strain on the physical health of the limited staff who carry the workload of many as they push themselves to cope with the demands of additional job descriptions. This dire no-win situation has resulted in labour unrest in the public universities in Ghana. The *Times* of India (2016) corroborates the view that work stress and unattractive work conditions negatively affect employee engagement. The challenge, then, arises about how higher education institutions in Ghana should engage employees at the workplace. The job must go on, and the possibility of staff burnout or feelings of disconnect and discontent must be addressed

in order to find a solution to the possible lack of work engagement. This study posits that an effective way to raise employee productivity is through the establishment of a high-quality institutional culture. Doing so will make employees more engaged in their work, leading to a potentially successful outcome.

Internationally, the study is motivated by the Universities Human Resource (UHR) 2023 – 2004 Annual Review Report and the Universities and Colleges Employers Association (UCEA) Report (n.d.), which asserts that the higher education institutions (HEIs) sector is considered stable. However, there is a perception that HEIs are mainly confronted by international competition, government funding cuts, new regulations and the pressure to restructure. In light of these challenges, employee engagement may help HEIs to attract, develop and retain their human resources during challenging moments. This perception has prompted me to investigate institutional culture and establish its role in engaging employees at the workplace.

The study argues that institutions must implement strategies to promote institutional culture by establishing clear mission and vision statements, effective communication, training and development and performance evaluation. Upon a critical review of literature, the study presupposes that work engagement would improve so that employees have the mental resilience to remain positively engaged in their work, leading to strong involvement in institutional activities.

1.3 AIM OF THE STUDY

This research aimed to examine the nature of institutional culture and its influence on employees' work engagement at selected universities. By seeking comprehensive perspectives and consulting policy documents, the study aimed at providing insight into the effects of institutional culture on university employees' work engagement. The study aimed to pinpoint an institutional culture that motivates employees to dedicate themselves to their work, despite the identified challenges and the influence of institutional culture on work engagement at Ghana's public universities.

1.4 RATIONALE

Having practised as a university administrator for eleven years at a public higher education institution in the northern part of Ghana, I have observed and experienced during meetings, coffee and lunchtime conversations that there is an absence of open and honest communication and transparency. The lack of opportunities for employees to safely express their concerns without fear of repercussions of such an engagement is a reality. Finding safe spaces to collaborate with management to openly find solutions to workplace problems and perhaps be given the capacity to take part in decision making, is limited or non-existent. Through personal observations, with more than a decade of experience at a public university in Ghana, this study argues that policies are usually made by ad-hoc committees and rolled out only on paper to the detriment of employees.

Employees are either unaware of institutional policies or are not given adequate information during orientation and probation periods. Employees are usually not informed well ahead of time before policies are rolled out and may disregard or go against institutional policies or guidelines; with the usual standard excuse being, "I did not know." In some cases, only when a finger gets burnt, in other words, when an employee commits a blunder, do they get to know of the existence of some relevant policy. For example, strategies such as the clock-in-system, which checks attendance and punctuality, have been introduced in some universities but have not really worked (Thierry, 2018). Therefore, issues concerning punctuality, attendance, workload and ineffective communication of institutional policies have prompted me to analyze the correlation between institutional culture and work engagement.

Stakeholders and policy makers in higher educational institutions in Ghana should be guided by a framework to assist in the creation of unique institutional cultures aimed at engaging employees at work to ensure that these institutions are operating efficiently. The study aimed to comprehend how to motivate employees to become engaged in their work despite challenging circumstances. The study examined the

literature and provided a critical approach to address the gap by pursuing an appropriate institutional culture that engages employees with their daily work.

1.5 CONTRIBUTION OF THE STUDY

The research investigated the effects of institutional culture on work engagement and explored the link between the dimensions of the variables under study. The research findings would be of value to policymakers in public universities. An outcome of the research is the proposed development of new strategies to integrate institutional culture and work engagement, thereby increasing performance standards. It may also be adopted as a starting point for HEIs to develop models on the correlation between institutional culture and work engagement in their respective contexts. Understanding these dynamics will assist in preparing and engaging the workforce in public universities.

The literature reviewed reflects that some research (Aphu, 2018) has been undertaken in this area. However, it seems that there is not much published on the linkage between institutional culture and work engagement. The review reflects a scarcity of empirical studies conducted on the two concepts in public universities in Ghana. It can be argued that institutional culture and work engagement are relatively new fields, especially in public universities in Ghana; for this reason, there has been limited research on the two concepts compared to other interrelated concepts. A regression analysis conducted by Naidoo and Martin (2014) showed three dimensions of their seven culture dimensions (leadership, goals and objectives and management processes) contributed to predicting the parameters of work engagement. However, Naidoo and Martin (2014) remark that there are few systematic studies on institutional culture and its influence on work engagement and they advocate for more scientific studies to be conducted in this area. This view is supported by the strong argument advanced by Wang et al. (2004) that institutional culture and its effects on work attitudes has received less research. Furthermore, this study argues that most research in this discipline focuses on either employee engagement or organisational culture, but rarely together. This study aimed to fill the related gap found in the

literature reviewed by proposing and designing a framework shown in Figure 1.1 illustrating different institutional culture parameters that play a role in highlighting work engagement parameters in public universities.

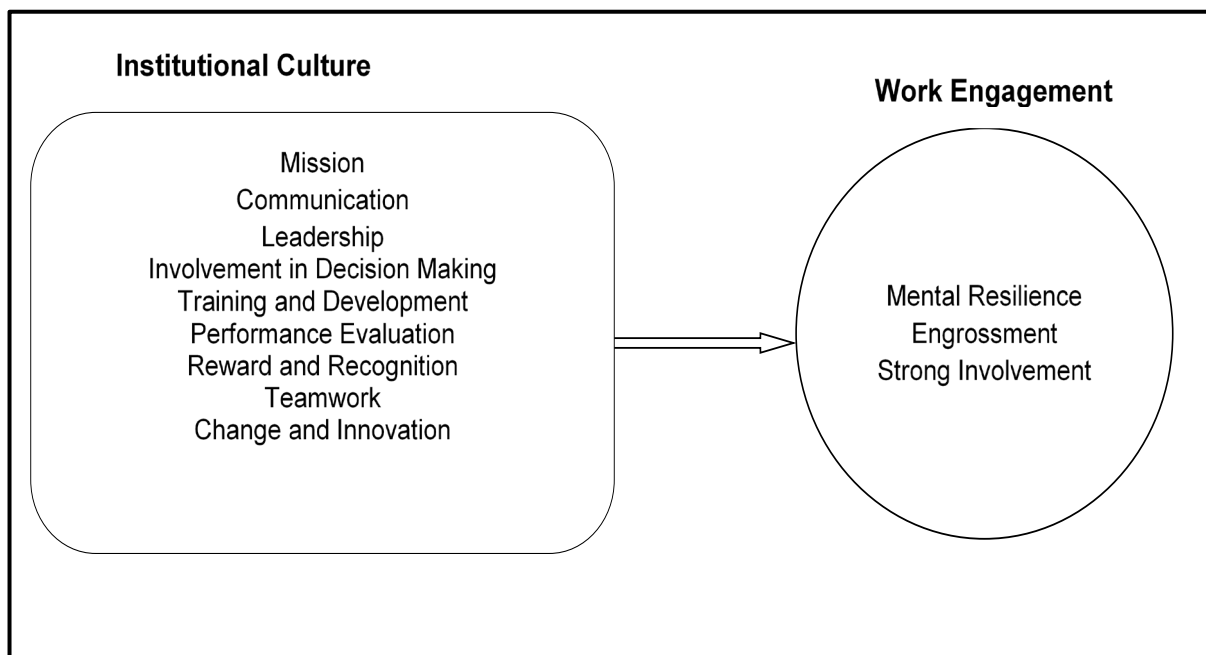


Figure 1.1: Proposed Institutional Culture of Work Engagement Framework

This study argues that institutional culture and work engagement are imperative for institutional survival and growth. However, limited previous research on the correlation between institutional culture and work engagement highlights a knowledge gap. These research findings would inform managers and human resource specialists of the role of institutional culture in engaging employees at the workplace and guide human resource managers to promote institutional culture and work engagement. They would serve as a guiding map for increased institutional performance. The research results would be of great importance to public university policymakers as they have the potential to empower them to implement policies and guidelines on institutional culture that will support work engagement. Therefore, this study argues that good policies on institutional culture and work engagement in public universities would lead to improved employee retention.

Additionally, several contextual situations are compelling institutions to search for innovative ways of service provision. Therefore, managers need to shape institutional culture and make it conducive to engaging employees in their respective workplaces. The outcome of this research would add to current theories on institutional culture and work engagement, especially from the Ghanaian viewpoint. The findings of this research may, therefore, add to the body of knowledge with an appreciation of institutional culture and how it may drive employee work engagement. In this regard, the following research questions were proposed.

1.6 RESEARCH QUESTIONS

The main research question is: *How does institutional culture relate to the work engagement of employees at two public universities in Ghana?*

To answer the main question, the following sub-questions were posed:

1. What is the nature of institutional culture prevailing in public universities in Ghana? (QUAL)
2. What is the level of work engagement at public universities in Ghana? (QUAN)
3. What is the relationship between the parameters of institutional culture and the parameters of work engagement at public universities in Ghana? (QUAN)

1.7 RESEARCH HYPOTHESES

The following research hypotheses were formulated to be tested at the 0.05 alpha level:

H₀: There is no relationship between institutional culture and work engagement in public universities in Ghana.

H₁: There is a relationship between institutional culture and work engagement in public universities in Ghana.

1.8 OBJECTIVES OF THE STUDY

The main objective of this study was to examine how institutional culture influences employees' engagement in the workplace.

The specific objectives included:

1. To identify the nature and parameters of institutional culture prevalent in public universities in Ghana.
2. To determine the level to which university employees are engaged at public universities in Ghana.
3. To examine the association between institutional culture and employees' engagement at public universities in Ghana.

1.9 CLARIFICATION AND OPERATIONAL DEFINITION OF KEY CONCEPTS

In order to better understand the narrative that follows, the underlying concepts used in the study need to be considered. The concepts that inform a clear understanding are briefly discussed below and elaborated on further in the review of literature.

Institutional Culture - is a sequence of beliefs, assumptions, values and practices that guide the behaviour of individuals and groups in higher education (Kuh & Whitt, 1988, p.12). Furthermore, the beliefs, traditions, practices and policies of an institution that affect the careers and personal lives of students, faculty and administration define the institutional culture of an institution (Bingham & Nix, 2010) are also considered in defining the term *institutional culture*. For the purposes of this research, institutional culture is described as the shared assumptions, beliefs and practices on which an institution is founded, which shapes members' behaviour and distinguishes members of the institution from others. Institutional culture reflects an institution's vision and mission, communication, management and leadership styles, decision-making, rewards and recognition, performance evaluation, innovation and change, teamwork, with an emphasis on training and development.

Work Engagement - as posited by Schaufeli and Baker (2004), refers to a work-related mindset characterised by, firstly, a vigour reflected as a high state of

enthusiasm and mental resilience during work. Secondly, Schaufeli and Baker (2004) argue that work engagement is a commitment to getting resolutely interested in one's work, a feeling of significance, excitement and difficulty. Thirdly, work engagement is described by an absorption where the employee is entirely and cheerfully absorbed in completing work schedules, during which time elapses without an employee noticing (Schaufeli & Baker, 2004). For this research, work engagement is defined as a complete investment in a work schedule with mental resilience, strong involvement and total engrossment in the job to develop and maintain the status and reputation of an institution.

Public University - is described as a university that is in state ownership or is funded predominantly by the public through the state government.

Senior Members - are defined as faculty, professional and administrative employees who also serve as Convocation members by appointment. This category is not below the position of Junior Assistant Registrar, Assistant Lecturer, or their equivalent.

Senior Staff - are employees who are at the rank of an administrative assistant or its equivalent and above but are not senior members.

Junior Staff - are employees lower in rank than Administrative Assistant or its equivalent.

1.10 AN OVERVIEW OF THE RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY

This section addresses a brief overview of the research design, the population, the data collection and the data analysis procedures. This section also classifies the empirical research within a particular paradigm or philosophy.

Several paradigms have been developed to determine the basis on which one would select and define problems for inquiry. Burrell and Morgan (1979, p.37) purport that "to be situated in a particular paradigm is to have a particular perspective of the world". Paradigms help shape the researcher's perception of the world around them. The beliefs a researcher holds, the data collection and analysis procedures used and how

research results are presented, indicate how research is designed. It is vital to identify one's paradigm since it gives room for establishing one's role in the research process, deciding on any research project's course and determining other perspectives (Patton, 1990). Kuhn (1962) further characterised a paradigm as incorporating substantive concepts, variables and problems associated with methodologies and tools employed for the research process.

The research design for the study aligns with the pragmatist paradigm. The philosophy of pragmatism is based on the concept that results are more significant than the procedure; consequently, “the end justifies the means” as it promotes a heterogeneous, contingency or needs-based approach to the concept and research methodology selection (Johnson & Onwuegbuzie, 2004, p.17). In this case, scholars are at liberty to select the appropriate approach to respond to the research questions. Pragmatism holds that research cannot be determined by theory or data entirely. It allows the researcher to explore deduction and induction through inquiry (Morgan, 2007). Several authors propose pragmatism as a suitable paradigm for justifying mixed methods research. Pragmatism supports quantitative (QUAN) and qualitative (QUAL) designs in the same study and rejects the incompatibility stance. Accordingly, Johnson and Onwuegbuzie (2004) contend that the concept of mixed methods research will go beyond quantitative versus qualitative arguments in the future. However, they think that the mixed methods approach, with time, will be centred on acknowledging the application of both paradigms. The philosophy of pragmatism guided the study in understanding the role of institutional culture in work engagement.

The research design also incorporates the general plan of the study and the procedure for the conduct of the research (McMillan & Schumacher, 2010). The mixed methods study design, which incorporates the strengths of both quantitative (QUAN) and qualitative (QUAL) methodologies to address research concerns, is the foundation of pragmatic thinking. In this approach, there are both quantitative and qualitative phases. Each phase is carried out independently, and the results from the two phases are then combined to serve a larger goal and provide a thorough understanding of the research questions and phenomena. In order to comprehend the subject matter more

thoroughly, a mixed technique should be used (Hoover & Krishnamurti, 2010) as it can strengthen conclusions by supplying more proof and balancing any drawbacks that may result from relying just on one method (Albert et al., 2009; Bryman, 2004; Caruth, 2013; Creswell & Plano Clark, 2011; Tashakkori & Creswell, 2008). Though mixed methods research may take longer, it covers broader issues and provides information that could otherwise be ignored (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2011).

The research utilised an explanatory sequential mixed methods design, chosen from among several mixed method designs. The explanatory sequential design comprises two independent procedures that are applied sequentially: a quantitative strand that collects and analyses numerical data, followed by a qualitative strand that collects and analyses textual data (Ivankova et al., 2006). The quantitative procedure is usually given priority and the two procedures are then combined in various ways at a transitional level (Ivankova et al., 2006). The explanatory sequential design often uses textual data to explain numeric findings that are especially unexpected (Creswell et al., 2003). To provide understanding of the statistical data, for instance, research hypotheses are statistically evaluated and then blended merging methods and extensive participant descriptions are utilised (Fetters et al., 2013). Another goal of the explanatory sequential design is to employ quantitative data to purposefully sample rather than randomly select participants for the qualitative component of a study (Creswell et al., 2003).

During the research process, both quantitative and qualitative data were gathered, analysed individually, and then combined. Integrating the two stages through triangulation allowed for the analysis of the combined outcomes. Findings from the qualitative phase were used to contextualise and explain findings and interpretations from the quantitative phase more thoroughly. In this research, the explanatory sequential mixed methods design was considered appropriate due to its capacity for a comprehensive exploration of quantitative findings. This approach is especially useful when unexpected results emerge from quantitative inquiries (Morse, 1991). However, this design does have its limitations, including the need for a significant

amount of time and resources to gather and analyse both types of data. Despite this, the study incorporated the best aspects of quantitative and qualitative research, combining ideas and points of view and contrasting findings with information from various contexts and eras (Alhojailan, 2012; Griffin & Ragin, 1994).

The research design gave the researcher the ability to structure the analysis to elicit answers for the main study and sub-questions and to reveal which institutional culture type engages employees. The design provided the opportunity to enable the researcher to structure the research to reveal prevailing practices and attitudes to answer the research hypotheses. The selection of this design gave insight into the phenomena and contributed to institutional culture and employee engagement at public universities in Ghana. This research design was also used because it explored the association between institutional culture and work engagement.

There are ten public universities in Ghana. The research was conducted, using two of these public universities: one in the Wa District of Ghana and the other in the Cape Coast Municipality of Ghana. These two were selected because of proximity, access and cost. The research was limited to the institutional culture and work engagement levels at these two public universities; therefore, the employees in the universities were not mentioned here, though they were the target of interest. The accessible population for this study consisted of three hundred and seventy employees, across two universities.

A multistage sampling method was used for this study. Both non-probability and probability techniques were used to gather data. The convenience sampling technique was deemed suitable for the selection of the universities as this method facilitated easy access to the institutions (Creswell, 2005). This narrowed-down sample is small enough, manageable and trustworthy. The purposive sampling technique, a non-probability sampling method, was adopted to select employees at the university who had been employed for two or more years and have a fair knowledge and appreciation of the critical issues of interest to the study. The researcher also selected respondents because of their ability to give rich information with in-depth descriptions of their

positions and the experiences that accompany it. Purposive sampling enables one to unearth, comprehend and attain deeper understanding of a sample. The use of the purposive sampling method involves the selection of a sample from which the researcher can learn (Osuala, 2007).

Additionally, the researcher employed the purposive sampling method to identify participants for the qualitative data. The researcher used the cluster and simple random sampling methods to select the final sample across the various categories of employees at the university and the multiple departments. For triangulation, a blend of quantitative and qualitative data collection methods was employed for this research.

A sample is a group chosen from a larger population to yield information about this population. Doody and Noonan (2013) indicated that sampling constitutes the selection of a subset that allows a researcher to learn about a particular phenomenon. Thus, the preference for these respondents was based on their two years' minimum work experience and the ability to give precise and valid information about the phenomenon under study (Li & Titsworth, 2015). The sample size selected was two hundred and thirty university employees. The researcher opted to include respondents from the various categories of public universities to obtain reliable data.

Data collection procedures were employed to gather the needed information for the researcher to respond to the research questions. Three main data collection techniques were selected for the purposes of triangulation. A questionnaire, a semi-structured interview guide and document analysis were the instruments used in gathering the data. The first section of the data collection, which was a quantitative approach, involved administering a questionnaire. The questionnaire, according to Kumekpor (2002), is an active and precise approach to collect accurate, reliable and relatively inexpensive information about the population. A structured questionnaire comprising a combination of closed-ended and open-ended questions (Likert Scale - quantitative data), were used for the study. A carefully constructed questionnaire provides a composite and general overview of the institution's existing culture, influences culture and the employees' perceptions of the impact of institutional culture

on work engagement. The questionnaire covered four sections: Section A requested the biographical data of respondents; Section B solicited details on the existing institutional culture; Section D covered items on work engagement in the selected institutions and Section D requested information on an ideal culture that engages employees in their work. Prior to collecting data, experimental research was undertaken with a sample of respondents in a similar public university in Ghana to test the reliability and validity of the data collection tool.

In the next stage, interviews were employed for the collection of the qualitative data, and included a structured interview guide consisting of twenty-one items. An interview guide was used to elicit qualitative responses from department heads on the existing institutional culture and work engagement. An in-depth interview guide was used to determine participants' sentiments, emotional state, and views regarding the research subject. The advantage of using an interview guide was also to eliminate non-response rates. Interviews also help identify some of the critical elements that should be included in the survey. The interviews with the heads of department provided more detailed, rich information on the institution's culture and how it had been structured to engage employees in their daily work activities. Interviews were tape-recorded and later transcribed. The interview transcripts were, then, used for analysis of empirical findings.

1.11 DATA ANALYSIS

Data analysis encompasses the application of statistical and rational methods to characterise and evaluate data. Both quantitative and qualitative data analysis methods were used to analyse the data. The questionnaire was checked for completeness, and the data collected were coded and fed into a quantitative database for computational analysis using SPSS version 23.0 software. Suitable statistical techniques were applied according to the scales used in the data collection instrument. Descriptive standards such as frequency distribution, percentages, mean and standard deviation were used to interpret the data. Pearson's Correlations, simple regression and multiple regressions were used to test the hypotheses and interpret

the results. Graphical presentations, that is, charts and graphs, were used to present the results.

Thematic analysis based on codes was used for analysis of the qualitative part of the interview responses. Creswell (2013) advocates for continuous qualitative data analysis concurrently with the fieldwork. The thematic analysis was deemed the best fit for this research as it is the most appropriate for any research geared towards a discovery by the use of interpretations. It gives an orderly procedure to data analysis. It can be applied in the analysis of classifications and for the presentation of themes (patterns) that are associated with the data. It presents data comprehensively by using interpretations for the varied subjects (Boyatzis,1998). In addition, the thematic analysis approach gives room for the researcher to link an examination of the occurrence of a theme with aspects of the content. This makes the analysis accurate and enhances the overall connotation of the research. Thematic analysis enables the researcher to understand the potential of themes on broader terms (Marks & Yardley 2004). Accordingly, thematic analysis gives room for the determination and comparison of the correlation between constructs and data that have been replicated. Finally, an analysis of policy documents from the respective institutions was carried out.

1.12 STRUCTURE OF THE THESIS

Chapter 1 discussed the background and the context, the research problem, significance and rationale for the research. This chapter also covered the research question and objectives, methodology, research design, the procedures to enhance credibility, and the ethical considerations of this research.

Chapter 2 covers a review of the literature. The literature focuses on the historical perspective on institutional culture and work engagement in government-owned universities in the Ghanaian setting. Additionally, this chapter describes a detailed appraisal of the research focused on the influence of institutional culture on work engagement.

Chapter 3 discusses the relevance of Tierney's unique institutional culture, Bergquist's institutional archetypes of culture, and the job demands resources model as the theoretical framework for the study. The conceptual framework underpinning the research is unpacked and aligned with the research questions.

Chapter 4 focuses on the research paradigm, research design and data collection methods. This chapter also justifies the strategies used in selecting instruments for the collection and analysis of data.

Chapter 5 covers descriptive statistics, primarily by frequencies and percentages, ANOVA and regression analysis. The chapter also discusses the data through quantitative data collection methods.

Chapter 6 presents the data analysed from the interviews besides the data from the review of documents.

Chapter 7 entails a comparison of the data from the quantitative and qualitative analysis. The outcome of this research is compared with the reviewed empirical literature. The theories reviewed previously are employed to make sense of the results of the investigation.

Chapter 8 offers a synopsis of the key research findings and the implications for practice. Proposals for possible areas for potential research are also made.

1.13 SUMMARY OF THE CHAPTER

Presented in Chapter 1 was the general perspective on the crucial role of institutional culture in engaging employees at the workplace. The research problem, significance, rationale for the research, research objectives and questions were clearly stated in this chapter and an account of the methodology comprising a brief discussion of the research design, population, sampling, data collection, and data analysis process is given. A summary of the theoretical and conceptual frameworks that supports the study is incorporated into the chapter. This then leads to a review of the literature which is explored in-depth in Chapter two, where the focus is on the concept of

institutional culture and work engagement, implications of the concepts for universities, positive perspectives and drawbacks of the concepts and measurement of the two concepts. Chapter two also discusses the international perspective on the trends of the two concepts as it leads to the understanding of the administration of higher education institutions.

CHAPTER TWO

LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 INTRODUCTION

While there is widespread agreement that institutional cultures exist and are a crucial driver in shaping work engagement, pinpointing the extent of the relationship is a complex undertaking. Engaging employees within a higher education institution (HEI) requires values, as ways of interaction and a conducive environment could contribute to an institution's uniqueness. This necessitates a strong institutional culture that stimulates employees to engage at the workplace. According to Nazneen, Miralam and Qazi (2018) employee engagement and institutional culture had a significant impact on the performance of employees. These concepts have become an issue of concern in administration in higher educational institutions and the review in this chapter highlights key debates.

This chapter contextualises the study by presenting a comprehensive review of the literature on institutional culture and work engagement that guided the researcher in obtaining the answers to the research questions posed. The chapter outlines the concept of institutional culture, focusing on the evolution and history of institutional culture, the definition of institutional culture, the implication of institutional culture for universities, positive perspectives and drawbacks of institutional culture and the measurement of institutional culture. The review provides details on work engagement, positive perspectives and drawbacks that shed light on the ongoing debate for understanding this complex phenomenon and the measurement of the concept. Finally, I conclude by reviewing the global perspectives and national empirical findings and perceptions on the correlation between institutional culture and the level of work engagement of employees in public universities.

2.2 OVERVIEW OF PUBLIC UNIVERSITIES IN GHANA

Education worldwide is classified into three levels, which are basic, secondary and higher, tertiary or post-secondary. The definition of higher education varies from one country to the other. In the United States of America, for instance, higher education is made up of two- and four-year colleges, universities and professional schools (Department of Education and Science, 1989). Until 1992, the United Kingdom had a distinct post-secondary level and higher education, which emphasised universities offering undergraduate and postgraduate programmes and engaged in research and 'further education' provided by polytechnics and colleges. Recently, the latter has been firmly absorbed into the higher education system. In Africa, the seemingly lack of clarity on the cost of high school education which lingered for several years, was laid to rest at a conference of heads of university institutions in 1962 in Tananarive, Madagascar (Woldegiorgis & Doevenspeck, 2013).

Before the late 1980s, higher education in Ghana was referred only to universities. However, the University Rationalisation Committee (URC), established in 1987 to comprehensively review the educational system, introduced the term 'tertiary education' to encompass other post-secondary technical and vocational educational institutions such as polytechnics. The URC suggested the creation of Regional Colleges of Applied Science, Arts, and Technology (RECAAST), which would include nursing, teacher training and agricultural colleges. However, this suggestion was not carried out at the time, but tertiary education in Ghana has now been expanded to include all these institutions (Effah, P. 2018).

Agbodeka (1998), Effah, J (2003) and Bening (2005), provide varying accounts of the origins of higher education in Ghana. According to their reports, the commencement of higher education in Ghana can be linked to the establishment of two commissions by the colonial government, namely the Elliot and Asquith Commissions. The foundation for the country's higher education institutions was laid by these commissions. Further reports from Bening (2005) call attention to Dr Edward Blyden's advocacy for the establishment of a West African University in the late 1890s. Although

this particular initiative was not successful, it set the stage for subsequent efforts in higher education. J.E. Casely Hayford (1836-1930) put forward a proposal to create a university for the Gold Coast and Ashanti regions, with its location in Kumasi. This proposal by a renowned Ghanaian intellectual revealed the growing desire for opportunities for higher education. Additionally, Sir Harry Johnston (1858-1927) advocated for establishing a West African University that would prioritise African Studies. This underscores the recognition of the value of studying African perspectives and knowledge in relation to the context of higher education.

However, some reports assert that the establishment of the Achimota Collage, by Sir F.G. Guggisberg (1869-1930) in the late 1920s, may have initiated higher education in Ghana (J. Effah, 2003), which offered kindergarten to intermediate courses to prepare students for university. Later, the University of Ghana, the Kwame Nkrumah University of Science and Technology and the University of Cape Coast were also established,

The primary mandate of universities in Ghana is to teach and provide teaching services and undertake research. However, universities in Ghana are fraught with challenges due to the increase in student numbers, the associated challenges of using technology, dwindling public funding and a call for mandatory collaboration with the industry in recent years. These challenges have made the administration of higher education institutions more intricate than ever. In addition, the purely autonomous and collegial model of governance prescribed by the colonial model and embraced by universities in most Anglophone African countries is slowly yielding to corporate managerialism, a feature of the governance system of the United States. Such reasons led to Clark Kerr's assertion that the university is a diverse community of scholars and non-academic staff who complement each other. It was for the same considerations that Henry Wasser referred to the university as a convenient gathering of talents. This suggests that a university cannot attain its goals without the collaboration of both non-academic and academic employees (J. Effah, 2018).

In addition, Kotter (1996) and J. Effah, (2018) affirmed that leaders in complex organisations such as universities, must establish the direction of operation and align employees with the vision of the university, motivate and inspire them to take up the challenge of working towards the success of the university, despite the barriers associated with work. Secondly, Kubicek (2011) emphasised that positive leadership occurs not by leading but by influencing followers towards achieving goals. This study argues therefore, that it is necessary for universities, from the chief executive to the head of the department, to enhance the institution's image by creating a positive institutional culture that engages employees to inspire confidence. It thus becomes a collective responsibility of the leadership of the public universities and all the categories of employees in the public universities in Ghana to work towards sustaining their core mandate.

2.3 INSTITUTIONAL CULTURE

Culture is key to the understanding of institutions. Bergquist and Pawlak (2008) believe the connections and disconnections with culture must be discussed for an institution to appreciate, grow, correct and change the dynamics within an institution. Understanding culture can contribute to the learning of the faculty, administrators, students and other stakeholders. Applying institutional culture can increase the efficiency of employees in the achievement of work results. A strong culture is critical to the performance and sustainable development of a HEI, which can be done by establishing and strengthening employees' shared values and behavioural practices (Kezar & Eckel, 2002). Institutions need to visit or re-visit their current culture, thereby emphasising the main concerns and differences to be able to adjust the institutional values, standards and ethics supported by prerequisite actions and processes (Ali & Musah, 2012).

Employees come to the workplace with different beliefs, values, attitudes and behaviours; it is therefore argued that institutions have to synchronise these traits and form a unique institutional culture for the successful operation of the institution. In other words, many employees have many different work cultures - so having a single unique

institutional culture will mediate any conflict arising between the employee's work culture and the institution's envisioned work culture. Thus, for higher institutions, a clear understanding of the institutional culture is needed by employees to respond effectively to the varying demands of vested stakeholders (Saad & Abbas, 2018). Institutional culture thereby binds employees' engagement with a common purpose and presents channels for achieving such institutional goals.

2.3.1 Evolution and History of Institutional Culture

After World War II, anthropologists regarded culture as an effective instrument. Culture was used to describe and explain non-western small societies, drawing on the beliefs and value systems, norms and behaviours, customs and rituals, habits, dress and language. From the 1950s, culture became a subject of study, eventually evolving into a school of thought in the 1970s and 80s. Generally, understanding culture is crucial for employees, the institution and stakeholders. There are numerous definitions of the term 'culture'. The first scholar who offered an anthropological and sociological interpretation of culture as a concept was Edward Taylor (1871). Accordingly, he described culture as beliefs, customs, laws, morals, habits, art, knowledge and potentials acquired in the society, as a 'complex whole'.

Culture was defined by Kuh and Whitt (1988) as common norms, values, beliefs and practices as well as assumptions that direct a group of people's behaviour. They expanded the definition to indicate that an institutional culture affects how faculty interact with students, how work is conceptualised and organised and the decision-making process. Accordingly, culture reflects the assumptions and identity of members of an institution, what is well known, how to perform tasks and the standards that guide performance for effective professional relationships. Tierney (1988) reflected that the culture of an institution aids in setting standards and directs understanding at maintaining the standard and reducing adversarial relationships. Culture includes the institution's vision, values and belief system, norms, symbols, language and assumptions, which forms the framework for accepting and valuing events and activities (Needle, 2004). Desson and Clouthier (2010) believe that culture shapes

what the institution thinks is proper and such repeated behaviour or habits inform the core of culture. A sound understanding of culture encourages a groundbreaking atmosphere at the workplace and enables the institution to impact its community positively; thus, culture is an important concept that can be developed in a cooperative organisation or a HEI (Gwaltney, 2013).

Culture is vital within higher education institutions because it fosters a sense of identity, promotes commitment to the team or the institution other than self, augments the stability of the institution and guides behaviour (Kuh & Whitt, 1988, p. 26). These features shape the institutional culture. In addition, experience in the institution shapes perceptions and attitudes (Hoffman, 2006). Culture can thus be defined as “a process and a product” (Kuh & Whitt, 1988, p.6). The process is reflected in the ongoing shaping done by the stakeholders to develop the culture within an institution; the product is the results such as the four features mentioned above and how the institution interacts with the community (Kuh & Whitt, 1988). Culture is transferred from one generation to another through learned behaviour (Goodenough, 1956). “Central to most definitions of culture is that it is learned. Given this, population changes arise from the communication of novel forms of thinking and acting” (Hruschka & Hadley, 2008, p.948). Effective communication of the novel forms of thinking and acting is key to the continuance of culture. With the changes in higher education institutions, current literature provides mostly generalised strategies for what is effective: providing rewards, creating opportunities for professional development, collaborative processes, effective communication or strong leadership.

This research addresses institutional culture comprehensively. *What, then, is institutional culture?*

Over the recent decades, researchers such as Simone (2009) have put forward that much is heard of popular culture but less often of institutional culture. Simone (2009) considers that institutional culture is limited to universities, states or legislature offices, hospitals or medical practice groups. However, less awareness has been raised of the importance of institutional culture in institutions of higher learning, even though it exists

in all types of academic institutions as well as in the community in which the institution is located (Lee, 2004).

2.3.2 Definition of Institutional Culture

Over the years, institutional culture has been defined as an institution's nature (Gayle et al., 2003). It is further argued that culture represents the appropriate behaviour that bonds and motivates individuals within universities while governing how institutions process information and shape their internal relations and values. Simone (2009) describes an institution's culture as shared values, ideals and models that diffuse through its members' everyday lives, perpetuated by institutional indoctrination, actions and leadership.

Bingham and Nix (2010) define institutional culture as the policies, customs, beliefs and traditions that have an impact on careers and lives of faculty, administration and students. Understanding culture leads to an appreciation of the types of institution, how it is influenced and how it influences. Institutional culture is essential, and the leaders of institutions are expected to modify the culture to advance success (Lee, 2004), which will, in turn, engage the workforce at the workplace. Huczynski and Buchanan (2010) consider institutional culture as a consistent arrangement of beliefs, customs, values, strategies and conventions that the institution employees pass on. Liao and Chuang (2007) add that institutional culture can be described as a framework that defines the values, the behaviour of employees and the specific intentions of an institution which may be seen as regulating a specific personality of the institution. It is also believed that institutional culture transmits the silent guidelines and unwritten rules of an institution which strengthen the social system of that institution (Cameron et al., 2006). An attractive and organised institutional culture enhances employees' commitment towards their career (Naderi Anari, 2012). Other experts explain institutional culture as a social understanding held by the institution's members, which reflects the rules and norms that form the basis of the behaviours and attitudes of the members in an institution (Colquitt et al., 2014).

McShane and Von Glinow (2015) affirm that it is a collection of beliefs, assumptions and values in an institution, whereas, Robbins and Judge (2019) define institutional culture as a value system by which its members live firmly, distinguishing one institution from another. Thus, this study makes a case that institutional culture brings out the values, beliefs and norms of behaviour that are understood, accepted and shared by members of the institution, which is specific and unique to an institution.

In summary, this study defines institutional culture as the shared assumptions, beliefs and practices on which an institution is founded, which shape members' behaviour and distinguishes members of the institution from others. Institutional culture reflects the institution's mission and the forms of communication and management that lead the institution towards its goals and achievements. This study asserts that a dynamic institutional culture aimed at improving performance and productivity in the workplace is essential for achieving success within HEIs.

2.3.3 The Implication of Institutional Cultures for Universities

Higher education institutions are indistinguishable from business and corporate organisations in several ways. There are processes, structures and goals that guide their operations. As in the case of business organisations, institutions of higher education are affected by both internal and external factors. Some external factors are listed as demographic, economic and political conditions (Tierney, 1988). Examples of the factors that emanate within are founded on the institution's history and derived from the institutional strategies, values, processes and policies. It further covers parameters of communication of a unique language, stories, decisions, norms, actions, attitudes and institutional ideologies, which are both instrumental and symbolic (Tierney, 1988). In simple terms, the study argues that the culture of a HEI is reflected in what is done, how it is done and who is involved in doing it. Mohd et al. (2018) conclude that a strong institutional culture is shaped through effective communication and an enabling environment for innovation across various types of institutions, including higher education institutions.

Universities are, however, distinct from other organisations that may have a quantified goal to accomplish and evaluate their progress against predetermined goals. Every university has a peculiar culture. The differences in universities emanate from the various leadership styles, which produce widely divergent results and identities due to the critical role culture plays in these institutions. Culture is also reflected in the logo, colours, mission, history of the university, its architecture and symbols, its graduates and the community. Universities have both institutional cultures, with their goals, values and traditions emanating from the institution's history. Cultures are also shared between faculties, teaching and non-teaching senior members, senior staff and junior staff. Universities are governed by the university council, university management, faculty boards, faculty members and administrative managers (Min, 2017, pp. 27-32). Students at large also share in the culture of the university. The internal culture of the university serves as a vehicle in which university employees and students, alumni and parents and other stakeholders build various relationships with the institution (Vasyakin et al., 2016, p. 2).

However, universities are enormous and have diversified external stakeholders with varying economic, political or social interests in the universities (such as the government ministries and non-governmental organisations) or internal stakeholders) such as the faculty, administrators and students). For instance, the modern environments within which universities operate are complex, rapidly changing and demanding, which widens the scope of the area of shared beliefs and values of the institution (Serdenciuc, 2015, p. 5). Studying the cultural characteristics of a university provides the institution with direction for the development of strategy and decision-making by the university's stakeholders. Insufficient state funding, autonomy, diversity, e-learning and equipment costs are some challenges universities in Ghana face, which demands the development of new missions, goals and methods of achieving the core purpose of HEIs, comprised by teaching and learning, research and community service development.

These challenges pose a threat to the smooth running of the universities. Tierney (2008) further adds that administrators need to understand culture's critical role in

implementing decisions because culture may sometimes promote or impede change. He suggests that administrators need to have an 'intuitive grasp' of the culture of their institution and as such, an appreciation of the institutional culture is essential for the daily management of universities. University employees generally take part in the evolution of culture in universities and cannot be left out of this study because they are essential to forming policies, rules and regulations. Institutions must create a positive institutional culture to increase work engagement while employees contribute positively towards achieving institutional goals.

The preceding discussion implies that a strong institutional culture is essential for the operation of a university as the existence of culture reflects the association that exists among the employees of the university and can pay dividends when it comes to forming relationships and managing the administrative and academic units, students and the external community.

Understanding a university requires understanding the significance of employees' actions in the historical, political and socio-economic contexts because a university is a complex social educational institution. A university's institutional culture is unique, since educational units are self-made, autopoietic systems founded on knowledge and learning concepts, where educational units set the foundation for the internal relationships between management, employees and students. Universities are based within communities, where relationships are fostered between the institution and the external environment, such as the alumni, prospective students and their parents. Different faculty academic units are aimed to work in collaborative partnerships and even compete with other similar sister institutions. Such complex and diverse relationships make studying the university's institutional culture necessary.

The importance of applying institutional culture to universities is derived from the same difficulties associated with managing businesses and companies. Universities are also faced with reduced government funding, competitive challenges, changes in the responsibility of the state and stakeholders, an increase in the use of technology, claims for autonomy, accountability and more devolved academic management.

These raise challenges concerning communication, adaptation, effectiveness, coordination and evaluation (Dill & Sporn, 1995). As universities are rapidly changing in response to a continuous revision of economic, communal and governmental policies and technological changes, they are compelled to modify their mode of operation to adapt to these changes. With these continuous variations at both international and global stages, universities advance modifications, including the formation of common markets, students' mobility and employees' services and products to mitigate the effects of the new challenges (Beytekin et al., 2010, p. 2). Initial early research has revealed that universities are institutions influenced by social interaction and therefore map out unique cultures (Becher, 1981; Clark, 1983) and even when there are similarities between universities, employees still experience their institution as unique.

The importance of institutional culture in universities cannot be overemphasised. Tierney (1988) indicated that a study of the dynamics of the culture and systems of an educational institution helps understand and lessen unfavourable collaboration. Establishing a unique institutional culture is vital to the daily operation of universities therefore by understanding and analysing institutional culture as a concept helps to develop the university's structure, thereby increasing performance (Lacatus, 2013). Universities may vary in location, size and mission, each of which can impact the institution's internal dynamics. Where there is the existence of subcultures within the university, the relationship between administrators and faculty, the work schedule to be completed during office hours, the procedures for the grading of students and plagiarism may be different, if not alienating.

Considering this, institutions strive to manage, adapt and survive. Hence attention is being given to understanding institutional culture and attempts being made at integrating sustainability within institutions. This has led to the development of management strategies geared at success in market positioning (Altbach et al., 2011) where institutional culture is acknowledged during crisis management (Tierney, 1988). Many universities now acknowledge the necessity to address the challenges with growth and regulatory requirements and an understanding of the institutional culture

is crucial in tackling challenges faced by the university and elevating it to a point where it can effectively serve the community and attain its goals. Nonetheless, this study aimed to address the gap as no research has been conducted to date on distinct institutional culture and its correlation with work engagement in academic institutions.

To transform a university's operation and direction, it is vital to understand the history of its culture. Several years of practice in the university, backed by the beliefs, assumptions and values of all stakeholders in the institution, must be considered. Studies have revealed that institutional culture influences change in any direction (Wilms, 1996; Zell, 1997, Kezar & Eckel, 2002) and Schein (1999b, p. 3) articulates that "culture is essential because when decisions are made without recourse to the operative culture of the university, unanticipated and undesirable consequences cannot be mitigated". According to Geertz (1983), culture is a 'web' hinged on the assumption that the sections of the university are interrelated and cannot be understood by looking at just the natural laws of the web or the structure of the university. Institutional culture thus entails an analysis of specific webs of significance within the institution's settings.

2.3.4 Positive Perspectives and Drawbacks of Institutional Culture

The perspectives of institutional culture come with several advantages. This is because the dynamics of an institutional culture recognise that complex decisions necessitate the consultation of numerous stakeholders. An in-depth knowledge of the institution's culture serves as a potential lead to managers mitigating anticipated problems and minimising possible conflict. Kezar and Eckel (2002) emphasise that institutional culture must also be considered during decision-making on change strategies by institutional leaders because without an in-depth appreciation of the history of an institution's culture, stakeholders and other change agents may repeat failed approaches. Institutional culture perspectives cannot assume that the processes successfully rolled out in one institution can be replicated in another without modifying it. 'One does not fit all', and this is because the elements of one society cannot be planted in another with the expectation of it flourishing without any modifications.

Researchers have used an institutional culture framework to explain why what is effective for one university may not apply to another, even though both institutions have many similarities. Thus, culture may differ from one institution to another and be unique to a specific institution.

However, a primary drawback of a framework of institutional culture is its complex nature. Therefore, to overcome the challenges linked with the complex nature of universities, it is advised that specific and tested methods that have previously produced desired results are replicated. Moreover, one other negative effect of institutional culture is its resource-intensive nature. This is because rigorous processes of consensus building within the several faculties, disciplines and departments may hinder the execution of administrative functions. In view of this, some practitioners developing an interest in the mutually beneficial, may find the shared governance model too slow because a platform will need to be created for disenfranchised sub-teams within the institution to be heard by an outside audience.

2.3.5 Measurement of Institutional Culture

The measurement of the culture of an institution is essential to both researchers and stakeholders due to the demands and difficulties confronting higher education institutions lately. It is, therefore, critical for managers and other stakeholders of higher education institutions to know “how to evaluate the unique cultures of their institutions and whether it fits the competitive situation” (Goffee et al., 1999, p. 134). Defining and measuring institutional culture is essential to institutions of higher education as a positive culture could increase the quality of education and produce a continuous competitive advantage. However, due to limited research on this concept and the presence of multiple definitions across different disciplines, this process can be challenging. To overcome this challenge, the study utilised various models, such as Jung's (1923) model of psychological archetypes, the competing values framework developed by Quinn and Rohrbaugh (1981), and an ideology questionnaire created by Harrison (1972, 1975), to analyse individual beliefs about preferred organisational performance and measure an organisation's culture.

The assumptions of this framework are in contrast to the fundamentals of the competing values framework, as it seems to have emanated from an inspiration. However, these two instruments are influential and have been applied in many settings and other researchers have added other features to it. The organisational culture inventory (OCI) is a principal instrument for measuring culture as it is the most researched and thoroughly assessed instrument. The OCI is extensively used to measure company culture, corporate culture and workplace culture, whether for-profit or not-for-profit, work or non-work or public or private sector and is used in the measurement of varied cultural dimensions where its measures apply to all types of organisations.

Items on the hospital culture questionnaire (Sieveking et al., 1993) and the organisational culture inventory (Cooke & Lafferty, 1987) were designed based on the practice culture questionnaire (Stephenson, 2000) and factor analysis empirical viewpoint. However, Mackenzie's culture questionnaire (MacKenzie, 1995) does not appear to have a clear origin. It is important to mention that researchers designed instruments for the measurement of organisational culture in conformity with grounded tools suitable to the background of the research; for example, the Quality Improvement Implementation Survey emanated from the Competing Values Framework and the corporate culture questionnaire originated from assessing previous instruments.

Institutional culture remains a reasonably new concept, a force operating in most institutions and is a "vehicle for implementing organisational and institutional change" (Tierney, 2008, p.3). As in other studies, the scales of institutional culture for the measurement of this concept are centred on organisational culture. I have observed that previously developed instruments for measuring organisational culture were not fully applicable to higher education institutions. Bavik and Duncan (2014) express that institutions have no ideal instrument for measuring culture and the level at which any measure is deemed 'fit for purpose' depends on the grounds on and the context in which it is to be used. In addition, Scott et al. (2003) asserts that there are varied scopes of instruments with differing characteristics and scientific properties for measuring the culture of an organisation or an institution and they advise that the selection of an

instrument should be based on how culture is actualised, the purpose of the research, the envisaged outcome and the availability of resources.

Following this advice, critical parameters with unique characteristics were identified and highlighted in alignment with the expectations of this research. They form the basis for developing a new scale for measuring institutional culture (Bavik & Duncan, 2014). Subsequently, after a careful review of the literature, I developed a questionnaire that accurately responds to institutional culture at public universities in Ghana.

2.4 WORK ENGAGEMENT

Work engagement defines the level at which employees invest themselves in work-related matters. Work engagement as a concept has been in use, in one form or another, for a considerable duration, for example, as job empowerment (Thomas & Velthouse, 1990) or job involvement (Allport, 1945). However, there has been a dearth of empirical studies on work engagement in the academic literature (Kim et al., 2012). Debates have been recorded on the actual meaning of the term (Macey & Schneider, 2008; Thomas, 2009). Even though the concept is receiving attention, scholarly research has lagged (Thomas, 2006). Work engagement can give a competitive advantage to institutions (Bakker et al., 2008). Employers prioritising building and maintaining an engaged workforce may encounter beneficial outcomes such as a positive corporate image, employee retention and heightened performance and productivity (Durán et al., 2010) and, given these advantages, institutions should implement and promote work engagement as it results in positive outcomes (Halbesleben & Wheeler, 2008; Demerouti & Cropanzano, 2010). This study was designed to delve deeper into the concept of work engagement, the evolution and history of work engagement, the definition of the concept, the implication of work engagement for universities, positive perspectives and drawbacks of work engagement and the measurement of work engagement.

2.4.1 Evolution and History of the Concept of Work Engagement

Employee Engagement has progressively been acknowledged as a construct in the organisational sciences (Sonnentag, 2011) because a helpful association exists between engagement and productivity (Rich et al., 2010). Work and institutional engagement make up employee engagement and is also related to the dedication to an institution (Chalofsky & Krishna, 2009) and institutional citizenship behaviours (Rich, 2006; Moliner et al., 2008). Engagement is cynically linked to burnout and intentions for turnover (Schaufeli et al., 2009). Employee engagement is conceptualised as a complex construct which entails cognitive (traits), mental (behaviour), and psychological (state) components. Employee engagement is thus the degree of loyalty and employee commitment to the institution and its values (Anitha, 2014), which is needed to enhance job performance and productivity. An employee is expected to show evidence of initiative, professionalism and a commitment to work while maintaining high-performance standards (Bulkapuram et al., 2015).

Current levels of engagement are supposed to reflect institutional characteristics as it determines an institution's capacity to withstand strenuous work conditions. Employee engagement is similar to managing an emotional relationship between employees and the institution and is primarily reflected in the identification of the institution's goals. In day-to-day activities, engaged employees tend to be productive and innovative; several studies point to the motivational aspect of engagement to reduce employee turnover as it was found that engaged employees willingly initiate change and enjoy work (Baran & Sypniewska, 2020).

In addition, Hughes and Rog (2008, p. 749) maintain that employee engagement is an *intense psychological attachment that employees have for their job, institution, supervisors, or colleagues*, which influences the level of commitment to work. Accordingly, engagement involves forming a work environment where employees feel associated with and attached to their work. This concept results in resilience, engrossment and substantial involvement in work, fundamental to being an employee and an employer at the workplace in this twenty-first-century.

Work engagement has emerged as an adjunct to employee engagement. Work engagement as a concept has existed for several years with different theories, models and conceptualisations. Job empowerment (Thomas & Velthouse, 1990) or job involvement (Allport, 1945) has delayed the development of the concept (Thomas, 2009). Over the years, there have been conflicting schools of thought about the meaning of work engagement (Macey & Schneider, 2008; Thomas, 2009); thus, there has been difficulty in accurately measuring work engagement. Though the work engagement concept has been under discussion for several years, various approaches have inhibited developing an appropriate measure characterising the image (Thomas, 2009). Findings of some researchers reveal that work engagement can be the direct opposite of burnout (Maslach et al., 1997) or appraised as a complex concept (Schaufeli et al., 2002). It is vital that as the research unfolds, there is a review of the evolution of this concept to illuminate its definition and origin.

It was considered crucial to define the dimension of work engagement on the idea of Kahn (1990) who asserted that the concept is complex. Indeed, Kahn (1990), actualised work engagement as the utilisation of personal resources of employees to complete their work schedules. According to Kahn (1990), when employees are engaged during role performance, they tend to express themselves emotionally, physically and cognitively. Work engagement is defined as the extent to which employees are committed to their work. When employees are engaged, they are mentally, physically and intellectually active and perform well, which helps build positive workplace relationships which impact how employees perceive their jobs and the mental effort required to adapt to changes in their work schedules. Finally, the intellectual part of work engagement describes the diligence with which work roles are carried out (Kahn, 1990, 1992) thus, work engagement is best seen as a concept of motivation portraying the concurrent and complete definition of an employee's physical, mental and psychological energy in a work role (Shuck & Wollard, 2010).

Interestingly, Maslach et al. (1997) perceived work engagement as the 'reverse' of burnout, which is calibrated using the Maslach Burnout Inventory (MBI) (Maslach & Jackson, 1981). They advocated that engaged employees view their work as a

solution to mitigate overt burnout. Schaufeli et al. (2002) perceived that using the burnout inventory to measure the burnout-engagement spectrum is not feasible. Work engagement may be extended to include a positive, work-related state of mind reflected by mental resilience, engrossment and involvement in one's work. Schaufeli (2013) developed a new instrument founded on the evolved definition. Vigour is characterised as high degrees of inputs and mental resilience in carrying out work schedules, the preparedness to commit to one's work, whereas dedication is shown by 'a sense of importance, zeal, motivation challenge and pride'. Schaufeli (2013) describes absorption as being fully committed and deeply engrossed in one's work, whereby time passes quickly, and one has difficulties detaching oneself from work. Scholars have also developed several approaches to distinguish and measure work engagement; for example, Rothbard (2001), inspired by Kahn (1990), described engagement as a two-facet construct that focuses on attention, that is, time spent by employees deliberating on work schedule and absorption - the intense focus on work schedules. Erickson (2005) added that the length of stay is the outcome of their commitment which goes beyond contentment with the employment arrangements or allegiance to the employer. Erickson (2005) asserted that the preparedness to commit oneself and expend voluntarily to support the employer's success, also engages employees at the workplace. Saks (2006) also embraced Kahn's (1990) conceptualisation of work engagement as role-related, as an employee's mental 'presence' in a specific institutional role. Bakker and Leiter (2010) asserted that work engagement should have a clear definition and a way to measure it. Bakker (2011) also recognised that work engagement could help employees to develop a positive mindset and learn about ways to improve their well-being at work, which can improve their overall performance.

2.4.2 Definition of Work Engagement

In the last decade, research has been conducted on work engagement (Burke & Wolpin, 2009). It is a broad concept that includes essential characteristics such as emotional and mental presence at work, high levels of involvement (Sonnentag et al., 2008, p. 259). Work engagement is described as employees' relationship with their

work schedules, whereas employee engagement may involve the linkage with the institution. Consistent with the above, Schaufeli and Bakker (2003) characterised work engagement as cheerful and accomplished work reflected through vigour, dedication and absorption. Vigour suggests an extraordinary degree of vitality and resilience when at work. It is the tendency to put effort and persistence into work schedules despite the challenges encountered. Dedication has presented a sense of meaning, eagerness, stimulus and pleasure. Absorption focuses on work without being wary and reactive to time, hence having difficulty detaching oneself from work. Vigour and dedication are described as the opposite of burnout's exhaustion and cynicism components.

Employees who are engaged at work are active and productive. In addition, employees who exhibit a high degree of energy and engagement, are resilient in completing work schedules, give their best, are persistent with their careers and invest effort in achieving work goals. Such employees exhibit strong involvement in work and express enthusiasm, excitement, passion, inspiration and pride when carrying out work schedules. Engaged employees fully concentrate and occupy themselves with their work beyond official work hours (Schaufeli & Bakker, 2004; Bakker & Demerouti, 2008). Work engagement refers to an employee's passion and commitment to achieving their organisation's goals (Bakker & Demerouti, 2008). This involves being fully absorbed, enthusiastic and enjoying one's work, which often includes being loyal to the organisation's leadership (Suong et al., 2019) and having a proactive attitude (Lee & Jeong, 2019).

Personal resources refer to an employee's capability to cope with work demands and maintain a positive outlook. This includes resilience, self-esteem, energy and confidence, which enable employees to effectively carry out their duties. When employees have high personal resources, they can confidently assess their abilities to complete tasks and trust in positive outcomes. This can be achieved by fully engaging in their work and performing their work responsibilities efficiently and on time. For this research, work engagement is defined as total investment in one's work with mental resilience, strong involvement and total engrossment in the job

2.4.3 Implication of Work Engagement for Universities

Compared to traditional employee involvement approaches such as job satisfaction and job involvement, work engagement is a more effective process (Eldor & Vigoda-Gadot, 2016). Work engagement involves reevaluating the relationship between employees and employers by considering multiple dimensions that positively impact performance (Swanson & Holton, 2009; Sambrook, 2012). It has been found that work engagement leads to better outcomes in the workplace than other conventional approaches.

Work engagement in universities has proven that employees in higher education institutions typically experience increased levels of dedication and satisfaction on the job (Harman, 2003) driven by inherent factors, flexibility on the job and a sense of ownership (Bellamy et al., 2003). The rise in the intake of students in government-owned universities in Ghana and the government's moratorium on new employment posts is overstressing employees who work extra hours to satisfy the demands of their work (Houston et al., 2006), resulting in high levels of stress (Bell et al., 2012).

Literature has indicated that public universities should focus on motivation to ensure employees' perseverance and commitment to attending to work schedules (Rich et al., 2010). University measures to engage employees at the workplace should not leave them overwhelmed (Rothbard & Patil, 2011). Albrecht (2010) attests that engaged employees have suitable mental resilience, and are intensely involved in achieving institutional goals. In addition, such employees have values that complement the institutions and are intrinsically driven, and work is a pleasure for them (Schaufeli & Bakker, 2004).

Work engagement in Ghanaian universities

Work engagement is crucial to every public university in Ghana and of importance to employees as well (Osborne & Hammoud, 2017). Work engagement is the determinant of employee well-being at the workplace. It is indicated by increased levels of vitality and mental resilience amid challenges, eagerness and creativity

(dedication) and an enthusiastic involvement in one's work (absorption). Work engagement in Ghanaian public universities is associated with work performance, which influences job resources. Job resources include the physical, mental, social or organisational resources available to employees to help them balance the demands of their job schedule. In spite of the importance of job resources, some challenges can impact work engagement and performance.

Institutions worldwide collate statistics on work engagement as a critical determinant of employee health, well-being and productivity (Munir et al., 2012). There are signs that the degree of work engagement is emphatically related to performance in public universities (Tomic & Tomic, 2010). It is further asserted that high performance leads to excellent health and increased employability of employees (Demerouti et al., 2001).

Work engagement enables employees to gain the required knowledge and skills that can benefit both their personal and professional lives. Work engagement also enhances employees' lives in public universities linked to a realisation of career paths, mental well-being and high satisfaction levels. Work engagement can benefit both organisations and their employees, leading to a successful shared experience (Albrecht, 2010; Bakker et al., 2011). According to George (1989), universities can help to encourage work engagement, which can positively impact employees' lives both in and outside the workplace.

2.4.4 Positive Perspectives and Drawbacks of Work Engagement

Prior literature shows that work engagement has many positive consequences. Research reveals that extremely experienced employees look for challenging jobs, and seek a clear career growth opportunity and conducive conditions for work engagement. Considering this, fostering work engagement at the individual and institutional levels is vital to development. The process of employee selection and recruitment must be strategised because intrinsic qualities such as honesty, initiative, innovative behaviour and boldness that positively impact the level of engagement of employees are likely to emerge during interviews (Guest, 2014). It is important to bear

in mind that in the process of attracting engaged employees, its importance may be overlooked if the institution has no structures to sustain it. Engaged employees integrate themselves in the social system and maintain institutional socialisation.

Another significant benefit of work engagement to the institution is the retention of employees. This can be accomplished by motivating employees by using both material and non-material strategies, focusing on fair rewards that promote teamwork (Rubel et al., 2018). Budriene and Diskiene (2020) suggest that transforming personal engagement into whole-team engagement can provide a competitive advantage. Improving teamwork makes it possible for highly engaged employees to share their knowledge and skills with less engaged employees, resulting in increased institutional productivity and performance.

2.4.5 Measurement of Work Engagement

There has been some investigation on how work engagement differs from related concepts. Kahn (1990) stated that work engagement is a unique construct with varying stages. The common instrument for measuring work engagement is the Utrecht work engagement scale, a self-report tool validated worldwide. Kahn (1990) noted that a single parameter along one trajectory could be graded from very low to very high on the instrument because work engagement is a unipolar approach with employees displaying three different ways of expression, that is, emotional, mental and cognitive to various levels while performing their roles.

Given this, employees' engagement could then range from disengaged (low level) to fully engaged (high level). The strategy by Schaufeli et al. (2002) was to develop an alternative measurement for work engagement, that is, the Utrecht work engagement scale (UWES). However, the conceptualisation of work engagement and burnout as antithetical was discussed, that is, as stated, "we admit the work engagement has conceptualised as the opposite of burnout" (Schaufeli et al., 2002, p.75). Schaufeli and Bakker (2004) showed that the burnout-engagement continuum has two dimensions which range from exhaustion to vigour, with a second dimension identified to range

from depersonalisation to dedication. The research recommends a mode of insignificant stimulus as indicating burnout, while a state of the high stimulus was shown as work engagement. Because each facet identified was not solely drawn from a reverse of the three dimensions of burnout, the measure was assumed to be contrived. In addition, the assumption was based on Maslach Burnout Inventory (MBI) - exhaustion, cynicism and lack of professional efficacy, instead of the Maslach Burnout Inventory's (MBI) three official dimensions, emotional exhaustion, depersonalisation, and decreased personal accomplishment. The antithesis of the MBI emotional exhaustion dimension is vigour, while the opposite of the MBI depersonalisation dimension is devotion, according to Schaufeli et al. (2002).

Schaufeli et al. (2002) created an additional dimension; that is, reduced efficacy, making it three in all. However, the third dimension was incompatible with their framework, leaving only two constituents of burnout: "exhaustion and cynicism" (Schaufeli et al., 2002, p.87). There were also some constraints proposed in their research. It came to light that there was a need to revise burnout and the measures of engagement and load efficacy according to the right dimension, as efficacy was loaded on the wrong dimension.

The Utrecht Work Engagement Scale (UWES) has related obstacles as in the Maslach Burnout Inventory (MBI): that is, employees are not allowed to experience burnout and work engagement simultaneously. There is also a crucial constraining factor of the UWES: the formation of the former as an opposite dimension to a current burnout measure. In this way, the UWES scales offered an innate negative manner in correlation to three burnout dimensions. This makes the UWES scales dependent measures.

2.5 EMPIRICAL REVIEW OF THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN INSTITUTIONAL CULTURE AND WORK ENGAGEMENT

Some researchers have determined a correlation between institutional culture and work engagement. For example, May et al. (2004) recognised that institutional culture

affects the three emotional states: mental, cognitive and physical engagement. Therefore, employees' mental, cognitive and physical engagement reflect an institution's values, beliefs and norms. This observation underscores the impact of institutional culture on work engagement. Invariably, the study highlights the interconnectedness between the two concepts and places emphasis on the pervasive nature of culture in guiding not only the cognitive aspects of engagement but also the physical state. When institutional culture mechanisms are greatly encouraged, there is a corresponding rise in the number of engaged employees, culminating in the willingness to invest inherent energies into their emotions with the intention of fulfilling work schedules (Thomas, 2012). Ramlall (2008) clarified that institutional culture could bring about work engagement since an institution's culture strongly induces employee conduct. Research by Crawford et al. (2010) revealed that the employees' understanding of the existing culture in an institution is key to job engagement. The Person-Environment (P-E) Fit Model, developed by Allen (2010), shows that institutions that create cultures that match employees' beliefs could retain and engage critical employees.

In Alarcon's (2010) view, there is an association between numerous constructs and work engagement and it is reinforced that institutions should promote a positive culture that emphasises the continued engagement of employees at the workplace. Evidence of studies (Alarcon 2010; Greenidge, 2010; Shuck et al., 2011) reveals that institutional culture is critical to understanding work engagement. Besides establishing a link between institutional culture and employee engagement, research carried out by Hartnell et al. (2011) revealed that the growth of tribalism and religion in the workplace can negatively impact the working environment and disengage people. This indicates that tribalism or religious dynamics at the workplace creates a less favourable atmosphere which may hinder cohesion among employees. The study, thus argues that the understanding and management of such establishes a positive and engaged workforce environment.

Decades of research by CultureIQ (2020) affirm that developing an organisation's overall culture improves organisational outcomes. However, numerous leaders

believe that using employee engagement surveys alone will develop their institutions. They revealed that strong company culture usually results from enhanced employee involvement in institutions and organisations. Jiony et al. (2015) posit that culture is key in determining employees' dedication towards the institution and decision-making on retention. The findings above confirm that further research is needed to establish a positive correlation between institutional culture and work engagement. According to Hobfoll (2011), the dominant culture of an institution influences the level of engagement in work by employees for the institution's survival. They opined that a positive mindset about the institution's culture reflects in the amount of dedication of time, vigour and capabilities that is invested by employees at the workplace (Bakker et al., 2011). Furthermore, Tims et al. (2011) revealed that the institution's culture embraces the feeling of engagement, integration, commitment and yield from employees. A study carried out in Ghana by Naidoo (2014), discovered a positive connection between the factors of institutional culture and the elements of work engagement. Naidoo and Martin (2014) state that as work engagement relates to numerous positive work results, it is essential for institutions to boost the level of engagement of employees by developing institutional culture. Other studies carried out in Ghana by Brenyah and Obuobisa-Darko (2017) and Pepra-Mensah and Addai (2018), using the same variables, established a strong correlation between the two concepts.

In a related study, Parent and Lovelace (2018) revealed that an established institutional culture hastens the process of work engagement because a positive work environment supports employee engagement. They added that several parameters of a positive institutional culture drive work engagement. Sirisetti (2012) points to employees' engagement when working relationships are good and notes that employees are involved in decision-making and are granted the prospects for training and growth, amongst others. It has been observed that a strong institutional culture helps to build employees' dedication to the institution's philosophy and standards set (Ehtesham & Shakil, 2011). The type of culture created further determines the behaviour of employees for the performance standards by serving as an instrument

for controlling institutional beliefs and goals, objectives and the potential of employees. An appraisal of the literature revealed that university culture is equally vital in harnessing the attitude of employees as this serves as a guiding principle in accomplishing the university's mission (Mohamed & Abukar, 2013). The culture of the institution activates the inherent attitude of the employee to focus on the mission and be able to distinguish the actions to be carried out at the workplace (Thuku et al., 2016). The lack of values, core ethics, standards and a breach of the written and unwritten code of conduct in the institution reflects a weak university culture. In this regard, a strong culture should be built on standards for behaviour and readiness to carry out work schedules and shared values by employees in meeting institutional goals (Saad & Abbas, 2018).

In another study conducted by Baran and Sypniewska (2020), it was revealed that there is still anxiety about how management can stimulate employee efficacy and engagement. They believe acknowledging an employee's individuality is meaningful for developing institutional culture. This further instils transparency and collaboration, reflected as commitment, and it promotes work engagement. The management's position on work engagement is sometimes manifested in the extent to which employees are involved in decision-making in the institution. This, however, goes beyond passively waiting for employees to take the initiative. The study suggests that there is a causal association between management decisions and employee engagement. Although management practices can affect employee engagement, yet it is essential to take into account that employee engagement can also impact management practices. Thus, the correlation between management and employee engagement is often complex and reciprocal. The study additionally concentrates on how management may increase employee effectiveness and engagement, particularly by valuing individuality and including employees in decision-making. Despite the significance of these variables, it is crucial to understand that employee engagement is a complex construct influenced by a variety of organisational and individual factors beyond management practices alone.

The literature reveals that handling employees as allies and embracing an employee-centred method does not address their desire for esteem but nurtures a sense of purpose of actions and identification with the institution. In Malaysia, an investigation was conducted by Jiony et al. (2015) on the association between organisational culture and employee engagement and the drivers of employee engagement. The participants for the research were full-time executive-level employees chosen from 5-star hotels cited at Sabah in Malaysia. Qualitative and quantitative methods and designs and a Likert scale questionnaire were employed to analyse the parameters of all concepts and the extent of engagement of employees. The study revealed that the drivers for workforce effectiveness, employee engagement, culture and communication had gained considerable attention from employers (Jiony et al., 2015); hence, it is of interest to this research. A conceptual framework to appreciate the outcome of institutional culture on employee engagement and institutional performance was proposed to fill in the gap. Their study further suggested the acceptance of communication as a predictor, as communication was classified as an essential vehicle for creating an ideal environment for nurturing committed employees in an institution. They were, however, of the view that there has not been any agreement as yet regarding results. Thus, it was suggested that comprehensive research into employee engagement, institutional culture and communication should be conducted.

Scholars have also explored the nexus between employees' values and their work culture. For instance, Barbars (2015) investigated the interface between dominant organisational culture values and the level of employee engagement at work, using two teams of an Information Technology (IT) department within one financial institution in Hungary. A monographic method, quantitative method and correlation analysis was employed for the research. The study's findings revealed that the values of institutional culture correlate positively with the dimensions of work engagement. Barbars (2015) opines that the research findings will enable managers to understand how different institutional cultures are related to work engagement. In addition, it is asserted that managers can enhance their abilities to make well-informed decisions on the parameters of cultures and work engagement that must be encouraged in the work

environment. It is further indicated that it will help managers reduce the use of other parameters to improve the institution's culture and the degree of engagement at work. Barbars (2015) revealed that although institutional culture and work engagement are concepts that have been widely studied in management science, there are currently very few studies on the impact and association between institutional culture and work engagement.

A more recent study of a South African Information, Communications and Technology (ITC) Company conducted by Naidoo and Hoque (2017) to examine the association between institutional culture and work engagement, revealed a strong positive correlation. A quantitative research design was undertaken with 455 employees, using the Utrecht Work Engagement Scale and the South African culture instrument. A correlation analysis from the research results revealed that all the factors of institutional culture positively correlate with the factors of work engagement. A regression analysis showed that managerial and leadership processes and mission are statistically the strongest predictors of work engagement. Naidoo and Hoque (2017) asserted that because of the correlation between work engagement and other positive results, institutions must increase the level of employee engagement by addressing and improving the institution's culture. While this study conducted with a South African ITC company offers an understanding of the particular scenario, it restricts the applicability of the findings to other fields and cultural contexts. To evaluate the reliability of the findings, it would be beneficial to carry out similar studies across different contexts. Janetius (2016) found that approximately 78.0% of respondents claimed to be engaged, while only 8.0% reported a low level of engagement in their educational institutions. How then can the high levels of engagement be translated at the workplace? It should be emphasised that the scientific understanding of the association between these concepts analytically expands the literature on institutional culture and work engagement.

Kalia and Velma (2017) analysed institutional culture, assuming that it influences employee engagement in the hospitality industry in India. Data were gathered using the multistage sampling technique. Further analysis was carried out and the results

were interpreted using simple percentages, Pearson's correlation and multiple regression. The outcome showed that diverse organisational culture and self-governance parameters significantly correlate with all the parameters of employee engagement. Additionally, whereas collaboration simply had an impact on absorption, trust predicted commitment and absorption. The research also revealed that autonomy and experimentation drive all three parameters of employee engagement: vigour, dedication and absorption. The results of the research showed that the achievements of the hospitality industry lie in its employed workforce because employees are the fundamental pillars of these institutions. It was, thus, advised that the hospitality industry stakeholders work towards employee engagement to improve the industry's organisational culture.

Afroze et al. (2018) observed that employee engagement and organisational culture indirectly or directly reflect an institution's performance level. It was opined that culture forms the basic block of any institution because it impacts the effectiveness of the employees and the general performance of the institution. Their research aimed at an examination of the level of engagement of the faculty and the perceptions of the prevailing institutional culture. For this purpose, 221 faculty members who had worked at the University of Saudi Arabia for at least two years, were sampled for the research, using the survey and the purposive random sampling method. The research findings recorded high levels of employee engagement and a moderate institutional culture by the faculty, which is believed to have led to a world-class National Commission for Academic Accreditation and Assessment (NCAAA) accreditation. More recent research by Siddique (2019) on the impact of culture on work engagement indicates that institutions are taking a more formal approach to strategic management with the integration of such processes of managing human capital in recent times. To achieve competitive advantages, there is a growing movement towards developing and establishing a positive organisational culture and inculcating employee involvement.

Furthermore, Soni (2019) maintains that employees' level of engagement at the workplace is considered a strong indicator of outcomes that is of value to any institution. It is also apparent that employee engagement could prove to be an

excellent dimension to evaluate the health of the institutions in terms of commitment, innovation, retention and productivity. Hence, institutions with a positive culture tend to reward employees' growth. A secondary research methodology where the data for the research was collected through secondary sources obtained from research carried out by researchers in the past and available from scholarly sites, was adopted to gather data for this research. The research outlines four parameters of organisational culture, namely power culture, achievement culture, role culture and support culture. It was revealed from the analysis that each culture had a varying impact on the engagement of employees at the workplace. The outcome of this study also showed that engagement among employees was significantly and largely influenced at the workplace. It was also observed that employees who were empowered to utilise their discretion at the workplace, tended to project higher levels of enthusiasm. This is a trait of an employee who is thoroughly engaged.

Further to the studies described above, a study aimed at examining how institutional culture and perceived organisational support affect employee engagement was conducted using the incidental sampling method to choose 131 employees from PT Terminal Petikemans Surabaya. A survey and a quantitative method were employed. Multiple linear regression was utilised to analyse the data. It can be inferred from the results that institutional culture could increase employee engagement. Accordingly, highly engaged employees exhibited a commitment to work (vigour) and high dedication (dedication) at the workplace and were able to exert their concentration to stay focused in the completion of tasks (absorption). The study results also showed that the role of institutional culture in improving employee engagement was quite significant. The researchers thus recommended evaluating the effectiveness of an institution's culture to improve employee engagement.

According to Pandaya (2021), the employees of an institution are the workforce and the foundation pillars to the institution's success. Institutional culture and work engagement are now of keen interest to institutions because they have emerged as top issues in India in the face of greater workforce mobility and severe skills shortages. This has made it an arduous task for HR practitioners to effectively manage and

engage employees, create a sense of belongingness to enable them to wholeheartedly assist in the accomplishment of organisational goals and reduce employee attrition. An enhanced understanding of the factors that impact employee engagement may be required. However, the prediction of the extent of engagement of employees when considering organisational culture is minimal.

Pandaya (2021) examined the impact of the factors of institutional culture on employee engagement in the recruitment industry. The convenience and snowball sampling methods were utilised to select a sample of 364 employees across Gujarat's major recruitment consultancies. Descriptive and inferential statistical tools were employed for the analysis of the data. In this research, the tenets of institutional culture were made up of external orientation, team orientation and human resource orientation, values and goal clarity, autonomy, customer focus and results. In addition, employee engagement was measured on vigour, dedication and absorption parameters. The research findings revealed that human resource orientation and values goal clarity were significantly related to employee engagement. Dedication and vigour showed significant correlation with institutional culture. The major contribution of this research is an understanding of institutional culture and its impact on employee engagement among recruitment professionals.

Theoretically, this research has corroborated the existing knowledge about institutional culture's effect on employee engagement. A primary model which was developed to determine the association between the two, enriched both the institutional culture and employee engagement constructs within the setting of recruitment industry. The present research can then be extended by exploring more variables in the model. It was further recommended that different research methods, such as focus group interviews and nominal group techniques, be employed to measure and justify the conceptual model. In addition, it is suggested that the study be replicated across different geographical locations and service sectors to establish the interplay of multiple factors and their contribution to employee engagement.

According to a survey conducted by Gallup in Indonesia, 80% of workers are not engaged at the workplace. This is the result of quantitative research conducted with 268 permanent employees of PT. XYZ, an Indonesian startup technology company, sampled using stratified proportional random sampling. The high percentage of disengagement raises concerns about the effect on the culture of the organization, overall wellbeing of employees and productivity. The findings reveal the importance of addressing factors that contribute to disengagement and implement strategies to increase work engagement in Indonesia. The results indicate that institutional culture significantly impacts employee engagement and Organisational Citizenship Behaviour (OCB) partially (Putri, Nimran, Rahardjo, K. & Wilopo, 2021).

In Ghana, institutional culture and work engagement are two concepts that have attracted attention lately. Brenya and Obuobisa-Darko (2017) studied the connection between cooperate culture and employee engagement within the public sector organisations of Ghana. After carefully reviewing relevant literature, it was found that the influence of corporate culture on employee engagement, in a developing country in Africa such as Ghana, has received minimal research efforts. Brenya and Obuobisa-Darko (2017) adopted Handy's cultural framework to investigate its impact on employee engagement. A sample size of 267 employees was randomly selected from public-sector institutions in Ghana. The multiple regression techniques were employed to test the hypothesis in the study. The outcome of the research showed that the support and achievement cultures significantly influence employee engagement in the public sector of Ghana. Though the power culture is significant, the analysis showed a negative link with employee engagement. Furthermore, the research also revealed that there is only a weak connection between role culture and employee engagement. The researchers thus recommended that to engage qualified and skilled employees in the public sector institutions in Ghana, the support and achievement cultures should be nurtured, developed and encouraged in public sector organisations in Ghana. It was observed that Handy's cultural framework was adopted to determine the impact of corporate culture on employee engagement. While employing an established framework might offer a solid foundation, it is crucial to take the context of the study

into account when determining the suitability and applicability of the framework. The study's credibility would be improved by providing further details on the adaption and validation of the framework within the setting of the Ghanaian public sector context. Despite the fact that the sample size was not small (267 employees), it is crucial to evaluate the accuracy of the sample to ensure that it truly reflects the larger population of interest. Additional information on the demographics and sample technique might shed light on how generalisable the results are.

Aphu (2018) parallels the idea on institutional culture and work engagement and conducted further research on the two concepts in Ghana. The research aimed to investigate organisational culture's impact on work engagement. A cross-sectional survey designed purposively for this research was used to select 161 employees from two leading insurance companies in Ghana. An independent *t*-test, in addition to the Pearson product-moment correlation, was employed to test the study's hypotheses. The research revealed a significant positive association between organisational culture and employee work engagement and was the basis for the idea that the creation of a favourable culture breeds and increases work engagement. Hence, the study recommended that public sector organisations maintain and sustain a favourable culture to increase employee work engagement.

Peprah-Mensa and Kyereme (2018) studied the correlation between organisational culture and employee engagement in the public sector in Ghana. They believed that hiring highly committed employees is critical to the growth of an organisation, regarding the fact that institutions in the public sector are mandated to advance the public good. Thus, understanding the benefits of organisational culture, which leads to the engagement of employees, is key to the establishment of a positive employee-employer relationship. Though most research on the public sector of Ghana highlights other parameters of engagement other than cognitive, mental and psychological, the goal of the study was to investigate the impact of culture on the three dimensions (cognitive, psychological and mental) in order to address the issues of low levels of work engagement. The descriptive approach was adopted for the research. Using a questionnaire, data were gathered from 192 respondents using the convenience

sampling method. The data analysis method employed was linear regression. The study's findings showed that organisational culture has a statistically significant positive impact on each of the three engagement factors: cognitive engagement ($r = .489$, F statistic = 59.746, sig. value = .000); psychological engagement ($r = .397$, F statistic = 35.474, sig. value = .000); and mental engagement ($r = .512$, F statistic = 67.418, sig. value = .000). This points to the fact that management must be strategic with the employment process to instil a sense of ownership in the public sector of Ghana. It was further believed that employees share a positive corporate culture by placing emphasis on assumptions and beliefs to improve their associations within the institution's mission, values and goals. The study suggests that hiring highly committed employees is essential for the progress of organisations, particularly in the public sector, where advancing the public good is a mandate. While this assertion is logical, it is vital to consider the complex factors such as job design, leadership and organisational support that contribute to employee commitment.

Addai (2020) employed a descriptive survey to examine corporate culture's impact on teachers' work engagement in sampled senior high schools in the Kumasi Metropolitan of Ghana. Questionnaires were used to elicit information from the 238 teachers sampled using the Yamani formula, a simple random sampling method. The Denison model of organisational culture employed for this study showed the predictors of institutional culture are mission, adaptability, involvement and consistency. This implies that there could be the existence of multiple organisational cultures in an institution. The outcome of the research also revealed that teachers in the Kumasi Metropolis are highly engaged in their profession. The outcome of the study showed that developing the four kinds of Denison organisational culture (mission, adaptability, consistency and involvement) increases the level of work engagement of teachers. According to Addai (2020), the engagement of teachers in work schedules involves the promotion of a favourable culture, hinged on values, assumptions and interactions that could contribute to a unique institution and further demand that a positive institutional culture is built to boost the engagement of teachers with their work schedules. The research finally recommends that the stakeholders in education in

Ghana promote all four types of Denison's corporate culture as these cultures substantially influences the work engagement of teachers.

Pandaya (2021) revealed that there is an assertion by 87% of institutions that culture and engagement are key solutions to workplace challenges. Institutional stakeholders are thus encouraged to invest in the growth of institutional cultures, which will invariably lead to work engagement. Pandaya (2021) made this recommendation based on the viewpoint that the prevailing institutional culture influences the engagement of employees daily. Accordingly, the degree of engagement of employees at the workplace depends on how they feel about the culture of their institution. For instance, in institutions where communication is ineffective, and there is a rigid structure for communication where employees communicate only with their direct managers and no one else, employees eventually lose their commitment and engagement. In addition, literature shows that such institutions usually have a high attrition rate, low productivity and lots of internal wrangling, which results in low work engagement rates. In addition, institutions which maintain a culture that engages employees, creates an atmosphere of happiness and high productivity. Such workplaces have the tendency of retaining employees and increasing productivity and institutional performance. In view of this, it can be inferred that a positive work culture boosts productivity, as well as increased employee experience and engagement. This thus implies in contrast that a hostile work culture can have an adverse effect on productivity levels, increase employee turnover and employee disengagement.

It can be recognised from the discussions above that culture plays a crucial part in enhancing work engagement. The literature contains research that concludes that engaged employees discharge their duties more diligently than disengaged colleagues using institutional metrics (Shuck et al., 2011). Research has proven the relationship between work engagement and some perceptions and it is thus good practice for institutions to promote a positive culture and retain employees (Alarcon et al., 2010). Given this, Jiony et al. (2015) assert that institutional culture and employee engagement are related concepts and that the absence of a positive institutional culture will negatively affect job fulfilment and work engagement. University

management and stakeholders should create a culture which appreciates the unique contributions of employees as these link employees to achieve the mission of the university.

A positive institutional culture is motivation for the advancement of employees and the harnessing of work engagement, an observation confirmed by the view that engaged employees remain in the institution and continually add value to the institutional culture, which results in a high-performing institution where employees flourish and productivity is increased and sustained (Vogelsang et al., 2013). In essence, for institutions to make or maintain their institutional gains, university management and stakeholders should aim at engaging employees at work (Kortmann et al., 2014). A positive institutional culture promotes a competing work environment, continuous growth in productivity and performance at the institution (Morgeson et al., 2013). Furthermore, institutional leaders who build a fruitful institutional culture inspire growth and engagement for the employees and the institution.

The review of extant literature clearly establishes that work engagement has recently gained significant attention, with studies confirming its critical role in institutional performance (Amoako-Asiedu & Obuobisa-Darko, 2017). Engaged employees feel that their work environment and the institution's culture significantly influence their physical and psychological well-being (Agyemang & Ofei, 2013). As cited by Agyeman and Ofei (2013), it has been determined that there is a correlation between work engagement and institutional culture in several developed countries. Despite the association between institutional culture and work engagement, limited literature exists regarding developing countries like Ghana, thus, forming the primary motivation for this study.

Osborne and Hammoud (2017) suggest that it is essential for stakeholders of public institutions in Ghana to develop an interest in the various types of culture in order to foster a culture where all employees feel appreciated and engaged. The scientific appreciation of the possible relationship between the two concepts adds to the existing literature on institutional culture and work engagement by experimentally

demonstrating a link between the two. This research, therefore, sought to investigate the effect of institutional culture on work engagement in selected public universities in Ghana because of the absence of scientific research in developing countries like Ghana. This research further sought to contribute to existing studies conducted on the concepts to give an in-depth knowledge of the institutional culture of the work engagement model developed by the researcher.

2.6 SUMMARY OF THE CHAPTER

The concepts were reviewed to address research questions and hypotheses, establish a research plan and draw conclusions from findings. A review was thoroughly conducted on empirical research on the nature of institutional culture and the degree of work engagement in Ghana and beyond by sampling international and national literature on the two concepts. Malaysia, Hungary, South Africa and India presented the international perspective while Ghana provided the regional and national perceptions respectively. The review of literature gave a supplementary perspective and provided in-depth information on the influence of institutional culture on work engagement. The review of literature revealed numerous of studies that examined the nature of institutional culture and how it engages employees at work. However, I did not source any research on the two constructs carried out in public universities in Ghana and around the world. There generally seems to be a paucity of research conducted in public universities on the two concepts.

In the next chapter, I draw attention to the recent literature on the theoretical framework to construct a conceptual framework. Finally, the conceptual frameworks underpinning the study are analysed.

CHAPTER THREE

THEORETICAL AND CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK

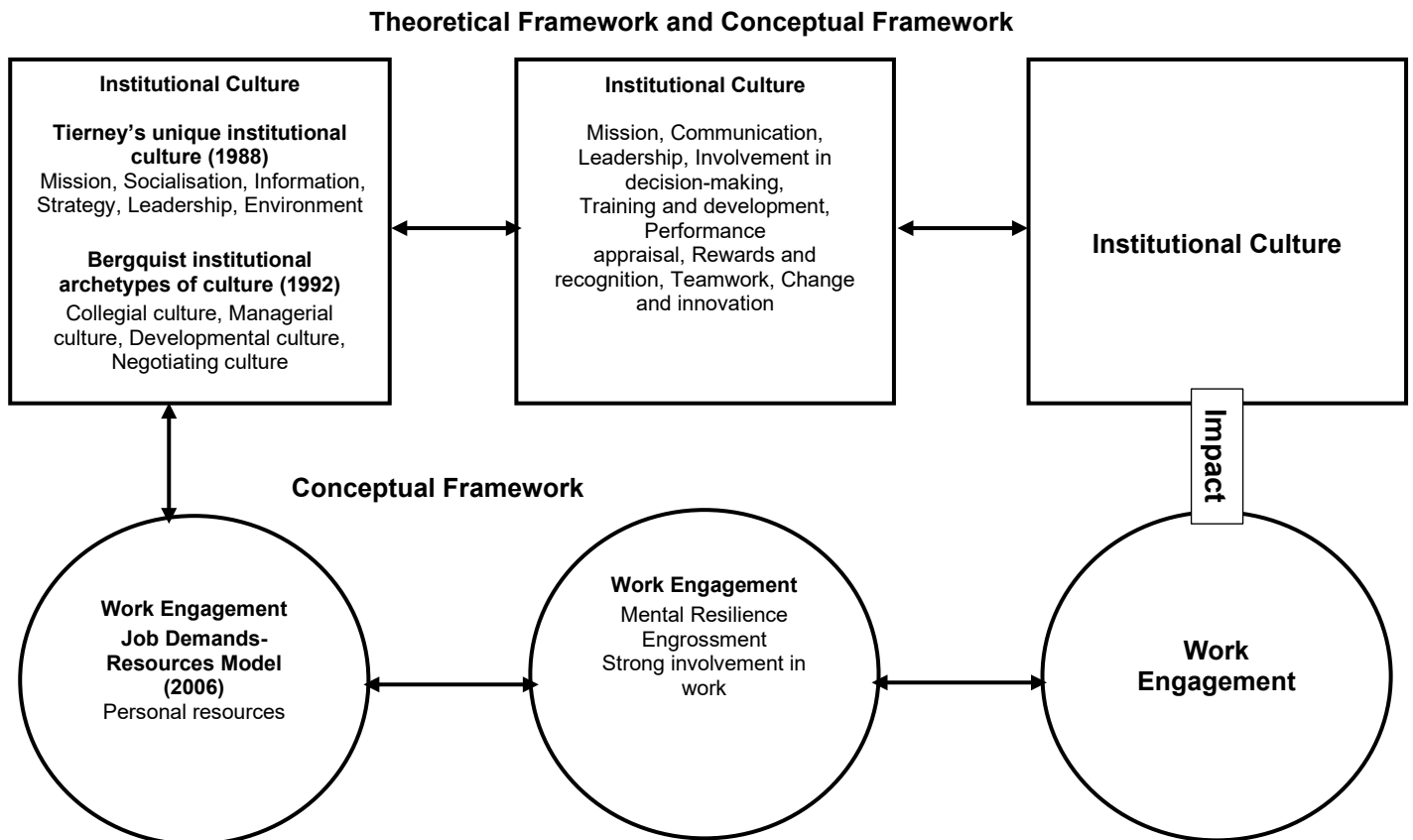
3.1 INTRODUCTION

Chapter two reviewed the literature on the concept of institutional culture and work engagement and examined studies conducted both locally and internationally on the two concepts. This section is divided into two parts. I will begin by giving an analysis of the theoretical frameworks of institutional culture and work engagement made up of three theoretical frameworks that could address the research problem and questions. I employed the Tierney's unique institutional culture which makes provision for the examination of institutional culture and provides a framework for the determination of culture in universities in order to pinpoint problems and recommend ways culture can be utilised by administrators to solve specific administrative problems (Tierney, 1988). Bergquist's (1992) institutional archetypes of culture, which present a distinct framework for cultural archetypes in any higher education institution, is also examined. The archetypes reveal how university administrators, faculty and junior and senior staff appreciate their designations in the university which lead to the creation of a positive institutional culture.

To address the work engagement aspect of the theoretical framework, the JD-R model, which presumes that engagement at work is an outcome of the correlation between the personal resources, job and good results, was also found as a suitable theoretical framework that rigorously addresses the issue of work engagement in higher education institutions. A discussion of the strengths and weaknesses of the theoretical framework is covered in this section, with the implications that this has for the study.

This then, leads to the conceptual framework underpinning the academic understanding of the study. Next, I go on to analyse the parameters of the two concepts gleaned from the theoretical framework and consider the one most suitable for public universities in Ghana, as this serves as a guide in answering the research

questions. To set the scene, Figure 3.1 presents the mapping of the theoretical and conceptual framework.



(Source: Researcher's own construct, 2022)

Figure 2.1: Theoretical and conceptual framework mapping

3.2 THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

3.2.1 Towards a Theoretical Understanding of Institutional Culture

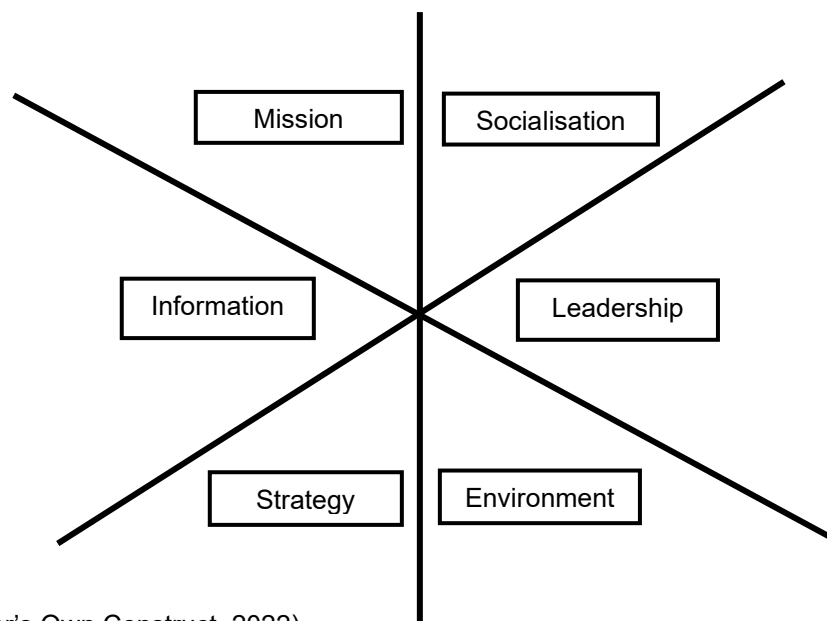
The cultural framework developed by Tierney (1988) is widely adopted as it provides a thorough grounding for comprehending the associations between actors and the environments in which they operate. The framework is beneficial for administrators, faculty and researchers as it sheds light on how meaning is created within multiple and overlapping contexts. Tierney (1988) argues that an organisational culture framework can effectively address global and local controversies and improve higher

education institution's performance. Two theories of institutional culture guide the research. These are:

- i. Tierney's unique institutional culture
- ii. Bergquist's institutional archetypes of culture

3.2.1.1 *Tierney's unique institutional culture*

W. G. Tierney was one of the original researchers to advance the definition of 'organisational culture' to incorporate the work and managing of universities as organisations in his essay 'Organisational Culture in Higher Education: Defining the Essentials' (Tierney, 1988) which others term as institutional culture. Tierney (1988) points to the provision of a framework to determine the culture in universities and of colleagues in order to detect problems, find solutions and suggest ways in which culture as a concept could be utilised by administrators to solve specific administrative problems. Tierney's unique view of culture provides a lens for examining institutional culture (see Figure 2.2). He asserts that a framework for institutional culture is an effective tool to manage international and local controversies and enhance performance in higher education institutions. As universities grow, administrators must appreciate the nature of institutional culture and be better equipped to be able to achieve an increase in performance and productivity (Kinser & Lane, 2014; Gomez, 2015).



(Source: Researcher's Own Construct, 2022).

Figure 2.2: Tierney's unique institutional culture (1988)

The six concepts of Tierney's unique institutional culture present institutions with the tools and strategies to build the institutional culture. Tierney's (1988) unique institutional culture adopted for this study, enables administrators, faculty and researchers to comprehend how meaning is created in various institutional contexts. This comprehensive framework provides a grounding for understanding the interrelations between actors and the settings in which they operate.

What follows is a discussion of the six fundamental approaches that comprise Tierney's unique institutional culture for testing institutional culture. The six terms include *mission*, *socialisation*, *information*, *strategy leadership* and *environment*, and establish the comprehensive and prospective model for interpreting institutional culture.

Mission

According to Fugazzotto (2009), an institution's mission directs the main activities. He further stated that the mission of an institution is crucial. The mission component of Tierney's unique institutional culture shows how an institution's stakeholders comprehend the university's underlying beliefs. Informed by the institution's history, the mission offers meaning, direction and purpose to the institution's stakeholders (Tierney, 2008). Because institutions are social entities and operate within specific environments, an institution's mission is socially constructed, continuously redefined and re-explained by interest groups within a cultural context (Tierney, 2008). According to the explanation given by Tierney (2008), one cannot deliberate on an institution's culture without touching on the mission; it is essential to note that these are related. The mission component of Tierney's unique institutional culture shows how stakeholders understand the university's overarching ideology.

The mission is an informative act that adds meaning to both vision and values, gives direction and purpose and provides an exact value of distinctiveness of employees' perceptions, a favourable climate for working and learning, ethical behaviour and excellence in the institution. Furthermore, the university's strategic plan is another document that supports the institution's vision, mission and values. It controls the

institution's focus, allocating assets and employees who should be emulated. Morphew and Hartley (2006) indicate that an institution's mission serves as a legitimising function that rationalises its existence to significant internal and external stakeholders and indicates an institution's relationship with its surrounding community. An institution's mission should be communicated regularly to strengthen the culture. According to Tierney's work, mission refers to an institution's mission statement and provides a purpose, meaning and direction to the institution's stakeholders (Tierney, 2008). Accordingly, if the institution's mission is communicated effectively by management and other stakeholders, it drives the institution's operation and focus. However, if the mission is unclear and not communicated effectively, institutional priorities are not met.

Socialisation

Tierney identified socialisation as a determinant of an institution's culture. Tierney's (1988) framework of institutional culture describes socialisation as the process by which members become accustomed to their environment. Socialisation within institutions of higher education, especially universities, is highly complex. Socialisation is demonstrated through a range of socially accepted structures such as customs, regulations, laws, norms, values, roles, practices and procedures, agreements, codes, routines and rituals of an institution (Tierney & Lanford, 2015). The beliefs, values and attitudes held by faculty mirror their socialisation experiences and, in effect, reflect the culture of the faculty. The socialisation process in an institution is reflected in how stakeholders, be it students, staff, faculty or administrators, distinguish the personality traits and values upheld by the institution (Tierney & Rhoads 1994). Institutional culture is evaluated using three varying approaches. First, it can be tested by the way new employees socialise in the institution. Secondly, it reflects the mode of prevalence in which socialisation is articulated and can reflect the extent of socialisation. Lastly, the socialisation process offers insight into why employees interpret and react to certain situations because of the employees' perceptions in different ranks and positions. Because of these, personal traits are seen as essential in an institution for the process of socialisation (Tierney, 1988). Socialisation is crucial when students, faculty and

administrators' study and work outside the university's communities. The extent to which the institution's management pays attention to the socialisation issues reflects the level at which the culture is created and maintained. The responsibility now lies with the institution's leaders to consider these and create a vibrant culture of socialisation so that institutional activities can be carried out from afar.

Information

According to Tierney's (1988) description, information refers to how knowledge is transmitted within institutions. He adds that information is reflected in how leaders communicate with the international and local world. The vital line of inquiry is the ability of employees to determine who holds valuable information in the institution. The information culture focuses on determining the essential information, how it is circulated and how it can be assessed. Concerns are, however, raised with who has the information, and how it is disseminated. Kinser and Lane (2014) have noted that issues such as time constraints and inadequate information sharing can contribute to a lack of understanding of rules, regulations and procedures. Lane (2011) raised similar concerns regarding the lack of understanding of rules, regulations and procedures. Such difficulties can further create and reinforce administrative information silos which restricts the flow of communication within the institution, as Lane (2011) has argued. and Lanford (2015) also highlighted the impact of time constraints and inadequate information sharing on the comprehension of rules, regulations and processes.

Information appears to be a simple concept; however, data can be put through an equally rigorous consideration. Different approaches guide a grasp of the term knowledge in institutional culture. With today's technological advancement and several social media platforms, people are overwhelmed with information that is sometimes fraught with scam. Tierney's (1988) account describes the dissemination of knowledge within institutions and the communication strategies leaders employ to reach their internal constituencies and employees are more inclined to become devoted to the institution if management effectively shares information with them.

Tierney (1988) adds that information is sometimes widely shared through informal channels as well as through communication, rules, regulations and procedures (Lane, 2011; Kinser & Lane, 2014; Tierney & Lanford, 2015). In this way, "what is done, how it is done, and who is involved in doing it, reflects the culture of an institution. It involves decisions, actions, and communication" (Tierney, 1988, p. 127). It behoves an institution to interpret the elements of information, the source from which it emanates and the channels for disseminating it. In public universities, information is disseminated through circulars, internal memoranda, committee meetings, convocations, staff durbars¹ and other policy documents. However, it is worth noting that the channels for communication form the basis for analysing the culture of an institution (Olssen & Peters, 2005) and as a result, the channels of communication must be open and transparent. With the increased demand for accountability and efficiency in government universities, many universities are being charged to uplift the university's image through publications, open up for change and innovation, and identify and improve strengths while competing for scarce resources.

Strategy

Tierney's (1988) unique framework of institutional culture proposes that strategy revolves around how institutional leaders make decisions and react to environmental pressures. Strategy, as described by Tierney's (1988) framework of institutional culture, emphasises how leaders of institutions take decisions and also respond to environmental pressures in areas such as the establishment of the institution, institutional status, risk-taking and risk-avoidance (Lane, 2011; Healey, 2015; Tierney & Lanford, 2015). Institutions must consider (a) who is making decisions (b) the penalties for bad decisions (c) motivations and concerns and (d) the type of strategies that are used in decision-making to be able to achieve a sound institutional culture (Tierney, 1988; Wilkins & Huisman, 2012; Healey, 2015).

When higher education becomes increasingly globalised, institutional decision-makers continue to strategize on how to enter the international arena effectively. Where

¹A formal assembly of notables called together by a governmental authority

freedom of instruction and shared governance are taken to be absolute, the core principles of the institution may rely on a collaborative decision-making procedure where decisions are matched with expertise such as syllabus development (Rhoades, 2005). When these values, expectations, and internal legitimacy are undermined, confidence and backing for ensuing plans may be hard to accomplish (Stensaker & Vabo, 2013). The strategy also concentrates on giving voice to multiple constituents. When the value, expectation and internal legitimacy are compromised, gaining confidence for future developments may be challenging to achieve (Stenesaker & Vabo, 2013). Communication is critical for the circulation and execution of an institution's strategies. However, in some public universities, shared governance and freedom of instruction are neither general valued nor are they universally embraced. (Altbach, 2001). Therefore, several institutions adopt a direct strategy in making even minor strategic decisions. Communication, then, serves as a vehicle for the relay and execution of institutional strategies.

Leadership

Tierney (1988) touched on leadership as another dimension of institutional culture which seems to be a manifest of institutional culture. In Tierney's (1988) view, leadership involves identifying formal and informal institutional leaders and understanding the institution's expectations on its leaders. While the precise leadership style may vary depending on environmental and other factors, it is widely acknowledged that leadership is the primary driver of institutional culture. Leadership is, however, a complex phenomenon in the university setting. The vice-chancellor, the pro-vice-chancellor and the registrar may be pointed out as the leaders who significantly impact a university's culture.

The type of institution determines the assumptions for different levels of leadership. A thorough examination of institutional culture unearths employees' beliefs of leadership and 'formal' and 'informal' leaders when contextualising strategic plans that affect higher education institutions. Some employees do not have any leadership positions but brand themselves 'informal leaders', sometimes acknowledged as reliable

individuals who represent stances on behalf of others; these 'informal leaders' are found in every institution.

Environment

Tierney's (1988) framework of institutional culture defines the institutional environment as one characterised by the institution and employees within it. Tierney (1988) notes that understanding an institution's culture requires knowledge of how the institution defines its environment in addition to feelings of hostility or friendship and attitude of employees. The environment of an institution can be illustrated in these times of technological advancement with the existence of a friendly connection between the university and its immediate neighbouring communities. However, the student population will indicate the demographics of the citizenry, which gives valuable information on its influence and correlation with the community. Tierney considers the environment a determinant of the institution's culture and according to him, the environment of an institution is shaped by the flow of international and local students, faculty, administrators and the location of the campus.

According to Hanaysha (2016), an employee requires a conducive environment to be created because the environment is the physical enhancement which enables employees to perform and increase productivity (Madu et al., 2017). A conducive environment improves employee engagement, it must be conducive, comfortable, healthy and safe to engage employees in work and as such, needs to be considered. Tierney (1988) acknowledges that one cannot understand the institutional culture without knowing how the institution defines the environment or employees' attitude towards it, such as hostility, friendship, equipment including curriculum, resources, services, social and recreational offerings, employees, amongst others. Some of these factors provide infrastructure, amenities and facilities, provide effective communication forms, develop mutual understanding, utilise technologies to implement duties and give equal rights and opportunities to all members.

The work environment can be made conducive by devising policies, laws, rules and strategies. Offering support at the workplace when there are experiences and

problems, promoting teamwork and exhibiting traits of diligence are all a reflection of the environment of an institution. A higher education institution's environment is described as the interrelation between the university campus and its immediate community. The institution's environment hinges on leadership, commitment and consistency in meeting the institution's mission and vision. Its environment is fashioned by the flow of intranational employees and students and campus location. The population of students also reflects the demographics of the institution and provides important information regarding its effects on the community. The environment of an institution further mirrors the heritage of an institution. In some institutions, this can be seen in statues and inscriptions, and is often reflected in the architectural works on the campus, which proudly exhibit new investments. Socialisation is the dimension of culture that shows how employees and students can decipher the traits of character cherished by the institutions (Tierney & Rhoads, 1994). This is reflected in how new members in an institution are oriented and can seamlessly fit into the environment. In the 21st century, employees and students either work at the institution, from home or study from afar.

When these are acknowledged and practised by employees, it creates a pleasant and friendly environment within the workplace, resulting in job satisfaction. According to Osborne and Hammond (2017) a favourable work surrounding supports employees in attaining goals and meeting institutional prospects. The environmental conditions at a workplace are regarded as an external determinant of institutional culture (Kapur, 2020). Moreover, the external environment and the internal environment of an institution must be taken into consideration.

To sum up, the critical elements of culture were characterised by Tierney (1988) as mission, socialisation, information, strategy leadership and environment. He believed that though each variable mentioned above is independent, they all contribute to the overall culture (Tierney, 1988). According to Tierney (1988), culture is manifested by incorporating these essential elements, which emanates from the history, religious beliefs of founders, traditions and the viewpoints of administrators, faculty, students, alumni and other stakeholders of an institution (Kuh & Whitt, 1988, p. 89). Universities

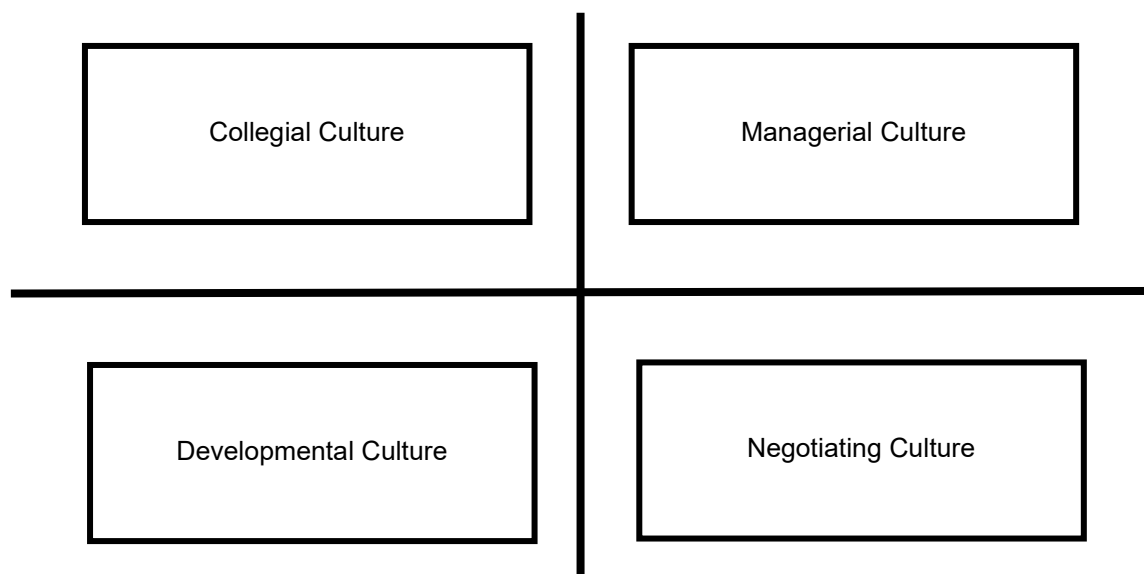
especially have their own culture because of their unique cultural ideologies. However, institutions with comparable cultures and curricula can perform differently according to their varying perceptions of their identities and forms of communication with internal and external stakeholders. (Tierney, 1988, p. 3). These determinants denote a perception of the universities' overall identity and philosophy emanating from the interaction of employees with the community. Though the theory presents limitations such as homogenization of the institution, lack of attention to subcultures, potential stereotyping, limited emphasis on change and underemphasis on shared values, going forward the Tierney's unique institutional culture (1988), can be observed in various aspects (decision making process, leadership styles, change management, faculty and staff engagement, student experience, strategic planning, communication strategies, resource allocation, diversity and inclusion, institutional identity and branding) of institutional management and higher education. Recognizing the importance of the unique institutional culture as a dynamic force guides the experiences and behaviours of all stakeholders of the institution.

3.2.1.2 *Bergquist's institutional archetypes of culture*

This study adopted a second theory that explores other institutional culture types. Bergquist concentrates on archetypes by which various institutions may be classified and he proposed distinct frameworks to show the cultural archetypes in higher education institutions. How university administrators and faculty appreciate their designations in the university potentially creates a unique culture. Bergquist (1992) proposed four different academic cultural archetypes: collegial culture, managerial culture, developmental culture and negotiating culture.

The *collegial culture* is characterised by a strong focus on shared governance, teamwork, and consensus-based decision-making. It is also hinged on a sense of community and respect between faculty members and administrators. *Managerial culture* reflects an instructed vision and a clear strategy, and focuses on the institution's goals, values, efficiency, adequate supervision, skills and fiscal responsibility. This culture is aimed at enhancing institutional performance and

responsiveness to external demands. *Developmental culture* encourages the personal and professional development of every member. This type of culture concentrates on the growth of people on campus and the award of development grants to employees realises it. Bergquist suggests that leaders establish strategies to facilitate activities in the institution. Here, the management framework is modified to ensure inclusiveness. A vehicle for communication is also shown in this type of culture. *Negotiating culture* is embedded in creating fair and just policies and measures for treasuring confrontation, mediation and power, and interest groups' existence. Studies carried out by Bergquist on institutional culture are guided by the archetypes by which various institutions might be classified and represented.



(Source: Researcher's Own Construct, 2022).

Figure 2.3: Bergquist's institutional archetypes of culture

Collegial culture

Collegial culture emanates from the practices of the various faculty and capitalises on traditions and values. It basically thrives on the faculty and forms the focus of the university. This type of culture puts emphasis on the faculty because the main career path geared towards academic leadership in the collegial culture thrives on disciplinary affiliations to faculty research and scholarship. Collegial culture is also centred on shared governance, decision making and rationality. Emphasis is placed on research

and publications by the faculty coupled with scholarship. Collegial culture relates to the faculty's non-political governance procedures that hold unproven presumptions about the pre-eminence of the institution. In this type of culture, the faculty typically make the institutional decisions and it works hand-in-hand with administrators to implement faculty decisions. With this approach, various critical decisions and valued answers to the institutional problems are undertaken in a cross-functional way where different units are brought together.

Academic freedom is the guiding principle here, hence the request for accountability or measurable outcomes are defied. In addition, institutional change takes place slowly because governance procedures are faculty-driven. Though collegial culture generates a sense of encouragement of free communication, it suffers from absence of consistency and coordination (Bergquist & Pawlak, 2007). The most important value, according to Bergquist (1994), that is associated with the collegial culture is autonomy. This type of culture generally perceives the institution as an enterprise for generating, interpreting and passing on knowledge, concise values and character qualities among employees.

Managerial culture

Managerial culture emanates from the business world and thus has the same characteristics as the corporate world. However, it has also had a significant influence on colleges and universities. Managerial culture is described in reference to the institution's structure and is primarily hinged on a strong administrative bent with the most important value being advancement through the ranks (Bergquist, 1994). Academic leadership in managerial culture is occupied by faculty members rising through the ranks to improve the institution through departmental management. In addition, managerial culture involves organising, executing and assessing work aimed at the objectives and direction of the institution. It also throws light on the institution's ability to evaluate institutional goals. Managerial culture thus places value on practical supervision and fiscal responsibility.

Furthermore, the managerial culture focuses on success and collaborative negotiation in an institution by managing faculty with budget accountability to determine decision-making. With this type of culture, there is conformity with the institutions' policies, which leads to a productive result because employees can share their contribution to the broader institutional strategy. This cannot be described as bureaucracy because policy development is essential if employees engage at any significant level.

Negotiating culture

The negotiating culture, referred to as the third culture, evolved as a reaction to the managerial culture. This culture is centred on a major inclination towards more significant equity and social justice, in addition to collective bargaining. The basic merit of the negotiating culture is power. Employees should have the requisite measure of power within their institutions (Bergquist, 1994). The negotiating culture thrives on equal and fair rules and procedures for the administration of assets and profits in the institution. It places emphasis on meetings, agreements and equitable negotiation amongst employees. This type of culture places emphasis on the role of power and the need for frequent mediation. The negotiating culture values egalitarian ability and agreements to improve social conduct and institutional progress. Negotiating also utilises the committee system of faculty and administrators to make decisions which means that influence occurs through collective action. The negotiating culture views the university as a system of diverse interest groups that need to negotiate with each other to receive their fair share of the resources and benefits of the institutions. It is a culture that is hinged on fair bargaining amongst management and faculty. The negotiating culture also values conflict of interest that conceives the institutions as an enterprise that is either often repressive or a more liberating social and structure (Bergquist & Pawlak, 2008, p. 111).

Development culture

The development culture contrasts the managerial culture because it is centred on the design of programmes and actions geared at furthering the self-development and professional advancement of all members. Here, emphasis is placed on institutional

research and curricular planning geared towards the personnel development of employees. Thus, one would say this type of institutional culture values forthrightness and support of others. In this vein, an institutional culture harnesses employees' potential and promotes cognitive, affective and behavioural development. The developmental culture prioritizes the behavioural, affective and cognitive development of faculty, administrators and students. It places emphasis on personal and professional growth. Development culture is based on the unproven premise of the intrinsic viewpoint and the wish of all employees to achieve personal progress and at the same time help others to develop (Bergquist & Pawlak, 2008, p. 73).

Four different yet interrelated cultures were discussed above. The first two, made up of the collegial and managerial, the latter two, developmental and negotiating, have developed in response to the failure of the first two in changes in present-day universities. (Bergquist, 1992). For example, Bergquist showed how managerial culture may prevent an institution from innovating structures. In contrast, the collegial culture was geared towards the achievement and modification of institutions because of great trust. With the evolution and transformation of higher education, universities might experience an evolution of the institutional culture. The culture of an institution will also influence prioritising resources, which might affect contract negotiations.

While all associated with higher education can gain a deeper knowledge of theory and practice from this theory on institutional research, institutional development, faculty development, and learning-centered approaches, student life education, an expanded approach to student issues would be valuable and insightful. Bergquist however, emphasizes, “the best way to prepare for (change) and to cope while addressing challenges is to examine the institutions in order to understand and engage diverse and often conflicting cultures that is key in the institutions” (1992, p. 230). The management process of the evolution may have either significant positive or negative consequences on the institution's culture.

In sum, because of the rising challenges connected with the management of higher education institutions, the limitations associated with institutional cultures must be appreciated which includes understanding the limitations of frameworks, such as Tierney's (1988) unique framework of institutional culture and Bergquist archetypes of institutional culture. One limitation is the difficulty in responding to cultural change over time, as cultures at various levels, are constantly evolving. Institutions must acknowledge the fluidity of cultures and consider the perspective of researchers and administrators using these frameworks. The use of both frameworks in contrast to using only one, offers an additional approach to understand and interpret institutional culture. The models discussed above also give a ready framework for higher education institutions, formulate a pattern that can be used to understand these institutions' complexities and serve as a guide for practitioners to readily use in the daily administration of these institutions.

I observed that there lies strength and weakness in every culture, therefore one cannot single out one culture and say it is the best to use. However, I believe that the dimensions guiding all the cultures discussed interpret the complex nature of the concepts. Though most of the university faculty and administrators tend to appreciate one out of the numerous frameworks of culture, other cultures definitely affect the dominant one. This is a point worth noting because some analysts are of the view that hybrid cultures are undeniable. All cultures can be at odds but must be acknowledged and brought into a dialogue to create a vibrant institution. Based on this, I proposed mission, communication, leadership, involvement in decision-making, training and development, performance and evaluation, rewards and recognition, teamwork, change and innovation as the conceptual framework for institutional culture. Counterbalancing these cultures will help sustain the institution. I believe that the appreciation of the strengths and weaknesses of each culture and the need for all cultures to flourish is essential in building an institutional culture. Institutional and faculty challenges are produced and nurtured but on the other hand, one or more of these counter-balancing cultures falls away. One other concept thoroughly reviewed in the next section is work engagement.

3.2.2 Towards a Theoretical Understanding of Work Engagement

Work engagement is a valuable construct that needs to be given attention. Much of the research carried out on work engagement focuses on the Job Demands-Resources (JD-R) as an illustrative model (Bakker & Demerouti, 2008).

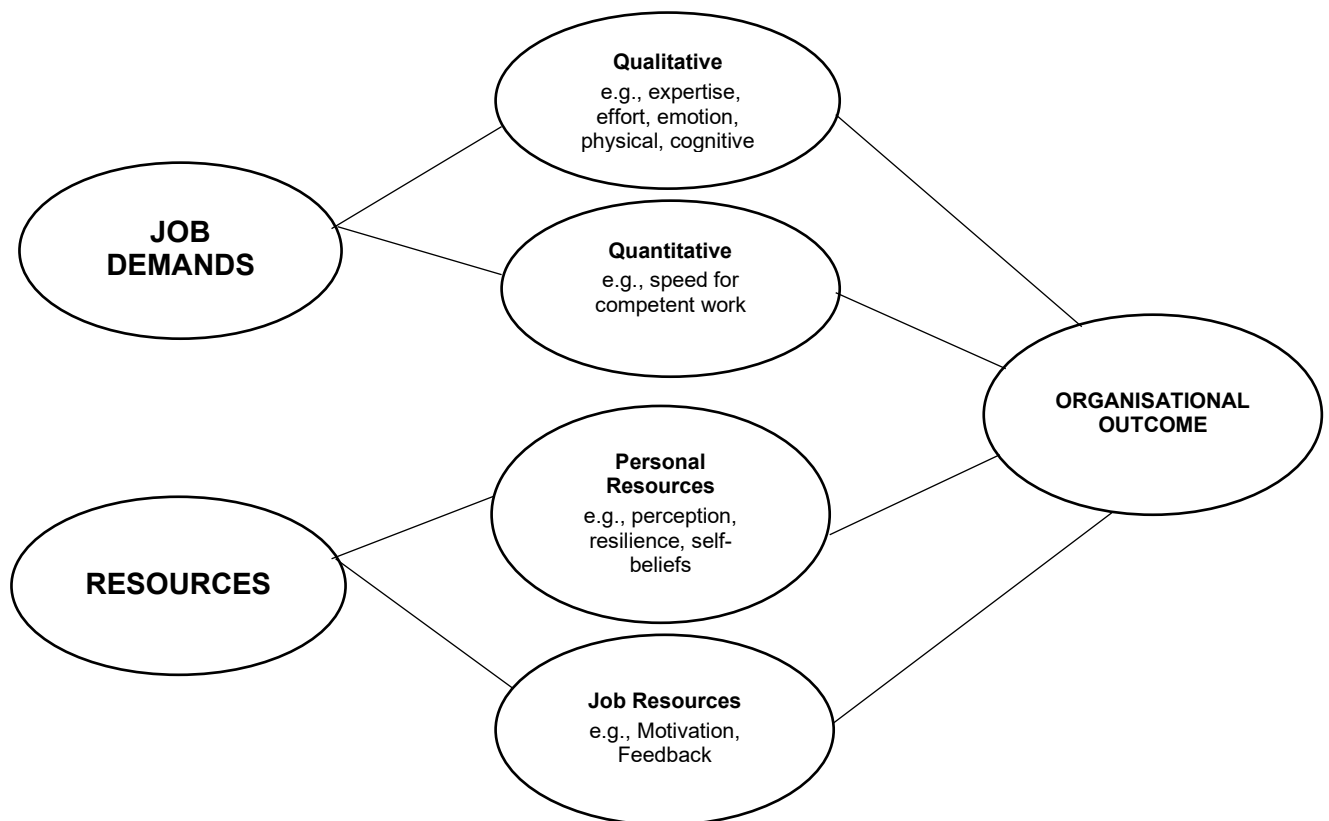
3.2.2.1 Job Demands-Resources model

According to Schaufeli (2013) numerous studies on work engagement have utilised the Job-Demand Resources Model (JD-R Model), which was proposed by Demerouti et al. (2001) as a framework for explanation. The JD-R model is classified into job demands and job resources. The *job demands* are characterised by complexness (qualitative demands) and volume (quantitative demands). Using the JD-R model assumes that work engagement is derived from the innate drive of assets. *Job demand resources* are classified into personal resources and job resources. Job resources are the characteristics reflected in accomplishing work objectives, lowering job expectations or promoting self-development. Illustrations of job resources are job control and performance feedback at the workplace. The JD-R model also propounds that work engagement is both personal with job resources on one side of the coin and an affirmative result on the other. The JD-R model accepts that work engagement is an outcome of an inherent motivation of the nature of resources. As an example, research by Hakanen et al. (2008), using 2 555 Finnish dentists as respondents and a two-wave cross-lagged panel design, revealed that job resources determine future engagement and predict institutional commitment. Job resources therefore inspire motivation, thereby satisfying the needs of employees (Van den Broeck et al., 2008).

The JD-R model is also grouped into qualitative and quantitative demands. The qualitative demands include varying expertise and/or effort (emotional, physical and cognitive) required to complete work schedules and the level of complexity needed to execute a task (Bowling & Kirkendall, 2012). Quantitative demands, however, are the speed at which a number of tasks can be completed. Thus, when quantitative work demands are increased, more time is needed to execute a planned assignment (Van

Veldhoven, 2014). The institutional demands negatively impact individual employees' work outputs (Bakker et al., 2004).

Institution-based self-esteem and job control predict the three dimensions of work engagement. A meta-analysis presented by Halbesleben (2010) often uses dissimilar work engagement measures to functionalise the concept. Further results indicate that job resources, including ownership of the job, social support, performance evaluation and the institution's environment, are essential predictors of work engagement.



(Source: Researcher's Own Construct, 2022).

Figure 2.4: Job Demands-Resources Model

The JD-R model asserts that the linkage connecting job resources and work engagement is founded on motivation as a stimulus (Bakker & Demerouti, 2007). The

JD-R model further assumes that job resources encourage work engagement through the intrinsic and extrinsic motivational potential exhibited by employees or presented at the workplace. On the one hand, job resources drive inherent motivation because it generates basic human needs, such as support, which results in a sense of ownership of the job (Van den Broeck et al., 2008). On the other hand, job resources augment forms of external motivation because it results in goals, which have been proven in recent research as other pertinent indicators of work engagement (Bakker & Demerouti, 2007).

Personal resources, the main aspect of the JD-R model which is of interest and will form the basis for the discussion of the Job Demands-Resources model in this research, are described as positive self-assessments related to resilience (Hobfoll, 2011). Personal resources align with an employee's perspective of managing and coping with unfavourable work conditions. Personal resources manifest in self-belief, self-esteem and peace of mind. They cover the aspects of self, usually associated with managing and influencing the environment auspiciously. It is perceived that this resource energises employees and motivates them to persist and sharpen their efforts.

The function of personal resources is not narrowed to managing demanding situations and promoting resilience. Personal resources can be seen as a notable contributor to welfare at work (Bakker & Demerouti, 2007). For instance, Xanthopoulou et al. (2007) revealed that personal resources such as positivity, self-worth and respect for oneself brought to bear by employees correlate with low degrees of exhaustion and increased work engagement. Similarly, research by Boudrias et al. (2012) found that resilience and confidence are vital precedents of well-being. In addition, Xanthopoulou et al. (2013) revealed that self-worth and optimism balance the influence of psychological challenges associated with work engagement. Furthermore, the impact of personal resources reflects in further research (Bakker & Demerouti, 2008). For example, Llorens et al. (2007) revealed mutual outcomes within task resources, self-worth and work engagement.

Personal resources are described as the portions of work schedules that inspire personal development and growth and are geared towards achieving professional goals, such as social support and performance evaluation. Personal resources related to resiliency involve opportunely managing and influencing one's environment, such as confidence and mental stability, are positive self-assessments linked with resiliency and the potential to have an influence on their surroundings (Hobfoll et al., 2003). Further research carried out has described personal resources as indicators of work engagement in addition to job resources.

According to the JD-R model, employees are motivated by the availability of resources, inspired by their perseverance, and make them the focus of their endeavours at the workplace. The availability of resources generally promotes engagement in reference to vigour (energy), dedication (determination) and absorption (focus). Schaufeli's (2013) JD-R model further presumes that engagement at work is an outcome of the association between the job and personal resources and good results. Accordingly, the JD-R model fosters engagement, which is reflected in vigour (energy), dedication (persistence) and absorption (focus) (Schaufeli, 2013). It is, however, useful to bear in mind that when job demands are high, employees put in extra measures to attain the work goals and avert a reduction in performance. This balance comes with physiological and emotional tolls, such as tiredness and crankiness and when these resources are insufficient, employees may slowly lose their energy and give rise to burnout which may sometimes result in cardiovascular disease, depression or irrational protest (Melamed et al., 2006).

When job demands increase work engagement, employers are encouraged to provide job resources to complement the resources employees bring to the workplace, which is the focus of this research. Task resources and self-worth are believed to positively influence work engagement at times by affecting these values, which increase the level of motivation. It is also expressed that those personal resources positively impact work engagement (Xanthopoulou et al., 2007).

Both resources are considered as significant interpreters of the outcome of work engagement (Halbesleben, 2010). Research findings have shown that resources influence each other through mediation procedures. As indicated by Van den Broeck et al. (2013), employees devote effort to create, gather, maintain, increase and protect their assets. Essential resources such as interpersonal assistance and job control convey supplementary resources, fashioning the phenomenon of resources (Hobfoll, 2011) because it is believed that the possession of resources facilitates more resources.

Given this, Xanthopoulou et al. (2009) revealed that job resources stimulate personal resources, which is reflected in the form of optimism, self-esteem and efficacy and confidence among others. This leads, then, to a rise in the levels of work engagement over time. The JD-R model is believed to be a framework that gives insight into how personal and job resources are connected to and impact work engagement. Studies on personal resources traditionally focuses on resilience, optimism, efficacy and hope as a set of dimensions (Luthans et al., 2007). Research shows that apart from these dimensions, other personal resources such as competitiveness and psychological empowerment can also predict positive outcomes and boost the extent of work engagement (Karatepe & Olugbade, 2009).

Job resources are the components that sustain employees' attachment level when job demands are overwhelming (Demerouti et al., 2001). The JD-R model assumes that resources act as an antecedent to motivational effects such as increased dedication (Mostert, 2006). The well-being of employees is the focal point of the JD-R theoretical framework while considering the behaviour of employees and the institutional stance on punctuality, institutional citizenship, performance and productivity (Bakker & Demerouti, 2018). Opportunities for enhancing self-confidence and for the motivation of employees is created to protect resources, thus averting the future loss of resources.

The JD-R model, as indicated, relates to the positive association between job demands and resources. This means that when job resources are made available for

employees, they tend to cope with the job demands. This results in the stimulation of intrinsic and extrinsic motivation, leading to increased levels of engagement (Byrne & MacDonagh, 2017). One of the underlying assumptions of the JD-R model is that occupations are linked with specified risk elements and work-related stress (Demerouti & Bakker, 2011). Therefore, it is crucial to comprehend the demands and resources that are utilised at the university (Naidoo-Chetty & du Plessis, 2021).

The JD-R model has been found to be an open model and rather experimental instead being restricted to a well-established set of specific demands and resources to elicit physical outcomes. The JD-R model, which has been represented with different concepts in previous research, is considered flexible because different kinds of demands and resources are added at each point in time making it easy to use in different contexts (Kühnel et al., 2012). For instance, different theoretical structures have been employed to differentiate intellectual roles of specific demands, resources and results in the same ways. Thus, the JD-R model is described as an illustrative model that identifies the associations between various variables rather than an explanatory model as the theoretical viewpoints originate from how the JD-R model is conceived; thus, it does not offer explanation. It is worth noting that the model's insights into the emotional processes involved might be considered a key limitation; however, the dearth of illustrative ability can effortlessly be restored by employing varying theoretical frameworks.

Personal resources are integrated in the JD-R model, using several methods. Currently, resources are integrated as mediators, moderators and as a combination of job demands and resources, which reveals the empirical character of the JD-R model as an illustrative framework, where personal resources count. Individual susceptibility components such as uneasiness, despair and compulsivity may be included in the model, with only personnel resources being highlighted.

Despite issues, I selected this model because the relevance of the JD-R model cannot be overemphasised as it can also be modified to satisfy specific needs of an institution, under any circumstances. This aspect maximises the importance of the model over a

variety of settings. The JD-R model gives an effective and clear outline of how job demands, resources, emotional states and results are linked. It can be practically used in several institutional settings to promote the well-being of employees and the institution (Schaufeli & Taris, 2014). This model can also be modified to suit the institution's specific needs, under any circumstances. The balanced nature of the model acknowledges its applicability by teams, associations, employers and employees. The model focuses on varied demands (such as time and physical demands), resources such as (such as job challenges, financial rewards and feedback), and results (such as attendance, punctuality and additional-role performance) and variables can be chosen based on the institution's unique needs. It must be noted however, that the model gives room for considering both negative (stress and burnout) and positive (engagement and productivity) results and procedures such as health problems or motivation.

This model is also of interest to a number of human resource practitioners. The aspects which are considered negative and stressful, appeals to practitioners of occupational health and the positive aspect attracts human resource practitioners. This model minimises the difference between occupational health management, which is hinged on the reduction of sickness, the level of engagement at work, risks and improvement in employee well-being and human resources management, which is increased employee motivation and performance at work. These two perceptions are seen to be intertwined rather than being equally valid. The JD-R model, described as a vehicle for motivational process and health impairment (Zwetsloot & Pot, 2004), is suitable as a guide for integrating human resources and health policies in an institution.

Furthermore, the JD-R model incorporates previous strategies and viewpoints hinged on the associations of work characteristics. As indicated, it generally helps researchers and practitioners to remain abreast of what might be expected of specific situations and what constructs could be employed to develop employees' total welfare and performance. A framework is provided by the JD-R model for researchers and practitioners to understand the interconnections between different concepts related to

work engagement and is perceived to describe the increase in feedback and support job engagement. Instead of replacing older theories, the JD-R model builds on and integrates them and offers an understanding of how work-related factors and personal behaviours influence work outcomes and ultimately result in work engagement.

Generally, work engagement is the vehicle for the competitiveness and success of an institution because employees, who are engrossed in work, exhibit the readiness to invest effort into the completion of work schedules and enhance institutional performance. It is important to note that employees, who are engaged at work, report being healthier and more satisfied. The resources, which are features of the job and made available to employees, elicit some level of work engagement and lessen efforts needed by employees to complete work responsibilities. Resources aid employees in the attainment of work objectives and rapid growth and learning at the workplace. To promote work engagement, interventions should be geared towards the improvement of and access to resources. In furtherance of this, an increase in job resources, such as autonomy, feedback, and opportunities for skill development, can boost employee work engagement. Though the JD-R Model, is limited in areas such as linearity, individual differences, nature of work, cultural variations and interpersonal factors, the JD-R Model gives a more practical guidance for institutions and individuals to enhance engagement, performance and well-being, by managing job demands and resources effectively. Implementing interventions based on this model can lead to more engaged, productive workforce and ensure well-being.

What emerges from the review of the literature and is common to the various theories on engagement, is the availability of resources that motivates employees, prompts perseverance and makes them concentrate on their efforts. I also reviewed literature on the various instruments available for measuring work engagement. The two that stand out are the Crawford's (2010) instrument, based on Kahn's (1992) definition of employee engagement and the Job Engagement Scale, developed by Rich et al., (2010). The three dimensions of work engagement strongly touches on the employee's physical, cognitive and emotional states. The Utrecht Work Engagement Scale

created by Schaufeli originates as a contrast to the Maslach burnout inventory (MBI). The UWES evaluates three parameters: vigour, dedication and absorption, and the parameters spelt out under the personnel resources captured under the Job Demands-Resources Model.

Looking at the various items from the two instruments, I have adopted work engagement parameters such as mental resilience, strong involvement and engrossment. The theories and parameters that have been identified help to explain important aspects of human activities, which are useful for investigating events. They are closely related to the research hypotheses and provide a framework for exploring the research problem. Overall, these factors play a crucial role in conducting a thorough and meaningful study. I believe that the identified theories and parameters will assist in directing public universities in Ghana to adapt or integrate work engagement to serve employees' interests. Although several theoretical perspectives explain the fundamental mechanisms involved in work engagement, the Job Demands-Resources model with emphasis on personal resources, which has had the most empirical support, was adopted for this research.

3.3 CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK

The theoretical frameworks described above provide higher education institutions with three ready-made frameworks to comprehend the intricacies of the two constructs being studied. I found that as much as each theoretical framework has its own strengths and weaknesses, it was impossible to pick out one theory and declare it to be the best. I therefore perceive that a conceptual framework model must exist to interpret the concepts' complexity and elicit the right responses to address the research questions and hypotheses for this research. Using relevant concepts from the theoretical adds another perspective to understanding and evaluating culture and engagement. This combined conceptual framework model may act as a practical manual for practitioners to utilise when managing institutions daily. Previous studies have also looked at the concepts separately, and I reflect, based on my research, that

an examination of a blend of the concepts in a single study will add value to the research outcome.

Based on the discussion above, the following concepts informed the conceptual framework model for this research regarding institutional culture: *mission, communication, leadership, involvement in decision-making, training and development, performance assessment, rewards and recognition, teamwork and change and innovation.*

I, therefore, found that the following concepts should inform the conceptual framework model for my study regarding work engagement: *mental resilience, engrossment and strong involvement.*

The subsequent sections describe a practical conceptual framework model used to explore, interpret and understand a university's institutional culture and work engagement.

3.3.1 Parameters of Institutional Culture

McCaffery (2010) reflects that the review of culture unearths the self-realisation of an institution which provides an insight into the hidden perception of institutional members, provides the substructure from which the institution is run and ultimately develops a comprehension of the social backgrounds of the context in which the institution operates. Parameters define a particular process or activity's scope, limits or boundaries. Therefore, the parameters of institutional culture are the elements that contribute to the development of an environment which will enrich all the community members, despite their rank or work schedule (Kapur, 2020). The parameters of institutional culture that are discussed in this research are mission, communication, leadership, involvement in decision-making, training and development, rewards and recognition, performance evaluation, teamwork, change and innovation.

Nine parameters of institutional culture

Mission

The mission of a university clearly describes the goal of the institution and focuses on the activities that the university would have to carry out to achieve its vision. The mission of a university is a critical instrument that serves as the "executing arm" of the institution (Sheaffer et al., 2008, p. 50). A mission statement describes the tool for communication by which the beliefs and points of view are relayed to employees and stakeholders of the university (Hirota et al., 2010) and encompasses the values, philosophy and identity of the institution, which gives meaning to norms, goals, decisions and everyday actions of employees (Bartkus & Glassman, 2008; Hirota et al., 2010; Khalifa, 2011). An institution's mission could further be described as a means by which employees form a connection with the institution's mission.

The university's mission serves as the blueprint of acceptable behaviour and outlines institutional goals. Without these, an institution may be unable to function and achieve its set targets. According to Hendrickson et al. (2013), administrators who comprehend their institution's fundamental mission and connect it to their unit's objectives can create enriched academic environments for students. However, there is a divergence of opinions among scholars regarding the importance of mission statements, with some researchers, like Anderson (2008), asserting their significance while others reject their value entirely. Institutions should formulate mission statements to guide employees in wise and productive decision-making and acknowledge equal rights and opportunities. Mission statements also direct employees on implementing negotiation skills and enjoying the institution's facilities, amenities and infrastructure. The mission also stipulates what is needed to carry out tasks in the institution, like using modern, scientific, innovative and technical means.

The institution must have a clearly defined mission and vision statement and a strategic plan directing its operations. Goals must be clearly defined and the university policies, rules and regulations must be spelt out to emphasise goal accomplishment. There should be clearly defined job descriptions and duties for employees. The formulation of the mission statement of an institution also contributes to the formation

of a pleasant work environment. The institution's mission further provides guidelines that enable employees to complete their schedules in a well-organised manner. An institution's mission is regarded as a crucial factor in determining institutional culture (Kapur, 2020).

Communication

A number of authors have indicated that communication is key to refining employees' dedication and achieving a useful outcome (Guimaraes, 1996; Guimaraes, 1997; Pettit et al. 1997; Goris et al., 2000). Higher education institutions encompass several artefacts and buildings, sometimes across multiple campuses with many students and employees, making communication complex and challenging. The distinct faculties and schools have unique, innate cultures, policies and facilities that affect communication culture. Therefore, creating communication channels at the university or an institution is necessary for effective exchange of information so that the requisite instructions from the university's administration are able to be shared through the proper procedures and policies (Duncan, 2019).

Communication at the university is done through letters, internal memorandums, circulars, suggestion boxes, emails, phone conversations and person-to-person contact. It is difficult to identify a definite communication channel but all-encompassing, communication can create a culture in which faculty, administrators and students are committed to transparency, dialogue and respect. Tubbs and Moss (2006) put forward an argument that communication is effective when the stimulus as initiated and intended by the sender, or a source, conforms to the stimulus as it is perceived and acknowledged by the receiver. This suggests that for communication to be successful, there must be an alignment of what the sender intends to communicate, with how the receiver would interpret the message. One could then question what kind of communication exists in a university setting. The university can use strategies such as clearly defining communication channels, utilising two-way communication, making information accessible, distributing clear and accurate information and sharing information, providing a better understanding of the vision and mission statements to define its communication culture. A significant challenge in a

high-involvement work system is creating a communication technique that gives employees relevant and prompt information so that information is widely shared and accessible to all employees. To enhance an institution's culture, unique policies should be communicated from time to time and new policies must be communicated to employees before it is enforced.

Institutional policies should be fair. Grievances must also be handled, using the proper communication channels. Given this, a suitable environment for the quality dissemination of information must be created by employers for the employees and students. Effective communication is not achieved in a one-step process but involves strategic and determined execution, bringing a notable variation for leaders, faculty and staff members and students. The university can use communications to promote the image of the institution. The institution's positive image makes employees committed, ready to work and contribute to the performance of the institution. Notwithstanding, institutional culture is dependent on how the institution's mission and values in achieving these goals are relayed to employees (Anderson & Martin, 1995; Brunetto & Farr-Wharton, 2004). The institution's entire culture is shaped by this communication process, which also helps employees understand the goals and purpose of the institution.

The study by Thien (2020) with eight faculty members as respondents revealed that employees do not always receive the needed information which means that certain employees miss out on news and information. When communication is inadequate, employees' expected behaviours, attitudes and beliefs are not be visible, affecting the university's general development trend. In the course of implementing daily work schedules, employees acquire information on the determinants of institutional culture. Employees also learn about the culture of the institution through communication with superiors, subordinates and colleagues. When the employees in an institution are well aware of the determinants of their institutional culture, it contributes to the development and commitment to work schedules which enhances the overall culture of the institution (Kapur, 2020). Building an appreciative communication culture keeps employees motivated and committed especially when financial rewards are not

available (Peacock, 2008). It is suggested that numerous cultural traits including good internal communication, culture of innovation and a reputation of integrity are crucial to enhancing the levels of workplace engagement (Lloyd, 2008). Pongton and Suntrayuth (2019), indicated that effective and satisfying communication between employees has a positive influence on job satisfaction and work engagement.

Leadership

One critical construct of culture that requires examination when studying universities and colleges is leadership. An appreciation of an institution's culture is vital for achieving effective leadership because, leaders significantly influence culture (Alsaqqa & Akyürek, 2021). Leadership is key to the work environment (Oldham & Cummings, 1996) as leaders are in a good position to execute the strategies and goals of their institution when they understand their institutional culture. According to Kreitner and Kinicki (2010), leadership involves a process through which an individual can inspire others to work together towards shared objectives. Hasibuan et al. (2018) argue that effective leadership can enhance employees' productivity and job satisfaction by providing clear direction and guidance, particularly if they take into consideration their employees' needs and aspirations and offer relevant advice and support.

Azanza et al. (2013) put forward that institutional cultures that prioritise flexibility tend to foster authentic leadership, an essential factor affecting an organisation's effectiveness. As argued by various scholars (Birnbaum, 1987; Schein, 1992b, 2010; Bass & Avolio, 1993; Morgan, 1998; Pennington et al., 2003; Kezar, Carducci, & Contreras-McGavin, 2006; Waldner & Weeks, 2006), leadership can have a significant impact on an institution's culture and may be considered a driving force behind cultural change as well as having implications for institutional performance.

Based on this, the advocacy for the understanding of the culture of an institution and an alignment with the institutional culture, is embraced by leaders. Brooks (2007) was of the view that the association between culture and leadership is critical to an

institution's ability to adapt to external factors. In this regard, leaders who welcome these dominant cultures cannot be underrated.

Leaders at the university set a particular tone and accent in the institutional culture, which subsequently affects the institution's operation (Perva, 2016). High-performing leaders admit that collaborative work processes such as meetings, quarterly reviews and performance management, amongst others, can influence the institution positively or negatively. Since employees take cues from their leaders, the institution may be affected by leaders' collective behaviour as harmful behaviours exhibited by institutional leaders can breed negative behaviours, affecting performance and productivity. Authentic leaders stimulate employees' creativity and innovativeness (Azanza et al., 2013). It is important to note that institutional culture involves specific values, norms and expectations typical for all institution members, including leadership.

Institutional leaders enforce institutional culture from the upper levels of the institutional structure and, then, disseminate, support and implement it at all other levels. Therefore, leadership is a central factor that guides the growth of culture. In view of this, the actions and inactions of a leader can have an adverse effect on the culture of the institution. A leader who acts contrarily to the policies and rules of the institution sets a bad precedent and gives room for subordinates to act in the same way. Leaders are obliged to set examples and pave the way for expected standards to correct employees who may act contrary to the desired behaviour and performance. The leadership style of handling the employees at the workplace also affects the institutional culture; for example, when the leadership style is welcoming, employees become committed to the institution's leadership and anticipate a continued collaboration with the institution, changing the perception of employees who might have viewed the institution as only a source of earning money. The leadership style must be one of mutual respect as this prevents employees from resigning from their positions.

Effective leadership perform a crucial role in employee success at work and, according to Swathi (2013) and Ariani (2014), there is a positive correlation between leadership and employee engagement. Institutional leaders are responsible for directing, developing and inspiring employees to sustainably contribute to the institution's performance and productivity. Since employee productivity significantly impacts overall institutional performance, leadership is critical in determining employees' direction and contribution towards achieving the institution's expectations. The success of employee engagement strategies relies substantially on the leadership styles used in the institution. Popli and Risvi (2016) demonstrated that the successful implementation of employee engagement is greatly influenced by how superiors exhibit leadership. This implies that an institutional culture that engages employees is established by how leaders operate the institution's strategies by clearly defining the lines of authority. The institution's values and beliefs must symbolise leadership, and their style should be characterised by achievement. Leaders must maintain a smooth running of the institution and practise what they preach. Leadership should show interest in the welfare of employees at the university and must be committed to the stability of relationships, which is paramount in building a unique institutional culture.

Xu and Thomas (2011) expounded that the success of institutional culture is linked to the right type of leadership at the institution. Solid leadership strongly influences the success of employee engagement as institutions are shadows of their leadership. Whether the leadership of an institution is aware of this or not, the way work is carried out and how an institution is managed, casts a mighty shadow into the institution as it is argued that leaders create a culture and, therefore, should operate it and, if necessary, modify it.

Involvement in decision-making

Involvement in decision-making is a crucial determinant of institutional culture because in the daily management of the institution, employers must share essential decisions with employees. Employees are an invaluable source of knowledge and expertise and must be engaged in the institution's decision-making process as this grows the investment of employees in the institution's success. Crucial decisions impacting

employees should not be left unattended so that employees trust the institutions with whom they work and thus must be allowed to participate in all aspects of decision-making. An institution's environment must be open and inclusive to enable employees to become involved in decision-making which increases the sense of workforce membership. A welcoming environment within which leaders impart a stable institutional relationship to build employee interaction and contextualise institutional goals, must also be created.

The role of employees in decision-making in an institution is a channel for inspiring employees to air their views and contribute to the university's success, stay on the job and produce quality work (Noah, 2008). Involvement in decision-making improves the link between the employer and the employee with evidence that high employee morale results from their involvement. When there are opportunities for employees to take the initiative, they feel involved and empowered and tend to contribute to the realisation of the institution's goals. All these positive action steps lead to increased commitment and contentment with their jobs and the institution. When involved in decision-making, employees tend to have a personal stake in the institution's success leading to a productive workforce as employees carry out their tasks with high morale and are committed to making the correct decisions and working hard to uphold decisions taken.

For a unique institutional culture to be created, employees should be given the opportunity to make decisions and their views and suggestions should be sought before policies are rolled out. Employers should know that employees' ideas and opinions count in the workplace allowing them to appreciate institutional procedures, policies and the realities of their work. Employees' opinions and points of view can be extremely valuable in making effective decisions because employees are often able to identify factors that otherwise would not have been considered. They can sometimes predict issues and help address concerns early to improve the institution's success. The institution needs to organise regular brainstorming options to garner employee ideas. When employees are involved in decision-making at the workplace, the payoff will be enormous; a feeling of being heard and involved does matter creating

a sense of belongingness and promoting institutional culture. For these reasons, employees should be involved in decision-making on matters that affect their commitment to institutional goals.

Training and development

The culture of an institution is founded on the characteristics (perceptions, attitudes, perceptions and even the thought processes) of the employees working with the institution. The importance of training and development has been extensively recognised as a way to continuously improve employee skills. With the growing prevalence of technology, training and development have become even more crucial as this has a major effect on higher education institutions, the economy, and society as a whole because it allows employees to utilise their potential and expertise to contribute to the growth of the institution. For a university to survive and thrive, continuous professional training and development is essential. By providing employees with learning experiences, universities can modify their knowledge, skills and attitudes to achieve effective performance. According to Armstrong (2008), it is crucial to understand that providing training and development for employees is a strategy for equipping them to handle tasks in an efficient manner. This can involve both formal and informal education, as well as instruction, mentoring and coaching. Training is not just about developing employees, but it is a means of building the confidence and capability of employees (Wilson, 2006).

Individuals recruited into institutions must participate in training and development programmes to acquire knowledge on the institutional mission and work schedules, procedures, materials and technology available. Continuous training and development as a determinant of culture, improve employees' engagement in handling tasks (Azeem et al., 2013), particularly as the primary goal of training and development is to enhance the performance and productivity of employees across all levels. Such activities are designed to equip human resources with the necessary competencies, managerial skills and behavioural attributes. Chadha (2018) explained that employee development as a culture, enhances employee engagement which is essential to maintain productivity and accomplish tasks.

Writing on a similar subject, Khurotin and Afrianty (2018) argue that training and development developed into a culture, enables employees to obtain specific knowledge and skills for work. It, therefore, indicates that training and development programmes are considered essential internal factors of institutional culture with seminars and workshops, amongst others, being key to the growth and progression of employees and institutions. Research shows that the knowledge and skills needed by employees to accomplish a job systematically and enrich the institutional culture, can be upgraded through training and development (Kapur, 2020).

The commitment to training and development involves improving employees' knowledge because employees need the competence and capacity to make the right decisions in the workplace. Training and development processes depend significantly on employees' competence and understanding to mobilise the knowledge, abilities and commitment to achieve higher standards and productivity. Initial studies have proven that it is a means of promoting and sharpening skills which result in increased commitment, welfare and loyalty (Karia, 1999; Acton & Golden, 2000; Karia & Ahmad, 2000). According to Bartlett (2001), the link between the training of employees and attachment to a particular institution indicates that employees ought to be allowed to acquire new knowledge and develop their expertise by being encouraged to pursue their specific interest levels (Davies et al., 2014). Training and development can further be described as the processes of imparting special skills to employees and educating them to correct their deficiencies in performance.

Taking this in to consideration, workshops and seminars should be organised for employees to acquire new knowledge and skills (Fernández-Mesa & Alegre, 2015) and resources, such as books and learning material, should be available to make employees feel they are vital investments in the institution's future. According to Cherrington (1995), training and development programmes would help generate a beneficial employee disposition and encourage professional advancement. To enhance the culture of an institution, it is crucial to offer ample opportunities for job training, mentorship and the improvement and upgrading of skills. Public universities

should also ensure that their employees have access to better resources such as facilities, equipment, and tools. According to Deming (1986), training and development are essential for maintaining the institutional culture, as they help to motivate employees and keep their knowledge and expertise up to date. Therefore, if universities aim to achieve success, they must prioritise providing their employees with training and development opportunities.

Performance Evaluation

Performance evaluation is a concept that scholars have defined in several ways. Scholars have concentrated on performance evaluation because it influences the institution's overall success (Robbins & Judge, 2011). No single performance evaluation system can be deemed good or evil, as the evaluation process also depends on the interaction between strategies and culture. Specifically, performance is influenced by factors beyond the evaluation system itself, such as the organisation's culture and the learning that takes place. Fralinger and Olson (2007) demonstrate a link between institutional culture and departmental performance. Performance evaluation is defined by Giangreco et al. (2012) as a sequence of methods conducted in institutions that is hinged on the objective review of the responsibilities of employees linked to aptitudes and assessment of expected performance against actual performance. Performance evaluation is also described as the annual evaluation of an individual's job performance intended to improve employee and institutional performance. However, Bekele et al. (2014) described performance appraisal as an enhanced activity that estimates an employee's deficiencies to ascertain whether a particular employee should be trained or promoted based on the performance assessment. Generally, performance evaluation is defined as a concept that focuses on developing, assessing and evaluating employees' potential within a specific period to accomplish institutional objectives.

Institutions must follow performance evaluation policies to evaluate employees and support the institutional culture as well as support the decisions of the institution's management. Hence, this can increase employees' performance as a result of performance evaluation outcomes (Fletcher, 2001; Kampkotter, 2016). Performance

evaluation influences the commitment of employees to the institution. (Armstrong-Stassen & Schlosser, 2010; Williams et al., 2015) and explains why public and private institutions welcome the custom of accomplishing ambition and success (Armstrong & Baron, 2005; Rusli & Sopian, 2013). It is in addressing inadequacies that a performance evaluation system becomes essential (Longenecker & Fink, 2013; Saad, 2014; Iqbal et al., 2015; Ikramullah et al., 2016; Raja, 2016; Sharma & Sharma, 2016; Christopher et al., 2017; Idowu, 2017;).

The institution should develop well-defined criteria for evaluating performance and personal objectives should be set at the beginning of the year, serving as a system for reminding employees of performance goals to be achieved. The progress towards meeting job objectives should also be reviewed periodically and compared with objectives at the end of the year. Performance evaluation should be done fairly, and feedback on performance must be given to employees at the beginning, middle and end of the year. These are key to the development of institutional culture, as feedback must be given to form the institution's culture.

Rewards and Recognition

Recognition is a fundamental human need essential in the workplace and used to improve institutional culture. Brick (2012) regards recognition as key to the operation and maintenance of the culture as it impacts the workforce's engagement and is essential to motivate teams to be innovative findings new solutions to challenges and problems experienced. Employee recognition is the affirmation of an employee's behaviour and effort towards supporting an institution's mission and vision. The appreciation of employees is communicated through the recognition of every milestone achieved on the job because it confirms the value attached to the work carried out by employees.

It is worth noting that when valued recognition is given to employees, their contentment on the job and rate of production increases. Employees are motivated to enhance and continue their excellent work. Institutions need to respect and value employees through recognition of their contributions. Formal recognition often comes with legal

policy requirements simultaneously motivating them towards further engagement to boost overall performance. When employees are praised or receive a pat on the back, it elicits some level of performance and inspires their effort. Events held to celebrate achievements are also a form of recognition for employees' hard work and loyalty. The more employees are inspired and valued, the more they champion the institution's successes. Recognition can be used as a tool to retain experienced and expert employees in the institution. Recognition is enhanced when university management provides avenues to transmit information on processes within the institution (Yuan et al., 2013), thereby building a sense of ownership of outcomes and a suitable institutional culture (Avey et al., 2012).

Rewards can also be perceived as an essential physical representation of good work with many institutions thinking of financial incentives together with physical gifts. The simple gesture of praising or rewarding employees at work can directly influence their work output and lead to better overall performance, increase loyalty and help retain the best talent. When employees are substantially rewarded for improved institutional performance and productivity, extra effort is invested in completing multiple tasks and meeting targets. When employees are rewarded, they use their creativity, knowledge and skills for the firm's benefit. However, rewards should be given based on qualification and merit, ensuring that there is equity in the distribution of rewards and fair compensation for work. The availability of freedom and intrinsic rewards as a determinant of culture is also required to achieve work engagement (Bolman & Deal, 2014).

Recognition and rewards should be given to deserving employees whose performance on the job is outstanding. Recognition and rewards influence employee performance directly and are powerful tools for receiving feedback. The findings align with those of Haines and St-Onge (2012), that recognition and rewards enhance institutional culture. Rewards should be given for outstanding performance as the appropriate recognition and reward systems are vital for the increase in the levels of engagement at the workplace to sustain the institutional culture (Maslach et al., 2001). However,

inadequate recognition and rewards lead to burnout. Rewarding employees for making an effort to enhance institutional culture is thus vital.

When employees are rewarded and recognised by their institutions, they in turn, respond with increased stages of work engagement; for example, a return on investments can emanate from other rewards, recognition and meaningful work. This means that employees will engage themselves to the level that they receive greater rewards and recognition. Finally, the atmosphere in a university becomes harmonious when the correct type of rewards and recognition packages are instituted to sustain the institution's culture.

Teamwork

Teams and teamwork have gained recognition from researchers (Guzzo & Shea, 1992) as an essential constituent of an institution, where the roles of teams are keys to building an influential institutional culture. Teams and teamwork are achieved through the promulgation of a teamwork culture by training and intensifying the tenets of teamwork. The institution's management is essential for creating a systematic and successful working team where 'teamwork' is the central element of an institution that touches on forming a group of employees working towards achieving a common goal (Al Mehrzi & Singh, 2016). A teamwork culture is characterised by collaboration, openness, consensus and participation. Teams and collaboration are essential to employees' success in an institution, because they foster commitment, performance and productivity (Stough et al., 2000; Adebajo & Kehoe, 2001). Studies have shown that working together within an institution leads to better employee characteristics (Osland & Bird, 2000) because employees are loyal to one another, trust each other and work together to achieve common goals. Anschutz (1995) also asserts that teamwork, freedom and continuous learning are crucial to institutional success and promote a relationship between employees and management.

Teamwork is vital to making an institution a better place to work as it stimulates groups of employees to communicate through a series of planned events that are inspirational and gratifying. When employees work in teams, it can be used to determine strong

points in employees' personalities such as leadership skills. Teamwork is beneficial and can also lead to employee job satisfaction and the development towards their full potential.

Teamwork creates an environment that facilitates knowledge sharing amongst employees (Hanaysha & Tahir, 2016), making employees commit to each other; it is an avenue for advancement and accomplishment. This commitment often leads to team development, which motivates employees to participate responsibly and work collectively towards achieving group goals. Teamwork is a tool for increasing inventiveness, which ultimately leads to incorporating satisfaction on the job. Bateman and Snell (2007, p. 467), indicated that three criteria define the effectiveness of a team: Firstly, their output in terms of the effective measure of the team meeting or exceeding the quality and quantity standards; secondly, team members realise the contentment with their distinct needs and thirdly, team members maintain their commitment to working together. Research conducted by Osland and Bird (2000) in Central America, revealed that teamwork in departments lead to better employee attitudes because of relationships formed within these subcultures. Anschutz (1995) stated that participation in teamwork is a significant factor for the growth and achievement of partnerships at the workplace.

Isaksen and Lauer's (2000) study, which aimed at exploring creativity within teams, pointed out that several creative teams are identified by clear roles and responsibilities, freedom to innovate, commitment, respect, communication and leading by example. It was also revealed that retreats and parties for teams can help employees bond, which leads to the sharing and creation of new ideas. It is further suggested that opportunities for team-building should sometimes be taken out of the workplace in order to establish a less formal setting. For social activities such as having recreational or fun games, an employee in a lower position in the institution can be assigned to a leadership position; for example, a team leader tends to bring down the sense of ranking and increase teamwork (Lu, 2016). It is revealed that there are times when sub-teams reflect a conflict of interest, lack of communication, political posturing, reduced motivation and the inability to recognise the value of the result,

amongst others. However, Amabile (1998) mentioned that teamwork can promote individual creativity such as intrinsically motivated tasks. This notwithstanding, Ndoro and Martins (2019) found that although employees of higher educational institutions in South Africa had high levels of engagement when working in teams, they had low levels of individual employee engagement.

Research work conducted in institutions where teamwork is promoted, reveals that employees commit to their work schedules. A positive correlation between teamwork and the level at which employees are committed to the institution was found. Institutions that create the atmosphere for collaboration encourage the values for trust and care, and end up with increased standards of team success, which in turn influences institutional diligence (Cohen & Bailey, 1997). Therefore, university management needs to develop and promote a cooperative teamwork culture. Management can encourage teamwork by organising team retreats and activities, which provide opportunities for employees to bond and exchange creative ideas. These teamwork opportunities should be cultivated in a less formal setting, allowing for more relaxed and free communication. For social activities such as sports, assigning a lower-ranked employee to a leadership position, such as a team leader, can help decrease hierarchy and promote communication and comfort among team members (Lu, 2016). This approach is also essential to propagate openness, loyalty, trust, consensus and participation to develop a culture of teamwork.

Change and Innovation

Tierney and Lanford (2017) believe that higher education institutions experience a phase of unparalleled instability, with these institutions involved in a host of collaborations, enterprises and key strategies to maintain their significance in these modern times. Innovation at universities has become necessary in the face of globalisation, change in the supply and demand for higher education and decreased financial backing from the public sector (Brennan et al., 2014). Researchers have suggested that institutional change is influenced by culture and leadership (Quinn, 1996; Senge et al., 1999; Kellerman, 2008; Schein, 2010; Burke, 2011; Cameron & Quinn, 2011). As universities have loosely coupled organisational structures (Kezar,

2001, p. 370), change initiatives may require navigating multiple lines of authority (Shin & Jung, 2004). Research by Obenchain et al. (2004) revealed that institutional culture affects innovation in higher education institutions, with the changes in the environmental conditions exerting a substantial effect on the existence of universities (Sporn, 1996).

The first step to innovation is the creation and acceptance of an environment in which employees can generate new ideas and challenge conventions. An employee with a great idea should be given the responsibility of executing tasks in the institution. One of the most prominent mistakes made by leaders is taking the great ideas offered by one employee and delegating it to another. By entrusting innovation with employees, measures must also be put in place to empower them and reward them with empowerment. These signal that the institution welcomes the generation of new ideas and is open to employees who come up with great ideas. Innovation can be improved by allowing employees to participate in the implementation process from start to finish and by encouraging them to develop future ideas. The employer should also work at inspiring innovation in employees as the positive implications of involving employees in work fosters responsibility and encourages innovation. It is essential to employ technical and innovative processes in executing tasks, as desired goals are achieved when employees use technology, scientific and other modern innovative techniques to complete work schedules.

Such innovative spaces give room for creativity and resourcefulness in tasks and operations resulting in a significant enrichment of institutional culture. However, if teams are not encouraged to be daring, the culture of innovation will not be developed; instead, it will serve as a breeding ground for a culture of mediocrity. Innovation at the workplace should be maintained by creating an environment where employees are not afraid to risk failure, have room for change characterised by the willingness to experiment and to tolerate failure. A culture that allows for innovation is considered psychologically safe for employees, highly collaborative and non-hierarchical which translates into innovative performance of the institution. When employers use these

strategies to impart information, understanding and empowerment regarding innovations, it can increase productivity and performance.

Creating a culture where employees are open to collaboration and creativity is crucial and could result in a positive relationship between employees. When employees are encouraged by employers and other stakeholders, it brings a sense of belongingness for employees to feel that the leadership is 'on their side' and are supporting them to succeed (Hashim et al., 2017). Creating this culture also enables employees to bond by creating opportunities for socialisation at the workplace, having fun and sharing ideas. The institution should also embrace innovative ways of doing things, acquiring new resources and creating new challenges. When employees are encouraged to make improvements on the job with an opportunity for independent thought and action, the institution is characterised by individual risk-taking, innovation and freedom to form a unique culture that gives room for change and innovation. In this way, employees are free to discuss, personal sentiments and unusual and challenging ideas (Bagheri et al., 2016). This paints a bigger picture for the future of the university, which can breed forward-thinking and innovative mindsets. The institutional culture is an outcome of the interaction amongst employees over a period of time hence institutional culture can never be constant and may change with time. Therefore, one can fully understand that utilising technical and innovative strategies to implement work schedules is seen as one of the key internal determinants of institutional culture.

3.3.2 Parameters of Work Engagement

The parameters of work engagement, such as *mental resilience*, *engrossment* and *strong involvement* in work, proposed by the research as the conceptual framework for work engagement, is discussed in this section. This is because work engagement significantly affects the retaining rates of employees (Ahmetoglu et al., 2015) and the success of an institution (Anitha, 2014). The Institute of Employment Studies (2018) posit that engaged employees are completely devoted to their work, resulting in an increased level of support for the institution.

Three parameters of work engagement

Mental Resilience

Mental resilience is one of the parameters of work engagement. In relation to workplace practice, mental resilience is described as the "positive emotional capability to rebound from misfortune, unpredictability, dispute, or positive change" (Luthans, 2002, p. 702). Mental resilience at the workplace is reflected in the increased energy exhibited, the effort employees put in to getting work done, the feeling of a physical attachment to work and having the continuous stamina to work and, as a result, employees with the right mental resilience may gain more determination with their work.

Kahn (1990) believes that the three mental states, meaningfulness, safety and availability, must be attained for work engagement, May et al. (2004) verified Kahn's engagement model by further proposing affirmative relationships between passion, ability, availability and safety as work engagement. It was, hence, concluded that resilience leads to the attainment of these and that employees who have the right mental resilience exhibit the recommended personal resources and positive self-assessments (Fonagy et al., 1994). It is also asserted that an employee's dignity leads to the achievement of collaboration in the workplace (Judge et al., 2005). In this case, resilient employees should have an intent of meaningfulness. Furthermore, it is believed that mental resilience makes one consider the potential aggravations as less intimidating than their less strong colleagues (Sweetman & Luthans, 2010). In this case, such employees feel safe to engage. The capability to make an impact at the workplace is exhibited (Fonagy et al., 1994); hence, a sense of engagement is reflected among employees.

The mental resilience of employees at the workplace revolves around managing resources, handling challenges associated with work, learning from mistakes and crises. Mental resilience is hinged on employing change for employees' growth and responding and adapting successfully to challenges with the right frame of mind. Studies prove that the influence of mental resilience lessens work-related stress, mental stress, exhaustion and employee turnover. Mental resilience is central to

managing anxiety and is key to balancing work, primarily amid labour unrest at the workplace, which employees in public universities in Ghana have been experiencing lately. According to Gobbi et al. (2020), recognising the possibility of risk and resilience factors is crucial in designing effective strategies to overcome psychological effects in public universities. Mental resilience levels at the workplace are thus essential for perseverance under challenging situations.

Many years of research show the significance of mental resilience for the well-being and performance of employees. Studies by Avey et al. (2011) and Luthans et al. (2006) confirm the link between resilience and high intensity of adversities. Luthans et al. (2015) suggest that resilience is a capacity for the employee's well-being and, according to Ojo et al. (2021) characteristics that enables human function. Therefore, in the context of an institution, studies have demonstrated its advantages regarding performance (Amir & Standen, 2019).

Mental resilience is described as a personal resource that supports the capacity to withstand adverse conditions and is reflected in the ability of employees to rebound, having gone through gloomy emotions, and to quickly adapt to the varying, demanding and stressful challenges. The qualities of resilient employees are affability and versatility, freedom, eagerness, confidence, self-awareness, emotional literacy and the ability to appreciate challenging situations. According to Fletcher and Sarkar (2012), mental resilience is developed through targeted support at the workplace. Additionally, a contemporary analysis by Robertson et al. (2015) revealed that opportunities for training on resilience boost the personal resilience of employees as it offers an invaluable channel for the development of a stable performance of employees.

Resilience is an essentially malleable phenomenon that improves work performance and the engagement of employees in an institution (Robertson et al., 2015). It is suggested, then that training on the sharpening of mental resilience can be vital for employees in public universities in Ghana, mainly in these times of labour unrest across the various categories of employees and public universities. This has the ability

to nurture employees' contentment in public universities in Ghana (see Arnetz et al., 2009; Pipe et al., 2012). Training on mental resilience, in addition supports performance benefits geared towards goal accomplishment (Grant et al., 2009), productiveness (Pipe et al., 2012) and observed conduct (Arnetz et al., 2009). Resilience is essential as employees stay engaged despite the stress experienced when working to achieve high performance in the institution. It is pertinent to note that employees with the right mental resilience at the workplace are healthy, work with a sound mind (Schaufeli, 2012) and are unlikely to resign from the institution (Swide et al., 2011). It is, therefore recommended that resilience assessment is done when hiring new employees and strategies must be put in place to develop the resilience of current employees.

Engrossment

Engrossment in work relates to employees who regard difficulties and happiness in their work schedules. Rothbard (2001) sustained Kahn's definition of engagement. Given this, Rothbard (2001) describes engagement as emotional and further notes that engagement entails two key elements: absorption and attention. Accordingly, attention pertains to "psychological hereeness and time invested thoughts about a role" while absorption "may reflect the depth of engrossment and focus on one's work schedule" (Rothbard, 2001, p. 656). Rothbard (2001) further proposes that work engagement involves being engrossed and determined to complete work schedules. Overall, a strong sense of effectiveness promotes the accomplishment of personal well-being, implying an attentiveness, absorption and a target essential to carry out work activities (Schaufeli et al., 2002; Schaufeli et al., 2002). Engrossment is considered as the state of being happily engrossed in work, which is reflected as a prevalent flow state (Csikszentmihalyi, 1990) so that even when an employee is out of the office they may feel happy with being part of the institution. Such employees have their minds filled with ideas to make work better, while time flies without them noticing. Employees also focus on work more often and their attention is always on details of the work.

According to prominent scholars, employees will exhibit creativity and professionalism, as well as maintain high-performance standards while adhering to their work schedules (Bulkapuram et al., 2015). This is important because employees with high confidence in their capacities see assignments as a challenge to conquer rather than a menace to be circumvented. Such practical steps promote inherent interest and deep engrossment in work schedules. Employees, then, set challenging goals and maintain their commitment to the plans as work intensifies and the efforts of employees are sustained amid failure. Engrossment by employees ensure that they recover their sense of effectiveness after experiencing drawbacks at the workplace. Such an efficacious posture enables employees to accomplish goals, decrease stress and lower vulnerability to depression (Bandura, 1991). Schaufeli et al. (2002) describe the parameters of work engagement as vigour, dedication and absorption. The concluding parameter of engagement, which is termed as absorption, is considered as being completely and intensely immersed in one's work schedule, so that the employee is challenged in detaching themselves from work as time passes quickly.

Saks (2006) indicates that work engagement is simply not a disposition but the level at which an employee is diligent and engrossed in their work. The human resources literature generally attests that work engagement is an emotional facet involving the employee's enthusiasm, energy and engrossed effort (Macey & Schneider, 2008; Gruman & Saks, 2010). When employees are fully engrossed in their work, it can have a positive impact on work schedules. The reason is, employees who are engrossed in work are energetic, focused, willing to take on tasks and have a positive attitude. According to Welch (2011), work engagement is a result of the positive response by employees to institutional change and the overall culture of operations. Thus, employee engrossment and sense of responsibility towards work are important elements in promoting a positive work environment and improving work schedules.

Strong involvement

Work engagement is generally an employee's loyalty to the values and involvement in work plans (Anitha, 2014). Rabinowitz and Hall (1977) describe involvement in work as the outcome of interrelationships between personal traits and responses by an

employee regarding the influence of an institution. The substantial involvement in one's work in an institution is the level of an employee's emotive connection to work schedules (Kanungo, 1982). It is stated that significant involvement at the workplace is how employees are psychologically obsessed with their work (Paullay et al., 1994). Strong involvement in one's work can also be described as awareness of control over work, receiving performance feedback and awards for institutional results (Lawler & Jenkins, 1992, p. 2).

When employees are deeply involved in their work, they feel proud of their jobs, and find it to be meaningful and fulfilling. They are happy to be at work and are inspired by the work they do, always eager to fulfil their obligations to the best of their abilities. The challenges that come with the work are seen as opportunities to excel and grow and employees feel a strong sense of ownership over their work. In addition, employees who are highly engaged at work tend to speak positively about the institution to potential employees and clients, helping to create a positive image for the organisation. Studies indicate that employee engagement play a crucial role in developing self-esteem and promoting work engagement (Lodahl & Kejner, 1965; p. 24). However, this engagement is a two-way street, as employees must also repay the institution for the benefits they receive. Therefore, fostering a culture of strong employee involvement and engagement is essential for creating a positive work environment and promoting the success of the organisation.

The extent of involvement varies from the work schedule, department, directorate and institution (Wimalasiri & Kouzmin, 2000) where an employee's results are influenced by punctuality, attrition, engagement and overall institutional performance (Brown, 1996). Employees who show high involvement in their work are more likely to work towards fulfilling the institution's mission and vision, and are less likely to leave the university, according to research by Kahn (1990) and Kanungo (1979). The research conducted by Hoffi-Hofstetter and Mannheim (1999), Chu et al. (2005) and Chughtai (2008) also found a correlation between employee involvement and institutional citizenship conduct. Another study by Munene (1995, cited by Rotenberry & Moberg, 2007), showed that employee involvement has a significant correlation with the

closeness of an employment relationship in citizenship, as identified by Soong (2000). Overall, researchers suggest that employee involvement is crucial in determining institutional success, as stated by Pfeffer (1994).

Employee involvement is conceptualised using the 'job involvement inventory' proposed by Kanungo (1982), which is categorised as work identification, work concentration and work evaluation. Cai (2001) expands on this by describing employee involvement in five parameters: work identification, work concentration, work evaluation, fun from work and work participation. Yang et al. (2006) classified employee involvement into four parameters, including work evaluation, work identification, fun in work and work concentration. In developing a high-involvement work system, Lawler (1971) and other researchers identified four interwoven principles, which are knowledge, information, rewards and power given to employees.

Accordingly, employees' knowledge and skill base are built so that they create and effectively implement decisions. Such employees also garner information on how their actions affect institutional performance. It has been observed that employees who are highly involved in their work tend to make better decisions. This is why it is important to implement high-involvement management procedures, which are positively related to employee morale. To fully engage employees, they should have access to training and development opportunities to acquire the necessary skills. Moreover, it is essential to allow employees to participate in decision-making processes, particularly in work schedule planning and training and development initiatives. When employees are directly involved in these processes, they tend to be more engaged and contribute their ideas and expertise to the development of the institution. When employees' opinions are taken into account during decision-making, they tend to take an active role in workplace practices and processes.

Research has shown that employee involvement in the workplace has positive outcomes for both employers and employees, such as improvements in employee well-being, morale, productivity and retention. As a result, it is critical for organisations

to create an environment that promotes the involvement and participation of employees in decision-making.

On the other side of the coin, less involvement of employees in work schedules results in decreased engagement, which may cost the institution. In addition, the lack of adequate resources and support systems hinders the ability of employees to fully engage in their work tasks (Acheampong & Amponsah, 2020). Therefore, employees in public universities should be encouraged to take up additional assignments from supervisors. To prompt some level of involvement from employees at the workplace, the university's management should show concern towards the general welfare of staff, assess employees' engagement levels and put in place structures that increase employee involvement. Essentially, the annual employee engagement survey is a vehicle to begin the process. Finally, it is asserted that for an employee to be efficient in the workplace, employee involvement initiatives such as reward schemes and performance evaluation should be captured under the institution's human resources processes and practices (Lawler, 1971; Mohrman et al., 1989).

3.4 SUMMARY OF THE CHAPTER

To sum up, a fundamental mission is to nurture a culture that supports the institution's goals (Laurel & Guéguen, 2007; Smith & Gardner, 2007). Fostering a culture that encourages full employee engagement can enhance institutional performance (Baumruk, 2006). Promoting the institution's culture reinforces employees' wellbeing and work engagement and finally, leads to institutional success. Literature has shown the effect of institutional culture on work engagement in the public sector in Ghana. However, there is a dearth of scientific research on the association between institutional culture and work engagement in public universities in Ghana. While there is widespread agreement that institutional cultures exist and are a crucial driver in shaping work engagement, pinpointing the extent of the relationship is a complex undertaking. Engaging employees within a HEI requires values, as ways of interaction and a conducive environment that could contribute to an institution's uniqueness. This necessitates a strong institutional culture that will stimulate employees to engage at

the workplace. According to Nazneen et al. (2018), there is a significant correlation between employee engagement, institutional culture and employee performance.

This chapter focused on pertinent theoretical frameworks deemed appropriate for institutional culture and work engagement. This chapter provided a critical review of relevant literature and was guided by three objectives: to identify the nature of the parameters of institutional culture prevalent in public universities in Ghana, to determine the level to which university employees are engaged in public universities in Ghana and to examine the correlation between institutional culture and work engagement in public universities in Ghana. The literature reviewed showed that there has been less scholarly attention over the years because institutional culture and work engagement are relatively new concepts. The above theoretical frameworks were not without limitations. As the existing theories lacked the consensus in only the theoretical framework, I also adapted a conceptual framework to guide the research. The conceptual framework formed the basic logical reasoning and the link that underpins the underlying thoughts, structures and practices guiding the entire research. The conceptual framework for this study covered parameters such as mission, communication, leadership, involvement in decision-making, training and development, rewards and recognition, performance evaluation, teamwork, change and innovation which define institutional culture. The parameters of work engagement, such as mental resilience, engrossment and strong involvement in work, were gleaned after a careful review of the theoretical framework to form the work engagement aspect of the conceptual framework. They form the foundation of the research and support the examination of the research problem and questions.

The review of the three theoretical frameworks helped me to develop an informed specialised lens for the examination of data, and the interpretation of the findings in order to make recommendations (Kivunja, 2018). The review of literature also covered the relevance of the underlying conceptual framework for the two constructs. To address the research questions, a conceptual framework was developed based on replicating and expanding the theories discussed in Chapter 3. The conceptual

frameworks thus guided the selection of the research topic, the problem statement, the research questions, the approach to the research, the literature to be reviewed, the theories to be applied, the methodological stance, recommendations and conclusions (Ravitch & Riggan, 2017). The review of relevant literature aided in selecting appropriate variables and the proper methodology for the research. The following chapter discusses the methodological approaches to the research.

CHAPTER FOUR

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

4.1 INTRODUCTION

In the previous chapter, I discussed the theoretical and conceptual frameworks that undergird the study and went on to examine the parameters of institutional culture that influences work engagement in public universities in Ghana. The research approach allowed me to set aside any preconceived assumptions about the phenomenon. Given this, the research methodology, employed in this thesis, was to make sense of the data by eliciting the experiences of the various categories of employees in public universities in Ghana, enabling the analysis of the data in determining whether the institutional culture was supportive enough to sustain the work engagement of employees.

This chapter outlines the methods employed to discuss the research questions, including the selection of the research paradigm, research design, sampling techniques and data collection methods. It also addresses the processes for analysing both the qualitative and quantitative data for the mixed methods approach. In addition, the chapter covers the measures taken to ensure the study's trustworthiness and ethical considerations.

4.2 RESEARCH PARADIGM

A researcher is guided by their approach to research (Žukauskaitė et al., 2018) by taking into account the research philosophy that guides the research questions (Saunders et al., 2009), and the philosophical assumptions about reality's nature, which are pivotal to appreciating the data gathered. These assumptions, conceptions and positions align the significance of the research problem and give direction to understanding the research issue and research questions and contribute to its solution (Kuvunja & Kuyini 2017). Research philosophy often manipulates the views and methods chosen by the researcher to construct the research strategy. Hesse-Biber (2010) described a

paradigm as a framework for developing theories. These frameworks influence the world's perception and determine human viewpoint, further forming an understanding of things around us. Specifically, previous researchers, including Mackenzie and Knipe (2006), have used the term to describe a researcher's philosophy in educational research. In their definition, the 'worldview' is also used to describe the viewpoint, school of thought, or set of common tenets that provide information to explain research data (Mackenzie & Knipe, 2006). A paradigm defines the researcher's philosophical orientation because everyone seeks to view and understand the world differently. However, this remarkably influences every decision on the methodology and methods to be used. In research, there is the need to appreciate the paradigm, philosophy or science underpinning a study as it determines the research methodology to be used (Mukherji & Albon, 2022).

A paradigm is made up of epistemology, ontology, methodology and axiology. Epistemology describes how knowledge is acquired, how truth or reality is known, or what makes up knowledge in the world context (Cooksey & McDonald, 2011). Ontology describes the assumptions fashioned to guide the belief that something makes sense or is real. Ontology is also defined as the investigated social phenomenon's very nature (Scotland, 2012). In addition to these, the methodology describes the design of the research, approaches, procedures and methods used in an investigation that is well-planned (Kuvunja & Kuyini, 2017). The methodology includes the assumptions made for the study, limitations and delimitations encountered and how they were resolved. When planning research, some ethical issues are considered and this is known as axiology. Axiology entails the philosophical methods for making decisions of value. It usually relates to defining, understanding and evaluating the concepts of acceptable behaviour related to the research (Creswell, 2012; Ormston et al., 2014). In all, research paradigms are usually situated in ontological and epistemological assumptions.

Nevertheless, there is undoubtedly an argument pointing to selecting the most acceptable preposition from the varied scope of paradigms (Smith et al. 1991). Four main paradigms have been developed to determine how one would select and define

problems for inquiry. These include significant paradigms such as positivism, interpretivism, pragmatism and realism. According to Burrell and Morgan (1979), being situated in a particular paradigm implies adopting a particular perspective of the world. Paradigms help shape the researcher's perception of the world around them. The beliefs a researcher holds, the procedures used for collection and analysis and how the results are generated from the research indicate the design of the research. It is vital to identify one's paradigm as it allows the establishment of the role in the research process, the decision on any research project's course and determination of other perspectives (Patton, 1990). Kuhn (1962 in Milton, 2010) characterised a paradigm incorporating variables, concepts and challenges associated with methodological approaches and tools used in the research process. In this regard, Kuhn (1962) viewed a paradigm as a harmonised array of substantive concepts, variables and difficulties associated with complementary methodological approaches and tools used in the research process.

The worldview allows blending methods covering the respondents' actual conduct and the beliefs behind actions that proceed varying characteristics. The worldview gradually evolved into a paradigm that supports the mixed methods approach as a pragmatic way of interpreting human nature - thus, the pragmatic paradigm. The pragmatic paradigm delves into applying the mixed methods approaches (Hoshmand, 2003). Pragmatism has a significant philosophical stance in the mixed methods approaches or methodological pluralism associations (Cameron, 2011). Pragmatism involves the combination of research approaches that present a favourable opportunity for answering important research questions. This is essential because the philosophical stance consists of studying the kind of reality, being or becoming, the fundamental classification and relations of things. Acknowledging this helps the researcher to examine the primary belief system about the nature of being and existence which is centred on the assumption that the nature and essence of the investigated phenomenon make sense or is accurate. It helps to conceptualise reality's form and nature and what to believe about that reality.

The pragmatic paradigm assumes that people utilise contingency situations in articulating their understanding of problems. The (pragmatist) assumption that the facts of an objective give better scientific evidence and could result in mixed methods research, is an example. Hence, the research findings are expected to be considered unbiased and generalisable. Paradigm dwells on an affinitive epistemology (that is, correlations are set by what the researcher deems as fit for the study). In a non-singular actuality ontology (which implies no single reality), individuals have unique explanations to reality. It is also centred on a mixed methods approach (with a blend of qualitative and quantitative research procedures) and relativist axiology (where the best ethics and benefits society are adopted).

This research was informed by the pragmatist paradigm which is hinged on the belief that results are more important than the procedure; consequently, 'the end justifies the means'. It promotes "a needs-based, heterogeneous and contingency approach to selecting a concept and the method for the research" (Johnson & Onwuegbuzie, 2004, p. 17). In this case, scholars are at liberty to choose the suitable approach to respond to the research questions. The pragmatist approach assumes that research cannot be determined entirely by theory or data. It allows the researcher to use the inquiry process by exploring the induction and deduction approaches (Morgan, 2007). Previous researchers, including Brierley (2017), propose pragmatism as a suitable paradigm for justifying mixed methods research. Pragmatism supports quantitative (QUAN) and qualitative (QUAL) designs in the same study and rejects the incompatibility stance. Johnson and Onwuegbuzie (2004) believe that the concept of mixed methods research will surpass qualitative and quantitative arguments in the future. However, with time, the authors perceive that the mixed methods approach will be centred on acknowledging the application of both paradigms. Pragmatism encourages a blend of mixed methodologies and models since it offers an effective and practical research philosophy (Tashakkori & Teddlie, 1998). Though the lack of epistemological rigour in mixed methods research has drawn numerous criticisms (Bryman, 1984; Giddings, 2006), there have also been significant assertions that its

epistemological origins are deeply rooted in classical pragmatism (Johnson & Onwuegbuzie, 2004).

The pragmatist philosophy served as a guide in understanding the institutional culture's role in work engagement. As a researcher investigating the influence of institutional culture on work engagement, I attached importance to what is held as knowledge within the world (Cooksey & McDonald, 2011) to the critical role of describing how we acquire the knowledge of something and how we come to know the truthfulness or reality. I was also concerned with the nature and form of knowledge, and how it is gained and communicated to others. It focuses on acquiring and understanding knowledge and extending, broadening and deepening understanding during research. In trying to understand nature, participants were asked for their subjective perspectives about the culture of their institutions and its impact on employees' work engagement in the institution.

4.3 RESEARCH APPROACH

An inquiry strategy provides general guidance on the process involved in a research design (Creswell, 2012) and Aderibigbe (2012) affirms that a research approach is a process through which research is conducted to determine a study's success.

Quantitative and Qualitative phases

The quantitative method is characterised by the researcher proposing a theory that is illustrated within a specific hypothesis, which is then tested. Following a series of observations and an analysis of data, conclusions are drawn with respect to this hypothesis (Rovai et al., 2014). Thus, quantitative research is viewed as a deductive research methodology (Rovai et al., 2014). The use of "mathematically based methodologies" (Aliaga & Gunderson, 2000; referenced in Muijs, 2011, p. 1), which concentrate on accumulating numerical data and applying it to groups of people, is a characteristic of this approach to study (Babbie, 2010). Quantitative research is utilised for quantification by producing numerical data or data sets that may be used for statistics. It is used to measure attitudes, beliefs, actions and other predetermined

factors so that the researcher can make generalisations about a larger sample size. The methods for gathering quantitative data are substantially more systematic than those for gathering qualitative data. Various types of surveys, questionnaires as well as a behavioural observation based on explicit coding and categorisation schemes, are all common quantitative approaches or groups “linked to a social or human problem” (Creswell, 2014b, p. 4).

Qualitative research involves deriving truth, meaning or purpose from the perceptions and experiences of participants. This approach values individuality, culture and social justice and is reflected in subjective content and contexts. Exploratory research is the most prevailing type of qualitative research and it is used to understand underlying causes, viewpoints and motivations for activities. Qualitative data can be obtained through semi-structured or unstructured methodologies such as individual interviews, group discussions and participation/observations. The sample size is usually limited because a small number of participants is selected to meet a given quota. This type of research provides a comprehensive understanding of the formulation of concepts or theories for possible quantitative studies.

The use of a mixed methods approach

The integration of qualitative and quantitative methods has become common in research in recent times (Bryman, 2006) as research often highlights the study's philosophical underpinnings. The research methods used are quantitative or qualitative, a blend of the quantitative and qualitative, and the specific methodology employed for the research. Quantitative and qualitative research variations are reflected when utilizing closed-ended questions (quantitative hypotheses) as opposed to open-ended questions (qualitative interview questions). Most data in quantitative research are collected statistically using research instruments, whereas qualitative data are more likely to emanate from observation of respondents, interviews or settings. Given this, it is suggested by Newman and Benz (1998) that quantitative and qualitative procedures should not be perceived as divergent, converse or definite but rather as different ends of a trajectory, with mixed methods, approach research in the middle because it is a blend of both quantitative and qualitative approaches.

Sechrest and Sidana (1995) discussed the benefits of methodological pluralism in providing support for monitoring data collection, estimation of potential measurement, verification and gaining a better understanding to uncover meaning. Integrating quantitative and qualitative research approaches allows for more testability and context within the same research. Blending the quantitative and qualitative approaches provides a wide range of coverage and paints a better understanding of the subject under study. Additionally, combining the two approaches reinforces conclusions through triangulation or the development of an explanation for divergent data (Trend, 1979; Kaplan & Duchon, 1988). This assertion is further founded on a pragmatic philosophy that acknowledges features of both quantitative and qualitative paradigms (Mays & Pope, 2000). Given this, quantitative and qualitative approaches are key for researchers to analyse and examine various facets of specific events. Thus, mixed methods provide a useful option that enables researchers to draw on the capabilities of quantitative and qualitative approaches and select the most effective for addressing their research questions.

I applied a mixed methods approach, which comprises QUAN → Qual, to triangulate the data and achieve varying perspectives on the data analysis (Johnson & Christensen, 2016, Cohen, Manion & Morrison, 2018, Cozby & Bates, 2018, Creswell & Creswell, 2018). Mixed methods as a design helps to attain the legitimacy of numerous validities (Onwuegbuzie & Johnson 2006; Johnson & Christensen 2017). It also ensures triangulation as it seeks correspondence, convergence and corroboration of results from varied data collection and analysis approaches. The approach serves the purpose of complementarity as it entails expansion, illustration, improvement and explanation of the outcome from one method with the results from another method. The use of the mixed methods approach gives further information on the development, sampling and implementation of measurement decisions as it guides the modification of questions or outcomes from different methods. Finally, the mixed methods approach outlines the scope of inquiry by using multiple methods for varying inquiry elements. Burke et al. (2005) assert that the underlying logic to combining the two designs is that neither quantitative nor qualitative methods are adequate to cover

the present situation's details. In addition, Johnson and Onwuegbuzie (2004, p. 17) indicated that the mixed methods approach involves the use of an induction process, which hinges on the unearthing of patterns. In contrast, the deduction process consists of a test of theories and hypotheses that uncovers and depends on the best descriptions for appreciating research outcomes.

The constituents of mixed methods are shown as *Quan* and *qual* (or QUAN and QUAL, with emphasis on preference), respectively, for quantitative and qualitative research. The plus (+) symbol denotes the concurrent execution of components, referred to as "paralleles Mixed Methods-Design" or parallel mixed methods design. Conversely, arrows (→) signify the sequential execution, termed "sequenzielle Durchführung der Teilstudien" or sequential mixed methods design, as commonly seen in mixed methods research (Morse, 1991). The QUAN and QUAL strands are executed successively in a temporal sequence in the sequential mixed methods approach. It is said to have evolved as the questions from the latter strand emerged from the initial strand. In this case, the research questions were interconnected and emanated. The sequential mixed methods emanate from the process of the research: QUAN → qual, deductive-sequential design, where the main element is quantitative and the supplementary component is qualitative. The sequential mixed methods approach identifies how distinct perspectives can be merged in one study to augment the strengths and cut back on each method's weaknesses. I analysed and interpreted the general data obtained by relating institutional culture to work engagement. The use of the sequential mixed methods helped to effectively contextualise instruments, measures or interventions. It also allowed me to explain the same phenomenon from different perspectives. The sequential mixed methods were considered the most suitable because it aided me in gathering trend data and personal views and understand the phenomenon. It also allowed me to confirm quantitative measures with qualitative experience and the subjectivity of the results.

Creswell (2006) offered four basic categories of mixed methods designs: triangulation, embedded, explanatory and exploratory. There seems to be a significant overlap of existing typologies due to the varying terminologies used for the classification.

Creswell (2013) further proposed a triad of methods for carrying out mixed methods research: the convergent parallel design, the exploratory sequential design and the explanatory sequential design. Accordingly, the convergent parallel design involves the simultaneous collection of both qualitative and quantitative data and are equally weighted. Subsequently, the research outcomes are, then, juxtaposed and integrated holistically (Bryman & Bell, 2015). This design is linked with triangulation exercises where both sets of findings and scenarios are compared to leverage the strengths of each research methodology and compensate for their respective limitations. The exploratory sequential design includes the collection of qualitative data first, followed by quantitative data. It is generally employed with the aim of establishing hypotheses or hunches that can subsequently be evaluated through quantitative research (Bryman & Bell, 2015). The explanatory sequential design entails the acquisition and analyses of quantitative data first, then the analyses of qualitative data follow to make better sense of and advance on the previous study's conclusions.

Taking note of the above, the explanatory sequential mixed methods approach was used in carrying out the research. The premise of this was that people perceive and experience the same phenomenon differently and assign different meanings. The opinions of heads of department may not necessarily be the same views expressed by other respondents because of different value systems. In the same way, respondents might have had different experiences because of their different educational backgrounds. The study utilised an explanatory sequential mixed methods approach (one of the approaches to mixed methods research) which is skewed towards quantitative analysis with qualitative approaches to back the quantitative assessment results (Creswell & Plano Clark (2007, p. 5). This research approach was used to examine the interrelation between institutional culture and work engagement. The research involved a qualitative follow-up phase and provided further explanation for the findings of the initial quantitative phase by examining and addressing the main objective of this study on how institutional culture influences employees' engagement in the workplace.

In the first stage, quantitative research questions or hypotheses were utilized to compare institutional culture and work engagement variables in selected public universities in Ghana. The results from this first phase were investigated further in a second qualitative phase to answer the research questions. In the second phase, qualitative interviews or observations were employed to probe the qualitative findings by exploring the central phenomenon with a small number of heads of department at the selected public universities in Ghana. The rationale for conducting a follow-up of the qualitative research in the second phase was to better understand the issues and further explain the quantitative results

For this research, two data collection instruments were employed: the questionnaire and the interview guide. Using a mixed methods design, quantitative and qualitative data were collected and analysed for this research (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2013). Data were analysed and interpreted by relating institutional culture to work engagement. The use of an explanatory sequential mixed methods approach to contextualise instruments, measures or interventions allowed for an explanation of the same phenomena from different perspectives. The explanatory sequential mixed methods approach was considered the most suitable because it aids in gathering trend data and personal views and understand the phenomenon. It also gave room to confirm quantitative measures with qualitative experience and the subjectivity of the results. I successfully gathered both strands of qualitative and quantitative data (November to January 2021) while giving each method equal weight. With the intent of combining both sets of data throughout the overall interpretation, the analysis of the two data sets was maintained separately. I checked both sets of data for convergence, inconsistencies and linkages.

4.4 RESEARCH DESIGN

The design for the research allows for the proper analysis of the data to answer the questions and sub-questions guiding the research and determining which institutional culture contributes to high employee engagement levels. The explanatory sequential mixed method design selected for this research is a bi-stage design where the

qualitative data aid in explaining or extending the original quantitative findings (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2007). In investigations where the researcher require qualitative findings to describe important, non-significant or unexpected quantitative results, this design is appropriate, according to Tashakkori & Teddlie (1998) and Morgan (1998). It is also a practical approach if the researcher aims to create groups based on quantitative findings and conduct qualitative research on those groups afterwards. Additionally, the method works better when the research issue is more quantitatively focused, the researcher has the time and resources to perform the study in two phases and the study generates new questions as a result of the quantitative results (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2011). According to Creswell et al. (2003), this design is also intended to discover quantitative participant characteristics that help guide sampling for the study's qualitative phase.

This design begins with the gathering and analysis of quantitative data, followed by a qualitative phase that grows out of and ties to the outcomes of the quantitative phase. Typically, this design strongly emphasises the quantitative, which Morse and Niehaus (2009) identify as the study's theoretical underpinning. The researcher selects the quantitative findings that require further investigation and uses these results to direct the qualitative phase (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2007). The explanatory sequential design offers several benefits, including a robust quantitative emphasis, a two-phase structure and a connection to emergent techniques where the second phase can be constructed in response to the results of the first phase (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2011). However, implementing the two-phase approach takes a lot of time since the researcher must choose which results to follow up on, decide on the selection criteria for participants, and make contact with individuals for a second round of data collection. Despite these limitations, the research study employed an explanatory sequential mixed methods design (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2011), which first entailed gathering quantitative data.

This study aimed at assessing and investigating how institutional culture affect employee engagement in selected public universities in Ghana. To learn more about the association between institutional culture and work engagement, the initial

quantitative phase used proven data collection methodologies. The study was founded on these quantitative data and the quantitative phase's data analysis revealed the nature of institutional culture and the degree of work engagement. In-depth interviews were further conducted to delve deeper into the outcome of the quantitative findings, using the data collected during this quantitative phase. This is because a purely quantitative method would not have provided sufficient insight into the nature of the current institutional culture and the level of engagement of employees. Quantitative measurements were also used to steer the in-depth qualitative study to explore the outcome (Neuman, 1997; Tashakkori & Teddlie, 2003b; Creswell & Plano Clark, 2007).

4.5 RESEARCH METHODS

4.5.1 Research Site

I conducted the study in two public universities in Ghana; one in the Wa District in the Upper West Region and the other in the Cape Coast District of the Central Region of Ghana. These regions are part of the sixteen regions of Ghana. The Wa West District is amongst the eleven districts in the Upper West Region. The district assembly is in the southern part of the Upper West Region with Wechiau as its new capital town.

Wa, located in the Upper West Region of Ghana, has a latitude of 10.060074 and a longitude of -2.509891. The coordinates of the location in the Upper West Region are 10° 3' 36.2664" N and 2° 30' 35.6076" W. The region experiences two major seasons, which are the dry and the rainy seasons. On average, in Ghana, the annual rainfall is 879 millimetres (34.6 in). These seasons occur between May and October, followed by a remarkable dry period known as the Harmattan, which comes with steady but dusty north winds from the Sahara. The hottest period of the year is February and March, with daytime temperatures of about 40°C (103°F).

Data were also collected from some respondents in the Cape Coast Metropolitan Area, one of the twenty-two districts in the Central Region, Ghana. The Cape Coast Metropolitan Assembly, initially created as a municipal assembly in 1988, was

upgraded to metropolitan status in February 2008 to become Cape Coast Metropolitan Area. The metropolis is located towards the southwest part of the Central Region and has Cape Coast as its capital town. The Cape Coast Metropolis is the regional capital of the Central Region. The Cape Coast Metropolitan Area is situated in the southern part of Ghana, and its border to the south is the Gulf of Guinea. The Abura/Asebu/Kwamankese District is positioned to the east of the Metropolitan Area, while the Komenda/Edina/Eguafo/Abirem Municipal District is located to its west. The Twifo/Heman/Lower Denkyira District lies to the north of the Metropolitan Area. The entire Metropolis spans over an area of 122 square kilometres, making it the smallest in the history of the country. Its geographic location can be determined by longitude $1^{\circ} 15'W$ and latitude $5^{\circ}06'N$. The elevation of the Cape Coast Metropolis is approximately 17 metres above sea level. The climate in this city is tropical, with an average annual temperature of $26.0^{\circ}C$ | $78.8^{\circ}F$. The average precipitation rate in the area is about 979 mm or 38.5 inches per year.

4.5.2 Sampling Procedures

A sample is a group chosen from a larger populace from whom information about the entire populace is gathered. According to Doody and Noonan (2013), sampling involves selecting a case that makes the researcher learn about a phenomenon. Thus, the preference for the respondents was grounded on their two years of minimum work experience and the ability to give reliable and accurate information about the phenomenon under study (Li & Titsworth, 2015).

A multistage sampling method or procedure was used for this study. Both non-probability and probability techniques were employed to generate the sample for this study. The convenience sampling procedure was adopted during the initial phase to select the universities. Many researchers have used this procedure and have found it prompt, uncomplicated and economical (Valerio et al., 2016). I selected two universities from the ten public universities in Ghana. One university was purposively selected from the northern and one university from the southern part of the country to account for geographical locational effects on the study results. The use of a purposive

sampling method involves the selection of a sample from which the researcher can learn (Osuala, 2007). The two purposively selected universities have characteristics representing all public universities in Ghana regarding conditions of service, rules and regulations, unions and associations, and governance structure.

During the next stage of the sampling procedure, the purposive sampling technique, a non-probability sampling method, was employed to select university employees who have served for two years or more and have adequate knowledge and appreciation of the critical issues of interest to the study. I also selected respondents based on their ability to give rich information with clear descriptions of their experiences. Purposive sampling enables one to discover, understand and gain insight into the sample selected for the research. Furthermore, the purposive sampling method enabled me to identify respondents for the qualitative data. At the final stage, I used cluster and simple random sampling methods to select the final sample across the various categories of employees in the university and the multiple departments. This sampling method was employed to ensure that results gathered from the sample were commensurate with what would have been obtained if the whole population had been measured (Shadish et al., 2002).

The research was limited to the institutional culture and work engagement levels in public universities; hence, these university employees were the target of interest. The accessible population was made up of employees in two selected public universities in Ghana in various categories, including senior members (teaching staff), senior members (non-teaching staff), senior staff and junior staff. The selection of the two public universities was based on the researcher's proximity to the study's location and the financial implications. Proximity and cost were considered due to their possible implications for the data that would be captured; this is because high costs in data collection could compromise the quality of data.

4.5.3 Sample Size

The employees who fell within the respondents' description for this research resulted in a population of five hundred and seventy within the two selected universities. Out of this total, a sample size of two hundred and thirty university employees was randomly selected for the research. One hundred and fifteen were males and one hundred and fifteen were females. The respondents' highest qualification in this category was doctorate degree, and the lowest qualification was Senior Secondary School Leaving Certificate. Two hundred completed the questionnaire for quantitative data analysis, and thirty respondents made up of heads of department, were interviewed for the analysis of the qualitative data. The saturation level was considered during the sample selection for the interview, which was used to generate the qualitative data. Saturation is widely accepted as a methodological rule normally applied during qualitative research. Some researchers regard saturation as a 'rule' (Denny 2009; Sparkes et al., 2011), or a 'directive' (Morse, 1995) of qualitative research which is presented in diverse overarching classifications in qualitative analysis (Leininger 1994; Sparkes et al., 2002).

In a broader sense, saturation is employed in a qualitative study as a basis for suspending the gathering and analysis of data. It indicates that data gathered or analysed previously may not necessarily need further collection and/or analysis of data. According to Ritchie and Lewis (2003), when no new knowledge is being added to the research, saturation is said to have been reached. The occurrence of a brief of data or a code, is all that is required for the analysis and to satisfy the research framework. Qualitative research gives meaning and is not necessarily used for making generalised hypothetical statements (Crouch & Mckenzie, 2006). Saturation refers to the point of data satisfaction, where the researcher reaches a stage where additional data gathering will no longer provide any new information. This point of saturation demonstrates that the data collected is sufficient for a comprehensive analysis or the data collection no longer provides additional or unique insights, and existing data is sufficient to address the research questions and objectives. Data saturation shows the

quantity and quality of the themes or information used in a qualitative research study (Guest et al., 2006, p. 59).

Saturation is said to be attained when there is comprehensive data to reproduce the research (O'Reilly & Parker, 2012; Walker, 2012). Marshall et al. (2013) and Guest et al. (2006) further define saturation as the level at which the gathering of new qualitative data does not change or comes with a slight change. When a further collection of data yields similar results and serves to confirm themes and conclusions, the point of saturation in qualitative research is said to have been achieved (Faulkner & Trotter, 2017). Saturation in qualitative research is linked with the point at which sufficient data have been gathered to answer research questions. When there are no differing views, new perspectives or explanations to the concept under review, saturation is said to have occurred. Data saturation is often used as a criterion to determine the adequacy of sample size in qualitative research.

Some researchers have proposed guidelines for qualitative sample sizes in view of this. Charmaz (2006) believes that 25 respondents are suitable for smaller research. According to Ritchie et al. (2003) qualitative samples, which are often below 50, are most appropriate. Green and Thurgood (2009) assert that the experience of most qualitative researchers is that interviews data generated after interviewing about 20 respondents, is normally repetitive. Bernard (2012) opines that the number of interviews to be sampled to attain saturation for a qualitative study cannot be quantified, but that the researcher takes what is available, predisposed to adopting the approach, 'the more interviews, the more scientific' (Kvale, 1996).

It can be said that saturation should be applied as it is in coherence with the questions guiding the research, the theoretical position of the researcher and the framework for analysis. However, a limit should be set in order not to reduce the probability of the saturation losing its consistency. Strauss and Corbin (1990) suggest that as the analysis progresses, it is essential for the researcher to maintain the discipline to cut data where necessary. Brod et al. (2009) recommend the construction of a 'saturation grid' with the major topics or research questions listed against interviews or other

sources, which ensures that all bases have been captured. Fusch and Ness (2015, p. 1408) indicate that “the inability to attain saturation in qualitative research influences the quality of the research”. It was further opined that qualitative research is labour-intensive; thus, the analysis of a large sample can consume time. In view of this, I considered the point of saturation as selecting respondents for the interview since research data saturation can be attained through interviews. Moreover, saturation as a concept is associated with the number of interviews conducted in qualitative research (Guest et al., 2006). Therefore, interview questions should be structured so that respondents answer the same questions; otherwise, data saturation will not be achieved (Guest et al., 2006). Finally, the saturation point determines the sample size, mostly in qualitative research. The sample was deemed appropriate in this study because the needed data were acquired from the selected sample. Any additions could have generated the same information.

4.6 METHODS OF DATA COLLECTION

Data collection is the method of acquiring information to answer research questions. In this research, both quantitative and qualitative methods were employed to source data to address the key objectives of the study. The qualitative approach was utilized to gather qualitative data, primarily to support the quantitative data analysis and results. I found it necessary to use multiple methods to collect the data, complement the findings and validate the research results. I adopted a triangulation approach to ensure enhanced and richer data, leading to quality findings. According to Mukherji and Albon (2022), triangulation in research uses multiple sources and methods to augment the research findings' validity. For this study, three main methods were adopted to collect the required analysis, including survey, interviews and content analysis. These instruments were the questionnaire and the semi-structured interview guide to elicit responses based on the stated objectives and hypothesis. The survey method involved administering both open-ended and closed-ended questions in a questionnaire to respondents.

4.6.1 Questionnaire

This study investigated the role institutional culture plays in engaging employees at the workplace. The research findings are expected to guide public managers of universities in understanding the correlation between institutional culture and work engagement. This study used a structured questionnaire designed by me with both open and close-ended questions to elicit responses for the quantitative analysis to answer the research questions. The questionnaire was distributed via a link generated through the Qualtrics survey to senior members, senior staff and junior staff. The questionnaire was submitted to the researcher within two weeks of receiving the link.

McLeod (2018) defines a questionnaire as a research instrument made up of a series of questions to collect statistically useful primary data from respondents on a given topic. Questionnaires can be described as a kind of written interview. Questionnaires are effective ways of measuring opinions, attitudes, behaviours, preferences and intentions and are helpful for relatively large populations when interviews would have been impractical. Roopa and Menta Satya (2012) opined that questionnaires are mostly used during quantitative social and marketing research. Hence, when properly fashioned and carefully administered, it tends to be an important instrument for making statements about specific groups of people or a whole population. The careful construction of questionnaires is key to a survey's success. Asking the appropriate questions, ordering questions correctly, scaling the questionnaire accurately and having a suitable questionnaire format can give an accurate survey result, as it may reflect the opinions and viewpoints of respondents. A pretest is an essential method for checking and making sure that a questionnaire accurately elicits the intended information. DeVaus (1996) suggests that with this technique, various respondents could be invited to answer the same set of questions.

Most questionnaires have both closed and open questions. A questionnaire can be inductive to propound a new theory, using open-ended questions to investigate a construct (Gill & Johnson 2001) or a deductive approach by testing existing theory. By using the questionnaire, the researcher can employ either an inductive or a deductive

approach or a combination of the two. This is beneficial because both quantitative and qualitative data can be obtained. Questionnaires can be administered via telephone or face-to-face by handing them out directly to the potential respondents. The questionnaire can be distributed by mail to the target groups so that it can be completed at their convenience (Gilbert, 2001). Email can sometimes be a cheaper form of delivery. According to Gilbert (2001), a questionnaire can be distributed to the target group through mail so that they can complete it at their convenience. Alternatively, an email can sometimes be a cheaper mode of delivery

I adopted the questionnaire as a research instrument because it gives room for the researcher to collect a significant amount of data at a relatively lower cost compared to conducting interviews. The questionnaire was also considered suitable for this study because it is quicker, and a large amount of data can be gleaned from a widely dispersed sample or population. The questionnaire also gave respondents ample time to think before answering questions, and there is no bias as opposed to interviews because the questionnaire was completed in the absence of the researcher. The questionnaire also allowed me to either gather data to describe various phenomena or ascertain the cause-and-effect associations between numerous constructs (Gilbert, 2001). Furthermore, the questionnaire granted me the opportunity to identify statistically significant trends and differences. Administering the questionnaire through Qualtrics ensured anonymity of the respondents as they gained confidence that they would not be identified for giving out specific opinions or viewpoints. According to Kumejpor (2002), a carefully constructed questionnaire provides a composite and general overview of the institution's existing culture and the employees' perceptions of institutional culture's impact on work engagement.

However, there are some challenges associated with the use of the questionnaire. One challenge is the layout of the instrument itself. Fixed-choice questionnaires are designed to assume that respondents have a fair idea about the variables being examined. However, respondents are sometimes forced to answer questions for which they have little or no knowledge about. Sometimes respondents may have a different understanding of the variables based on culture, age, level of education, personal

perception or societal status (Hyman, 1955). A questionnaire that is not generally designed to correct this, may lead to a slightly biased, at best or misleading, outcome.

Another limitation of questionnaires administered via post or by electronic mail, is the low rate of response (Bell, 1999). Gilbert (2001) asserts that the response rate for postal questionnaires can be pegged at twenty percent (20%). Sometimes, inaccurate and incomplete questionnaires can inevitably affect the quality of the data obtained and reduce the number of useful questionnaires. Respondents may lie when responding to questionnaires due to social desirability. This is because most respondents want to present a positive image of themselves and their situations. It is, however, believed that a well-designed questionnaire will stimulate respondents to give correct and precise information. Correspondingly with the use of the questionnaires, researchers do not have the opportunity to follow up and clarify information.

While discussing the limitations associated with questionnaires, Saunders et. al. (2001) noted that the expected results might highlight trends or specific characteristics, for example, but will not further explain fundamental reasons for the results. It then suggests that the researcher could combine a questionnaire with, for example, interviews to corroborate the outcome. Saunders et al. (2001) opine that those questionnaires are not entirely appropriate for research and require many open-ended questions. It was further suggested that a semi-structured interview might be an additional technique to employ. These notwithstanding, when consideration is given to all questionnaire characteristics, from design to the selection of the suitable target group, valuable and reliable data are obtained (Bell, 1999). A questionnaire is undoubtedly the most flexible instrument used for collecting both quantitative and qualitative data.

The questionnaire covered four sections:

Section A requested information on the biographical data of respondents.

Section B elicited details on the existing institutional culture.

Section C covered items on work engagement in the selected institutions.

Section D requested information on an ideal culture that engages employees in their work.

4.6.2 Interview Guide

In order to enable the researcher to obtain in-depth answers to research questions that could not be gathered primarily through questionnaires (Patton, 2002; Gill et al., 2008; Teegavarapu et al., 2008; King & Horrocks, 2010), a semi-structured interview guide made up of eighteen (18) questions was developed. The semi-structured interviews focused on pre-determined key questions investigating the role of institutional culture in work engagement and were administered to different probe responses where necessary (Gibson et al., 2013). Tong, Sainsbury and Craig (2007) state that a semi-structured interview is used to elicit the views and experiences of respondents and the meaning attached to them. The advantage of using an interview guide is also to eliminate non-response rates. Interviews also help identify some of the critical elements that should be included in the survey. A semi-structured face-to-face interview with the respondents was used to elicit qualitative data in line with this. This also allowed me to obtain first-hand information by probing deeper into participants' perceptions, opinions, sentiments, emotional states and views regarding the research subject and experiences on the effect of institutional culture on their work engagement level.

Understanding the experiences and opinions of university employees on existing institutional culture and how it influences engagement at work, required using an instrument for data collection that allows the voices of employees in public universities in Ghana to be heard. This assertion is consistent with Kvale (2014) claiming that 'If you want to know how people understand their lives, why not ask them?' Hence, if a researcher wants to hear and understand an individual, provision must be made to hear a genuine voice. This strategy mirrors the endeavour and demands of using semi-structured interviews as a data collection instrument. The semi-structured interviews contained pre-determined questions on the concepts under study; however, provision was made to probe different responses when needed (Gibson et al., 2013). Again,

according to Gill et al. (2008) and Tong et al. (2007), semi-structured interviews explore participants' views, experience and the meaning attached to them. In this study, the semi-structured interview schedule captured questions as Appendix D shows.

According to McCracken (1988 cited in Asante, 2017), the significance of a literature review is to help develop questions to be used during the interview; hence, the interview questions were drawn from the literature and the research questions. The interview questions were piloted in a comparable university in the northern part of Ghana, using ten respondents. The pilot and main interview processes were preceded by critical issues such as the purpose of the study, duration of the interview process, the format of the interview, terms of confidentiality and permission to audio record the interviews. The participants also needed to be given the freedom and right to participate, ask questions and conduct a follow-up interview. The same questions were administered to the participants to make coding and tabulation easier.

Polkinghorne (2005) defined qualitative research as linguistic, meaning-based, naturalistic and understanding the phenomena under study. From Yin's point of view (2013), a qualitative interview could usually be carried out in a naturalistic, private and comfortable setting. Patton (2014) stressed that meeting participants in their natural environment is key to making them comfortable and willing to share their experiences. With these factors in mind, the researcher arranged suitable venues to conduct the interviews openly and conversationally to allow interviewees free expression during the pilot and primary interviews. The participants suggested convenient times after school hours within the time frame of 40 to 60 minutes for their interviews, as agreed on in the consent form. Hence, the interview session allowed probing responses, eliciting further details and clarifying questions where and when necessary. The interview session allowed me to identify instances of sarcasm from the tone of voice and facial expressions of respondents, tiredness in participants through their body language and satisfaction.

The interviews were audio-recorded to avoid losing vital responses and were noted in a field notebook for later interpretation. These were done with the express permission of respondents, as stated in the letter of consent. As Bryman and Bell (2015) suggested, field notes are vital as they preserve some information that may be forgotten or distorted in data collection. The researcher kept a field notebook to write participants' responses, for instance where audio recording may be lost or equipment failed. The field notes were noted in cases where respondents were uncomfortable with audio recordings. Each participant's interview lasted approximately 40 to 60 minutes and all interviews were saved on an external hard drive as a backup. Verbatim transcription started immediately after the recording of each interview.

Pseudonyms were also assigned to interviewees to protect their anonymity in the study. After transcribing the recordings, the interviewees discussed the transcripts to ensure a candid rendition of the facts presented during the interview. Valuable lessons were brought together from the data collected through the instrument's use despite the challenges associated with its use, as actual interviews sometimes did not turn out as planned. Additionally, a few appointments did not occur as scheduled and stipulated. Some participants were late or did not show up at the designated place, so arrangements were made for a different location. Albeit quite frustrating, this did not interrupt the interview process, as the interviewees were willing to be interviewed. The interviews with the departmental heads provided more detailed, rich information on the institution's culture, and were structured to engage employees in their daily work activities.

Data on respondents' detailed perceptions, which would not have been possible using only the questionnaire for the data collection, were explored through the interviews. Responses to the interview informed the researcher about the effect of institutional culture on employees' work engagement in public universities in Ghana. The researcher referred to the transcripts from interviews during the process of analysis.

4.7 PILOT TEST

A pilot test, which is a miniature version of the extensive research or an essay, is carried out in preparation for the full research. It involves the specific pre-testing of research instruments, including the interview guide and questionnaire (Van Teijlingen & Hundley, 2002:1; Polit et al., 2001). A pilot test entails a trial of all the research techniques and methods to assess how well they will work in practice. Pilot testing is defined as an aspect of the research study in order to test the approaches to the research with a smaller number of respondents before carrying out the primary research.

There are several benefits associated with pilot tests. A pilot test is carried out to determine the research's feasibility. It is significant because it improves the principal research's standard and efficacy, increase the researcher's experience with the research methods and gives the estimation for calculating the sample size (Junyong, 2017). It provides an advance warning about where the primary research will likely fail as it shows where research protocols have not been applied. A pilot test can also bring to bear the actual problems associated with the research procedure. Pilot tests are also commonly conducted to evaluate the effectiveness of the research instruments designed for the study. Pilot tests enable the researcher to detect possible shortcomings in the measurement procedures, including instructions and duration. It further shows the appropriateness of proposed methods or instruments. It is essential for determining the clarity or ambiguity of items in a questionnaire. Additionally, the telepathic characteristics of respondents in the pilot test give an indication of any awkwardness or displeasure that comes with the content or wording of items in an instrument. A pilot test is comprehensively conducted, using a sample cross-section to ensure that the survey process is carried out smoothly. This is also carried out to ensure that data coding and analysis can be efficiently done. A general principle is to pilot test the survey using 30 to 100 respondents, although this number may depend on the number of respondents selected for the entire research (Courtenay, 1978).

During the pilot test, I tested the instruments using 30 respondents in comparable public universities in Ghana. The questionnaire, especially, was tested for reliability, using Cronbach alpha. This common principle indicates that the coefficient should be above 0.70 to reflect good internal consistency. The result of the test of reliability for this research was 0.90. Once pilot testing was complete, final revisions to the instrument were carried out. In addition to this, the interview guide which consists of 18 open-ended questions was piloted with eight participants to assess the effectiveness of the instrument. Audio data was recorded to check for transferability and the dependability amongst others, of the interview guide.

The pilot test helped me to identify the potential problems throughout the entire survey procedure and assessed whether the project was feasible, realistic and rational throughout. Before administering the full-scale research, the pilot test assisted in addressing several issues that might have hindered the success. The pilot test informed and prepared me to face the challenges that arose from the main research. The pilot test helped to identify and address the weaknesses associated with the instruments. As a result, the confidence in the research instruments for data collection was heightened. A pilot study that is conducted carefully increases the quality of the research, as results from such inform the researcher on aspects of the study for further research (Malmquist et al., 2019).

4.8 STANDARDS FOR THE EVALUATION OF QUANTITATIVE AND QUALITATIVE METHODS

Sinkovics et al. (2008) consider the validity, reliability, objectivity and generalisability as basic standards for evaluating quantitative methods. Some, however, argue that the role of these standards is blurred when using qualitative methods. It has been suggested that trustworthiness, which encompasses issues such as credibility, dependability, transferability and confirmability, could be used to evaluate the instruments for qualitative methods. Since a mixed methods approach was used for this research, both the quantitative and qualitative standards for assessment were employed for this research. As a result, terms such as *credibility*, *dependability*,

confirmability and *transferability* thus substitute the conventional positivist criteria of internal and external validity, objectivity and reliability. Denzin and Lincoln (2005) suggest that adhering to these standards is particularly beneficial in understanding the fundamental problems.

4.8.1 Standards for the Evaluation of Quantitative Methods Validity

Validity, in broad terms, is defined as “the extent to which the test measures what it was required to measure” (John, 2015, p. 68). It refers to the lawfulness of the research being proposed. Validity should be considered in the very earliest stages of research when a decision is taken on the data collection methods. John (2015) asserts that validity is centred on the existence of a sound association between the purpose and the design of the study, which is justified by the choice of test measures for the variables. Procedures of validity include checking the accuracy and trustworthiness of the findings by utilizing varied methods (Andriopoulos & Slater, 2013). The extent to which the results really measure what they are required to measure forms the basis for ensuring the validity of the instruments. In other words, the validity of the instruments can be ascertained by checking how well the results correspond to established theories and other measures of the same construct. A valid measurement is generally accurate, reliable and reproducible. When evaluating a research instrument, it is essential to address relevant questions such as: What does the instrument mean? What is the instrument measuring, and how and why does it function as it does? (Delpont, 2002, p. 167). Another critical question to consider is how effectively the instrument measures what is required to measure (Delpont, 2002, p. 167).

Validity in quantitative research is two-fold: internal and external (Willis, 2005). Internal and external validity are conditional methodological requirements for every research (Smaling, 1992). Internal validity shows the legitimacy of the results as it reveals whether the study results can be replicated (Willis, 2005). Internal validity addresses the effects of experimental and quasi-experimental research that are irrelevant to the study. Internal validity is hinged on a causal association between the treatment and

the dependent variable of interest. In this case, the observed changes should be as a result of the experiment carried out and the variables should not be influenced by any external factors. Strategies such as prolonged contact, member checks, triangulation and saturation can be used to ensure internal validity. External validity is focused on the generalisability of the study's findings, as Tsang (2014) indicated. It focuses on repeatability in future studies and other contexts, target population or research fields.

Given this, the validity shows the transferability of the study results to other groups of interest (Last, 2001). The external validity can be increased by the use of a sampling method such as random selection, non-reactive measures, heterogeneous groups, the use of precise description to give room for the replication of the study across the board (Sekaran & Bougie, 2010). Since data triangulation is one method of checking the validity of research, I used varying methods of data collection to triangulate the results. This is a strategy for performing further checks and balances on the procedure and the results. The validity of this current study was established by the assessment of the level at which the items reflect meaning by using employees in a comparable university. Following this, statements identified as inaccurate were reworded. I also validated the instrument by examining the questionnaire (McMillan & Schumacher, 2010). With the assistance of the supervisors, items pinpointed as incorrect were eliminated from the instrument.

Reliability

Reliability testing in research is paramount to establish a standard for the research (Kapoulas & Mitic, 2012). Reliability should be considered throughout the data collection process. It involves the use of a data collection technique to achieve the same result on other occasions (Saunders et al., 2012). Reliability is also defined as the basic level for the determination of the standard of research design (Yin, 2014). The reliability of the research encompasses characteristics such as similarity, consistency and dependability of the research correlated to other homogenous researches (Bekhet & Zauszniewski, 2012; Radcliffe, 2013) to ensure the correctness of data from actualisation of the research to the reporting of the results (Bekhet & Zauszniewski, 2012).

Yin (2014) shows how similar studies come up with the same results by using the same data and repeating the indistinguishable processes during a reliability test. Hence, reliability is attained when similar observations are made over time by using the same instrument and sense can be made out of the data (Saunders, 2003). An instrument cannot simply measure accuracy if it does not consistently produce similar results. The essence of testing for reliability is to decrease bias in the research. John (2015) describes reliability as the accuracy of measurement, determined by the likeliness of additional or repeated testing with the same results and outcomes. Reliability, however, does not evaluate the design but results of the study. In quantitative research, reliability is tested by using test-retest reliability, split-half reliability and internal consistency (Pallant, 2005).

For this research, the coefficient alpha (also known as Cronbach alpha) was used for the testing of the reliability of the questionnaire. A self-developed questionnaire was used to assess institutional culture and work engagement, which enhances the possibility of collecting reliable data quantitatively. This questionnaire was pre-tested to ensure that the respondents would truly understand the statements. During the analysis phase of the pilot test, I had garnered in-depth understanding of the research procedures, which maximised the reliability and trustworthiness of the research (Kapoulas & Mitic, 2012; Brewis, 2014) by having checked for possible errors in the transcripts by comparing them to the data for clarification and to avoid possible misconstruction. The researcher further documented research procedures properly and took steps to ensure the reliability of the study. The self-developed questionnaire was tested for reliability, using Cronbach alpha which is a general concept that indicates that the coefficient of an instrument should at least be above 0.70 to reflect a good internal consistency. The result of the test of reliability for this research was 0.90. Once pilot testing was complete, all items were retained since the elimination of any of the variables could not increase the Cronbach alpha value. The questions were found to be reliable and final revisions were carried out in preparation for the full administration of the instrument.

Objectivity

Objectivity is an essential condition for good research. From the literature reviewed, objectivity is referred to as knowledge that is reliable, checked, controlled and free from personal bias, interpretations and predispositions (Kvale, 1996, p. 64). This definition implies that systematically verifying data can lead to the achievement of objectivity. To achieve objectivity comes with the preparedness and the potential to scrutinise evidence without emotions. Objectivity can imply “doing justice” to the subject of investigation (Smaling, 1992, p. 307). By being objective, different observers obtain the same information by testing and reproducing the same phenomena. Although one observation cannot be replicated, different observers may come up with similar data from the respondents when the procedure is repeated (Kvale, 1996, p. 65 in Green, 2005). In establishing objectivity in research, gaining trust and establishing rapport are usually used to produce legitimate and accurate descriptions (Babbie & Mouton, 2001, p. 273). During the data-gathering phase, the researcher was respectful towards the respondents, and did not distort the measurement of the instruments in any way. Respondents were also given the opportunity to express themselves freely without interruption.

4.8.2 Standards for the Evaluation of Qualitative Methods Credibility

A researcher can convince others that the study results are essential due to the credibility of the instruments used. Credibility stamps the ‘fit’ between the views of participants and the researcher’s stance on them (Tobin & Begley, 2004). Credibility is about honesty, depth and scope, the richness of the data, and the objectivity of the research (Bryman, 2015). According to Greenwood and Levin (1998:114), knowledge should be credible not only to the group generating it but also for the outside world. Hence, the process of communication is key to the sustenance of credibility. As the researcher, I was transparent and genuine in the data collection process (Henning, 2004). Lincoln and Guba (1985) pointed out some strategies to achieve credibility. These include activities such as longer periods of engagement, consistent observation of participants, data collection and triangulation. Peer debriefing is also recommended for external checks on the research process.

The study was geared towards producing rational findings that would add to the body of scientific knowledge and reflect the trustworthiness of this research. The appropriate methods and instruments that would yield valid results were selected for this study. Again, I applied various strategies throughout the research process to ensure the study's trustworthiness and credibility. I established a long relationship with the respondents to cross-check multiple issues. Interview periods were utilised to enable participants to reveal sensitive information that could have been lost during the questionnaire administration phase. The interviews were audio-taped and the transcriptions were discussed with the participants to ensure credibility. The viewpoints of participants were compared with the literature. The data collection process was also spread over two months (November 2020 to January 2021). The two-month data collection period allowed the researcher to follow up on respondents to seek crucial and sensitive information. However, this was geared towards achieving data saturation, which could not have been provided during a brief data collection period.

Transferability

Transferability in qualitative research is similar to external validity in quantitative research, according to Lincoln and Guba (1985). Transferability lies in the level at which the findings obtained from qualitative research can be generalised to other participants or contexts. Transferability is attained by providing evidence such that the research results could be applicable to other populations, seasons and contexts. Researchers may not be aware of the contexts for future transferability, and it is then the responsibility of the researcher to give detailed descriptions for others who would want to transfer the findings to their study to decide (Lincoln & Guba, 1985). It is not the task of the researcher to make provision for an index of transferability. Still, it is the responsibility of the researcher to provide the database that makes transferability of judgements possible for potential researchers.

Transferability refers to the generalisability of inquiry to other concepts. Taken together, the concepts apply to case-to-case transfers in qualitative research, as noted by Tobin and Begley (2004). The outcome of any type of research method can be

applied to different contexts, but transferability is applicable to qualitative research methods such as case studies and ethnographies. Findings from these are detailed and specific but because it involves a single subject or one group, researchers who conduct such studies seldom generalise the findings to other populations. The detailed and specific outcomes make them ideal for transferability to other contexts or cases.

To illustrate the association between institutional culture and work engagement at selected public universities in Ghana, I presented a comprehensive description of the research context, including the sample selection process.

Dependability

Dependability is achieved when the research process is rational, identifiable and verifiable (Tobin & Begley, 2004) and when the research process is examinable and consistent (Lincoln & Guba, 1985). Auditing is one method of assessing the dependability of research (Koch, 1994) as is the consistency of results over time. Dependability involves the evaluation and interpretation of the findings from participants. Dependability is also reflected in the study's recommendations which are supported by the data as gathered from participants for the research.

A clear method was used so that if a similar study were conducted, it would yield similar findings. The data instruments were piloted and reviewed by the supervisors and employees in a comparable university to guard against prejudices and sentiments that would interfere with the views of participants. I collected data by audio recording, which gave room for independent audits, and full transcripts of interviews were analysed. The data analysis process for the interview data adhered to the established standards for the design selected for this study. Additionally, comprehensive notes on decisions taken throughout the research process, reflective thoughts, sampling, research materials chosen, findings and information about the data management were documented, and also serving as a guide to the analysis of qualitative data. This further enables the auditor to study the degree of transparency of the research path.

Confirmability

Confirmability is the level at which other researchers could confirm research findings. It serves as proof that the data and interpretations of the results are not the fabrications of the researcher. The qualitative alternative to objectivity is 'confirmability', which pertains to the extent to which the findings corroborate the research focus and are bias-free (Babbie & Mouton, 2001, p. 278; De Vos, 2002, p. 352). In this case, the interpretation of the findings should not be based on personal preferences of the researcher but rather grounded in the data and the process of analysis. I used a full transcript of the interviews for the analysis, using the words that were recorded. Cohen et al. (2007) assert that validity is achieved in qualitative methods by honesty and by detailing a rich and wider scope of data from multiple data tools and sources. The interviews were audio recorded and independent auditors were employed to maintain confirmability throughout the study. Lincoln and Guba (1985, p. 290) are of the view that the evaluation of the study should be based on the raw data; hence, raw data, findings, analysis, interpretations and recommendations were examined thoroughly in this study.

Reflexivity

Lincoln and Guba (1985) describe reflexivity as the process by which a researcher critically self-reflects on their own preferences, preconceptions, bias and how the research relationships influence the answers of the participant. It is also defined as the ability of the researcher to give a critical self-account of the research process, including their internal and external dialogue (Tobin & Begley, 2004). Self-awareness and preconceived assumptions of the researcher in the process of data collection, analysis and interpretation of data are key to qualitative research. Researchers maintain a reflexive journal to document the daily logistics of the research, methodological decisions and rationale to reduce possible bias. It is essential to note that the researcher's reflections on values, insights, interests and information about self should also be recorded as the self is the human interest (Lincoln & Guba, 1985). Moreover, reflexive notes also include the subjective responses to the setting and the researcher's interactions with the interviewees should also be documented.

To ensure reflexivity, documents, beliefs, framework and theories underlying the approach to the problem were documented at the beginning of the data collection. Interviews and analytical data were used in this study to supplement the researcher's reflexive notes. In the study on the relationship between institutional culture and work engagement, the reflexive notes for the interviews described the setting and aspects of the interviews that were noteworthy during the transcription and analysis of the data from the audio recording.

4.9 TRIANGULATION

Triangulation is another critical approach used to increase credibility and to give multiple perspectives on the concepts under study. It was initially established in qualitative research in the 1950s as a measure for curtailing possible bias emanating from using a single method. Triangulation is mainly linked with research methods and designs. The basic characteristic of triangulation is a methodological multiplicity that gives a broader viewpoint than those offered by mono method designs (Johnson et al., 2007). There are numerous means and kinds of triangulating information. These are triangulation of data methods and data sources (Guion et al., 2011; Weyers, Strydom, & Huisamen, 2014; Hussein, 2015). These may involve the use of several methods for data collection, theories or investigators. There are various means of triangulating information. While research successfully makes use of one method, a combination of varying methods is an approach defined as triangulation (Flick, 2002; Denzin, 2006).

In addition, triangulation is one of the strategies for addressing concerns of reliability, validity, trustworthiness and confirmability amongst others. Triangulation is a means of using diverse sources of data (data triangulation), methods (methodological triangulation), participants or sites in the research to uncover multiple perspectives thereby eliminating potential bias associated with relying on a single method (Jick, 1979; Grix, 2001; Bryman, 2008; Yin, 2011; Gray, 2014). It mainly defines the combination of several research techniques in the study of the same phenomenon. It is a method that facilitates the validation of data through verification from two or more

sources. Triangulation is basically employed during qualitative research, but it is also commonly used in quantitative research and mixed methods research. It is further described as a procedure for employing more than one method, theory, researcher and data collection techniques to generalise research findings (Honorene, 2017).

As Mason (2002) stated, the reason for triangulation is to validate a source and a method with another and to improve the standard of the data. Using multiple research techniques helps to explain the data generated from research and gives an in-depth understanding of a research problem than either technique alone. It enriches research by presenting various data to explain different dimensions of a phenomenon under study. It helps in countering data that invalidates an opinion shared by another. Triangulations serve as confirmation to the suggested findings by using two or more independent measures or hypotheses. This technique is used to ascertain the accuracy of data and is mainly used as it increases confidence in the findings because a blend of the findings from two or more accurate methods presents a clear picture of the results in comparison to a single method.

Triangulation is used by the researcher to increase the validity and credibility of the research outcomes and its use ensured that the fundamental bias arising from the use of a single method, or a single observer are overcome (Noble & Heale, 2019), as it increases the rate of certainty and brings neutrality. As a result, numerous methods for collecting data such as questionnaires, semi-structured interviews and document analysis were used in this research.

Yin (2011, p. 88) suggests that researchers should choose various categories of respondents, including those who the researcher feels might hold conflicting views, to ensure fairness and to reaffirm the researcher's hypotheses. Consequently, different data sources were used to assess response similarities and pinpoint potential areas of divergence. The research findings were founded on the responses elicited from the questionnaire, semi-structured interview and document analysis. This approach enabled me to investigate the concepts from different angles. Moreover, different categories of employees in public universities in Ghana were used. They involved

senior members (teaching), senior members (non-teaching), senior staff and junior staff. Triangulation was employed to unearth the varied perspectives on the phenomenon under study.

The research validity determines whether the study findings are trustworthy by utilising various strategies such as triangulation, thick description, negative or discrepant information, member checking, external auditing and peer debriefing (Creswell, 2014a). Member checking was conducted in this study by correcting factual errors and strengthening data transferability (Creswell, 2012). To ensure transparency and trustworthiness, direct quotations that are exact words from the individual transcripts were included in the data analysis procedure to support the research themes. In addition, the overall research methods and findings were shared with colleagues and experts in mentoring and critical comment capability.

Triangulation is critical to ensuring the precision of research outcomes, increasing the credibility and dependability of the research (Azulai & Rankin, 2012; Kapoulas & Mitic, 2012). The neutrality and conformability prevent data bias that may occur during data gathering. I employed a semi-structured interview and a self-designed questionnaire with both closed and open-ended questions and followed interview protocol to ensure confirmability to conduct in-depth research into the topic (Tsang, 2014).

4.10 DOCUMENT ANALYSIS

Morgan (2022) asserts that document analysis has been underutilised in qualitative research as this method is valuable for several reasons. Yin (2012) confirms that documentary information is indispensable to research and must be carefully incorporated into the data collection process. It is argued that documents are an essential source of data triangulation when a particular set of research methods are employed (Patton, 2015). Document analysis is defined as a structured process for scrutinising both printed and electronic documents. Just like any method of review, examination and interpretation are required to make meaning, understand and develop empirical knowledge (Fischer, 2006). The approach a researcher uses when

conducting document analysis depends on their conceptions of knowledge (Paul, 2007). According to Rapley (2018), documents can be pre-existing or made especially for analysis. As they all shed light on people's opinions, using pre-existing data from documents is similar to using data from observations and interviews. This is due to the fact that resources like books and articles exhibit the perspectives of people in a manner that is similar to interviews and observations (Merriam & Tisdell, 2016).

Document analysis was also employed to collect data for this study and information gathered through this procedure was used to triangulate the data collected through the already mentioned procedures. Some documents were readily available in the public domain; some were obtained after seeking permission (Wellington, 2000 in Aderibigbe, 2017). Such information can be used to triangulate data collected through other primary sources such as interviews (Wellington, 2000; Creswell, 2013). Thus, content analysis is one document review method that supplements different data collection methods (Curry et al., 2009).

Document analysis is often done by blending it with other qualitative research methods (Denzin, 2017). It is further believed that document analysis entails scrutiny of a wide range of materials which includes visual sources, such as films, videos and photographs (Merriam & Tisdell, 2016). It also consists of an analysis of various documents such as institutional reports, books, academic journals and newspapers. Any document containing texts or visual materials can be used for qualitative research (Flick, 2018). However, there are other sources, such as interviews, non-participant and participant observation and physical artefacts. In order to increase the credibility of the document review process, there is a need to support the evidence and analysis with multiple sources, as suggested by Patton (1990).

According to Rapley (2007), the use of triangulation in document analysis further decreases bias that can exist in a single study. Morgan (2022) corroborates this notion that when document analysis is employed, it gives room for the completion of the conduct of research that otherwise may not have been completed because it sometimes cuts out the use of fieldwork, video conferencing and the unskilful use of

technology. Relevant and available documents from the institutions that served as additional sources were used to verify respondents' views.

In this study, the documents reviewed provided information such as the statutes of the university, strategic plan, scheme of service, rules and regulations of the universities and conditions of service, employees' guidelines, code of conduct for employees, terms of reference for employees, channels of communication, mission and vision of the universities and university policies amongst others. Following the methodology, institutional documents for the selected public universities were analysed to ascertain the degree of alignment with the tenets of building a positive institutional culture and maintaining a high level of work engagement. Again, all assessments were endorsed by explanations and quotations from the documents in order to present an auditable rationale for assessments. Issues that were of relevance to the study were interpreted, using terms of emerging themes. The principal aim of this research was to investigate the association between institutional culture and work engagement. The documents used were institutional documents that emphasise institutional culture as crucial to developing public university engagement in this study. Document analysis was deemed necessary for this research in order for the researcher to be able to compare responses given with existing institutional documents and provide ideas from different perspectives used for the discussion. The review of documents was done before and after the interviews and administration of the questionnaire which helped appreciate the documents' contents.

4.11 DATA ANALYSIS

Smeeton (2003) believes that data analysis consists of comprehensively administering statistical and logical techniques to describe, illustrate and evaluate data. It has been shown by Shamoo and Resnik (2003) that varying processes for data analysis offers a way of drawing inductive inferences from data so that it can be used to distinguish between phenomenon of interest in the data. The approach to the analysis is established by the specific methods and structure taken from the data. In this research, quantitative and qualitative data were gathered with the use of a questionnaire and

semi-structured interviews. Data were analysed and interpreted the data individually and then the two sets were merged. The quantitative research was conducted to elucidate responses for analysis before moving on to qualitative research to determine how closely the topics were related.

Quantitative data analysis

The data collected using the questionnaire were analysed, using quantitative and qualitative analysis techniques. I checked the questionnaire for completeness, coded and fed the data into a quantitative database for computational analysis using, SPSS version 23.0 software. Suitable statistical techniques were used according to the scales specified in the data collection instrument. I used descriptive standards such as frequency distribution, percentages, mean and standard deviation to interpret the data. Pearson Correlations and multiple regressions were used to test the hypothesis and interpret the results. Graphical presentations such as charts and graphs, were used to present the results.

Particularly when describing the correlation results of experiments, experts recommend emphasising the strength of the association (r) and coefficient of determination (Pallant, 2016). A correlation of 0.10 to 0.29 is regarded as modest, a correlation of 0.30 to 0.49 is medium, and a correlation of 0.50 to 1.00 is substantial, according to Cohen (1988 cited in Pallant, 2016, p.137). The 'percentage of variance' in the dependent variable that the independent variable contributes to by multiplying the Pearson r value by 100 and, then, dividing the result by 2 to obtain the coefficient of determination in this study. As a result, this study's coefficient of determination is $0.210 \times 0.210 \times 100 = 4.41\%$, showing that institutional culture and workplace engagement have a moderate amount in common. Still on the analysis of the quantitative data, multiple regression is a statistical method that examines the linear relationship between a quantitative dependent variable and two or more independent variables (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2013; Pallant, 2016). This approach takes into account the predictors' correlation with one another and the criterion while determining the degree and direction of the linear relationship between a measure and a predictor. Three major subtypes of multiple regression can be distinguished: hierarchical or

sequential, standard or simultaneous and statistical or stepwise. In a typical multiple regression model, every independent variable is accounted for at once. In a hierarchical multiple regression, independent variables are added to the model depending on the researcher's theoretical or logical arguments. Accordingly, the computer can choose the variables and the order in which they are included, using in the equation based on statistical criteria (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2013; Pallant, 2016).

Qualitative data analysis

Qualitative data analysis involves discovering what is essential and what is to be learned, breaking data into smaller units, synthesising data, searching for patterns, organising data and deciding what to tell others (Bogdan & Biklen, 1998). In this study, data were analysed using qualitative data analysis techniques. Data analysis for the interviews was conducted concurrently with the data gathering. According to Creswell (2012), the qualitative data analysis process should involve the simultaneous collection of data and the report writing procedures. Interviews were recorded once consent had been given by respondents.

The complicated nature of the qualitative analysis of data is mainly due to the inadequate generally approved guidelines for the analysis of qualitative data (Bryman, 2016). In addition, qualitative methods usually result in large volumes of data. In view of this, it is asserted that analysing qualitative data is a mystery and can be likened to exploring a new environment without a road map (Silverman, 2013). As described by Spencer et al. (2014, p. 269), qualitative analysis of data is an abstruse strategy and its interpretation is an evasive matter (Bryman, 2016). According to Bryman (2008), a thorough analysis of qualitative data has not attained the level of indexing and rational procedure. However, there are some approaches and guidelines that can be used. Flick (2014) and Spencer et al., (2014) opine that qualitative data analysis should not be less orderly or structured because it is geared towards the generation of data for the description and explanation of the differences in a phenomenon. Examples of the structured methods for the achievement of these goals are the grounded theory analysis, content analysis, narrative analysis, analytic analysis, thematic analysis and

discourse analysis (Ritchie & Lewis, 2003; Flick, 2014; Spencer et al, 2014; Bryman, 2016).

I employed the thematic analysis process. The analysis of qualitative data by use of themes is described as the process which covers the findings, interpretation and reports on patterns and clusters of meanings of the data gathered (Spencer et al., 2014). Braun and Clarke (2006) see thematic analysis as the approach to the identification, analysis and report on the themes of the data. It is thought that thematic analysis is the best fit for this research because it is not time-consuming, as the collection of data and analysis occur simultaneously and the researcher can explicitly make some choices (Braun & Clarke, 2006) to describe the research findings in a suitable context. As the analysis took place, new data were compared with old data until the point of saturation was attained. In addition to providing rich thematic data to address the whole data set, I used themes that emanated inductively. The other reason for using thematic analysis is its advantage of accessibility and flexibility. This approach offers a new route to analysing qualitative data that otherwise may seem ambiguous and complex. The use of the thematic approach applies the mechanics of coding and analysing qualitative data (Braun & Clarke, 2012). One other outstanding feature of thematic analysis is its flexibility to be used for the analysis of a broad scope of questions.

Braun and Clarke (2006) suggest six guidelines to be followed in conducting qualitative thematic data analysis. The first involves the ability to acquaint oneself with the data, develop initial codes, look up themes, assess themes, explain themes and put together the report. However, four main levels, include the familiarisation with the data, construction of a fundamental thematic framework, use of the framework to sort out and index data and review data extracted for consistency, as proposed by Spencer et al. (2014). I adapted the two blueprints for qualitative data analysis of the qualitative data by rereading transcripts, taking notes for the obtained codes by identifying recurring topics, sorting relevant data into similar themes and ranking them from high-order themes.

Interview recordings were then transcribed verbatim (Miles & Huberman, 1994; McLellan-Lemal et al., 2003) and coded. I later checked for the accuracy of transcripts and corrected any errors, especially not with changing or emphasising the responses or respondents' comments during the qualitative data analysis (McLellan-Lemal et al., 2003). In addition, recurring issues were merged into new codes where significant quotations were chosen to represent the identified themes. The consistent and standard views of the respondents were described and developed as emerging themes (Glaser & Strauss, 1967; Bodgan & Biklen, 2003; in Aderibigbe, 2012; Nguyen, 2009). Thus, the participants' standard views related to the emerging themes were grouped into sub-themes under the emerging themes. The themes and sub-themes were carefully re-examined and rearranged in an iterative process where necessary to ensure that they provided insights into managing the mentoring relationships in this study.

The data were analysed thematically to categorise data collected in line with the emerging themes that sought to understand how participants interpret the phenomenon under study. As recommended by Braun and Clarke (2019), the following procedures for performing thematic analysis were utilised during the analysis of the data collected from the interview: transcribing verbal data, generating initial codes based on similarities and differences in responses, searching, defining, naming and reviewing themes and producing the report.

The transcripts were read carefully, checking for consistency. A small sample of the data which had been transcribed was presented to the respondents for verification, as Hartley (2004) suggested, to ensure data accuracy. Draft transcript reports were also sent to the respective critical participants for review and correction. This was to ensure that relevant information on the phenomenon was captured and corrected to represent respondents' views. This verification process was done with only five (5) heads of department. The qualitative data were coded and analysed manually with an expert's support from one of the selected public universities.

Table 4.1: Data Analysis Procedure

Procedure	Data Analysis	
	Quantitative Data Analysis	Qualitative Data Analysis
Instrument	A questionnaire was administered and analysed	Interviews were administered and analysed
Initial checks	Questionnaires were checked for completeness, coded and fed into the SPSS version 23.0	Transcripts were re-read, and accuracy and consistency were checked. Corrections of errors were made without changing or emphasising the responses
Standards for analysis	Descriptive standards such as frequency distribution, percentages, mean, standard deviation were used to interpret the data. Pearson Correlation and multiple regressions were used to test the hypothesis and interpret the results.	Interview recordings were transcribed verbatim. Consistent and standard views of the respondents were manually analysed thematically. A sample of the data which had been transcribed was presented to the respondents for verification.
Presentation	Graphical presentation using graphs and charts were used to present the results.	The results were categorised in line with the emerging themes that sought to understand how participants interpret the phenomenon under study.

4.12 ETHICAL AND POLITICAL CONSIDERATIONS

Ethics in research refers to the study's rules (Denzin & Lincoln, 2011) and includes rules and moral principles that the researcher should follow when engaging and interrelating with respondents (Pickard, 2007; De Vos et al., 2011). Ethics are crucial within all research fields because they could potentially affect all the study stakeholders (Du Plooy-Cilliers et al., 2014). Research involves dealing with different people; thus, it must be embedded in trust, honesty and mutual respect between the researcher and the respondents (Resnik, 2011). I aimed to minimise errors while simultaneously maximising the standard of information required to carry out the research. The stakeholders who are influenced by this research are the researcher and university employees in public universities in Ghana. As mentioned by Quinlan

(2011), the principles of non-harm to participants, informed consent, confidentiality and transparency were observed at all time.

I ensured that all ethical principles and professional standards, which are key to the success of the research were adhered to. Before collecting data, I obtained approval from the Faculty of Education Ethics Committee at the University of Pretoria. I also requested introductory letters from my institution and forwarded them to the selected public universities in Ghana. This gave me an entry to seek permission from the selected universities' ethical committees to enable me to collect data from its employees. A list of the various categories of employees in the selected universities was obtained from the Human Resource Section. A letter from the Ethical Committees stating the importance of the study and informed consent was distributed to all employees, informing them of the upcoming survey. Respondents were made to understand that the research could help university employees to understand the institutional culture and manage their engagement at the workplace. On the importance of the study, respondents were also made aware that they could develop their universities' capability. They would be enlightened on the possibility of personal growth, such as increasing research skills. Data collection commenced after ethical clearance was granted in November 2020 by the Faculty of Education Ethics Committee. Questionnaires were distributed via a link generated through the Qualtrics Survey.

Every respondent was offered voluntary participation; respondents who participated in the research willingly were given consent letters to sign. It was stated in the letter of consent that respondents were unlikely to be exposed to any form of compulsion (Neuman, 2014). Though each respondent signed the form to demonstrate their readiness to take part in this study, they were assured of anonymity. The consent form contained information on the research and how data collected would be used. The purpose of the study, the right of respondents to participate voluntarily or withdraw at any given time, which will not negatively affect the research, the audio recording process, and how the findings would be shared, were clearly explained to the

respondents. I also informed the participants of the importance of the research and ethical issues to adhere to within the research.

The respondents were also informed that a completed questionnaire would be taken as per their informed consent. Respondents were given the assurance that their completed questionnaire would be handled with confidentiality, as only the researcher would have access to the completed questionnaires and that data collected were meant for academic purpose only. Finally, I ensured that information was neither falsified nor used to the detriment of respondents. The measures to protect participants' identity were stipulated in the participants' letters of consent. During the research, the details of supervisors in charge of this study were provided to participants who wanted to seek further clarification. As explained earlier, feedback was also given to the participants to understand the data collected. It also allowed them to confirm that the data represented their actual views and expressions. Researchers must also critically consider ethical issues when human beings are used as subjects for research (Polit & Beck, 2010). Finally, consideration was given to the protection of collected data as it was stored in a securely locked office space. All gathered data have been stored on a password-protected computer and will only be accessed by the supervisor and/or me. The data would be used for further research purposes, as the data sets are the intellectual property of the University of Pretoria. Further research may include secondary data analysis and the usage of data for teaching purposes. The confidentiality and privacy policies applicable to this study will be binding on future studies.

4.13 ENHANCING THE QUALITY OF THE RESEARCH

Enhancing the quality of research is essential for the study. According to Streefkerk (2021), quality research is a strongly evidenced research that can withstand and support policymaking. The research should strictly conform to the principles of transparency, accountability and professionalism. Triangulation, audit trials, member checking and peer review can be employed to ensure trustworthiness. In addition, to ensure the quality level of this research, three principal stages of the research were

critically monitored. Multiple research methods were used to confirm and disconfirm the research outcome. Audit trails, including data collection, analysis and interpretation were done to ensure traceability, transparency and accuracy. Detailed accounts were given for interview transcripts and records. Member checking was also done as interview results were discussed with a sample of the participants. Furthermore, experts in the field reviewed the research to ensure its validity and quality.

In line with ensuring the quality of the research, the research design and data collection, conscious efforts were made to ensure that the design and methods for the research were commensurate with the topic or question. The researcher ensured that the sampling was fit for the purpose and that a sufficient sample was obtained to provide meaningful statistical analysis. Similarly, appropriate data were used to create a reasonable conclusion; for example, qualitative data were not used to make quantitative conclusions. The purposive selection of two universities at the different geographical locations in Ghana (North and South) ensured the diversification of the study population. The merits and demerits of the methodology, data collected and the research findings have been duly reported for future research lessons in this area of study. Moreover, the link or relationship between this study and a previous study has been well-established and made clear.

The significant findings of this research have been reported according to laid down reporting standards. The research findings are to be published in addition to an account of the methodology to enable other researchers to replicate the study. The qualitative data have been reported to present the various views expressed during the data collection phase. I conscientiously wrote comparisons and trends and did not exaggerate minor differences. A conscious effort was made to prevent revelatory mistakes in the research. To ensure accountability, all potential conflicts of interest were declared. The complete research report will be accessible once published, and my contact details have been provided for other researchers to follow up when necessary.

4.14 SUMMARY OF THE CHAPTER

This chapter discussed the research methodology employed in this research which include the paradigm underpinning the study, the approach and the design. This study utilised the mixed methods research approach informed by the pragmatist paradigm. The mixed methods approach unveiled the quantitative and qualitative aspects of the research, which added value to the phenomenon being investigated and gave room to obtain rich data on how institutional culture influences work engagement in public universities in Ghana. The research used a descriptive study design which explored the impact of institutional culture on work engagement in selected public universities. In all, a total sample size of two hundred and thirty (230) participants from the two selected public universities in Ghana was chosen, using a multistage sampling method in order to obtain thorough information for the conduct of the research. Heads of department, senior members (teaching and non-teaching), senior and junior staff were the key respondents. Data were gathered using a questionnaire and a semi-structured interview schedule. Data analysis was done with SPSS Version 23.0 for the qualitative data and thematic analysis was done manually through thematic analysis for the qualitative data. Document analysis was also conducted with documents sourced from the two selected two public universities. The chapter also elaborated on the ethical conduct that was upheld throughout the research process. In the next chapter, I present the findings and interpretation of the study from the data collected from the structured questionnaire.

CHAPTER FIVE

PRESENTATION OF QUANTITATIVE DATA

5.1 INTRODUCTION

The previous chapter discussed the research methodology employed in the research. The researcher was guided by the research paradigm, approach, design, site and sample, data collection method and data analysis in the research. In concluding the chapter, the researcher elaborated how the choices influenced the trustworthiness and the ethical considerations of the study.

This study utilised a structured questionnaire to elicit responses from various employees in public universities in Ghana. The results highlighted in this chapter answer the main research question: *How does institutional culture relate to employees' work engagement in public universities in Ghana?*

The findings from the research are categorised by the research question and the sub-questions that guided the study. The presentation of this chapter is done under various themes, including demographic data, academic background, length of service, the current position and the categories of respondents, the nature of institutional culture, the level of engagement of employees and the influence of institutional culture on work engagement in public institutions in Ghana.

A multistage sampling process was used to generate the sample for this study. The convenience sampling technique was employed during the initial stage to select the universities. The researcher purposefully selected two universities from the ten public universities in Ghana. To account for geographical locational effects on the study results, the researcher purposefully selected one university from the northern and another from the southern part of the country. The researcher adopted a purposive sampling technique to select university employees who had been employees for more than two years in the selected universities. This was done to capture employees with institutional memory to provide the needed data for this study. At the final stage, the

researcher used cluster and simple random sampling methods to determine the final sample of 230 respondents.

Quantitative analytical procedures such as descriptive analysis, regression, and correlation were employed to analyse the data. The data were initially coded and uploaded into a quantitative database for computational analysis using SPSS version 23.0. software. I used descriptive standards such as frequency distribution, percentages, the mean and standard deviation to interpret the data. Pearson's correlation was employed to test the hypothesis and analyse the outcome. Multiple regression was used to identify and analyse the significant institutional culture parameters influencing work engagement. Frequency tables and graphical presentations, such as pie charts and graphs, were used to present the results of the main research question and the three sub-questions.

5.2 ANALYSIS OF QUANTITATIVE DATA

This research used descriptive standards such as frequency distribution and percentages to explain the responses obtained from the respondents. The demographics of respondents cover data obtained from all the various employees in the selected public universities in Ghana.

5.2.1 Employee Demographic Data

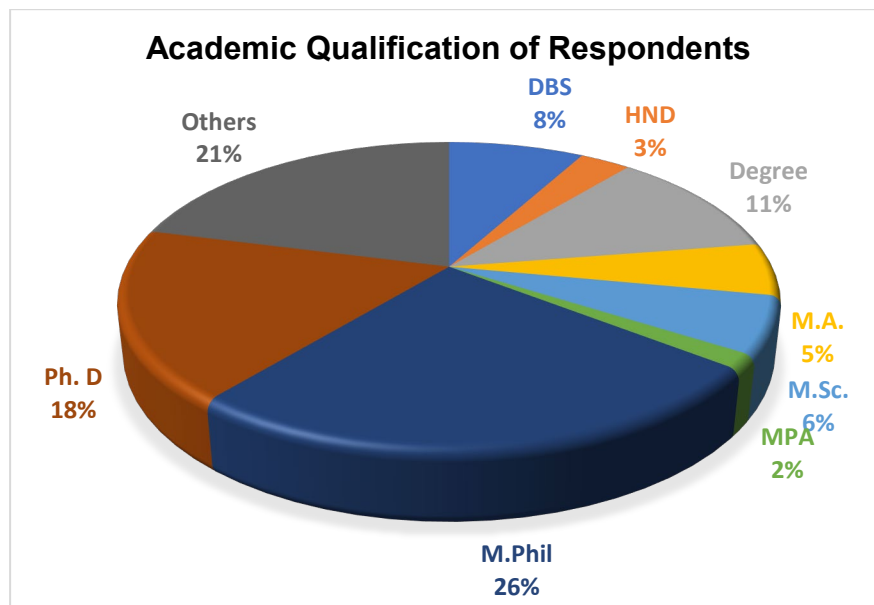
5.2.1.1 *Age and gender*

Table 5.1: Age category and gender distribution of respondents

Age Category	Gender		Total
	Male	Female	
Less than 30	8	6	14
Between 30 and 50 years	71	76	147
Above 50 years	19	20	39
Grand Total	98	102	200

As indicated in Table 5.1, the gender distribution of respondents shows that the respondents comprised one hundred and two (102) (51.0%) females and ninety-eight (98) (49.0%) males. The age distribution of the respondents ranged between less than 30 years and above 50 years. The respondents' age distribution was divided into three: less than 30 years, between 30 and 50 years, and above 50 years. The table indicates that one hundred and forty-seven (147) (73.5%) respondents were between the ages of 30 and 50 and fourteen (14) (7%) were less than 30 years old. It is also noted that thirty-nine (39) respondents representing 18.9%, were above 50 years. This finding is supported by the report by the Labour Force (GSS, 2015) for Ghana, which revealed that most of the employed population (60.7%) in Ghana, were within the age bracket of 30-50 years. The results align with the findings of Breetzke and Hedding (2018), who revealed that most South African academics are middle-aged and are between the ages of 35 and 54.

5.2.1.2 Academic qualification of respondents



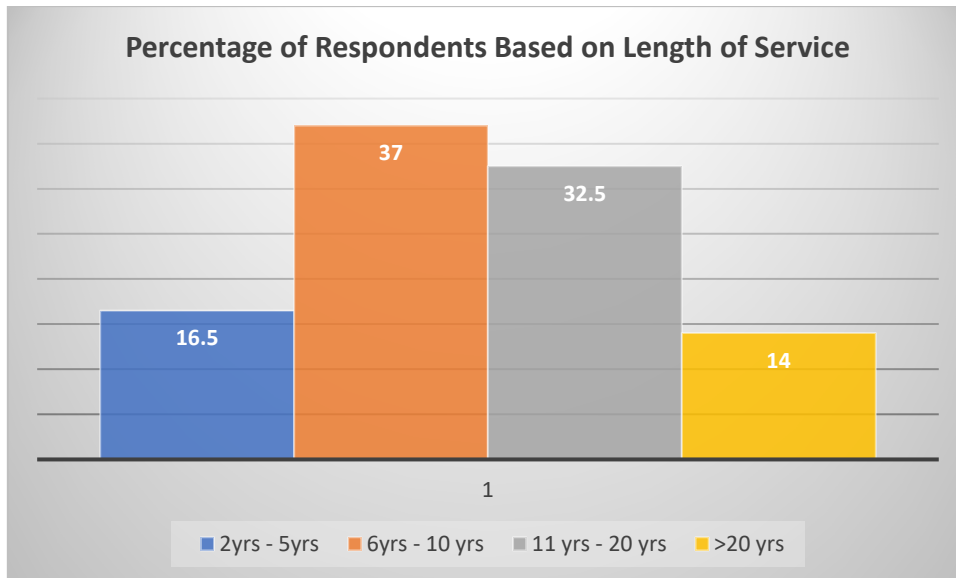
(Source: Researcher's Construct, 2022)

Figure 5.1: Academic qualification of respondents

Information from Figure 5.1 indicates that fifty-one (51) respondents (26.0%) hold Master of Philosophy (M.Phil) Degrees and thirty-six (36) respondents (18%) hold Doctor of Philosophy (PhD) Degrees. However, 42 (21.0%) of the respondents have other certificates not listed in the figure, which include certifications such as Senior Secondary School Certificate Examinations (SSSCE), West African Secondary Schools Certificate Examinations (WASSCE), Master of Education, Master of Education (MEd.), Master of Business Administration (MBA), Master of Public Health (MPH) and Commonwealth Executive Master of Business Administration (CeMBA). In addition, six (6) and three (3) respondents representing 3.0% and 2.0%, had Higher National Diploma (HND) and Master of Public Administration (MPA) certificates, respectively. Respondents with PhD and Master's degrees constitute more than half (56.5%) of the total respondents. This result is supported by the findings of Dokua (2019), which indicate that public universities in Ghana have the highest number of staff with Doctor of Philosophy (PhD) and Master's degree qualifications.

5.2.1.3 Length of service in the university

As shown in Figure 5.2, 37.0% have been in the university's service for between five to ten years, while one out of every seven employees, forming the minority (14.0%), has over twenty years of working experience. In addition, one out of every three employees have more than ten to twenty years of working experience. Thirty-three staff members, representing 16.5%, have two to five years of working experience.



(Source: Researcher’s Construct, 2022)

Figure 5.2: Length of service of respondents

5.2.1.4 Position in the university

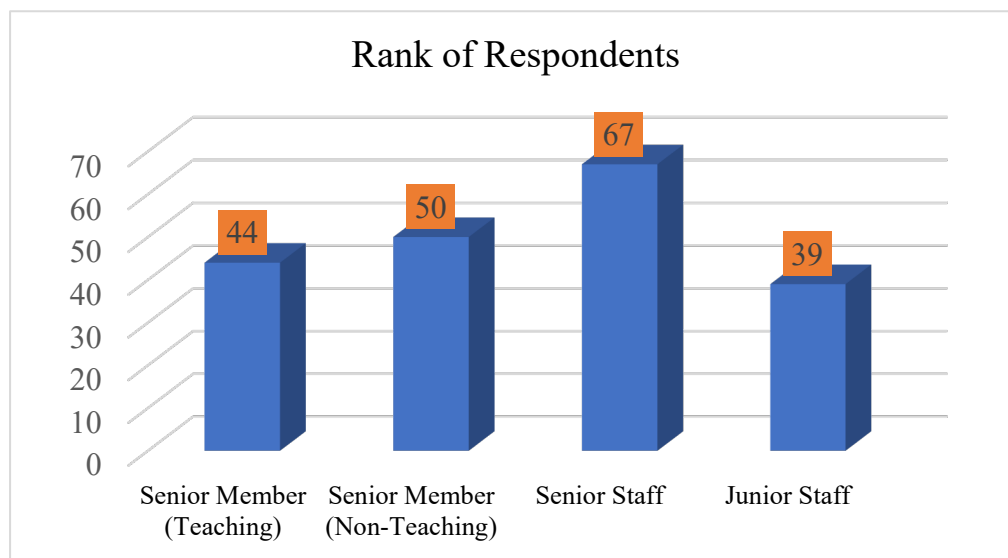
Table 5.2 presents the various positions of the respondents at the time the questionnaire was administered. Out of the total respondents, twenty-three (33) representing (11.5%), were Senior Assistant Registrars. Seventeen (17) were in the Lecturer and Principal Administrative Assistant positions. There was a minority of one (1) respondent who was a Finance Officer. One (1) respondent was a Research Development Officer, one (1) Research Analyst and one (1) respondent an Assistant Porter Grade 1.

Table 5.2: Position in the university

Position	Frequency	Percentage %
Cleaner	6	3.0
Labourer	2	1.0
Clerk Grade II	2	1.0
Clerk Grade I	4	2.0
Senior Clerk	4	2.0
Senior Driver	2	1.0
ICT Clerk	2	1.0
Foreman	2	1.0
Tradesman Grade 1	3	1.5
Junior Library Assistant	2	1.0
Artisan	3	1.5
Assistant Draughtsman Grade 1	2	1.0
Assistant Porter Grade 1	1	0.5
Assistant Security Officer Grade 1	4	2.0
Research Assistant	6	3.0
Administrative Assistant	8	4.0
Senior Administrative Assistant	12	6.0
Senior Accounting Assistant	7	3.5
Principal Administrative Assistant	17	8.5
Chief Accounting Assistant	3	1.5
Chief Technician	4	2.0
Chief Research Assistant	2	1.0
Chief Administrative Assistant	8	4.0
Assistant Lecturer	6	3.0
Assistant Librarian	3	1.5
Junior Assistant Registrar	9	4.5
Research Analyst	1	0.5
Research Development Officer	1	0.5
Lecturer	17	8.5
Senior Lecturer	12	6.0
Assistant Registrar	12	6.0
Senior Assistant Registrar	23	11.5
Associate Professor	4	2.0
Deputy Registrar	5	2.5
Finance Officer	1	0.5

5.2.1.5 Rank of respondents

The respondents to the questionnaire for this study were made up of different categories of staff. This was done to ensure that the views obtained from the survey were representative of all staff categories but not views expressed by a particular category. Figure 5.3 illustrates the analysis of the rank of the respondents.



(Source: Researcher's Construct, 2022)

Figure 5.3: Rank of respondents

The figure above illustrates the various categories of employees in the selected public universities. A majority of the respondents (67%) fell into the senior staff category. This category of employees consists of staff such as principal administrative assistant and their equivalent categories, and senior accounting assistants and their equivalent categories. The junior staff category recorded the least responses among the respondents. This category of staff comprises cleaners, conservancy labourers, foremen, artisans, drivers and clerks.

5.2.2 Institutional Culture

5.2.2.1 Parameters of institutional culture

Presented in Table 5.3 are the responses on institutional culture. Using frequencies and percentages, the responses to research question 1 are analysed and explained. Sixty-six (66) respondents, representing (33.0%), strongly agreed that the mission of the university is a vital determinant of institutional culture, with a total of one hundred 100 respondents, representing (50.0%), agreeing that the mission statement of a university is a key determinant of institutional culture.

Table 5.3: Parameters of institutional culture

PARAMETER	RESPONSES									
	Strongly Agree		Agree		Neither Agree/ Disagree		Disagree		Strongly Disagree	
	Freq	%	Freq	%	Freq	%	Freq	%	Freq	%
Mission	66.0	33.0	100.0	50.0	30.0	15.0	4.0	2.0	0.0	0.0
Communication	17.0	8.5	107.0	53.5	59.0	29.5	16.0	8.0	1.0	0.5
Leadership	16.0	8.0	108.0	54.0	51.0	25.5	25.0	12.5	0.0	0.0
Involvement of employees in decision making	6.0	3.0	56.0	28.0	84.0	42.0	41.0	20.5	13.0	6.5
Rewards/ Recognition	12.0	6.1	64.0	32.3	87.0	43.9	29.0	14.6	6.0	3.0
Performance Evaluation	5.0	2.5	62.0	31.0	46.0	23.0	78.0	39.0	9.0	4.5
Change/ Innovation	18.0	9.0	75.0	37.5	73.0	36.5	30.0	17.0	4.0	2.0
Teamwork	9.0	4.5	91.0	45.5	61.0	30.5	30.0	17.0	5.0	2.5
Training and Development	12.0	6.0	87.0	43.5	64.0	32.0	31.0	15.5	6.0	3.0

This result is similar to the results of Le (2016), which revealed that there is still heterogeneity between the mission and the reality in the two selected universities. The finding also aligns with the results obtained in Vietnam. It supports the assertion that in higher education institutions, ethics, professionalism, knowledge of the mission and vision of the institution are the most important values that influence institutional culture. In the same vein, a hundred (100) (50.0%) of the respondents agree to the impact of having a mission statement for the university. This was followed by eighteen (18) (9.0%) respondents who strongly agree that change and innovation are essential in determining the nature of institutional culture in public universities in Ghana.

Furthermore, seventeen (17) respondents representing 8.30%, strongly agreed that communication was an important factor of institutional culture. In the same vein, one hundred and seven (107) respondents representing 53.5%, agree that communication is a valuable parameter in assessing institutional culture. This result concurs with the findings of Mohd et al. (2018), which showed that effective communication and climate for innovation are the main determinants of institutional culture among institutions, including institutions of higher learning. This result is also consistent with that of Tierney (1988), who posits that information should be shared effectively in the university. The research tends to support this claim because leaders who effectively share information, make employees feel more involved and committed to the university.

Sixteen (16) respondents (8.0%) strongly agreed that leadership was essential in determining a meaningful institutional culture in public universities in Ghana. At the same time, one hundred and eight (108) (54.0%) respondents indicated that leadership styles determine existing institutional culture. This result is substantiated by the results obtained by Gerwe (2014), who showed that institutional leadership promotes the mental growth of both employees and students, thereby creating a culture that upholds high-quality standards. Bergquist (1992) suggested that leaders establish strategies to facilitate activities in institutions. Akanji et al. (2017) found that institutional culture shapes the choice of leadership styles in the management of

Nigerian universities. Along similar lines, this research argues that strong institutional leadership tends to produce a distinctive institutional culture that turns the institution's mission into successes.

However, eighty-seven (87) respondents, representing 43.9%, neither agreed nor disagreed that rewards/recognition played any role in determining institutional culture. Some eighty-four (84) (42.0%) respondents neither agreed nor disagreed that staff involvement in decision-making is paramount to institutional culture. Furthermore, seventy-three (73) respondents, representing 36.5%, neither agreed nor disagreed that change or innovation can be a parameter of institutional culture.

Performance evaluation is not only beneficial to employees but institutions rely on and use performance appraisal results as a strategy to strengthen the employees and the university. Performance appraisal provides the platform for the identification of the training needs of employees and direction for succession planning in the institutions. However, further analysis revealed that seventy-eight (78 or 39.0%) respondents disagreed that performance evaluation is paramount in determining institutional culture. This finding, however, is inconsistent with the conclusion arrived at by Hamid et al. (2017), whose research results showed that performance evaluation could either directly or indirectly influence an institution's culture. The results further indicate that forty-one (41) respondents, representing 20.5%, disagreed that decision-making involvement is a parameter of institutional culture.

Furthermore, thirty-one (31 or 15.5%) respondents disagreed that training and development determine institutional culture. The analysis revealed that thirteen (13) respondents strongly disagreed that decision-making involvement is a parameter of institutional culture. The results also show that nine (9 or 4.5%) respondents, strongly disagreed that performance appraisal determines institutional culture. Similarly, six (6) respondents strongly disagreed that training and development are determinants of institutional culture.

The results revealed that employees of public universities in Ghana identify three main variables as determinants of institutional culture. These variables include the mission, communication and leadership style. One hundred and sixty-six (166) respondents (80.0%) strongly agreed/agreed that the mission is a determinant of institutional culture. One hundred and twenty (120 or 60.0%) respondents strongly agreed/agreed that communication is paramount in institutional culture. In addition, one hundred and twenty-four (124 or 62.0%) respondents strongly agreed/agreed that leadership styles determine institutional culture's uniqueness.

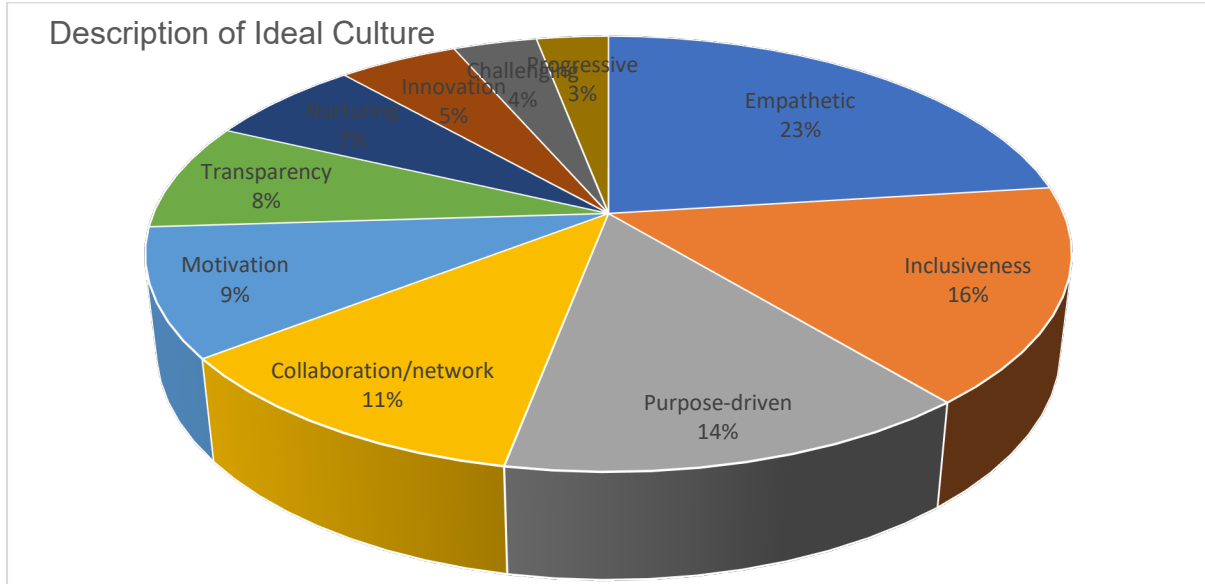
5.2.2.2 *Level of satisfaction with existing institutional culture*

Table 5.4: Level of satisfaction with existing institutional culture

Responses	Frequency	Percent %
Strongly Agree	4	2.0
Agree	100	50.0
Neither Agree/Disagree	76	38.0
Disagree	18	9.0
Strongly Disagree	2	1.0
Total	200	100.0

The results of the study have shown the existence of institutional culture in the selected universities studied. However, the satisfaction level of the existing institutional culture among the respondents was varied. An overall assessment of the responses to institutional culture reveals that one out of every two employees (50.0%) agreed to the satisfaction level regarding the nature of the existing institutional culture practised at the university. It also reveals seventy-six (76 or 38%) employees neither agreed nor disagreed with the university's institutional culture. This study indicates that the minority (1.0%) strongly disagreed with the nature of the university's institutional culture practised.

5.2.2.3 Description of ideal culture



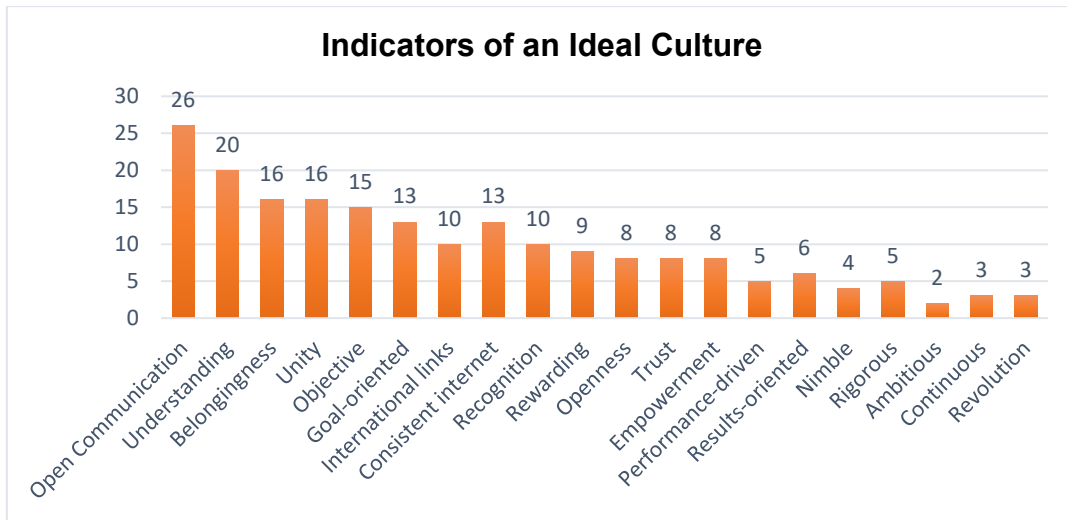
(Source: Researcher's Construct, 2022)

Figure 5.4: Responses to the description of an ideal culture with one word

A majority of forty-six (46) respondents, representing (23.0%), mentioned that public universities could reflect empathetic culture, while thirty-two (33) respondents mentioned inclusiveness as an ideal culture to reflect in a public university. A minority of seven (7) and six (6) respondents said challenging and progressive cultures were the ideal cultures.

5.2.2.4 Indicators of ideal culture

Figure 5.5 illustrates respondents' responses regarding the indicators of an ideal culture. These results indicate what respondents would ordinarily look out for to describe an institutional culture as ideal.



(Source: Researcher's Construct, 2022)

Figure 5.5: Indicators of ideal culture

In Figure 5.5, twenty-six (26) respondents, representing 13.0%, mentioned open communication as an indicator of an ideal culture of a public university. This finding aligns with the assertion by Schiller and Cui (2017) that emphasises open communication as a critical indicator of the effectiveness, efficiency and overall success of any business and organisation, including institutions of higher learning. Boardman (2020) stated that a sense of belonging is essential to provide employees with contentment in mental and physical well-being. In addition, a sense of belonging provides humans with determination and meaning in life. The study results show that sixteen (16 or 8.0%) respondents indicated that a sense of belonging strongly indicates an ideal culture in a public university. Similarly, sixteen (16) (8.0%) of the respondents indicated that unity among colleagues means an ideal culture in public universities in Ghana. This result is confirmed by Dean (2011) who asserts that fostering a sense of unity within institutions of higher learning creates a conducive administration, teaching and learning environment among universities in Kenya. As shown in the figure, three (3) respondents mentioned revolution as an indicator of an ideal culture.

5.2.3 Work Engagement

5.2.3.1 Parameters of work engagement

Table 5.5 presents the responses to the parameters of work engagement in public universities in Ghana. The parameters described include mental resilience, engrossment and strong involvement.

Table 5.5: Parameters of work engagement

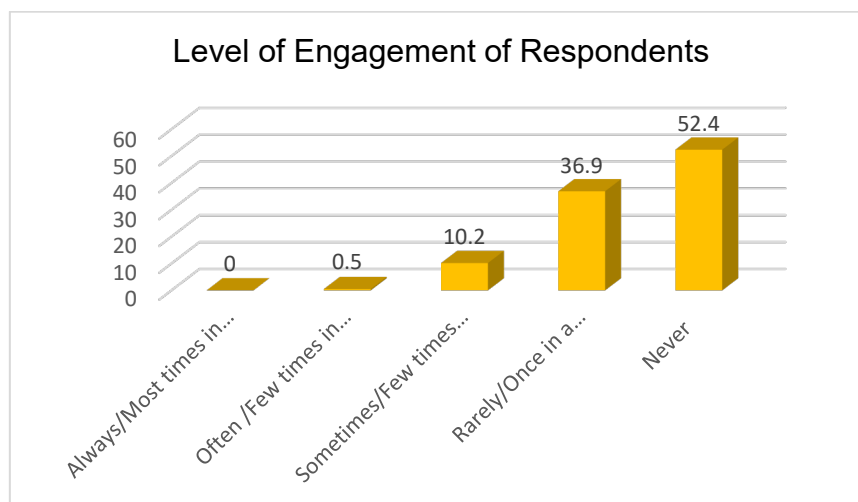
	Always/Most times in a week	Often / few times in a week	Sometimes /A few times in a month	Rarely/Once in a month or less	Never
Mental Resilience	0	13	22	68	97
Engrossment	0	17	31	79	73
Strong Involvement	0	10	23	69	98

The responses represent how respondents think about themselves concerning the various parameters that describe work engagement at public universities in Ghana. As shown in table 5.5, the analysis revealed that ninety-seven (97), representing 48.5% of the respondents, did not have the mental resilience to work effectively. Sixty-eight (68) respondents, representing 34.0%, rarely/once/once in a month or less show mental resilience at work. Furthermore, twenty-two respondents representing (11.0%) sometimes or a few times in a month, had mental resilience to work.

The table further reveals seventy-nine (79) respondents representing 39.9%, indicated that they are rarely or once in a month or less engrossed in their work. The table shows that seventy-three (73) respondents representing 36.5% revealed that they are never engrossed or engaged in their work. Thirty-one (31 or 15.5%) of the respondents are sometimes or a few times engrossed in their work. It also came to light that those sixty-nine (69 or 34.5%) respondents are rarely/once in a month or less strongly involved in their work. However, a minority of ten (10) respondents representing 5.0%, are often/few times intensely engaged in a position in a week. The figure, moreover,

seems to indicate that staff of public universities in Ghana do not feel involved or committed to their work. This is reflected in the analysis, which shows that one hundred and sixty-seven (167) respondents, representing (83.5%), responded as rarely or never getting involved or dedicated to their work. This result is in contrast to the JD-R Model proposed by Demerouti et al. (2001) which assumes that work engagement is derived from the innate drive of job and personal assets (mental resilience, engrossment and strong involvement in work). The foregoing discussion implies that work engagement is innate. However, if a conducive atmosphere is not created for work, morale will be low and, employees therefore, will not give off their best in the workplace.

5.2.3.2 Overall work engagement analysis



(Source: Researcher's Construct, 2022)

Figure 5.6: The overall level of engagement of respondents

Figure 5.6 represents the extent of engagement of the respondents. According to the Institute of Employment Studies (2018), engaged employees invest themselves wholly in their work, which evokes increased employee support for the organisation in which they work. The analysis reveals that staff at tertiary institutions in Ghana are generally not engaged. The figure indicates that none of the respondents (0.0%) responded as always engaged or most times in the month. More than half of the respondents (89.3%)

revealed that they were never or rarely/once involved in their job at their various universities. This study further indicates that only one (1) employee representing 0.5%, responded as being engaged either often or a few times in a week. This result aligns with the findings of Ndoro and Martins (2019), which observed the lowest extent of employee engagement at the individual level among staff members of higher educational institutions in South Africa, despite high engagement at the team level among the same respondents. The study results are worth taking note of by public universities in Ghana because when employees are never or rarely engaged in work, retention rates tend to be low. Budriene and Diskiene (2020) confirm that employees need to exhibit a high level of engagement because a high level of engagement promotes employee loyalty and retention, improving the institution's overall performance.

One hundred and seven (107) respondents representing 62%, agreed that communication is a valuable parameter of institutional culture. This result affirms the findings by Mohd et al. (2018) who used structural equation modelling analysis to find that self-efficacy, effective communications and climate for innovation are the main determinants of institutional culture among institutions, including institutions of higher learning. The result is, however, inconsistent with that of Tierney (1988), who posits that when discussing information at a university, leaders share information effectively with their institution's members and if the organisation has informal channels for communication, the members of the institution will likely feel more attached to the institution.

This study's results are in accordance with the findings of Byrne and MacDonagh (2017). Their results show that 62.0% of the staff of higher institutions reported having a low level of engagement and poor relationships at the institutions of higher learning. However, the result obtained from this study is contrary to other similar studies that have assessed employees' work engagement in higher institutions of education. For example, Janetius (2016) found that nearly 78.0% of respondents stated that they were engaged, while only 8.0% expressed that their level of engagement was low in their educational institutions. The foregoing discussion implies that because

engagement is innate, employees are naturally expected to come to the work place with the right mental resilience, ready to be strongly involved and engrossed in work. However, this research argues that there may be low levels of engagement at the workplace due to factors such as the prevalent institutional culture, low levels of rewards and compensation packages and constant disagreements between management and employees, leading to persistent industrial action.

5.2.4 Relationship between Institutional Culture and Work Engagement

5.2.4.1 Correlation analysis

Table 5.6: Results of the Pearson’s Correlation analysis

Parameter	Institutional Culture	Work Engagement
Institutional Culture	1	1
Work Engagement	.210** ($\rho = 0.03$)	.210** ($\rho = 0.03$)

** Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed)

Table 5.6 shows the result of the Pearson’s correlation analysis, which was performed to test the study’s null hypothesis. The result indicates that the data do not support the null hypothesis stated for the study (there is no correlation between institutional culture and work engagement in public universities in Ghana). Hence, the study fails to accept the null hypothesis. The alternative hypothesis, *there is a relationship between institutional culture and work engagement in public universities in Ghana*, is supported by the data and accepted.

It is important to stress that for Pearson r tests, the significant level does not show how strongly the independent and dependent variables are related but rather how much confidence should be placed in the results obtained. The strength of association is rather given by the rho (r), as presented in Table 5.6. The significance of rho correlates

strongly with the sample size. In large samples (e.g., $N = 100 +$), very small correlations (e.g., $r = .2$) may reach statistical significance.

Experts, therefore, recommend that emphasis be placed on the strength of the relationship (r) and the coefficient of determination when reporting the results of this type of test (Pallant, 2016). Cohen (1988 cited in Pallant, 2016), opine that correlation from 0.10 to 0.29 is described as small, 0.30 to 0.49 is medium while 0.50 to 1.00 is significant. In order to calculate the coefficient of determination in the dependent variable described by the independent variable, the Pearson r value derived is squared and the results multiplied by 100 to convert to 'percentage of variance'. Therefore, the coefficient of determination in this study context is $0.210 \times 0.210 \times 100 = 4.41\%$. This value suggests that there is a moderate overlap between institutional culture and work engagement.

The research results show a significant positive relationship between institutional culture and work engagement. The result of this research is corroborated by the study of Naidoo and Martin (2014), which used correlation analysis to show that all the parameters of institutional culture relate positively with work engagement parameters. This research aligns with the correlation analysis done by Naidoo and Martin (2014), which shows a statistically positive relationship between institutional culture variables and work engagement. The result of the study also confirms the results of initial studies that examined the association between culture and work engagement (Alarcon et al., 2010; Greenidge, 2010). This research further confirms the findings of Denison's survey, which revealed a relationship between strong cultures and a highly engaged workforce. The foregoing discussion implies that institutional culture has an influence on work engagement.

5.2.4.2 Regression for predicting work engagement with institutional culture

Multiple regression is a procedure used for the analysis of the linear correlation between a quantitative dependent variable and two or more independent variables (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2013; Pallant, 2016). This statistical method can be employed to establish the strength and direction of the linear association between a measure

and a predictor, controlling the predictors' correlation with each other and the criterion. Three major types of multiple regression identified are the hierarchical or sequential, the statistical or stepwise and standard or simultaneous multiple regression. All the independent variables are put into the model simultaneously, using the standard multiple regression. The hierarchical multiple regression involves the use of independent variables put into the model in the order specified by the researcher according to logical or theoretical considerations. In stepwise multiple regression, the programme is allowed to choose which variables will be entered and the order in which they are put into the equation based on the set of statistical criteria (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2013; Pallant, 2016).

5.2.4.3 Predicting work engagement using parameters of institutional culture

Evaluating the effect of the predictors, as presented in Table 5.7, communication emerged as the strongest predictor ($\beta = .364$) for work engagement, followed by rewards and recognition ($\beta = .171$). The least predictor was performance appraisal ($\beta = .000$). The percentage contribution of each variable is calculated by squaring the part correlation coefficients and then multiplying the result by 100. Examining the part correlation coefficients, the percentage contribution of communication was 3.349 % (i.e., $.183^2 \times 100$) while performance evaluation contributed 0.0% (i.e., $.000^2 \times 100$) to work engagement.

Standard Regression was used to predict the influence of institutional culture on work engagement, using the parameters of the two concepts. This study found communication ($\beta = 0.364$, $p = 0.009$) to be the only significant predictor of work engagement. This is in agreement with the research findings of Kim (2007) and Kim and Rhee (2011), which demonstrates that regular internal communication effort made by an institution leads to an increase in the extent of work engagement. Active communication among staff at the workplace such as institutions of higher learning, is essential for good institutional performance. Previous research reveals that clear and accurate communication is effective for work engagement. Accordingly, it is believed

that poor communication tends to create distrust, discontentment, doubt and employee turnover. In addition, Lloyd (2008) revealed that several cultural traits such as good internal communication, innovation and reputation of integrity contribute to increased work engagement.

Table 5.7: Predicting work engagement using parameters of institutional culture

Independent Variables	Standardised Coefficients		Correlation coefficients (part)	% Explained
	Beta	Sig.		
Mission	-0.070	0.476	-.049	0.240
Communication	0.364	0.009	.183	3.349
Leadership	-0.034	0.811	-.017	0.029
Involvement in decision making	0.009	0.937	.005	0.002
Rewards/Recognition	-0.171	0.125	-.106	1.124
Performance Evaluation	0.000	0.998	.000	0.000
Change/Innovation	0.152	0.225	.084	0.706
Teamwork	-0.078	0.511	-.045	0.203
Training and Development	0.044	0.697	.027	0.073

* Impact is statistically significant at 0.001 alpha level

The results show a tendency of increased engrossment in a situation where communication is effective in institutions of higher learning in Ghana. However, when communication is poor, there would be reduced levels of engrossment. The present study is confirmed by the results of previous studies, including that of Rich et al. (2010), which found a positive correlation between communication and work engagement. This outcome is consistent with the findings of Thien, 2020. However, this finding is contrary to the conclusions from Naidoo and Martin (2014) whose research revealed that regression analysis shows three dimensions (leadership, goals and objectives and management processes) of their seven culture dimensions contributing to predicting the dimensions of work engagement.

In the same vein, when communication is ineffective, the institution will not experience employees' expected behaviour, attitudes and beliefs, affecting the university's general development trend. The result is in accordance with the results obtained by Pongton and Suntrayuth (2019), which showed that an effective and satisfying level of communication among employees positively influences job satisfaction and work engagement. Generally, institutional culture is a significant positive predictor of work engagement, which establishes that employees might be more engaged or better engaged when the existing institutional culture is favourable. The regression analysis reveals that communication is the strongest statistically unique contribution in predicting the parameters of work engagement. In a similar vein, the researcher supports the view that when communication is efficient in an institution, all the guidelines are effectively communicated to employees. In this situation, employees frequently participate in management planning and contribute to the accomplishment of institutional objectives.

5.3 SUMMARY OF THE CHAPTER

A research review by Parent and Lovelace (2018) revealed that a meaningful institutional culture facilitates the work engagement process because a positive workplace environment attracts and retains employees. They further pointed out that building work engagement involves the application of several parameters of a strong institutional culture. Sirisetti (2012) asserts that work engagement increases when positive institutional culture entails employees' involvement in decision-making and support for growth and development is created. The influence of institutional culture on work engagement in public universities is critical and appears to have been overlooked by researchers and practitioners over time. Public universities have the mandate to develop the culture in the institution and ensure that the type of culture fully engages employees at the workplace to achieve success.

This chapter discussed the findings from the responses elicited from the questionnaire. The findings discussed in the chapter provide insights into the link between the parameters of institutional culture and the parameters of work engagement. The

outcomes of the study show that, generally, one hundred and sixty-six (166 or 83.0%) of the respondents perceived the institution's mission to impact work engagement. An equal number of respondents, that is, one hundred and twenty-four (124 or 62.0%) in all, are of the opinion that communication and leadership style influence work engagement. Findings from the research reveal communication ($\beta = 0.364$, $\rho = 0.009$) as the only strong predictor of work engagement. This implies that if the mission, leadership style, training and development policies and performance evaluation, amongst others, are communicated effectively, the institution will be able to engage employees at the workplace. In addition, the findings of the research show that there is a correlation between institutional culture and work engagement. Creating the right institutional culture is paramount in getting employees to be equipped with the suitable mental resilience, the urge to be engrossed and the ability to be strongly involved in work. This will improve performance and increase productivity in public universities in Ghana. However, the research results revealed a low level of employee engagement at the workplace. In Chapter six, the analysis of the data collected through the semi-structured interviews and document analysis is presented.

CHAPTER SIX

PRESENTATION OF QUALITATIVE DATA

6.1 INTRODUCTION

The previous chapter discussed the findings elicited from the structured questionnaire. The researcher used descriptive standards such as frequency distribution, percentages, the mean, standard deviation, Pearson's correlation and multiple regression to interpret the data.

The understanding of qualitative analysis is essential for research and basically covers a wide range of data manipulation. Qualitative data gathering usually depends on an explanation of terms and its understanding dependent on the numerous interpretations of the data because a large amount of qualitative data is usually collected. Cohen et al. (2011) assert that there is an overlapping of analysis and explanation to draw a conclusion during the analysis process.

Denscombe (2010) describes principles for qualitative data analysis as the comprehensive grouping of varied data into a concise frame by developing codes for the themes, which are subsequently connected to basic data as an outline for later analysis. Thematic analysis is the approach to the identification, analysis and report on the themes of the data (Braun & Clarke, 2006). The qualitative data were analysed manually according to Braun and Clarke's steps for analysis (2006, 2012). The analysis could further call for a comparison of the occurrence of themes or topics within a data set with a code co-occurrence or graphic representation of code associations. A clear understanding of the qualitative data enables the researcher to identify, contrast and decide on the outcome to select and ensure that the association between the research objectives and summary is concise. The outcome could assist the researcher in developing a model by improving the conceptual grounds of the study (Denscombe, 2010).

This chapter presents the results emerging from the qualitative data analysis, representing the outcome of the researcher's interviews with the heads of department (HoDs) in the selected public universities. The interviews sought to bring comprehensive information and insight into the quantitative analysis of the influence of institutional culture on work engagement in public universities in Ghana. The interviews were conducted under three main themes, namely; the nature of institutional culture, degree of work engagement and the perceptions of the relationship between institutional culture and work engagement. In addition, this chapter examines documents to augment the data to validate the opinions expressed by heads of department and compares participants findings to the relevant policy documents. The responses from the interviews are examined based on the themes identified and similar concepts and viewpoints were grouped to form the premise for the main themes. Table 6.1 presents the themes and sub-themes emerging from the analysis of qualitative data.

Table 6.1: Themes and sub-themes from the analysis of qualitative data in correspondence with research questions

Themes	Findings
<p>Theme 1: Nature of institutional culture Sub-themes</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> i. Description of the existing institutional culture ii. Determinants of dominant institutional culture iii. Formal procedures and regulations that binds the members of the institution iv. Structures to ensure employees attain their full career potential v. Freedom to engage with new ideas and be innovative vi. Involvement of employees in decision making vii. Performance evaluation and recognition of employees viii. Structures for teamwork 	<p>Employees generally understand that there is an institutional culture that is unique to their university. Employees agreed that communication is the dominant determinant of institutional culture.</p>

Themes	Findings
<p>Theme 2: Level of work engagement in the institution Sub-themes</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> i. Mental resilience at the work place ii. Employee engrossment in work iii. Strong involvement of employees in work iv. Attitude of senior management towards employee engagement at the workplace v. Structures to ensure employee engagement vi. How institutions cause employees to be engaged in work 	<p>Employees were never/rarely engaged in work</p>
<p>Theme 3: Perception of the association between institutional culture and work engagement Sub-themes</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> i. How institutional culture engages employees in work ii. Effect of existing culture on work engagement 	<p>The interview with the HoDs revealed some level of relationship between institutional culture and work engagement exist.</p>

6.2 DEMOGRAPHIC PROFILES OF HEADS OF DEPARTMENT

Table 6.2 summarises the participants' demographic data, including their pseudonyms, gender, years of work experience and age. To ensure privacy and confidentiality pseudonyms, such as HOD1, HOD2 and HOD3, were used instead of participants' actual names.

Table 6.2: Demographic profiles of Heads of Department

Name	Gender	Years of Experience	Age
HOD1	Male	10	55
HOD2	Male	5	43
HOD3	Female	2	28
HOD4	Male	7	35
HOD5	Male	8	56
HOD6	Female	2	40
HOD7	Female	10	49
HOD8	Male	5	32
HOD9	Female	10	43
HOD10	Male	5	38
HOD11	Male	2	28
HOD13	Male	3	31
HOD14	Male	7	48
HOD15	Male	11	57
HOD16	Male	15	59
HOD17	Male	21	60
HOD18	Male	15	55
HOD19	Male	10	45
HOD20	Female	2	31
HOD21	Female	5	38
HOD22	Male	13	48
HOD23	Male	10	54
HOD24	Female	7	45
HOD25	Female	2	34
HOD26	Female	15	60
HOD27	Female	18	60
HOD28	Female	22	60
HOD29	Female	10	57
HOD30	Male	2	37

6.3 THEME 1: NATURE OF INSTITUTIONAL CULTURE

This section reveals research findings on the nature of institutional culture in the selected public universities. To assess the participants' understanding of the institutional culture, they were asked to share their opinions. This theme focuses on participants' opinions concerning the existing mission, communication styles, leadership styles, performance evaluation and change and innovation. It also seeks to

elicit employees' views on the current modes of decision-making, rewards and recognition, teamwork, training and development, change and innovation. This question was intended to establish how participants comprehend the existing institutional culture of their universities. The discussion on this theme is structured to address the following sub-themes/questions:

- How will you describe the current institutional culture?
- What are the determinants of culture in the institution?
- Among the determinants of institutional culture, which one is the most dominant? What formal procedures, rules, policies, missions and clear expectations bind the institution members?
- How well does the institution keep employees informed on matters important to their interests?
- How well is information shared amongst departments for the coordination of work efforts?
- What are the arrangements put in a position to ensure that every employee realises their full career potential?
- What system has been established to ensure that employees have the freedom to grow, fail, and be innovative?
- What method does the institution have in place to enhance the involvement of employees in decision-making, sharing ideas and working in a team?
- What system has been put in place to ensure the appraisal and recognition of staff?
- What structures has the institution put in place to support teamwork among its employees?

6.3.1 Description of the Existing Institutional Culture

Bingham and Nix (2010) define institutional culture as the traditions, beliefs, policies and practices that affect the career and life of administration, staff, faculty and students. Understanding culture leads to an appreciation of the uniqueness of an institution. It influences employees and other stakeholders. Institutional culture is

essential and it is incumbent on leaders of institutions to shape the culture to maximise effectiveness (Lee, 2004), which will, in turn, engage the workforce at the workplace. The participants revealed that employees believe that institutional culture encompasses employees' principles and opinions at the workplace, which drives actions, decisions and overall institutional performance.

The HoD26 described the existing culture as follows:

I believe the university is still growing and the culture of this university is still being structured towards granting access to the development of the community and the country. As time goes on norms, and practices are fashioned out to guide behaviour of stakeholders of the university including employees and this distinguishes this university from other universities.

HoD4 stated that:

I trust that there are goals set by my university, and the university places emphasis on goal achievement. I am of the strongest opinion that it should be the first and foremost parameter that should stand out in an institution.

HoD6 echoed the same idea by stating that:

Personally, I think there are well-defined expectations on acceptable behaviour and attitudes, which is unique to the university and shows the university's direction.

The findings from the interview with the heads of department show that some of the HoDs were informed about the existence of the university's culture. HoDs showed a good understanding of the concept. Some HoDs described the parameters of institutional culture and their impact on their general output at the workplace. This implies that the institution might have structures and a framework in place in which employees operate or carry out activities. This finding is confirmed by the assertion of Deal and Kennedy (2000) that every institution has its unique institutional culture, which defines how employees should conduct themselves at the workplace.

Furthermore, the culture of an institution often provides the employees with a sense of focus in the workplace.

Nevertheless, the interviews revealed that some HoDs did not clearly understand the institutional culture and were unaware of its existence. Respondents also could not relate it to the values, beliefs and norms shared by members of the institution. The researcher discovered through the interviews that some HoDs could not readily link institutional culture to parameters such as mission, communication, involvement in decision-making, performance evaluation, leadership and teamwork, among others. This finding relates to the evidence established in literature that little research has been conducted on institutional culture and the influence of culture on work attitudes (Wang et al., 2004). This research supports this claim and suggests that more studies should be conducted on the relationship among the concepts in higher education institutions in developing countries, particularly Ghana.

6.3.2 Determinants of Dominant Institutional Culture

A determinant is a factor that decisively affects the nature and outcome of something and defines the scope, limits or boundaries of a particular process or activity. Determinants of institutional culture are factors that contribute to the development of an environment that enriches all community members, despite their rank or work schedule. When the employees in an institution are well-versed with the determinants of institutional culture, it augments their knowledge of the job and the institution. This leads to the enhancement of the institutional culture. In addition, when the employees in an institution are well-versed in the determinants of institutional culture, their knowledge of the job and the institution is increased, leading to the improvement of the institutional culture (Kapur, 2020). However, in this research, the majority of participants could not clearly point out the determinants of institutional culture in their respective universities.

HOD27 stated that:

Personally, I would mention consistency and adaptability as additional determinants of institutional culture worth taking note of.

Furthermore, the interview revealed that employees might accept the dominant determinant because it was convenient or prevalent. The responses from the interview revealed varied views. Some HoDs believed that one could not single out a dominant factor of institutional culture because one determinant of institutional culture complements the others. This notwithstanding, most HoDs thought that one determinant was outstanding and determined the university's uniqueness from another. HoDs noted that an institution's type, channel and level of communication is distinctive. Most HoDs believed that the effectiveness of a determinant of culture or the dominance of a determinant of institutional culture depended on how well it is communicated in the university.

HoD 13 asked:

What happens when an institution has a clearly stated mission but is not communicated to employees? In that case, employees will not know the direction in which the institution wants to go, or the employees will not know the prime focus of the institution. Also, if there is no communication of a determinant, then no work is done by employees. My university has clearly defined channels of communication and there is a two-way form of communication which is widely accessible and shared in the university. The institution's policies are clearly communicated from time to time before they are enforced, institutional policies are fair and there are proper channels for handling grievances. I am of the view that, communication could only be effective when information distributed is clear and accurate, and there is a better understanding of the mission and vision statements.

The findings showed that communication is a crucial determinant of institutional culture. This corresponds with the literature that channels for communication can form the basis for analysing the university's culture (Olssen & Peters, 2005). Taking this

into consideration, the channels of communication at these universities must be open. With demand from stakeholders for enhanced accountability and efficiency from higher education institutions, it behoves the universities to manage their public image and initiate modifications and market strengths that have been identified, while contesting for scarce resources through effective forms of communication. While implementing daily work schedules, employees acquire information on the determinants of institutional culture. Other times, employees learn about the institution's culture through communication with superiors, subordinates and colleagues. When the employees in an institution are well aware of the determinants of their institutional culture, it contributes to the development and commitment to work schedules, enhancing the institution's overall structure (Kapur, 2020). In this finding, the research puts forward the claim that universities must know the entities of information and how it is communicated and clearly communicate the mission, leadership style, performance evaluation, rules and regulations, change and innovation and other parameters of institutional culture to employees (Lane, 2011; Kinser & Lane, 2014; Tierney & Lanford 2015).

HoD 22 mentioned that:

We have a well-defined criterion for evaluating performance in this university, and that performance and personal objectives are set at the beginning of the year. Mostly, employees are reminded of performance goals to be achieved, and progress towards meeting job objectives is reviewed periodically. In addition to this, the university, compares performance to its objectives at the end of the year. Also, performance evaluation is conducted fairly and feedback on performance is given at the end of the year. I will thus add here that, performance evaluation can determine institutional culture because feedback from the evaluation guides employees in their preparation for promotions. I am however of the view that if there is a performance evaluation policy, but communication is not effective, the evaluation process will come to naught. Therefore, communication is the vehicle for conveying institutional culture.

Other HoDs mentioned leadership as a determinant of institutional culture. According to them, institutional culture is defined as the highest order of an institution and then broadcast with the support of employees. Hasibuan et al. (2018) explained that the appropriate direction provided by leadership could increase employees' effectiveness in completing their work. Leaders were also responsible for providing advice to employees. Thus, it had consequences for institutional performance (Azanza et al., 2013). The HoD further indicated that there are lines of authority that are clearly defined in the institution, and most leaders in the university symbolise the institution.

This view was supported by HoD 2, who aptly stated:

Leadership is a significant internal factor that steers the culture of an institution. A leader's decisions can have an adverse effect on the institution's culture. A leader who is indifferent and acts contrary to the rules of the university sets a bad precedence and paves the way for other employees to act in the same way. Therefore, institutional leaders should lead by example and set standards for expected behaviour.

HoD 27:

I am of the opinion that the mission is the core mandate of the university, and the leadership is to operate within the institution's mission. I maintain that we the employees are substantial internal factors that impact institutional culture because we have unique backgrounds, characters, and experiences. While universities cannot fully direct how different employees should act, guidelines can be instituted to guide the behaviour of employees. The mission statement and code of ethics, amongst others, are policy documents that universities use as standards to direct employees. I believe that where there are clearly defined mission and vision statements for the institution in addition to rules, regulations and job description, a unique institutional culture is formed.

6.3.3 Formal Procedure and Regulations that bind the Institution's Members

Heads of department in the selected public universities were interviewed on the formal procedures, rules, policies, mission and clear expectations that have been put in place to bind the members in the institution. Tools mentioned by heads of department were the university's policy documents such as statutes, administrative manuals, and policies that complement the general conduct of employees and the completion of tasks. An HoD mainly spoke about programmes such as convocation staff durbars, where all staff come together to air their views and share their thoughts.

HoD11 further indicated that:

We have rules and clear expectations in this university that bind the actions and reactions of members in the university community. In effect, the mission and vision statements stipulated in the university statutes generally guide policy decision-making.

However, some HoDs generally indicated that public universities need to step up their game in policy implementation and analysis.

This finding was supported by an HoD who indicated that:

Some policies have been instituted, but employees are not aware until we go against a policy before knowing its existence. I will add that some policies are on paper, but those policies are not implemented in reality. There are also no policies guiding human resource management, training and development and record keeping. This is because each time the accreditation team from the Ghana Tertiary Education Council (GTEC) visits, the departments, faculties and schools in the university are thrown in limbo.

6.3.4 Structures to ensure that Employees Attain their Full Career Potential

Training and development aim to enhance the performance and productivity of each employee at every level. Training and development activities aim at providing human resources ready for competence, managerial and behavioural aspects. Chadha (2018)

explained that employee development as a culture enhances employee engagement. The developmental culture suggested by Bergquist (1992), emphasises the creation of programmes and activities geared at improving all employees' personal and professional growth. This is deemed important because the emphasis is placed on institutional research and curricular planning geared towards employees' personal development. Thus, training and development programmes harness employees' potential and promote cognitive, affective and behavioural development. The responses from HoDs on training and development showed that the institutions have put in place structures to support the professional growth of staff. This finding implies that well-laid policies guide staff training and development in Ghana's public universities. It further means that there are funding opportunities that employees can access in their institutions for conferences, workshops, seminars, research and further studies which aim at building their capacities and development in their field of specialisation. The views expressed by the HoDs reinforce Bergquist's (1998) theory on the need to instil the development culture in public universities., HoD also said they were motivated to achieve academic laurels because of their universities' training and development system. The research tends to support this claim because training and development give employees the opportunity to expand their horizons, develop new abilities, and realise their full potential. They, in turn, apply this new knowledge and best practices acquired, thereby contributing to institutional success.

HOD27 stated that:

Personally, I think, professional development is essential in every university. If the university does not encourage employees to grow and develop, the institution does not succeed. In view of this the above institutions have to put in all the needed effort to ensure the growth of their employees. Again, the institution places emphasis on employee training and development and there are sufficient opportunities for job training. In my university, there are ample opportunities for personal growth and skill development for employees. in addition to this, the university have better resources (facilities, equipment, tools, etc.) to work with.

The view expressed supports the assertion of Khurotin and Afrianty (2018) that when training and development are made part of the institutional culture, employees acquire specific knowledge and skills for work in the institution. Therefore, training and development opportunities are seen as an essential internal parameter of institutional culture. Consequently, it is extensively understood that workshops, seminars and other activities are the key internal factors of institutional culture (Kapur, 2020). Contrary to this, some HoDs indicated that their university's training and development systems needed to be improved.

An HoD27 lamented that:

When one is given orientation on the first appointment, that ends it. There may not be an opportunity for mentorship because there is no system in place for that. Also, study leave is not accessible to all because an employee may have completed the waiting period but can only go on study leave when the university is in good financial standing and when there are vacancies for study leave.

HoD13 added that:

In this institution, if one does not learn on their own, you will continue to stay in the dark because the institution does not make available training and development opportunities to all. HoD13 added that this is because, the university does not follow the capacity building principle but only operates with the "whom you know" syndrome.

The respondents' views are contrary to the belief that continuous training and development as a determinant of culture is essential because it improves employees' engagement in handling tasks (Azeem et al., 2013). This revelation defeats the assertion by Wilson (2006) that training is a planned activity to improve the knowledge, skill or attitude through a learning process to achieve the desired performance

However, it is worth noting that the development of employees is a means of preparing employees to carry out work schedules effectively. This may include formal and informal education, training, mentoring and coaching (Armstrong, 2008). Training is

not just about developing people but also improving the capabilities and confidence in carrying out work schedules (Wilson, 2006). Furthermore, the training of employees is more significant given today's work environment with an upsurge in the usage of technology which has affected the economy and society at large. This implies that employers must train employees to survive the current or future needs of work schedules. Bergquist and Pawlak (2008) add that an institutional culture harnesses employees' potential and unearths cognitive, affective and behavioural maturation. The research argues that the culture must be centred on the behavioural, affective and cognitive development of faculty, administrators and students by emphasising personal and professional growth.

Public universities need to give employees varied opportunities to acquire new knowledge and skills. Universities could provide benefits for continuing education by motivating employees who have pursued their true interests (Davies et al., 2014). The institution should make provision for seminars and workshops to enable employees to learn the array of topics related to their professions. The university library could also form a book club where free books can be distributed to employees to enable them to improve their wealth of knowledge. Employees must also feel that they are an investment for the institution (Fernandez-Mesa & Alegre, 2015), which implies that universities in Ghana should aim at training and developing employees' knowledge and skills so that fulfil their potential because it is crucial for bridging the gap between job requirements and competence of employees. Thus, when any institution, including academic institutions, desires success, routine employee training programmes are vital.

6.3.5 Freedom to Engage with New Ideas and be Innovative

A sound understanding of culture encourages a groundbreaking atmosphere at the workplace that enables the institution to impact its community positively. Culture is the dominant factor that hinders the development and change in an institution (Gwaltney, 2013). Cultures that give room for change are characterised by the willingness to experiment and provide tolerance for failure. An institutional culture that allows for

innovation is considered psychologically safe for employees, highly collaborative and non-hierarchical. A favourable culture translates into better innovative performance of the institution. The views expressed by the HoDs demonstrate that there are structures established to ensure that employees adapt to change and are innovative in the workplace. The interviews further revealed that employees could gain hands-on experience by making mistakes and learning from them.

An HoD revealed that:

Because of the rise in the number of students and the use of technology the institution accepts new and improved ways of carrying out tasks. In view of these new resources have been acquired by the university to mitigate the attendant challenges. I can confirm that the institution is characterised by freedom, innovation, uniqueness and risk-taking, innovation, freedom and uniqueness where room is given for independent thoughts and actions to improve work experience and to develop the institution as a whole.

Further, HoD17 explained that:

In this university, we the senior members (teaching), are independent and can teach using any suitable methodology provided it meets the objectives. I can confidently say that, here, we also have the right to choose a research area of interest.

An HoD22 indicated that:

At the Committee level, we are allowed to initiate and share ideas, make mistakes, and work towards achieving the terms of reference of the Committee.

Creating a meaningful culture that allows employees to collaborate and establish positive relationships is essential. When the institution supports employees, they feel that leadership is 'on their side' and 'rooting for them to succeed' (Hashim et al., 2017). Creating this culture also enables employees to bond and interact well and behaviour reasonably. This way, employees are open with their emotions, discussions, individual profiles and exigent ideas (Bagheri et al., 2016).

An HoD added that there:

Are no specific structures to encourage adaptation to change and innovation in public universities in Ghana. However, I firmly believe that the working environment in my university challenges employees to be innovative. The system for promotion alone is rigorous because one has to research, publish and at the same time offer community service, which in itself is challenging and innovative.

Along similar lines, this research asserts that the initial step to innovation is the creation of a welcoming atmosphere to enable employees to generate challenging ideas to improve performance and productivity at the workplace. In this vein, an employee with a great idea should be made responsible for executing tasks in the institution. It must, however, be pointed out that institutional leaders inadvertently discourage employees from sharing new ideas by delegating tasks to other employees who have not shared new ideas. This may not be the best approach because employees can have the freedom to be creative and innovative and fail only when they are trusted, rewarded and empowered to execute innovations themselves. Therefore, opportunities must be given for innovation and to carry out new ideas in the completion of tasks, as this reflects the degree at which the institution welcomes innovation and the willingness to inspire employees who come up with new ideas. It may also be necessary to allow employees to see innovations implemented from start to finish to encourage them to develop new ideas.

6.3.6 Involvement of Employees in Decision-Making

Bergquist (1992) postulates that the negotiating culture encourages justifiable and unrestricted regulations and measures for allocating resources and benefits in the institution. This type of culture generally focuses on the involvement of employees in the decision-making process. It emphasises confrontation and fair bargaining amongst employees and vested interest in opposition. This type of culture reflects the need for the involvement and assignment of roles and the need for frequent mediation. It is also geared towards initiating new and more liberal structures for including employees in

decision-making. Finally, the negotiating culture encourages an equal share in power and confrontation for the institution's progress. Negotiating culture may employ the services of committees comprising both faculty and administrators in the decision-taking process and the views of employees could be sought before policies are rolled out. The opinions and ideas of employees should be considered in work environment. In some cases, it is even viable to give employees the authority to correct problems as they occur.

The interviews with the HoDs suggest that employees are involved in regular meetings at the departmental, school and university levels. HoDs further mentioned their involvement in Academic Board meetings, one of the highest decision-making bodies in the institution. HoDs noted that employees are given opportunities to freely express their views at convocations for senior members and staff durbars for senior and junior staff, where they are consulted.

HoD23 indicated that:

There are regular staff meetings, weekly meetings of registry staff, schools, and departmental meetings where employees are involved in decision-making. I dropped my observation in the suggestion boxes placed at vantage points in the university in which anonymous messages and my suggestion was tabled for discussion at a staff durbar.

The views expressed by some of the HoDs align with the opinion of Noah (2008), which shows that crucial decisions that impact employees in an institution should not be left unattended. He asserts that employees trust the institutions they work with and as such, must be allowed to get involved in all aspects of decision-making.

This research puts forward the view that an institution's environment must be open and inclusive to enable employees to develop their innovativeness because the involvement of employees in decision-making builds a sense of workforce membership and a friendly environment in which leaders impart a stable institutional relationship. In addition, institutional leaders must make room for involvement in decision-making

to make employees interact and contextualise institutional goals, work outcomes and civic responsibility because some employees can play central roles in decision-making when they are involved. This research is of the conviction that the involvement of employees in decision-making is to inspire and retain the best employees at the workplace. The involvement in decision-making will empower and help build the confidence of employees, which implies that employers must share vital information with employees and take steps to encourage employees to invest in the success of the institution.

However, HoD27 expressed:

I will disagree ... employees are involved in decision-making in the university. It will interest you to know that the platform for decision-making is open and set, but opinions and concerns of employees are not welcomed. When an employee tries to share a thought or express a view, they are not given a chance. At my university, sometimes employees are victimised or chastised for airing their opinions and concerns. In fact, there is so much vindictiveness in the university. This causes fear and panic and prevents employees from making inputs towards the development of the university. If this goes on, "employees will sit on the fence, fold our hands and watch".

6.3.7 Performance Evaluation and Recognition of Employees

Performance evaluation is a concept that is of interest to researchers and practitioners in human resource management because of its influence on the general effectiveness of an institution (Robbins & Judge, 2011). It is vital to tolerate the failures and ambiguities of employees by applying a careful reflection about disappointment and performance evaluation methods, not output. The interview findings revealed that most universities had a sound performance evaluation system in place. In most public universities, every student must evaluate teaching staff over a semester or a trimester before they can access their results. Employees are generally considered for promotion after meeting a minimum waiting period for the promotion. This means that, on average, an employee is evaluated at least every three years.

HoD13 said that:

External assessors evaluate the publications and other articles of most of us senior members before we are recommended for promotion to the next rank at university.

However, it was revealed that in some universities, apart from the performance evaluation done before promotion, there was no other organised structure/system for continuous or consistent assessment to be carried out on a quarterly or even yearly basis.

An HoD revealed that:

I personally think that this is an area in which the university is not doing much. Believe you me, I can recount how an employee was denied promotion because there was no quarterly or yearly performance system. So, nobody cared to give feedback to this employee who was non-performing until it was time for an upgrade.

Regarding the system for rewards and recognition, HoDs revealed that the university had instituted the Vice-Chancellor's Best Staff Award Scheme. Rewards are given for outstanding performance and as a fair compensation for work. Awards are given to deserving employees whose performance on the job is exceptional and has the requisite qualification to merit the award. This supports the opinion of Maslach et al., (2001) that inadequate rewards and recognition may result in burnout; therefore, it is essential to put in measures for the recognition and reward of employees to increase the degree of work engagement. This aspect is essential because when rewards and recognition are given to employees, they tend to respond to duty with increased levels of engagement. It is believed that perception of the rate of return can also be generated from external rewards and recognition as well as the completion of work schedules by employees. It is anticipated that those employees who engage themselves in their work schedules, expect great rewards and recognition for their performance at the workplace. The research, thus, suggests that there must be equity in the distribution of rewards based on qualification and merit, to create a meaningful culture.

6.3.8 Institutional Structures Supporting Teamwork among Employees

Teams and teamwork are increasingly becoming essential to the commitment, performance and productivity of employees in the institution (Stough et al., 2000; Adebajo & Kehoe, 2001). Teamwork creates an environment that facilitates knowledge sharing amongst employees and meets the needs of employees at the workplace (Karia & Ahmad, 2000; Karia & Asaari, 2006). An institution with a culture of teamwork is characterised by collaboration, openness, consensus and participation. Employees are bonded by loyalty, mutual trust and work. A chronological analysis conducted by Osland and Bird (2000) in Central America revealed that the opportunities to work together within an institution lead to better employee characteristics. Anschutz (1995) opines that teamwork, freedom and continuous learning are significant to the success of institutions and tend to nurture a partnership between employees and management. The interviews with HoDs revealed no well-laid-out structures for building teamwork within the institutions.

HoD5 said:

Teaching staff build the teams on their own because they conduct a lot of collaborative researches. However, my university is still a growing university with limited facilities, as a result of this there are no clubhouses or senior standard rooms for employees to socialise and interact or even share ideas after a hard day's work.

This finding indicates that the lack of a space or opportunity to interact even with team retreats and parties, prevents employees bonding, collaborating and sharing new ideas. Taking this into consideration, such opportunities for teamwork in the university could be nurtured in a less restrictive atmosphere. For social activities such as sports, an employee of a relatively low rank in the university, for example, can be assigned a leadership position as a team leader. This helps to decrease the sense of order and helps to improve comfort and effective communication among team members (Lu, 2016). In line with the finding, the research asserts that, once in a while, employees should be given opportunities for relaxation and socialisation so as to move away from

the professional environment. However, this must be implemented well so as not to put time constraints on employees and make them feel less secure.

However, HoD13 had a different opinion. HoD13 indicated:

The university's Third Trimester Field Practical Programme (TTFPP) offers the employees in other schools and sections the opportunity to come together while assessing students on the field. I am of the view that the TTFPP gives us a chance to work in teams. In so doing, diverse ideas and information is needed for the growth of the institution are shared and implemented. Thus, Committees set bring different categories of employees in the university together to brainstorm and generate policy decisions that encourage teamwork.

An HoD suggested that:

It is about time public universities in Ghana organise more local and national workshops and seminars to improve teamwork amongst their employees.

This affirms the codes and agreements of an institution in socialisation proposed by Tierney and Lanford (2015) that institutional culture is assessed in three diverse ways. The first is an examination of how new employees interact in the institution. The second deals with the means and prevalence and thirdly, the different means of interrogating knowledge for success in varying positions of the university, reflect the level of socialisation. Learning about the ways of interaction offer an insight into the interpretation and reaction of employees to institutional actions. The views expressed by the HoDs support the claim that teamwork is incredibly crucial, especially when students and teaching staff study and work from afar. In light of this, the level at which the management of public universities promotes teamwork will create and maintain a vibrant institutional culture. The negotiating culture proposed by Bergquist (1992) emphasises the importance of teamwork. The negotiation culture sees the university as a system of diverse interest groups who must negotiate with each other to receive their fair share of the resources and benefits of the institution. It further affirms that this culture is hinged on confrontation and fair bargaining among management and faculty. The research suggests that, for shared governance and teamwork to thrive in public

universities in Ghana, committee systems at the faculty and school levels comprising of both faculty and administrators must be encouraged.

6.4 THEME 2: LEVEL OF WORK ENGAGEMENT

Work engagement is the degree of dedication and involvement in the institution and its principles (Anitha, 2014). Work engagement is necessary to increase job performance and productivity. Involving employees in work boosts accountability and makes them support business innovation. Employees must take the initiative to dedicate themselves to tasks with dedication in order to raise performance standards (Bulkapuram et al., 2015). According to Weston (2016), although work engagement may vary among employees, the differences between employees at the workplace may present valuable information. This theme addresses the principal research question: *What is the employees' work engagement level in Ghana public universities?*

The research asked the following guiding questions to Heads of Department (HoDs) to prompt and trigger a rich and meaningful discussion:

- What is the attitude of senior management in getting employees engaged in work?
- What are the measures to ensure that employees are fully engaged in their work?
- How does the culture of the institution cause employees to be engaged in their work?
- How well are employees engrossed in their work?
- How will you describe the mental resilience of employees at work?
- How will you describe the involvement of employees in their work?
- What are the systems in place that encourage employees' participation?

The HoDs gave diverse views on their experiences and employees' experiences on what sustains their interest in their work schedule. Some, however, shared both pleasant and unpleasant experiences. Some insight is provided below.

6.4.1 Mental Resilience of Employees at Work

The interviews with HoDs suggested that employees generally believed that mental resilience at the workplace depends on the flow of information and the leadership style of the institution. Employees with the right mental resilience put in the effort to get work done are physically attached to the work and have the stamina to carry out work, no matter the challenges encountered.

An HoD claimed that:

My colleagues and I generally do not have the suitable mental resilience at the workplace because there is no open, fair and clear communication. You know what? sometimes the institution does not motivate employees to commit to putting extra effort or "die" for the institution. I am of the opinion that employees in the university are not being given fair treatment.

However, the finding contradicts the job demands model, which presumes that work engagement motivates employees toward positive job performance. The JD-R model further asserts that work engagement moderates the correlation between personal, job and personal resources, on the one hand and affirmative effects, on the other. The JD-R model essentially presumes that work engagement is an outcome of an innately inspiring nature of resources.

However, HoD7 shared a different opinion that:

Despite the challenges associated with the work in the institution in Ghana, I come in to work with the right frame of mind or have high levels of energy at work to work. I feel that in the same way, other colleagues in public universities come in mentally prepared to work. This is because surprisingly, despite the challenges associated with work, most employees keep to their schedule and meet targets at the workplace.

This was supported by HoD13, who said that:

I personally believe that employees just set their minds to support the university by committing to work and earning their salaries. And that I, for instance, come

to work with a suitable mental resilience because my livelihood depends on the institution's survival.

The views are supported by the claim of Avey et al. (2011) and Luthans et al., (2006) that confirm a link between resiliency and adversity with high intensity. Luthans et al. (2015) suggest that resilience is a capacity for the employee's well-being. According to Ojo et al., (2021), an employee's resilience is a beneficial character that enables human function. Therefore, in the context of an institution, studies have demonstrated its advantages regarding performance (Amir & Standen, 2019).

6.4.2 Employees' Engrossment in their Work

HoDs interviewed did not show great appreciation for employees' level of engrossment at the workplace. According to the HoDs, the poor level of engrossment in the workplace was reflected primarily by the administrative staff whose attendance and punctuality at work, their inability to sit in one place and complete their tasks, and their inability to sit through working hours. One element which came out strongly is the unwillingness of some staff to go the extra mile or spend additional time to complete a task. Additionally, some HoDs admitted that there were no motivating factors that draw them to the workplace. Employees come to work because they are required to do so. Some HoDs also indicated that there are no structures in place.

HoD23 mentioned that:

For me, there is no system to check or quantify work done over time; therefore, it is challenging to measure engrossment at the workplace.

This was corroborated by another HoD who said that:

I do not to carry office work to the house and do not think about office work when away from the workplace. The urge is not there because management do not pull staff along. However, a few employees are engrossed in work. But I am of a strong view that majority of employees in public universities do not have the zeal to work.

Even though HoDs acknowledged that there were difficulties associated with their jobs that they tend to be detached from work, employees could still accommodate the challenges.

As affirmed by HoD1:

Many students and senior members (teaching) are ready to work but there are limited lecture hall space and time. I am of the opinion that we are engrossed in work and execute work to a large extent though the conditions are not too favourable. Let me also mention here that the COVID-19 pandemic slowed down activities in public universities in Ghana.

HoDs generally felt that the universities could support employees become engrossed in work so that they feel happy being part of the institution and are committed to their work in order to achieve better outcomes. Breeding a culture of engrossment in the institution would also enable employees pay attention to details of their work and focus on work more often even when they are out of the office. The findings from this research correspond with the views of positive implications of involving employees in work will increase accountability and positively respond to institutional innovation. Employees must take the initiative, exhibit professionalism and be devoted to achieving high standards of performance (Bulkapuram et al., 2015).

6.4.3 Involvement of Employees in their Work

The involvement of employees at the workplace is a personal resource an employee brings on board, as noted by the Jobs Demands Theory Approach. Work becomes meaningful to employees who are motivated to carry out their responsibilities in an environment where they naturally feel involved. Employees involved in work are thus able to effectively complete work schedules.

For example, an HoD stated that:

There is the full involvement of employees to ensure that work goes on in the university. I personally lead by example; if I come to work late, my subordinates will also come to work late. If I am involved in work that serves as a pull factor,

other employees get involved as well and tasks are completed on time. I sometimes delegate authority and supervise the assignments to completion. That is how I apply myself at the workplace and get other employees to be involved in work because I have the enthusiasm to work. I am always delighted to carry out my responsibilities at the workplace and I am proud of the work I do because I draw inspiration from my work. I feel a strong enthusiasm for my work.

HoD11 supported this claim by stating that:

Employees work because the proper environment is created for employees to come in with the willingness and urged to perform. Therefore, we are highly engaged in work because we want to be involved.

These views support the claim that work engagement is generally the degree of obligation and participation of employees to the institution's values (Anitha, 2014). Research has revealed that employees' involvement in the workplace produces positive results for themselves and the institution. The well-being and morale of employees, institutional decision-making, retention and productivity of the institution are improved. On the other hand, low employee involvement can result in low degrees of work engagement, which is detrimental to the institution. The research tends to support the notion that employees in public universities could be encouraged to willingly take up additional assignments at the workplace or carry out such assignments. In addition, the university's management can show concern for employees, monitor their degree of engagement once in a while and effect changes that increase employee involvement. An annual employee engagement survey can be an effective tool to collect information in this regard.

However, HoD 15 was of the opinion that most employees in the junior staff categories feel they are side-lined in almost every process at the workplace thus are generally not involved in work. For example, when there are significant events, only senior members (teaching and non-teaching) are invited. It is time the universities acknowledged the contribution of junior staff to its development and this will get them

involved. This view, however, contributes to new knowledge as this was not found in the literature. Relegating junior staff in public universities to the background reduces their morale and might have affected their extent of engagement at the workplace. The research thus suggests that a further look is taken by stakeholders at the role of junior staff in public universities in order to address the concerns that this category of staff across public universities in Ghana is not being fully involved in the workplace.

Following up, participants were asked to determine whether public universities in Ghana have some system in place to ensure that employees involve themselves at the workplace. HODs admitted that they involved themselves at the workplace and were proud of their work. They spoke positively about the institution to potential employees and clients. It was revealed that their work schedules are challenging and bring out the best in them. Along similar lines the researcher argues that work schedules should be streamlined so that one employee does not remain on one schedule for longer, as familiarity can breed contempt. Besides, new assignments must be given to make the schedule exciting, provide the opportunity for an employee to learn new trends from time to time and make the work challenging to bring out the best in them.

6.4.4 Attitude of Senior Management in Getting Employees Engaged in Work

Baran and Sypniewska (2020) indicate that it is still widespread concern about how management could adjust to stimulate employee effectiveness. Acknowledging the efforts of individual employees is essential to building an institutional culture that encourages openness and cooperation. This was reflected in the participation of employees at the workplace and fostered full employee engagement. The position of management on engagement was manifested in allowing employees to influence institutional decisions directly. However, it went beyond passively waiting for the employee to take the initiative.

Common ground is creating space for employees to be given the opportunity to take the initiative in the workplace. The main motive for allowing employees to participate

in the institution is to provide employees with more authority and greater responsibility, leading to increased work satisfaction and institutional effectiveness (Baran & Sypniewska, 2020). The interviews with HoDs revealed that the management of public universities had a positive attitude towards the engagement of employees. This is because once job schedules were given to employees, the employees work with minimal interference from the university.

HoD13 indicated that:

Once I was appointed, work schedules were set and all the needed resources were provided for me to carry out and complete schedules to earn salaries and other benefits.

This revelation is supported by the findings of Baran and Sypniewska (2020). Managers should provide the resources and benefits that will augment employees' work and create a sense of obligation that leads to greater engagement.

Similarly, responses from the interviews also revealed that essential factors such as the timely payment of salaries, rewards and recognition and timely performance feedback were implemented to improve performance. This ensured that employees came to the workplace with suitable mental resilience, the zeal to be engrossed in work and the willingness to be involved in work. Some HoDs also added that management typically identified employees with matching capacities to carry out assignments. However, every employee was given a chance to offer input from time to time. Others added that when there was constant monitoring and supervision at the workplace, employees who did not exhibit the traits of being engaged at the workplace were called to task and motivated to perform better.

However, HoD27 said:

As a matter of fact, the rampant industrial action, irregular attendance to work and minimal productivity level at the workplace, should tell the universities that employees are not fully engaged at the workplace and there is the need to put in structures to improve the system.

This assertion confirms the publication that the education sector in Ghana has experienced many labour unrest incidents over the years. Various unions within higher education institutions such as the Ghana Association of University Administrators (GAUA), University Teachers Association of Ghana (UTAG), Ghana National Association of Teachers (GNAT), National Association of Graduate Teachers (NAGRAT), Polytechnics Teachers Association of Ghana (POTAG) and Tertiary Education Workers Union (TEWU) are agitating for better conditions of service. The last boycott by POTAG resulted in a temporary shutdown of polytechnics across the country, which interrupted academic work. Kweitsu (2014) found that such labour unrests adversely affect the quality of education as a substantial amount of time required for academic work is lost. How employers treat employees directly affects how employees treat other stakeholders such as the students in the institution.

As cited by the Corporate Leadership Council, 50 000 employees across the world indicated that 22 out of the top 25 drivers of work engagement has to do with the manager. In addition, a strong relationship was found between the extent to which managers clearly articulate the institutional goals to employees and work engagement. Other relationships were found between the degree to which realistic performance expectations are set and how they are adaptable to innovations (Taylor et., al., 2014). In the same vein, a survey conducted by Melcrum (2007) showed that both small and large institutions listed the actions of managers or supervisors as the most critical drivers of work engagement.

Employee interactions and care of its students in the university count and are the institution's lifeblood over the long run. Building an attitude that engages employees at the workplace is essential because, as asserted by Kalia and Verma (2017), the positive results achieved by an industry lie in the engaged workforce. The research would like to argue that it is thus vital for all stakeholders in Ghana's public universities to do their best to ensure that the workforce is fully engaged at the workplace.

6.4.5 Ensuring that Employees are Fully Engaged in their Work

Hughes and Rog (2008, p. 749) state that work engagement is an intense mental and psychological association that an employee has for their work schedules, colleagues' managers and the institution, which influences them to apply additional discretionary effort. Engagement creates the opportunity for employees to associate with subordinates, colleagues, supervisors and the institution. It further entails nurturing a work environment where employees feel motivated, readily connected with work and diligently carrying out work schedules. This construct upholds freedom, change and continuous development as the hallmark of an employer and an employee in the twenty-first-century workplace. HODs observed that adequate strategies were implemented to ensure workplace engagement. It was revealed that there is regular monitoring and supervision of teaching staff by the quality assurance office in public universities in Ghana, where students are usually mandated to assess teaching staff before results are released after every examination without discrimination.

HoD21 stated that:

In recent times audit checks of marked question papers have been introduced in the university. In this way, we must come to the workplace engaged because there are checks and balances. Also, timelines are also set for us to complete tasks or even submit marked examination scripts and upload results for School Board approval. There are checks on the number of courses to be taught per semester/trimester, the minimum workload for employees, etc. in this university.

HoD13 indicated that:

In our university, rewards and recognition systems have been instituted for employees who put in their best. This means an employee must come onto the work fully engaged in bringing out sterling performance to earn an award. Let me also add here that there are well-laid out requirements for promotion and employees must be fully involved at the workplace to meet these requirements.

Also, reports are submitted on employee attendance and work output from time to time.

However, it emerged that when communication is poor, and there are no set timelines for tasks to be carried out and submitted, employees tend not to be fully engaged at work. Despite this revelation, it is evident from the responses that there were structures established to ensure that employees were engaged in the workplace. This finding implies that by creating a meaningful culture that motivates employees to engage in work fully, institutions may benefit because better institutional performance will be achieved (Baumruk, 2006). Accordingly, Glen (2006) indicates that the work surroundings is key in predicting work engagement, institutional practices, values, work-life balance, values, information and reward/recognition. Along similar lines, institutions must put in places measures to create the right institutional culture to engage employees at the workplace.

6.4.6 Institutional Culture motivates Employees to be Engaged

Generally, the interview analysis revealed that when communication is very effective, the university's mission is communicated to employees who tend to get to know the focus and direction of the university and work towards it. It also came to light that when feedback is given on performance, employees know what to do and thus are committed to working towards the university's development.

However, an HoD indicated that:

To me, it is about time public universities took a second look at the calibre of employees who are appointed to work in the universities. Now "the whom you know" syndrome is catching up with everyone, so people employed through protocol mostly come onto the job unprepared to work and are not willing to learn. The protocol system for absorbing people into the institution undermines the authority and growth of work. It does not encourage employees who want to be engaged to be fully engaged at work. I suggest that universities must

generally employ the right people with the right frame of mind to work in the university.

One bad hire can negatively impact institutional culture and work engagement. Institutions control the people to hire by designing a hiring process that entails intelligent decisions on whom to hire. Institutions should hire people who epitomise their vision and mission and are equipped with the required knowledge and skill to perform the job. This is key to the promotion of a strong institution. This view is similar to the opinion that a factor that affects institutional culture is the individual employees working in the institution. The employees in the institution represent its culture and the investment and the extent of engagement reflect its success. The character of employees, intellect, interests and even their thought processes influence their engagement in work and the institutional culture as a whole.

In addition, some HoDs lamented on the division that has been created in the university, which serves as a breeding ground for unhealthy relationships to the detriment of the engagement of employees at the workplace. Some mentioned ethnicity and religion creeping into the institution because of the university's location. Others cited the clique systems and 'godfatherism²'.

HoD3 said that:

This to me is not good at all. It does not allow employees to give off their best. In this university sometimes a subordinate cannot be called to order because they were employed through a senior-level person in the university.

HoD17 asked:

What is the point in making sacrifices towards the university's development when you will not be treated fairly because you do not belong to a clique system?

² A form of political corruption in which an influential individual handpicks another, often less influential candidate, to attain leadership

An HoD added that rewards and awards, gains and profits were not shared equally in the university, but with friends and favourites in the clique, the system did not promote engagement at the workplace. Furthermore, the interviews with the HoDs revealed that some university activities did not go on, as have been stipulated by policy. However, it is one thing on paper and a different thing in practice. The institution generally has not put well-laid structures in place to fully engage employees at the workplace. If employees work, they work because they want to work and not due to an institution's strategy to engage employees.

HOD21 revealed that:

Personally, despite the teaching load, I mark and get students results ready, precisely what is done. This is done whether the lecturer is engaged or not.

The foregoing discussions imply that the universities lack the policies and structures to cause employees to be engaged at the workplace. The views expressed by HoDs were contrary to the belief that if work engagement and its principles were widely understood, shared and fully implemented, there would be growth in workplace performance and work engagement. The research believes that for commitment to be at the heart of the workplace, the association between employees and employers should be paramount to the increase of productivity and transformation of the welfare of employees.

6.5 THEME 3: RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN INSTITUTIONAL CULTURE AND WORK ENGAGEMENT

This theme addresses research question three and the principal question: *What is the correlation between institutional culture parameters and work engagement parameters at public universities in Ghana?*

This theme also addresses the hypothesis set to guide the study. The following guiding questions were put to HoDs:

- How would you describe the institutional culture?

- Does it fully engage employees at work?
- How does the existing culture affect work engagement?

HoDs reported diverse views on the link between institutional culture and work engagement. Most HoDs described the association as a positive one, arguing that employees went to work because the current culture engages them at the workplace. In contrast, others suggested that employees went to work because they had to go and that it was not because there is a unique institutional culture that engages them at work. Therefore, there is a supposed an association between institutional culture and work engagement.

6.5.1 Institutional Culture engaging Employees at the Workplace

The stronger an institution's culture, the better one understands the institution's operations. Employees who are engaged tend to be committed, motivated and happy to be with the institution. Generally, an employee engaged at work feels more connected to the institution. In view of this, the research argues that work engagement directly results from meaningful institutional culture because meaningful cultures have clearly defined characteristics that promote the development of the institution. In this regard, one can say that culture and employee engagement are closely related.

Twenty-four (24) HoDs indicated that when there was frequent monitoring, supervision and feedback to staff on their performance, they tended to be engaged. In addition, when there is an information flow and the communication lines are open, employees understand what is required of them on the job and are free to share opinions and ideas. In this case, the institution tends to move in the same direction as its employees, and everyone is fulfilled.

HoD27 indicated that:

For me, the high ranking received by the university on the universities' league table has put employees on their toes and has increased engagement levels to maintain the high performance and productivity levels in public universities in Ghana.

This observation confirms that when employees are engaged in work they stay longer with the institution and continually design more groundbreaking strategies to add value to the institution. The result is an effective institution where employees flourish and productivity rise and is sustained (Vogelsang et al., 2013). Therefore, for universities to maintain their institutional gains, the university management and stakeholders must implement the necessary structures to engage employees (Kortmann et al., 2014).

In contrast, HoD23 believed that;

The university's culture does not engage employees because there is no freedom of speech. There is no freedom to innovate. To me, work has become an everyday business and it is no longer challenging. The whole culture is unfair - Do you know that an employee has to be cliqued to enjoy the benefits accrued to employees? How will employees then be engaged at the workplace?

Additionally, another HoD stated that the institutional culture did not support employees' engagement and was reflected in the attitude of employees towards work. For example, the HoD mentioned that some senior members (teaching) did not even report to work regularly. However, the HoD further added that no provision had been made for generators in the building which means that when there is a power outage, it deterred employees from going to the office.

6.5.2 Existing Culture Affects Work Engagement

The structures put in place by the institution for the achievement of its mission also contribute to its culture; thus, employees must adhere to this by engaging at the workplace to meet the set guidelines. With performance evaluation, an institution must follow feedback procedures to form its culture. The leadership style used in handling employees at the workplace affects the institutional culture. When the leadership style is welcoming and collaborative, employees become attached to the institution's leadership and look forward to permanent relations with the institution. The leadership style must be respectful and not breed a culture where employees aim at making

money and nothing else. When it is so, employees will treat the institution as a source of earning income and opt for a new job at the slightest opportunity.

Most HoDs perceived a significant relationship between institutional culture and work engagement. HoDs further noted that the mission, communication, leadership style, performance evaluation and change and innovation strongly correlated with an employee's mental resilience, engrossment and intense involvement.

HoD13 stated that:

Institutional culture primarily affects work engagement because employees still have the zeal to work despite the difficulties public universities in Ghana face. Despite the challenges associated with work, I am focused and I beat timelines.

However, some HoDs had the perception that the existing culture in the university did not promote work engagement because there are no motivation strategies in place. Divisions resulting from tribalism and religion are gradually creeping into the institution, rendering the working environment unhealthy and disengaging employees, as evidenced by Hartnell et al. (2011) in their research on the correlation between institutional culture and level of employee engagement.

It is, however, worth noting that a positive institutional culture promotes competitive work environments and continuous improvements in performance and productivity (Morgeson et al., 2013). Consequently, leaders who promote institutional culture inspire expansion, growth and engagement for themselves and their employees. Osborne and Hammoud (2017) opine that comprehending several cultures is intricate. However, leaders must nurture a work atmosphere where employees feel respected and are, thus, engaged. Jiony et al. (2015) state that institutional culture and work engagement are interconnected concepts. The research suggests that the lack of strong institutional culture could adversely affect employee job satisfaction and work engagement in the institution. Thus, university management and stakeholders must develop a workplace culture that values employees for their unique contributions, as this unearths the potential for employees to become fully engaged and committed to

the institution. An influential institutional culture which favours employee development enhances work engagement.

6.6 DOCUMENT ANALYSIS

Document analysis is valuable for several reasons, but has been under-utilised in qualitative research (Morgan, 2022). Document analysis is a structured process for scrutinising printed and electronic documents. Just like any method of review, examination and interpretation are required to make meaning, understand and develop empirical knowledge (Fischer, 2006). Document analysis is basically for information gathering but depends on the researcher's epistemological stance (Paul, 2007). Therefore, I, as the researcher, must consider the epistemological theories that guide the study. Rapley (2018) asserts that document analysis may be conducted on pre-existing textual sources or are sometimes created purposely for analysis. The use of antecedent data is similar to the use of data from observations and interviews. This is because data gathered from articles, books and other sources of documents are equivalent to the data collected during an interview. These sources consider people's beliefs in a similar way to the data a researcher would gather from observations and interviews (Merriam & Tisdell, 2016).

For the purpose of triangulation, document analysis is often done by blending it with other qualitative research methods (Denzin, 2017, p. 48). It is further believed that document analysis entails scrutinising an assortment of material, including visual sources, such as films, videos and photographs (Merriam & Tisdell, 2016). It also consists of an analysis of varied documents such as institutional reports, books, academic journals and newspapers. Documents consisting of texts or visual material can be a source for qualitative analysis (Flick, 2018) such as interviews, non-participant and participant observation and physical artefacts. In order to boost the credibility of the document review process, there is the need to support the evidence and analysis with multiple sources (Patton, 1990).

An institution should be assessed by the written and unwritten rules alongside relationships with values and behaviours displayed by its people to understand an institution's culture and the extent of engagement of employees at work. This stage of the research focuses on assessing pertinent documents compared to the data acquired from the respondents/participants through the questionnaire and the interviews. The documents used were institutional documents that emphasise institutional culture as crucial to developing public universities' work engagement in this study. This research phase is vital because the data garnered from the documentary review augments the data and validates the opinions and experiences shared by respondents through the other data collection tools.

According to Rapley (2007), the use of triangulation in document analysis further decreases bias in the study. Morgan (2022) concurs that the use of document analysis gives room for the completion of the conduct of research that otherwise may not have been completed because it sometimes cuts out the use of field work, video conferencing and the unskilful use of technology. Following the methodology, institutional documents for the selected public universities were analysed to ascertain the degree of alignment with the tenets of building a positive institutional culture and maintaining a high level of work engagement. Furthermore, all assessments were endorsed by explanations and quotations from the documents in order to present an auditable rationale for assessments.

The following documents were assessed to ensure a fair and impartial document analysis procedure:

- The Statutes of the University
- The Strategic Plan
- The Administrative Manual
- Policy Documents
- Conditions of Service
- Scheme of Service for Registrars

The statutes of the university cover areas such as the structure of the university, admission and matriculation of students, congregation, regulation for junior members, information and communication technology, community relations, appointments and promotions, welfare services, boards and committees of the university and convocation, amongst others. Using institutional policy documents to guide the daily operation of the institution ensures that the channels of communication are open and information is shared. Having a unified policy document brings employees together and also seeks the welfare of employees. The unified policy documents clearly spell out the expected outcomes of service, making employees feel the employer is investing in them; thus, they become engaged at the workplace.

The strategic plan of public universities in Ghana guides the university's operations, leading to work engagement. I carried out the same assessments on documents such as the administrative manual, which ensures a good sustainable management and safeguards the interest of the institution, conditions of service, the scheme of service, and attendance register; and the policy documents, such as the quality assurance and consultancy services. It, however, came to light that some public universities do not have well-defined policies on training and development, human resource and record keeping. Table 6.3 presents the document used for analysis and the aspect analysed.

Table 6.3: Document analysis

NO.	DOCUMENTS SELECTED	DATA ANALYSED
1.	University Statutes	The statutes of the university cover areas such as the structure of the university, admission and matriculation of students, congregation, regulations for junior members, information and communication technology, community relations, appointments and promotions, welfare services, board and committees of the university and convocation, amongst others.
2.	Strategic Plan	The strategic plan spells out the core values of the institution that guides the operation and characteristics of the institution. The various strategic plans for public universities in Ghana are centred on areas such as the core values, mission and vision statements, and internal and external environment scans.
3.	Scheme of Service	The scheme of service provides the guidelines to ensure that employees are highly motivated and equipped with the relevant knowledge, skills and attitudes. The waiting period for promotion and the requirements for promotion to the next rank are clearly spelt out in the Scheme of Service for the various categories of employees in public universities in Ghana.
4.	Unified Conditions of Service	Institutional unified policy documents bring employees together and also seek the welfare of employees. The unified policy documents clearly spell out the expected outcomes of service and makes employees feel the employer is investing in them; thus, they become engaged at the workplace.
5	Administrative Manual	An administrative manual captures policies and procedures on the day-to-day operations of the institution. It spells out objective, fair and consistent legitimate management actions. It determines a set of rules by which an institution is governed.
6	Other Policy Documents <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Quality Assurance 2. Ethics 3. Consultancy Service 4. Staff Development 5. Mentoring 6. Sexual Harassment 	Policy documents serve as the framework that defines expected behaviour and outcomes and guides the daily operation of the institution.

6.7 SUMMARY OF THE CHAPTER

In this chapter, the qualitative findings were discussed and linked to literature that was reviewed, which guided the interpretation of the data. The chapter was structured under three main themes. It also outlined the responses from the respondents interviewed on the backdrop to the research, the research questions and the semi-structured interview questions. The first section examined the different opinions on the nature of the existing institutional culture in public universities. Section two focused on the level of work engagement in the selected universities. The third section solicited views on the level of correlation between institutional culture and work engagement.

The qualitative analysis indicates that some employees did not understand the institutional culture and are unaware of the existence of a culture. This may imply, then, that the level of communication is low and policy documents may have not been extensively distributed and explained to employees. The finding is corroborated by the perception that there are low levels of engagement in the selected public universities. These low levels of engagement may be either because conditions at the workplace do not engage them, or there are other factors that engage them at the workplace but these are not considered in this research.

Documents analysed revealed that generally there are structures and policies to guide the culture of public universities in Ghana. Apart from the unified conditions of service for public universities in Ghana and the scheme of service which is common to all the public universities in Ghana, each public university had its university statutes, strategic plan, administrative manual and other vital policy documents to guide and shape the behaviour of its employees towards a particular goal and to make the institution a unique one. However, there were no clear-cut policies in some universities on activities of engaging employees at the workplace. Policies on employee development and motivation, for instance were not clearly developed in some universities.

In the next chapter a summary of the emerging outcomes of the quantitative and qualitative data is presented and light is thrown on the limitations and findings of the

research and discusses the perceptions contributing to good practice in public universities.

CHAPTER SEVEN

MERGING OF QUANTITATIVE AND QUALITATIVE DATA

7.1 INTRODUCTION

The previous chapter analysed and interpreted the results from the semi-structured interviews. Thereafter, the findings were discussed with relevance to the literature. The current research aimed to examine the influence of institutional culture on employees' engagement level in Ghana's public institutions. The research was hinged on the assumption that the parameters of institutional culture affect the level to which employees in public universities are engaged in work. This premise could either be negative or positive and could affect the uniqueness of the public university. In this context, the research revealed that communication could be one of the determinants of work engagement.

This chapter is categorised under the following broad headings: the nature of institutional culture in public universities in Ghana, the level of engagement of employees in public universities in Ghana and the link between institutional culture and work engagement. The key convergent and divergent outcomes from both the quantitative and qualitative analysis are highlighted in this chapter. Following the highlights, the researcher further discusses the key outcomes of the context of the theoretical framework, namely, Tierney's Unique Institutional Culture, Bergquist's institutional archetypes of culture and the Job Demands Resources model.

7.2 NATURE OF INSTITUTIONAL CULTURE IN PUBLIC UNIVERSITIES IN GHANA

Quantitatively, most of the respondents (83.0%) revealed that a university's mission drives the institutional culture. The finding conforms with the qualitative data and thus supports the view that a well-defined expectation on acceptable behaviour and attitudes drives actions, decisions and overall institutional performance. It came to light that the universities have spelt out missions that serve as a framework within which

employees operate or carry out their activities. This confirms the assertion that the history of the university informs a mission statement, which gives meaning, purpose and direction to all stakeholders of institution (Tierney, 2008).

A total of 62.0% of the respondents indicated that communication is a determinant of the institutional culture of public universities. This finding is not surprising because the qualitative data analysis revealed that employees took cognisance that the type, channel and level of communication are specific determinants of work engagement. A majority of the respondents stated that the effectiveness of an institutional culture depends on how well the determinants of institutional culture are communicated in the institution. In addition, Tierney (1988) discussed the channels for disseminating knowledge within institutions and how leaders should communicate with their internal constituencies. Tierney (1988) further indicated that university members become attached to the institution when management effectively shares information with employees. Some of the respondents echoed the view that management members' leadership style underpins the institutional culture's philosophy. It was revealed in the quantitative analysis that leadership symbolises the institution's values and beliefs and is accountable for giving advice to employees. Thus, it has implications for institutional performance, as this shows that when good leadership is exhibited, the university's mandate is met, which may increase productivity and performance and thereby sustain the overall culture of the university.

In contrast, the qualitative analysis revealed that some employees do not understand the institutional culture and are unaware of the existence of a culture. Furthermore, 43.9% of respondents neither agreed nor disagreed that rewards/recognition plays a role in determining institutional culture in their public universities. In addition, the quantitative analysis revealed that 39% of the respondents disagree that performance evaluation is paramount in deciding institutional culture.

7.2.1 Critical Views of HoDs and other Employees in Terms of Similarities and Differences

The integrity of any HEI largely depends on its unique institutional culture. The findings reveal similarities that point to a critical aspect of satisfaction with the existing institutional culture in public universities in Ghana. The overall quantitative assessment of institutional culture revealed that 50% agreed with the current institutional culture. Furthermore, 38% neither agreed nor disagreed with the existing institutional culture in their institution. This confirms the revelation from the qualitative analysis that some employees did not understand the concept of institutional culture or were unaware of the existence of institutional culture. The outcome of the quantitative analysis affirms the revelation in the qualitative research that some employees could not relate institutional culture to factors such as mission, communication, teamwork or performance evaluation.

Another similarity is that both the quantitative and qualitative analysis revealed that communication is a vital parameter of institutional culture and a dominant predictor of work engagement in public institutions in Ghana. All 62.0% strongly agreed that mission, communication and leadership are dominant institutional cultures. The analysis, however, showed some differences in responses. The quantitative data revealed communication as a strong predictor of work engagement. However, the analysis of the level of agreement to a parameter showed mission as the dominant parameter. This difference notwithstanding, communication was found amongst the three as a highly rated dominant parameter of institutional culture. Effective communication can be achieved when there are transparent and open communication systems in place.

Employees cannot be brought on-board or motivated to develop a unique institutional culture when they lack the basic fundamental and understanding of the institutional culture's parameters, such as mission, leadership and communication, that are key to creating institutional culture. Though the concept of institutional culture has existed for several years, it continues to be an unknown discipline in higher education institutions

in Ghana. It is, therefore, of great importance for the management of public universities in Ghana, practitioners and policymakers to revise and intensify the education on the need for employees at all levels to be abreast with their institutions and their practices and culture. Public universities should also maximise employees' understanding of how the university system operates and how work schedules should be carried out to achieve institutional goals.

7.2.2 Researcher's Reflection on the Theoretical and Conceptual Frameworks

The primary theoretical frameworks that directed the conduct of the research are Bergquist's institutional archetypes of culture and Tierney's unique institutional culture. According to Bergquist's institutional archetypes cultures (1992), the effective culture touches on the increasing responsibility of technology in institutions of higher education in current times and mainly in response to the implicit and appreciable culture which values corporate existence and the conventional roots of a face-to-face educational setting (Bergquist & Pawlak, 2008). According to Tierney's unique institutional culture, (as cited in Kezar & Eckel, 2002), one can create a better picture of an institution's culture by exploring all six categories.

The study was also guided by the parameters of institutional culture such as mission, communication, leadership, involvement in decision-making, training and development, performance evaluation, rewards and recognition, teamwork, change and innovation which were proposed by the research. The parameters were derived from the theoretical framework and formed the conceptual framework for the study. The theoretical and conceptual frameworks focus on effective communication, collaborative leadership, senior administrative support, staff development and mission, amongst other.

The research results reflect the existence of unique institutional culture in specific institutions. The results reveal that each institution has carved a niche for itself through the type of culture it exhibits. From the number of respondents who revealed that they were aware of institutional culture and the responses on the parameters that influence work, one could conclude that the right institutional culture has been created. The

research argues that institutional culture should be communicated effectively through the proper channels so that they support the operations of the institution to achieve its mandate.

7.3 LEVEL OF WORK ENGAGEMENT

The primary grounds of this research were to survey employees' experiences of public universities in Ghana and analyse their workplace engagement level. The respondents presented diverse views through the quantitative and qualitative data. Regarding the concept of work engagement, in particular, some respondents shared unpleasant experiences while others had positive experiences. The quantitative data revealed that more than half the respondents, representing 89.3%, are never or rarely involved in their jobs at the university. The results further showed that none of the respondents admitted that they were constantly engaged in work or at the workplace most of the time.

The outcome of the quantitative analysis also showed low levels of a reflection or an exhibition of mental resilience, engrossment or involvement in work. As reported, 48.0% of the respondents never had the mental resilience to work. In addition, 49.0% were never strongly involved in work. The respondents gave mixed reactions to their workplace engagement level. Some respondents revealed that employees in public universities in Ghana are naturally not committed to work. It came to light that this is reflected in the pattern of attendance and punctuality at work. It also needs to be pointed out that some employees do not remain in one place to do their work, but roam around because there was no attachment to work. However, this is in sharp contrast to the assertion by one respondent that despite the challenges associated with work in public universities, employees come in with the right frame of mind to work because employees just set their minds to support the institution. Some of the respondents appreciated their mental resilience, engrossment and involvement at the workplace. The outcome of the quantitative analysis is corroborated the outcome of the qualitative analysis because a majority of the views expressed did not show much appreciation of their level of engagement in work at public universities in Ghana. The low levels of

engagement may imply that either employees do not come to the workplace with the right frame of mind, or conditions at the workplace do not engage them, or there are other factors that engage them at the workplace but these are not considered in this research.

7.3.1 Critical Views of HoDs and other Employees in terms of Similarities and Differences

The results from both the quantitative and qualitative data reveal similarities. Some respondents had positive experiences to share, while others had negative experiences. However, the research results indicate that more than half (52.4%) of the respondents are never engaged at work, while 36.9% are rarely engaged in their work schedules at the institution resulting in a low work engagement level in Ghana's public universities. This observation is corroborated by some respondents who indicated that sometimes the lack of sufficient resources, support systems (Acheampong & Amponsah, 2020) and their own state of mind hinders their ability to fully engage in their work tasks.

7.3.2 Researcher's Reflection on the Theoretical and Conceptual Frameworks

The principal model that was studied was the Job Demands resources model. The JD-R model presumes that work engagement brings about favourable results such as job performance. The JD-R model projects work engagement as an advocate of job and personal resources, on the one hand and positive results, on the other. It further asserts that work engagement is an outcome of an inherent motivation of the nature of resources. The personal resources of this research are of main interest and are propounded as positive self-evaluations related to resilience (Hobfoll, 2011). Personal resources reflect an employee's perception and management of unfavourable work conditions. Personal resources can be seen as notable contributors to the welfare of employees at work (Bakker & Demerouti, 2007). Personal resources are also seen as the facet of the job that invigorates personal growth and is geared towards achieving work goals, such as social support and performance evaluation. Personal resources related to resiliency involve opportunely managing and influencing one's environment,

such as confidence and mental stability. Furthermore, personal resources are defined as positive self-assessments associated with some level of flexibility and employees' sense of ability and the power to impact their situation (Hobfoll et al., 2003).

The availability of resources generally promotes work engagement regarding vigour (energy), dedication (determination) and absorption (focus). This notwithstanding, when job demands are high, employees are required to employ extra measures to attain the work goals and avert a reduction in performance. This attempt to balance the demands of the job sometimes comes with psychological and physiological emotions such as pervasiveness. When there is insufficient recovery, employees may slowly become exhausted and burn out. Burnout may sometimes result in cardiovascular diseases, unhappiness or irrational complaints (Melamed et al., 2006). Furthermore, insufficient resources may lead to burnout, as job demands might increase work engagement. Therefore, employers are encouraged to provide the job resources to complement the personal resources employees bring to the workplace, which is the focus of this research.

The JD-R model broadens the inspirational process by including the impact of personal resources on work engagement (Xanthopoulou et al., 2007). Personal resources are seen as a notable predictor of the results of work engagement (Halbesleben, 2010). Apart from resources of work engagement, research has shown that resources affect each other through mediation. Van den Broeck et al. (2013) point out that the JD-R model strongly describes how resources (job and personal) influences health outcomes, such as work engagement and job satisfaction). In addition, personal resources are believed to increase the well-being of employees as well as positive emotions, self-awareness and optimism which positively impact work engagement. Constantly evaluating one's resource management at the workplace is associated with well-being, satisfaction, work commitment and work engagement. The study was also guided by parameters of work engagement that were formulated by the theoretical framework by the researcher into a conceptual framework. These parameters of work engagement include mental resilience, engrossment and strong involvement in work.

The reaction received from the results of the research is a mixed one. The outcomes of the research reveal that the management of personal resources of employees at the workplace is not effective. Judging from the number of respondents who revealed that they are never/rarely engaged at the workplace, one can conclude that employees come to the university in various states and work, maybe just towards receiving a salary at the end of the month. Whether they are in the right frame of mind or not, they go to work to obtain a salary. The research suggests, then, that those employees need to be trained and encouraged to utilise their resources more effectively and independently. Employees are advised to also aim at shaping and redefining their work to create an optimum fit for their understanding, abilities, skills, needs, work tasks and responsibilities.

7.4 RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN INSTITUTIONAL CULTURE AND WORK ENGAGEMENT

Research by Crawford et al. (2010) revealed that the employees' recognition of the existing culture in an institution is key to job engagement. The Person-Environment (P-E) Fit Model developed by Allen (2010) shows that institutions that create cultures that match the beliefs of employees could retain and engage critical employees. In addition, Alacon (2010) posits that institutions should promote a positive culture that emphasises the continued engagement of employees at the workplace. A study carried out in Ghana by Naidoo (2014) showed a positive relationship that reveals that all the determinants of institutional culture relate positively to the factors of work engagement. This is further corroborated by the study conducted in Ghana by Brenyah and Obuobisa-Darko (2017). Pepra-Mensah and Addai (2018), using the same variables, established a significant relationship between institutional culture and work engagement. It can be found from the discussions above that culture plays a crucial part in motivating work engagement. In this research, the following issues emerged from the quantitative data. The quantitative data support the alternative hypothesis: *there is a relationship between institutional culture and work engagement in public universities in Ghana*. However, the data does not support the null hypothesis (there is no relationship between institutional culture and work engagement in public

universities in Ghana). Furthermore, the quantitative data analysis results revealed a positive association between institutional culture and work engagement.

The qualitative data support the views expressed by the respondents, who indicated that when feedback is frequently given to employees on their performance, they tend to be more engaged at work. They added that when the lines of communication are free, fair, open and consistent and employees understand what is required of them, they are free to share opinions, leading to engagement at the workplace. However, the outcomes of the qualitative data reveal that there are times the institutional culture does not allow for employees to become engaged because there is no freedom of speech, employees are sometimes victimised and favours are given to employees who are in cliques.

7.4.1 Critical Views of HoDs and other Employees in terms of Similarities and Differences

The similarity in quantitative and qualitative methods reflects in the acknowledgement of respondents/participants that there is a link between institutional culture and work engagement. This similarity is shown by the quantitative data analysis using Pearson's correlation analysis and regression and the responses from the qualitative research. The review of documents further corroborated a relationship between institutional culture and work engagement in public universities in Ghana. This research further found communication ($\beta = 0.364$, $p = 0.009$) as the only significant predictor of work engagement.

7.4.2 Reflection on the Theoretical Framework

The findings of this study reveal a positive association between institutional culture and work engagement. Though some had reservations about these two concepts, the results showed that most respondents admitted to the interrelation between institutional culture and work engagement. Research further revealed clear evidence of communication as a parameter of institutional culture as a predictor of work

engagement. Ramlall (2008) suggested that institutional culture could bring about work engagement since an institution's culture strongly motivates employee conduct.

Hobfoll (2011) adds that the dominant culture of an institution impacts the extent of employee engagement in work for the institution's survival. It is further suggested that employees who have a positive mindset about the institution's culture, dedicate their time, vigour and capabilities by investing their efforts in becoming engaged in their work (Bakker et al., 2011). Further, Parent and Lovelace (2018) revealed that an established institutional culture enhances the process of work engagement because a positive work environment supports employee engagement.

7.5 CONTRIBUTION OF THE STUDY

This part indicates how the research outcome adds to the body of knowledge. There have been media reports globally, in Africa and Ghana, about labour unrest in educational institutions. One key reason for this labour unrest, which is apparent, is the lack of proper employee engagement in most institutions. Employees are usually not involved in critical decision-making processes on issues that affect their institutions which have demotivated some employees to give off their best at the workplace. The provision of empirical evidence on the relationship between employee engagement and culture is expected to influence management decisions. The findings will be able to provide information to managers of academic institutions to provide periodic in-service training to staff to improve their performance.

The research examined how institutional culture influences employees' engagement in the workplace in chosen public universities in Ghana. The research findings suggest that the lack of a unique institutional culture for an institution could affect the university employees' degree of work engagement. This study portrays a positive relationship between institutional culture and work engagement, with communication as a predictor of work engagement. Several preceding studies on institutional culture and work engagement focus more on non-academic or non-educational institutions and are mainly conducted outside the jurisdiction of Ghana. This research, therefore, adds to

the limited literature on the effect of institutional culture on work engagement in public universities in Ghana. The findings on the paucity of knowledge and understanding of the two concepts present an opportunity for policymakers and practitioners to look at the conciliation approach to help employees understand the concepts under study and the dynamics of public universities in Ghana. This is particularly important as the findings revealed a low level of work engagement in public universities in Ghana with most employees suggesting that they are rarely engaged in work.

Neither the Bergquist institutional archetypes of culture, Tierney's unique institutional culture, nor the Job Demand's Resources model fully addresses the mismatch between the unique institutional culture prevailing in public universities in Ghana and the degree of employee engagement at the workplace. This interval in conversion pertains to the inadequacy of the public universities to satisfy their employees' diverse demands and understanding. Employees' expectations, be it social, cultural, psychological or academic, could influence their participation at the university. These expectations could be changed if the universities nurture and support institutional cultures that engage employees in work.

The research results reveal a positive link between institutional culture and work engagement. However, only communication was identified as a predictor of work engagement. The research confirms that work engagement is high when the institutional culture is positive, favourable and conducive to work. According to Tierney (1988), how knowledge is relayed within institutions and the ways leaders communicate with their internal constituencies is key to creating and describing the uniqueness of institutional culture. Tierney adds that university employees will become attached to the institution when management shares information with employees, particularly rules, regulations and procedures that can be conveyed through communication (Kinser & Lane, 2014; Lane, 2011; Tierney & Lanford, 2015). This finding suggests that a university should interpret the constituents of information, the source from which the information emanates, and the channels for disseminating the information to sustain a unique institutional culture and fully engage employees in their work.

The research also confirms the relevance of the pragmatist approach. The assumption is that a combination of research approaches that presents a favourable opportunity for answering important research questions was established. This is essential because the research findings are unbiased and generalised. The research utilised a mixed methods approach (with a blend of quantitative and qualitative approaches) and positivist axiology (where society's best ethics and benefits are adopted).

7.6 SUMMARY OF THE CHAPTER

The chapter discussed the results from both the quantitative and qualitative analysis by highlighting important sections of convergence and divergence. A similarity that emerged from the research is communication as a parameter emerging as the only predictor of work engagement and the low levels of work engagement at the workplace. This similarity is critical for stakeholders in education and notably higher education institutions to develop possible ways to regularly orient employees on the dynamics of the institution's culture and the measure of work engagement.

The final chapter follows, which summarises the research findings, proposed institutional culture of the work engagement model and recommendations for further research.

CHAPTER EIGHT

SUMMARY OF RESEARCH FINDINGS, CONCLUSIONS, AND RECOMMENDATIONS

8.1 INTRODUCTION

In the previous chapter, the results of the analysis from the quantitative and qualitative data were merged. The findings were also discussed based on the relevant literature reviewed. In this chapter, I present my research journey, summarise and discuss research findings, limitations and delimitations of the study. The conclusion of the research is, then, made with recommendations for theory and practice and for further research.

Stakeholders in higher education institutions should facilitate the institutional culture of public universities in Ghana and create a favourable and supportive work environment that will engage employees at work and lead to institutional success. Over the years, public universities in Ghana have experienced phenomenal growth in terms of student intake, which has led to a sharp increase in admissions and admission. Unfortunately, this has come when the government has placed a ban on employment into public universities in Ghana, leading to an increase in the workload of the current number of employees in these institutions. With the frequent industrial strikes among employees of higher institutions in Ghana and late arrival at work, among others, the management of these public universities must put in measures to ensure that employees are attached and engaged at work in the face of these challenges.

This research examined how institutional culture influences employees' engagement in the workplace in public universities in Ghana. This research recognises creating a conducive institutional culture that attracts employees and maintains them on the job. If this is not correctly managed, it could be detrimental to public universities in Ghana. This is because when the institutional culture does not meet the needs and

expectations of employees, employees might feel disconnected from the overall goals of their universities, resulting in lower levels of engagement. The parameters of institutional culture have a notable influence on work engagement. According to Al Shehri et al. (2017), Nazneen et al. (2018) and Pepra-Mensah and Kyeremeh (2018) institutional culture had a strong association with work engagement.

Similarly, Shameem and Rengamani (2018) revealed that effective communication in an institution could promote work engagement in a public university. This indicator explains that the communication culture will allow employees to get to know the institution's focus and express their opinions without fear or repercussions. Open communication between institutions and employees will generate new ideas for innovation and develop the institution. Given this, communication in public universities must be honest, transparent and accessible, and they must detail institutional beliefs and values. Swathi (2013), Popli and Risvi (2016) and Othman et al. (2017) maintained that leadership also influences the extent of engagement of employees at work. These research findings confirm a previous study conducted by Alarcon (2010), which establishes a significant correlation between institutional culture and work engagement (Greenidge, 2010; Shuck et al., 2011). Studies show that employees who are committed to their work schedule outperform their disengaged colleagues on many institutional metrics (Shuck et al., 2011). It has been demonstrated that work engagement correlates with some favourable work outcomes. The current research findings suggest that public universities must promote a meaningful institutional culture and guarantee that employees are continuously engaged in their work (Alarcon et al., 2010) in order to achieve positive work outcomes.

This chapter highlights the leading research outcomes, the notable findings in the literature and their contribution to new knowledge. This section further brings to light the inferences of the research to practice, presents a new model for the institutional culture of work engagement, explains the shortcomings of this research and offers recommendations for future research.

8.2 REFLECTIVE SUMMARY

I began this doctoral journey with a positive mentality and zeal to complete, submit and graduate on time. However, the realities of conducting a doctoral study became apparent when trying to find a balance between the demands of studies, family and work life. Carrying out this research and writing the thesis have significantly impacted my life. I have developed an appreciation for research and gleaned a lot of knowledge. The years 2021 and 2022 were the most difficult because I experienced extreme challenges with my health. My road to recovery has been slow, but my perseverance never dimmed. My physical strength waned and I could not sit for long periods to work as I had planned. The PhD journey instead turned out to be a long winding road for me. This, however, taught me a valuable lesson - challenges are bound to crop up, but one needs to be resilient and mentally tough to stand up to them. The experience has taught me not to give up in the face of challenges and to have the confidence to look forward to the future. 'Laughter and tears', as the saying goes, are both a part of everyone's life. I found myself in a blessed position where my family, colleagues and friends stepped up to help me manage my life predicaments.

The valuable relationships I have built with numerous people along the way will never be forgotten. I greatly admire and appreciate the continued support I receive from my supervisor, who, though she was also taken ill when Covid-19 torpedoed our lives, she encouraged me to stay strong and committed to this worthy cause. Together, my supervisor and I mapped a way forward, despite being over 7500 kilometres apart; we discussed timelines and resolved technical challenges to forge ahead to completion. My supervisor mentored me and has become a lifelong inspiration for me.

Through it all I learnt to carve a niche for myself as a university administrator. I believe that the experience and knowledge I have gained from writing this thesis and the experiences with the respondents and participants have laid an excellent foundation for me. As a university administrator, I will assist management to build and maintain an institutional culture that is welcoming and raise the level of engagement at the workplace through effective communication. I fervently hope that this study's findings

will enable and inspire all stakeholders in public universities in Ghana and elsewhere to be committed to the success of these institutions. My goal achievements of the research study reminded me to have faith in a God who is in control of everything and has a bigger purpose for me than I can imagine.

8.3 PURPOSE OF THE STUDY

This research aimed to investigate the role of institutional culture in engaging employees in public universities in Ghana. The main research question that guided the study was: *How does institutional culture relate to work engagement in public universities in Ghana?*

The following auxiliary research questions were addressed by the research:

1. What is the nature of institutional culture prevailing in universities in Ghana?
2. What is the extent of work engagement at universities in Ghana?
3. What is the correlation between institutional culture parameters and work engagement parameters at public universities in Ghana?

The research also served to test the validity of Tierney's unique institutional culture and Bergquist's institutional archetypes of culture to determine the comprehensiveness of the Job Demands-Resources model. The research also sought to describe the existing institutional culture influencing work engagement in public universities in Ghana.

8.4 SUMMARY OF RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY

The research adopted a sequential mixed methods design which combines quantitative and qualitative data simultaneously or in a sequence. It is hinged on the principle that combining the quantitative and qualitative methods provides a better comprehension of research problems than one method alone (Creswell & Creswell 2018). Furthermore, this research adopted the pragmatist paradigm because the main purpose of the research was to understand employees' viewpoints on the influence of the existing institutional culture on work engagement. Thereafter, these viewpoints

were matched with the views of the various heads of departments in the public universities in Ghana with the use of both the quantitative and qualitative approach in a single study. Though the analysis was predominantly quantitative, using both the quantitative and qualitative data collection methods allowed me to highlight the advantages of both approaches to secure rich data. According to Creswell and Creswell (2018), the use of quantitative and qualitative methods gives a more comprehensive understanding of the research questions than a single approach, which forms the central idea of this study.

The accessible population was made up of various categories of employees in two selected public universities in Ghana, including senior members (teaching staff), senior members (non-teaching staff), senior staff and junior staff. The selection of the two public universities was influenced by the proximity of the study's location and the cost to the researcher. A sample size of two hundred and thirty (230) was randomly selected for the research. Two hundred (200) respondents completed the questionnaire, and thirty (30), made up of heads of department, were interviewed. For this study, three main methods were adopted to collect the required data, including survey questionnaires, interviews and document analysis used to elicit responses based on the stated objectives and hypothesis.

8.5 SUMMARY OF THE MAIN FINDINGS

This segment presents the main findings of the following themes: demographic data, the nature of institutional culture, the level of work engagement and the association between institutional culture and work engagement. These themes answer the principal and sub-research questions presented above.

8.5.1 Demographic Data

The quantitative aspect of the research involved the administration of 200 survey questionnaires distributed to the different groups of employees in the selected public universities in Ghana. Out of the total respondents, one hundred and two (51.0%) were females and ninety-eight (49.0%) were males. The age distribution showed that nearly

three quarters of respondents, representing 146 (73.5%) were between 30-50 years. The research further revealed that over one third (37.0%) of the respondents have been in the university's service for about five to ten years. One out of every seven employees, forming the minority of 14.0%, has over twenty years of working experience within the university. This data show that most respondents (67.0%) were senior staff, such as principal administrative assistants and their equivalent grades.

The question on academic qualification revealed that fifty-one respondents (26.0%) held a MPhil certificate, with thirty-six respondents (18.0%) having a PhD qualification. The demographic data collected for the quantitative analysis recorded that 200 questionnaires were returned, which is a 100% return rate. For the qualitative aspect, a total of thirty individual semi-structured interviews were conducted with seventeen males and thirteen females. All thirty respondents were serving in the capacity of heads of department at the time of this research.

The following findings are presented under various themes which emerged from the research.

8.5.2 The Nature of Institutional Culture

This theme was explicitly focused on addressing research question 1, which is centred on the nature of institutional culture prevailing in public universities in Ghana. The respondents were required to share experiences and perceptions of the existing institutional culture. The HoDs and other respondents generally displayed a desirable knowledge about the existence of institutional culture. Most respondents had a better grasp of the concept and described the prevailing institutional culture based on the parameters mentioned in the research. To the respondents, institutional culture is a vehicle conveying the direction of the university and how it should be operated. It came to light that any institution's mission, communication and leadership style are the significant determinants. Furthermore, communication was identified as a strong predictor of work engagement. However, some respondents had marginal knowledge about the prevailing institutional culture of the university as they could not pinpoint

what constitutes an institution's culture. As suggested, information should be widely shared by clearly communicating rules, regulations and procedures (Lane, 2011; Kinser & Lane, 2014; Tierney & Lanford, 2015). In so doing, 'what is done, how it is done, and who is involved in doing' will determine the culture of the institution and help in sustaining a unique culture for the operation of the university institutional culture and help sustain a unique culture for the university's effective operation. It, then, becomes binding on the university to interpret the constituents of information clearly, the source of information and communicate the expectations of the university in order to maintain a positive institutional culture.

8.5.3 Level of Work Engagement in Public Universities

This theme responds to research question 2 and the study's objectives. Respondents were expected to share experiences on mental resilience, their level of engrossment and what gets them strongly involved in work. Diverse views indicated some level of engagement at the workplace, with some expressing how they experienced low levels of engagement in employment in public universities in Ghana. Employees confirmed that they were often or sometimes engaged in work. Furthermore, the data analysis revealed that employees in the selected public universities generally believed that their mental resilience is sound. The communication channel was transparent, open and fair, and an effective leadership style existed. Furthermore, employees felt there were no pull factors for work engagement because they came to work just because they wanted to. In all, it came to light that the level of engrossment is better than employees' mental resilience and level of involvement in work.

8.5.4 Relationship between Institutional Culture and Work Engagement

This theme addressed research question 3 and the auxiliary objective that deals with the correlation between the two concepts. It aimed to establish whether there was a relationship between institutional culture and work engagement in public universities in Ghana. Different views were elicited from the respondents. Respondents believed that employees came to work because they want to work. Respondents added that

the calibre of employees hired affects the institutional culture and work engagement. This observation supports the view of Wagner (1995), who believes that culture strongly influences employees' behaviour and attitudes. Furthermore, Agyemang and Ofei (2013) indicate that culture and work environments affirmatively impact employees' physical and mental well-being at the workplace. In addition, Naidoo and Martin (2014) assert that as work engagement correlates with several constructs, it is important for institutions to increase employees' level of engagement by nurturing and sustaining a meaningful institutional culture.

There was an appreciation of a perceived association between institutional culture and work engagement. As evidenced by Jioney et al. (2015), institutional culture and work engagement are related concepts. Osborne and Hammoud (2017) suggest that leaders at the university should create a culture that will engage employees. A moderately positive relationship was established between institutional culture and work engagement. There is also a correlation between the mission and communication amongst others and mental resilience, engrossment and strong involvement. Out of these parameters, communication is recorded as the strongest predictor of work engagement.

8.6 CONTRIBUTION OF THE MAIN RESEARCH FINDINGS TO THE BODY OF KNOWLEDGE

8.6.1 Nature of Institutional Culture

This research suggests a mismatch between the experiences of employees and their demands and expectations. Although the research findings reveal that employees had gained quite an appreciable knowledge of institutional culture, it appears some lacked understanding of the concept. The findings show a peripheral conceptualisation of institutional culture by some of the diverse categories of employees in the university and the heads of department. A general idea is needed to enable both employers and employees to be focused. For example, some respondents revealed that they are unaware of institutional culture. Others were unfamiliar with some of the determinants

of institutional culture. Therefore, they could not reflect on the concept's impact on work. The inadequate knowledge and understanding of some respondents on the concept could affect the operation of the institution and their contribution to the achievement of institutional goals. A comprehensive understanding of institutional culture would give valuable insight into what strategies, if any, might have the greatest likelihood for the institution's success.

Tierney (1988) observed that institutional culture is only recognised during crisis management. He suggested that universities should instead leverage it to improve institutional management and performance. This is supported by Lacatus (2013), who asserts that understanding and analysing institutional culture in universities as a concept, develops the structure of the university and increases performance. Studying the institutional culture to understand how it might impede improving the institution's culture towards the achievement of institutional goals, is vital. The positive experiences and the channels of fair, clear and open communication in the universities reaffirm the value of the institutional culture. This research is significant to the body of knowledge because of its uniqueness and originality to higher education institutions, mainly focused on the nature of the institutional culture and its uniqueness to public universities in Ghana.

8.6.2 Level of Work Engagement

The diverse views expressed on this concept show a positive or negative attribute that can either facilitate or contribute to the level of engagement in work or withhold employees' commitment and emotional attachment at the workplace. Moreover, the positive experiences and the outcome of experiences are reciprocal communication to the level of engagement and the notion that the knowledge and understanding of this concept are key to institutional success. The findings of this research support Xanthopoulou et al.'s (2003) view that high degrees of work engagement amongst employees are linked to increased financial turnover for institutions. The JD-R Model further asserts that engagement at work is an outcome of the relationship between the job and personal resources and positive outcomes. Accordingly, Schaufeli (2013)

indicates that the JD-R Model fosters engagement which is reflected as vigour (energy), dedication (persistence) and absorption (focus).

Other research carried out revealed a favourable association between employee performance and work engagement. As shown by the theoretical framework of the Job Demands-Resources Model, strategies for promoting work engagement should enhance the availability of resources to employees. This could be initiated from the institutional or managerial viewpoint or the individual viewpoint, which was also the focus of this research. The undesirable levels of work engagement and other negative explanations attached to this concept may affect mental resilience engrossment in work which calls for interventions from the stakeholders, policymakers and management of universities to formulate an approach that would mitigate the effects on a timely basis because employees tend to work effectively based on their passion for the work schedule. It is, therefore, important to create conditions in the interest of employees to achieve this at the workplace. It is highlighted that the attachment of employees to the outcome of work results in loyalty and work engagement which leads to institutional success (Stevenson, 2019).

The findings of this research align with some studies aimed at examining the correlation between work engagement and other institutional constructs. Work engagement is believed to be related to institutional commitment, personal initiative, job and customer satisfaction and low turnover intention. The findings place value on the concept under study. It will, then, be concluded that building and maintaining work engagement in Ghana's public universities is in the institutions' hands and demands a blend of commitment, effort, time and investment to sustain the mental resilience, engrossment and strong involvement of employees at the workplace.

8.6.3 Relationship between Institutional Culture and Work Engagement

The findings reveal a positive correlation between institutional culture and work engagement in public universities in Ghana. It cements the notion that institutional culture has a significant impact on employees' physiological and emotional states at

the workplace. This observation by the various categories of employees and the heads of department in the selected public universities in Ghana supports the view of the correlation between the two constructs.

The findings also place value on communication as a predictor of mental resilience, engrossment and strong involvement in work by employees in universities in Ghana. Communication is an essential tool for influencing how activities are carried out at the workplace. Effective communication involves establishing a two-way flow of information for employees, allowing managers to communicate better and leading to a more robust work engagement. As revealed by the research findings, it is worth noting that communication has a significant correlation with the level at which employees are engaged at the workplace and is a predictor of work engagement. Hence, the stakeholders, policymakers and management of public universities in Ghana should develop strategies to maintain constant and effective communication. This research revealed further that a positive institutional culture encourages diligent and dynamic work environments with growth in performance and productivity (Morgeson et al., 2013). Hence, leaders who foster a meaningful institutional culture promote growth, development and engagement for the institution and its employees. Osborne and Hammoud (2017) assert that acquiring an in-depth understanding of the various institutional cultures is vital. Therefore, leaders must nurture a work environment where all employees feel appreciated and engaged.

The proposed framework by the researcher on the relationship between institutional culture and work engagement is thus, accepted but not without a few changes. The researcher suggests that communication as a parameter of institutional culture is important and should not be taken for granted, and, therefore, should stand out in the proposed framework based on the evidence of communication a parameter of institutional culture, emerging as the sole predictor of work engagement. The responses of both respondents in the quantitative data collection and participants in the qualitative data collection indicate that without communication, none of the other parameters listed under institutional culture could be executed. This is because communication has emerged instead as an effective vehicle to convey mission,

leadership, involvement in decision-making, training and development, performance evaluation, rewards and recognition, teamwork, change and innovation. A careful look at both the quantitative and qualitative findings reveals low work engagement levels in Ghana's public universities. The research argues that if employees had a greater understanding of the concepts and there were systems in place to create an institutional culture that engages employees in work, the study could have recorded more predictors of work engagement. This notwithstanding, the study established a favourable association between institutional culture and work engagement.

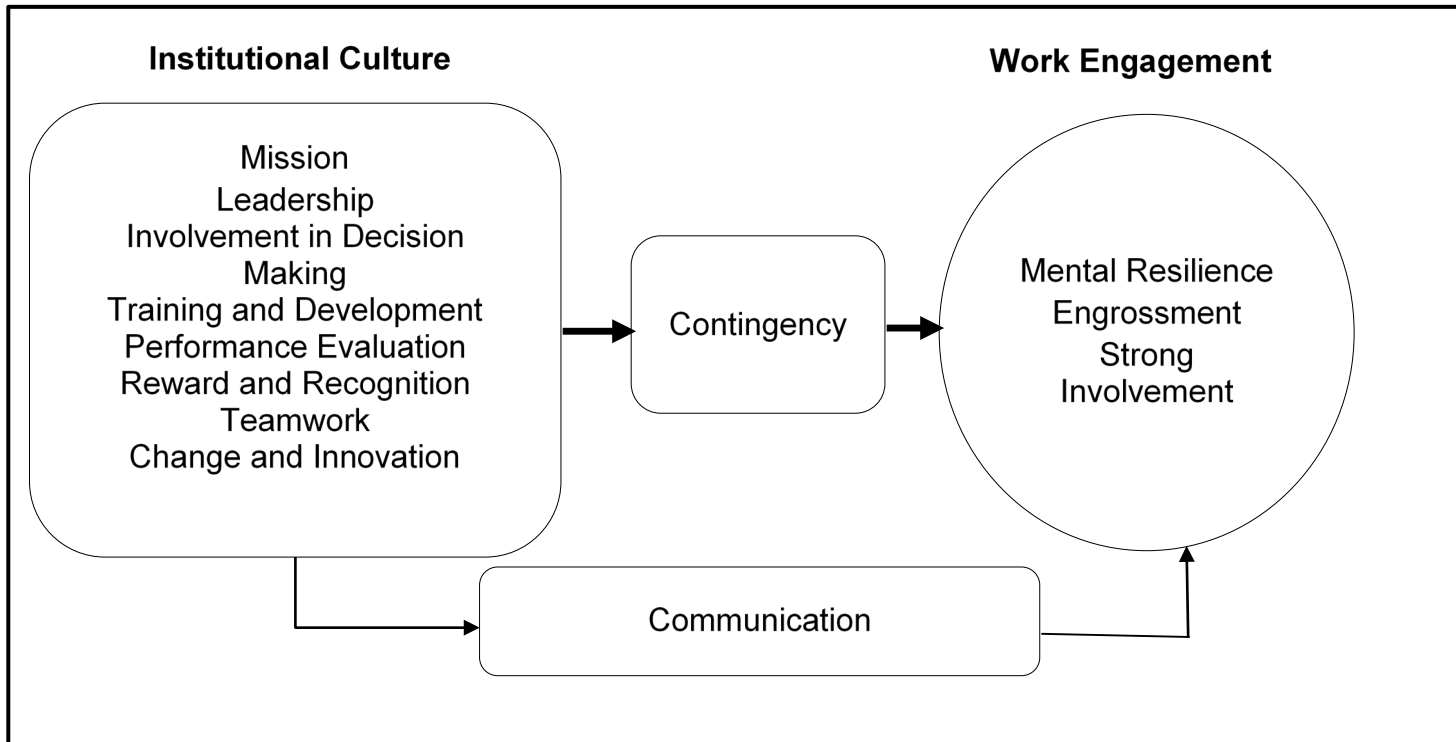
The study argues that the results of this particular research may have been affected as it appears slightly different to what has been recorded in extant literature. It is important to bear in mind that this research was conducted in the era of the COVID-19 pandemic and work schedules had changed as universities had to shut down and most employees had to work from home. In addition, several industrial actions were recorded in public universities in Ghana with the various categories of employees all embarking on industrial action for different reasons. The above mentioned may have resulted in the low work engagement recorded by the various categories of employees in the selected public universities. This implies that when work conditions are not favourable, the institutional culture may be a positive one but the extent of work engagement of employees may be affected. This further implies that the nature of institutional culture and the work engagement level may also depend on a contingent situation.

Furthermore, with the rise in the challenges linked with the management of higher education institutions, the research believes that the limitations associated with institutional cultures must be appreciated. This includes comprehensive knowledge of frameworks' limitations, such as Tierney's (1988) unique institutional culture. One interesting limitation that comes up in the research is the response to the statement 'culture is not static'. It is thus suggested that public universities acknowledge the fluidity of cultures at various levels, such as the departmental and institutional levels, as evolution takes place. As a result, the fluidity of the culture at the time of the data collection may have affected the responses on the nature of institutional culture and

the level of work engagement in the two public universities selected for the study in Ghana.

This assertion is corroborated by Alise and Teddlie (2010), Biesta (2010), Tashakkori and Teddlie (2003a, 2003b) and Patton (1990) who confirm that the worldview of the researcher gives room for a research method suitable for examining the occurrence at hand. Consequently, the philosophers suggest that the routes to research are practical and diverse. This makes room for unforeseen circumstances and contingencies. My worldview allowed for blending of methods that evolved from selecting the pragmatist paradigm that supports the mixed methods approach. The pragmatist paradigm assumes that people utilise contingency situations in articulating their understanding of problems. It further promotes a needs-based, heterogeneous and contingency approach to selecting a concept (Johnson & Onwuegbuzie, 2004, p. 17). In this case, researchers are at liberty to choose the suitable approach to respond to the research questions. Thus, the research was centred on a mixed methods approach (with a blend of quantitative and qualitative research procedures) which presented favourable opportunities in answering the research questions. Finally, Brierley (2017), proposed pragmatism as a suitable paradigm for justifying mixed methods research. This implies that the research approach was unbiased throughout the study and was open to a fair outcome. In conclusion, I remained objective throughout the study. Based on above discussions, some changes have been made to the proposed model, initially presented in Chapter 1 Figure 1.1, as follows:

8.6.4 Model of Institutional Culture and Work Engagement



(Source: Researcher's Construct, 2022)

Figure 8.1: Institutional culture of work engagement framework

8.7 IMPLICATIONS FOR PRACTICE

The research findings have several implications for practice amongst public universities in Ghana, stakeholders and policymakers.

8.7.1 Implications for Government Policy Decision-Making

This study contributed to understanding and knowledge of the effects of institutional culture on work engagement in higher education institutions. The knowledge emerging from this research is vital because comprehending the relationship between institutional culture and work engagement relates to government policy decision-making and practitioners as well regulators, such as the Ghana Tertiary Education Council, the Ministry of Education and the Ministry of Finance.

The outcomes from this research may serve as grounds for the promotion of an institutional culture that enhances work engagement through the planning, development and execution of strategies and policies. The study revealed an institutional culture and its effects on employees' level of engagement in work at the institution and gives insight into the institution and thus suggest several areas of importance to policymakers for communication, leading and evaluating the performance of employees, amongst others. This would aid policy makers put in place strategies that augment the management and work in public universities in Ghana and institutions of higher education at large. Given this, strategies could be implemented so that employees have the mental resilience and engrossment and be strongly involved in work. The research results indicate that communication has a direct correlation with mental resilience, engrossment and strong involvement in work. Thus, the institutional culture is influenced by its experiences and society, which can be both positive and negative, and yet still significantly impact the direction of choice for the university (Warter, 2019).

Based on the research findings, policymakers and stakeholders of public universities in Ghana need to create an institutional culture that is compatible with the employees to set expectations for how to behave and work together, and to function as a team in order to obtain their dedication and maintain and engage them in the workplace.

8.7.2 Implications for Public Universities

The knowledge garnered from this research will also be helpful to university management and all categories of employees at public universities in Ghana. The management of public universities needs to consider institutional culture as a vital element that commits employees to the workplace. Hence, this should serve as a blueprint for designing a policy framework for their institutions. The findings may serve as a solid foundation for creating an institutional culture geared towards employee engagement and may move towards ensuring that employees receive maximum support. With the rapid development in technology and the dynamic methods of

managing universities, there is a continual need to upgrade work facilities to keep up with the new management protocols and develop employees' skills accordingly.

University administrators perform essential roles in public universities since they implement university policies. Despite university administrators' longevity and devotion to tradition, university administrators are dynamic. University administrators must deal with their institutions from a cultural point of view and keep the multi-dimensional nature of higher education institutions in mind as no single solution is likely to mitigate every possible issue and satisfy all stakeholders.

A cultural stand encourages innovation and multiple responses as administrators feel less obligated to follow tradition and readily seek diverse viewpoints to introduce innovative initiatives in the line of duty. The challenge for many institutions is sustaining identity while remaining effective enough to mitigate internal and external pressures (Vaira 2004). Establishing institutional priorities that are based on unrealistic concepts of competition might address an immediate problem, but will not provide a sustainable and viable solution.

The development of active communication channels in public universities is important in conceptualising and ensuring the implementation of institutional culture and work engagement. To facilitate effective communication and management of communication, the university is obliged to develop an employee-focused and balanced communication structure. Managers of public universities should cultivate an internal communication process that promotes listening to employees and inviting their involvement in decision-making thus making provision for an open and fair information system. Management should reinforce the institution's mission statement through letters, memoranda, speeches and other written and spoken forms. When there are new recruitments, the socialisation procedure demands an induction programme where the vision and mission are outlined and forms of communication are detailed along with policies and strategies so that employees settle into their new role, understand the responsibilities and their tasks which will enhance mental resilience,

engrossment and strong involvement and ultimately improve job satisfaction and performance.

The positive influence of institutional culture on work engagement, is the result of strategic application and execution of institutional culture with proper communication all of which affect employees' overall level of engagement. Hence, the managers of public universities in Ghana need to cultivate strategies for effectively communicating with employees, as have been proposed by this and previous research. To extend the scope of this research to other universities will assist in gathering more data on institutional culture. Leaders can assess probable results before mapping out an action plan by intentionally examining and knowing the symbols, values and interpretations that inform institutional culture.

8.7.3 Implications for Theory and Research

This section provides details on the inference for theory and research. The findings of this research are expected to add to existing academic expertise and raise awareness of these constructs in higher education institutions. The knowledge gleaned from this research will fill in the gaps found in the literature on the two concepts. The research results might provide some thoughts on how to embrace some of the issues facing the change efforts in higher education institutions in the country, particularly in public universities in Ghana. In this regard, what can be indicated is that institutional culture diagnosis should be in place before work engagement can take place. Institutional culture can facilitate or inhibit institutional change, depending on the fit between the prevailing culture and the proposed change indicated in the institutional vision and mission.

Thus, the current institutional culture assessment indicates which aspects of culture need change to achieve its aspired level of work engagement. It has been suggested that institutional culture is one of the dimensions compromising the effectiveness of work engagement. The institutional culture of a work engagement model is used in other universities to reveal the nature of institutional culture and work engagement to

recruit, retain and increase the performance and productivity of employees' purposes. Since the selected universities were the first institutions to be used to test the model, more universities will also need to use the institutional culture of work engagement framework to add to the body of research. The same framework could be adapted for several higher education and other institutions. Lastly, the scientific appreciation of the potential relationship between the two concepts broadens the empirical literature on institutional culture and work (Naidoo & Martins, 2014).

8.8 LIMITATIONS AND DELIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY

Every research comes with some level of constraints (Leedy & Ormrod, 2005). Limitations are factors, normally identified at the beginning of the research that may affect the results (Leedy & Ormrod, 2005). The population for the present study was employees of selected public universities in Ghana. This research has some limitations that must be considered when explaining the results. First, although there are several public universities in Ghana, only two, a small fraction, were selected for the research which means that the research and its findings do not apply to all environments, markets or populations but was restricted to education and institutions of higher education. Thus, caution must be taken when generalising from this sample to another.

The explanatory sequential mixed methods research design was used to examine the nature of institutional culture in the employees' engagement level in work. Using an explanatory sequential mixed methods design, both qualitative and quantitative data were collected, which were analysed to answer the research questions. Data analysis reviewed the results of ordinal regression and correlation test analysis. Thus, future studies may need to integrate methodological procedures and sample sizes above the purview of this research. This research did not examine all employees in public universities in Ghana. An increased sample size strengthens the validity of the results. Future research may involve surveying the viewpoints of more academic staff and students to increase the external and internal validity of the results in this study.

Research may be carried out to compare the current and preferred institutional culture of the higher education institutions to ascertain cultural congruence. The information for this study included only the categories of employees in the selected universities and heads of department. If the data in this study had included the university council members, university management, deans and directors, a more detailed and accurate viewpoint of the entire institutional culture and level of work engagement could have emerged.

To overcome the potential limitation of misunderstanding some concepts, as the researcher, I took respondents through the questionnaire and included contact details on the questionnaire if there was a need to seek clarification. External peer review and member checking were strategies employed to reduce subjectivity and bias. Notes of interviews and maintenance of audiotapes were strategies adopted for audit trails and information was cross-checked. Finally, to limit research bias, study supervisors were allowed to scrutinise the work.

The current study was conducted in the selected public universities in Ghana when there were persistent localised or national strike actions in the selected public universities which is identified as a delimitation. This, however, may or may not have affected the perceptions of institutional culture and the extent of work engagement. Conducting the same type of research after the persistent strike actions or when stakeholders may have fully provided conditions of service to these public universities, may give a more thorough account of institutional culture and work engagement of employees. The research is a picture of an institution at a particular point in time. A further investigation concern is how the nature of an institution's culture might change the level of engagement of employees over time or over the institution's life cycle. Further research is needed to answer these and other associated questions. Further, a report on peculiarities among the employee groups could have been generated. This is because the age group, the categories of staff in the selected public universities, work experience and their grade or position all counts as delimitations. To minimize the delimitations of the study, the mixed methods approach, triangulation and pilot testing of the instruments were employed. By adopting these strategies, the

researcher navigated the intentional limitations set by the delimitations to strengthen the overall quality of the research.

8.9 RECOMMENDATIONS FOR FUTURE RESEARCH

The research conducted was not without limitations. The data collected from the two selected public universities was a limit to generalising the results. Therefore, the outcomes reveal the precise situation in these universities. In addition, the unique nature of institutional culture for a specific university at a point in time makes the implementation of the findings in a broader setting demanding; thus, applying the findings of this research in a different background should be done cautiously. If the conclusions of this research are to be applied to public universities beyond Ghana, the probable effect of parameters characterising the institutional culture and level of engagement of employees needs to be examined in other public universities as well. For example, the research outcomes show that the institutional culture of the Work Engagement Framework is relevant to the selected universities and thus could have direct applicability to other public universities in Ghana and elsewhere with similar contexts. Combining Bergquist's institutional archetypes of culture, Tierney's unique institutional culture, the Job Demands-Resources model, and the Institutional Culture of Work Engagement Framework may be of interest to identify which type of academic culture increases the level of engagement of employees.

Research with other institutions as a focus could be useful in expanding the extent of the application of the proposed model and the range of the study can be widened to include public universities beyond Ghana. The broadening of the scope of the research would give further evidence for the reliability and validity of the research.

This research did not consider the effect of the differences in the subgroups with regard to age, gender, seniority or department and even the responses across the categories of employees. Future research could be valuable in determining aspects of institutional culture that substantially influence work engagement for professional

groupings in fields with high labour unrest incidences. Along with the antecedents of institutional culture, the outcomes of work engagement can also be covered in future research. Further cultural alignment and institutional climate are all perspectives of the same entity. Institutional culture is very relevant in understanding the social context and institutional behaviour and the level of work engagement in higher education institutions.

8.10 CONCLUSION

The study of institutional culture and work engagement in public universities remains largely unmapped and a necessary target of enquiry in Ghana. This study examined the significance of the association between institutional culture and work engagement. It proposes a typology as an interpretive model that permits universities to position the strength and direction of the institutional culture and how to engage employees in the workplace. The research has revealed a statistically positive correlation between institutional culture and work engagement (psychological, emotional and behavioural). It could, therefore, be concluded that when the stakeholders extensively boost institutional culture mechanisms in public universities in Ghana, there will be a commensurate improvement in the degree of work engagement of employees (Thomas, 2012), implying that the stronger the institution's culture, the more employees would accept, willingly support and participate in the institution's focus and work towards it. Hence, employees are likely to have an acceptance of and a willingness to develop passion and attachment to their institution. It can be concluded, then, that when communication, which is the most influential parameter, is nurtured, employees' mental resilience, engrossment and strong involvement in work is enhanced. The policymakers and stakeholders in public universities must ensure that the development of institutional culture is strategic by incorporating mechanisms that will improve work engagement. This can be done by promoting teamwork, promoting a sense of ownership and belonging in employees, by clearly stipulating and securing a commendable institutional culture that emphasises presuppositions and beliefs that employees share to improve the institution's mission, values and goals.

This research confirms and extends past research on the correlation between culture and work engagement. It is also established that institutional culture strongly influences employees' behaviour and attitudes and that the perceived work environments and cultures affirmatively influence employees' physical and mental well-being at the workplace. This research suggests that institutional culture's parameters on mental resilience, engrossment and strong involvement in work may have been previously underrated by not recognising ancillary influences on efficiency. In addition to providing a clear analysis of the influence of these factors, the outcome suggests how declining institutional culture and particularly communication in institutions, may impact the extent of work engagement of employees at the workplace.

In conclusion, the research showed that communication is the dominant predictor of work engagement among employees in public universities in Ghana. Communication is a powerful tool to enhance the nature of the institutional culture to engage employees in the era of tardiness at work and the attendant labour unrest. The study has brought to light a valid and reliable measure to assess institutional culture in relation to superiors/supervisors and the relation to the institutions.

The various categories of employees in public universities in Ghana need to recognise the value of the association between institutional culture and work engagement. When awareness is created of the institution's culture and its association with the degree of engagement of university employees, it may inspire a sense of purpose and identity within these institutions. The acquisition of knowledge of these two constructs can also tailor decision-making towards employee needs and attract stakeholder support. In conclusion, one would thus say that a correct interpretation of the correlation between institutional culture and work engagement may give an analytical approach to administering and managing public universities in Ghana.

Both the Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs) and the African Union's (AU) aspirations on education advocate for the strengthening of education systems and the promotion of *Our Aspirations for the Africa We Want* (<https://au.int/en/agenda2063/>)

aspirations). To accomplish these goals, higher education institutions in Ghana, Africa and globally must establish a positive and supportive institutional culture that encourages employee work engagement.

This study recommends the implementation of policies that promote effective communication among staff. The study argues that when employees feel valued, they are productively engaged, drive the institutional vision, and contribute meaningfully to institutional culture and success. When employees are engaged, they contribute meaningfully and institutional culture flourishes, but when they do not feel valued and are disengaged, the opposite is true.

REFERENCES

- Acheampong, G. K., & Amponsah, P. E. (2020). Exploring the Factors Affecting Work Engagement in Public Universities: Evidence from Ghana. *Journal of Higher Education Policy and Management*, 42(5), 531-547. <https://doi:10.1080/1360080X.2020.1758290>.
- Acton, T., & Golden, W. (2000). Training and firm performance: A study of Irish small- to medium-sized enterprises. *Journal of European Industrial Training*, 24(2/3/4), 194-203.
- Addai, R. (2020). Impact of corporate culture on work engagement of teachers in senior high schools in Kumasi Metropolitan. *International Journal of Business and Management*, 15(5), 1-14.
- Adebanjo, D., & Kehoe, D. (2001). An evaluation of factors influencing teamwork and customer focus. *Managing Service Quality: An International Journal*. 11 (1), 49-56. <https://dx.doi.org/10.1108/09604520110359348>.
- Aderibigbe, S. A. (2012). An inquiry into mentoring relationships between teachers and student teachers in the classroom: a critical constructivist perspective. University of Aberdeen. https://abdn.alma.exlibrisgroup.com/discovery/delivery/44ABE_INST:44ABE_VU1/12153151380005941.
- Aderibigbe, A. O. (2017). The role of cultural values in Nigerian women's entrepreneurial behaviour. *Journal of Enterprising Communities: People and Places in the Global Economy*, 11(2), 219-240. <https://doi:10.1108/JEC-12-2014-0044>.
- African Union (AU) Agenda 2063: The Africa We Want. <https://au.int/en/agenda2063/overview>
- Afroze, R., Mohammad, R. & Sayeeduzzafar. (2018). Organizational culture and employee engagement: A review. *International Journal of Management and Applied Research*, 5(4), 173-180. <https://doi.org/10.5296/ijafr.v8i4.13864>.
- Agbodeka, F. (1998). *The history of higher education in Ghana: From the earliest times to the 1990s*. Sedco Publishing Ltd.
- Agyemang, C. B., & Ofei, S. B. (2013). Employee work engagement and organizational commitment: A comparative study of private and public sector

- organizations in Ghana. *European Journal of Business and Innovation Research*, 1(4), 20–33.
- Ahmetoglu, G., Harding, X., Akhtar, R., & Chamorro-Premuzic, T. (2015). Predictors of creative achievement: Assessing the impact of entrepreneurial potential, perfectionism, and employee engagement. *Creativity Research Journal*, 27(2), 198–205. <https://doi.org/10.1080/10400419.2015.1030293>
- Akanji, B., Mordi, C., Ituma, A., Adisa, T. A., & Ajonbadi, H. (2019). The influence of organisational culture on leadership style in higher education institutions. *Personnel Review*, 49 (3), pp. 709-732. <https://doi.org/10.1108/PR-08-2018-0280>.
- Albert, N. M., Trochelman, K., Meyer, K. H. & Nutter, B. (2009). Characteristics associated with racial disparities in illness beliefs of patients with heart failure. *Racial Disparities in Illness Beliefs*, 35, 112-125. <https://doi.org/10.1080/08964280903334519>.
- Albrecht, S. L. (2010). *Handbook of employee engagement: Perspectives, issues, research and practice*. Edward Elgar Publishing.
- Al Mehrzi, N., & Singh, S. K. (2016). Competing through employee engagement: a proposed framework. *International Journal of Productivity and Performance Management*, 65(6), 831–843. <https://doi.org/10.1108/IJPPM-02-2016-003>.
- Al Shehri, M., McLaughlin, P., Al-Ashaab, A., & Hamad, R. (2017). The impact of organizational culture on employee engagement in Saudi Banks. *Journal of Human Resources Management Research*, 1, 1–23. <https://doi:10.5171/2017.761672>.
- Alarcon, G. M. (2010). A meta-analysis of burnout with job demands, resources, and attitudes. *Journal of Vocational Behaviour*, 76(3), 487-506. <https://doi:10.1016/j.jvb.2010.01.009>.
- Alarcon, G., Lyons, J. B., & Tartaglia, F. (2010). Understanding predictors of engagement within the military. *Military Psychology*, <https://psycnet.apa.org/doi/10.1080/08995605.2010.492695>.
- Alhojailan, M. (2012). Identification of learners' attitudes regarding the implementation of read/write web, blog tools: a case study in higher education. *7th Disco*

- conference reader: New media and education*. In: Prague: Centre for Higher Education Studies, pp. 58–73.
- Ali, H. M., & Musah, M. B. (2012). Investigation of Malaysian higher education quality culture and workforce performance. *Quality Assurance in Education*, 20(3), 289-309. <https://doi.org/10.1108/09684881211240330>.
- Aliaga, M., & Gunderson, B. (2000). Interactive statistics. The Statistics Teacher's Network, No. 53. Book Review. Prentice Hall Inc. ISBN 0-13-231026-8.
- Alise, M. A., & Teddlie, C. (2010). A continuation of the paradigm wars? Prevalence rates of methodological approaches across the social/behavioral sciences. *Journal of Mixed Methods Research*, 4(2), 103–126. <https://doi.org/10.1177/1558689809360805>.
- Allen, T. D. (2010). The Person-Environment (P-E) Fit Model: A guide to its use in the study of work and organizations. In *Handbook of industrial, work and organizational psychology*, Volume 1: Personnel Psychology (pp. 393-412). SAGE Publications.
- Allport, G. W. (1945). The psychology of participation. *Psychological Review*, 52(3), 117. <https://doi.org/10.1037/h0056704>.
- Alsaqqa H. H., & Akyürek Ç. E. (2021) Assessment of organizational culture types, leadership styles and their relationships within governmental and non-governmental hospitals in Gaza Strip of Palestine. *BMC Health Service Research*. 21(1):1–11. <http://doi: 10.1186/s12913-021-06351-1>.
- Altbach, P., G. (2001). Academic freedom: International realities and challenges. *Higher Education*. 41. 205-219. <https://10.1023/A:1026791518365>.
- Altbach, P. G., Gumport, P. J., & Berdahl. R. O. (2011). American higher education in the twenty-first century: Social, political, and economic challenges (3rd ed.). Baltimore: The Johns Hopkins University Press.
- Amabile, T. M. (1998). How to kill creativity. *Harvard Business Review*, 76(5), 76–87.
- Amir, M. T., & Standen, P. (2019). Growth-focused resilience: development and validation of a new scale. *Management Research Review*, 42. [10.1108/MRR-04-2018-0151](https://doi.org/10.1108/MRR-04-2018-0151).
- Amoako-Asiedu, E., & Obuobisa-Darko, T. (2017). Leadership, employee

- engagement and employee performance in the public sector of Ghana. *Journal of Business and Management Sciences*, 5(2), 27–34. <https://doi.org/10.12691/jbms-5-2-1>.
- Armstrong, M. (2008). *Strategic human resource management: A Guide to Action*. (4th ed). Kogan Page Publishers.
- Armstrong, M., & Baron, A. (2005). *Managing Performance: Performance Management in Action*. CIPD Publishing.
- Armstrong-Stassen, M., & Schlosser, F. K. (2010). The impact of employee perceptions of training on organizational commitment and turnover intentions: A study of Canadian banks. *International Journal of Training and Development*, 14(2), 126-142.
- Anderson, C. M., & Martin, M. M. (1995). Why employees speak to coworkers and bosses: Motives, gender, and organizational satisfaction. *The Journal of Business Communication*, 32(3), 249–265. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1177/002194369503200303>.
- Anderson, E. W. (2008). The inconvenient truth about assessing the effectiveness of mission statements. *Journal of Marketing*, 72(4), 14-15. <https://doi.org/10.1509/jmkg.72.4.14>.
- Andriopoulos, C., & Slater, S. (2013). Exploring the landscape of qualitative research in international marketing: Two decades of IMR. *International Marketing Review*, 30(4). <https://doi.org/10.1108/IMR-03-2012-0061>.
- Anitha, J. (2014). Determinants of employee engagement and their impact on employee performance. *International Journal of Productivity and Performance Management*, 63(3), 308-323. <https://doi.org/10.1108/IJPPM-01-2013-0008>.
- Anschutz, J. (1995). Teamwork: The heart of effective management. *Management Review*, 84(4), 30-33.
- Aphu, E. (2018). How organizational culture affects employee(s) work engagement in the insurance industries in Ghana: An ambidextrous approach. *Journal of Management and Strategy*, 9, 22 - 36. <https://doi.org/10.5430/jms.v9n4p22>.
- Ariani, D. W. (2014). Relationship leadership, employee engagement, and organizational citizenship behavior. *International Journal of Business and Social*

- Research*, 4(8), 74–90. <https://doi.org/10.18533/ijbsr.v4i8.589>.
- Arnetz, B. B., Nevedal, D. C., Lumley, M. A., Backman, L., & Lublin, A. (2009). Trauma resilience training for police: Psychophysiological and performance effects. *Journal of Police and Criminal Psychology*, 24(1), 1–9. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s11896-008-9030-y>.
- Asante, M. K. (2017). The Philosophy of Afrocentricity. *The Palgrave Handbook of African philosophy* (p. 231–244). Springer. Palgrave Macmillan US. https://doi.org/10.1057/978-1-137-59291-0_16.
- Avey, J. B., Reichard, R. J., Luthans, F., & Mhatre, K. H. (2011). Meta-analysis of the impact of positive psychological capital on employee attitudes, behaviors, and performance. *Human Resource Development Quarterly*, 22(2), 127–152. <https://doi.org/10.1002/hrdq.20070>.
- Avey, J. B., Wernsing, T. S., & Palanski, M. E. (2012). Exploring the process of ethical leadership: The mediating role of employee voice and psychological ownership. *Journal of Business Ethics*, 107(1), 21–34. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s10551-012-1298-2>.
- Azanza, G., Moriano, J. A., & Molero, F. (2013). Authentic leadership and organizational culture as drivers of employees' job satisfaction. *Journal of Work and Organizational Psychology*, 29(2), 45–50. <https://doi.org/10.5093/tr2013a7>.
- Azeem, M., Rubina, & Paracha, A. (2013). Connecting training and development with employee engagement: How does it matter?. *World Applied Sciences Journal*, 28(5), 696-703. <https://doi.org/10.5829/idosi.wasj.2013.28.05.1230>.
- Azulai, A., & Rankin, W. L. (2012). Triangulation in social work research: Conceptual and methodological issues. *Journal of Social Work*, 12(2), 156-173.
- Babbie, E. R. (2010). *The practice of social research* (12th ed.). Wadsworth Cengage.
- Babbie, E., & Mouton, J. (2001). *The practice of social research* (10th ed.). Wadsworth.
- Bagheri, A., Akbari, M., Vaezi, R., & Bahrami, M. A. (2016). The effect of organizational culture on organizational innovation in selected hospitals in Iran. *Global Journal of Health Science*, 8(9), 228.

- Bakker, A. B. (2011). An evidence-based model of work engagement. *Current Directions in Psychological Science*, 20, 265–269. <https://doi.org/10.1177/0963721411414534>.
- Bakker, A. B., & Demerouti, E. (2007). The job demands-resources model: State of the art. *Journal of Managerial Psychology*, Vol. 22 No. 3, pp. 309-328. <https://doi.org/10.1108/02683940710733115>.
- Bakker, A. B. and Demerouti, E. (2008). Towards a model of work engagement. *Career Development International*, 13(3):209-223. <https://doi.org/10.1108/13620430810870476>.
- Bakker, A. B., Albrecht, S. L., & Leiter, M. P. (2011). Key questions regarding work engagement. *European Journal of Work and Organizational Psychology*, 20(1), 4-28. <https://doi.org/10.1080/1359432X.2010.485352>.
- Bakker, A. B., & Demerouti, E. (2018). Job demands-resources theory: Taking stock and looking forward. *Journal of Occupational Health Psychology*, 23(3), 270-285. <https://doi.org/10.1037/ocp0000116>.
- Bakker, A.B. and Leiter, M.P. (2010) *Work Engagement: A Handbook of Essential Theory and Research*. Psychology Press, Hove. <https://doi.org/10.4324/9780203853047>.
- Bakker, A. B., Demerouti, E., & Verbeke, W. (2004). Using the job demands - resources model to predict burnout and performance. *Human Resource Management*, 43(1), 83-104. <https://doi.org/10.1002/hrm.20004>.
- Bakker, A. B., Schaufeli, W. B., Leiter, M. P., & Taris, T. W. (2008). Work engagement: An emerging concept in occupational health psychology. *Work & Stress. An International Journal of Work, Health and Organisations*, 22(3), 187–200. <https://doi.org/10.1080/02678370802393649>.
- Bandura, A. (1991). Social cognitive theory of self-regulation. *Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes*, 50(2), 248–287. [https://doi.org/10.1016/0749-5978\(91\)90022-L](https://doi.org/10.1016/0749-5978(91)90022-L).
- Baran, M., & Sypniewska, B. (2020). The impact of management methods on employee engagement. *Sustainability*, 12(1), 426. <https://doi.org/10.3390/su12010426>.

- Barbars, A. (2015). Interaction between organizational culture and work engagement in an IT department within financial institution. *Journal of Business Management*, 10, 106–123. Retrieved from <http://www.jointphd.eu/journal/journal.html>.
- Bartlett, K. R. (2001). The relationship between training and organizational commitment: A study in the health care field. *Human Resource Development Quarterly*, 12(4), 335-352. <https://doi.org/10.1002/hrdq.1001>.
- Bartkus, B. R., & Glassman, M. (2008). Do firms practice what they preach? The relationship between mission statements and stakeholder management. *Journal of Business Ethics*, 83(2), 207–216. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s10551-007-9612-0>.
- Bass, B. M., & Avolio, B. J. (1993). Transformational leadership and organizational culture. *Public Administration Quarterly*, 17(1), 112–121. <http://www.jstor.org/stable/40862298>.
- Bateman, T. S., & Snell, S. A. (2007). *Management: Leading & Collaborating in a Competitive World* (7th ed.). McGraw-Hill.
- Baumruk, R. (2006). Why managers are crucial to increasing engagement: Identifying steps managers can take to engage their workforce. *Strategic HR Review*, Vol. 5(2,) 24-27. <https://doi.org/10.1108/14754390680000863>.
- Bavik, A., & Duncan, T. (2014). Organizational culture and scale development: methodological challenges and future directions. *Nang Yan Business Journal*, 3(1), 55–66. <https://doi.org/10.1515/nybj-2015-0005>.
- Becher, T. (1981). Towards a definition of disciplinary cultures. *Studies in Higher Education*, 6(2), 109–122. <https://doi.org/10.1080/03075078112331379362>.
- Bekele, A. Z., Shigutu, A. D., & Tensay, A. T. (2014). The effect of employees' perception of performance appraisal on their work outcomes. *International Journal of Management and Commerce Innovations*, 2(1), 136–173.
- Bekhet, A. K., & Zauszniewski, J. A. (2012). Methodological triangulation: An approach to understanding data. *Nurse Research*, 20(2), 40-3. <https://doi.org/10.7748/nr2012.11.20.2.40.c9442>. PMID: 23316537.
- Bell, J. (1999). *Doing your research project: A guide for first-time researchers in education and social science*. Open University Press.
- Bell, A. S., Rajendran, D., & Theiler, S. (2012). Job stress, wellbeing, work-life balance

- and work-life conflict among Australian academics. *E-Journal of Applied Psychology*, 8(1). <https://doi.org/10.7790/ejap.v8i1.320>.
- Bellamy, S., Morley, C., & Watty, K. (2003). Why business academics remain in Australian universities despite deteriorating working conditions and reduced job satisfaction: An intellectual puzzle. *Journal of Higher Education Policy and Management*, 25(1), 13–28. <https://doi.org/10.1080/13600800305740>.
- Bening, R. B. (2005). Further reports on Dr. Edward Blyden's inspiration for the establishment of a West African University in the late 1890s. *Journal of West African History*, 1(2), 45-60. <https://doi.org/10.1353/jwh.2005.0032>.
- Bergquist, W. H. (1992). *The Four Cultures of the Academy: Insights and strategies for improving leadership in collegiate organizations*. Jossey-Bass.
- Berquist, C. (1994). Collegial culture and autonomous professional practice. *Journal of Curriculum and Supervision*, 9(2), 112-126.
- Bergquist, W. H., & Pawlak, K. (2007). *Engaging the six cultures of the academy: Revised and expanded edition of the four cultures of the academy*. John Wiley & Sons.
- Bernard, H. R. (2012). *Social research methods: Qualitative and quantitative approaches*. Sage Publications.
- Beytekin, O. F., Yalçinkaya, M., Doğan, M., & Karakoç, N. (2010). The organizational culture at the university. *The International Journal of Educational Researchers*, 2(1), 1–13.
- Biesta, G. (2010). Pragmatism and the philosophical foundations of mixed methods research. In A. Tashakkori & C. Teddlie (Eds.), *Sage handbook of mixed methods in social and behavioral research* (2nd ed., pp. 95–118). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.
- Bija A., P. (2020). Influence of leadership style, work culture and work satisfaction on employee engagement in The Ministry of Defense of The Republic of Indonesia. *Journal of Resources Development Management*. 68(2013):47–53. <http://doi.org/10.7176/jrdm/68-04>.
- Birnbaum, R. (1987). The implicit leadership theories of college and university

- presidents. *Review of Higher Education*, 12(2), 125-136.
<https://api.semanticscholar.org/CorpusID:140416730>.
- Bingham, T., & Nix, S. J. (2010). Women Faculty in Higher Education: A Case Study on Gender Bias. *Forum on Public Policy Online*, 2010(2). Retrieved from <http://forumonpublicpolicy.com/archivespring10/bingham.pdf>.
- Boardman, C. (2020). Sense of belonging and its relationship to well-being. *International Journal of Wellbeing*, 10(1), 1-16.
- Bogdan, R., & Biklen, S. K. (1998). *Qualitative Research for Education: An introduction to theories and methods*. Boston: Allyn and Bacon, Inc.
- Bolman, L. G., & Deal, T. E. (2014). *How great leaders think: The art of reframing*. San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.
- Boudrias, J.-S., Morin, A. J. S., & Brodeur, M. M. (2012). The role of psychological empowerment in the reduction of burnout in Canadian health-care workers. *Nursing Health Sciences*, 14(1), 8–17. <http://doi.org/10.1111/j.1442-2018.2011.00650.x>.
- Bowling, N. A., & Kirkendall, C. (2012). Workload: A review of causes, consequences, and potential interventions. *Contemporary Occupational Health Psychology: Global Perspectives on Research and Practice, Volume 2*, 2, 221-238.
- Boyatzis, R. E. (1998). *Transforming qualitative information: Thematic analysis and code development*. Sage.
- Braun, V., & Clarke, V. (2006). Using thematic analysis in psychology. *Qualitative Research in Psychology*, 3(2), 77-101. <https://doi.org/10.1191/1478088706qp063oa>.
- Braun, V., & Clarke, V. (2012). Thematic analysis. In H. Cooper (Ed.), *APA Handbook of Research Methods in Psychology, Vol 2: Research Designs: Quantitative, Qualitative, Neuropsychological, and Biological* (pp. 57-71). American Psychological Association. <https://doi.org/10.1037/13620-004>.
- Braun, V., & Clarke, V. (2019). Reflecting on reflexive thematic analysis. *Qualitative Research in Sport, Exercise and Health*, 11(4), 589–597. <http://doi.org/10.1080/2159676X.2019.1628806>.
- Breetzke, G. D., & Hedding, D. W. (2018). The changing demography of academic

- staff at higher education institutions (HEIs) in South Africa. *Higher Education*, 76(1), 145–161. <http://www.jstor.org/stable/45116685>.
- Brennan, J., Broek, S., Durazzi, N., Kamphuis, B., Ranga, M., & Ryan, S. (2014). *Study on innovation in higher education*. Publications Office of the European Union, Luxembourg. ISBN 9789279350818. <https://eprints.lse.ac.uk/55819/>.
- Brenyah, R. S., & Obuobisa-Darko, T. (2017). Organisational culture and employee engagement within the Ghanaian public sector. *Review of Public Administration and Management*, 5(3), 1–7. <https://doi.org/10.4172/2315-7844.1000233>.
- Brewis, J. (2014). The ethics of researching friends: On convenience sampling in qualitative management and organization studies. *British Journal of Management*, 25(4), 849–862. <https://doi.org/10.1111/1467-8551.12064>.
- Brierley, J. A. (2017). The role of a pragmatist paradigm when adopting mixed methods in behavioural accounting research. *International Journal of Behavioural Accounting and Finance*, 6(2), 140–154. <https://orcid.org/0000-0003-0307-2539>
- Brick, W. P. (2012, December 14). Employee recognition programs critical to workplace culture. *The Public Manager*. Retrieved from <https://www.td.org/Publications/Magazines/The-Public-Manager/Archives/2012/Winter/Employee-Recognition-Programs>.
- Brod, M., Tesler, L. E., & Christensen, C. (2009). Qualitative research and content validity: developing best practices based on science and experience. *Quality of Life Research*, 18(9), 1263-1278. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s11136-009-9540-9>.
- Brooks, J. S. (2007). Cultures of service, service in culture: Higher education as a catalyst for change in the world. *The Journal of Higher Education*, 78(3), 251-275.
- Brown, S. P. (1996). A meta-analysis and review of organizational research on job involvement. *Psychological Bulletin*, 120(2), 235-255. <https://doi.org/10.1037/0033-2909.120.2.235>
- Brunetto, Y. & Farr-Wharton, R. 2004. Does the talk affect your decision to walk: a comparative pilot study examining the effect of communication practices on employee commitment post managerialism. *Management Decision*, 42(3/4):579-

600. <https://doi.org/10.1108/00251740410518976>.
- Bryman, A. (2004) *Social research methods* (2nd edition). Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Bryman, A. (2006). Paradigm peace and the implications of quality. *International Journal of Social Research Methodology* 9(2): 111–126. <https://doi.org/http://dx.doi.org/10.1080/13645570600595280>.
- Bryman, A. (2008). *Social Research Methods*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Bryman, A. (2016). *Social Research Methods* (5th ed.). London: Oxford University Press.
- Bryman, A., & Bell, E. (2015). *Business research methods*. Oxford University Press.
- Budiono, I., Hamidah H., & Mahmuddin Y. (2019). “The Effect of Prophetic Leadership, Organizational Culture on Employee Engagement at Sufism-Based Islamic Boarding School.” *Journal of International Conference Proceedings* 2 (3): 99–106. <https://doi.org/10.32535/jicp.v2i3.649>.
- Budriene, V., & Diskiene, V. (2020). Employee engagement and its impact on organizational performance. *Economic Research-Ekonomska Istraživanja*, 33(1), 327-342.
- Bulkapuram, S. G., Wundavalli, L., Avula, K. S., & Reddy, T. K. (2015). Employee engagement and its relation to hospital performance in a tertiary care teaching hospital. *Journal of Hospital Administration*, 4(1), 48–56. <https://doi.org/10.5430/jha.v4n1p48>.
- Burke, J. G., O'Campo, P., & Trochim, W., M. (2005). An introduction to concept mapping as a participatory public health research method. *Qualitative Health Research*, 15(10), 1392-1410. <https://doi.org/10.1177/1049732305278876>.
- Burke, W. W. (2011). *Organization change: Theory and practice*. Sage Publications.
- Burke, R. J., & Wolpin, J. (2009). Work engagement: What do we know and where do we go? In R. J. Burke & C. L. Cooper (Eds.), *The peak performing organization* (pp. 101-126). Routledge.
- Burrell, G., & Morgan, G. (1979). *Sociological paradigms and organizational analysis: Elements of the sociology of corporate life*. Heinemann.
- Byrne, O., & MacDonagh, J. (2017). What's love got to do with it? Employee

- engagement amongst higher education workers. *Irish Journal of Management*, 36(3), 189–205. <https://doi.org/10.1515/ijm-2017-0019>.
- Cai, L. H. (2001). The relationship between the job involvement and teaching effectiveness for the elementary school of Taipei county. [Unpublished Master's Thesis, National Taipei University of Education.(In Chinese.).
- Cameron, R. (2011). Mixed Methods Research: The Five Ps Framework. *Electronic Journal of Business Research Methods*. 9 (2). www.ejbrm.com.
- Cameron, K. S., & Quinn, R. E. (2011). Diagnosing and Changing Organizational Culture: Based on the Competing Values Framework (3rd ed.). San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.
- Cameron, K. S., Quinn, R. E., DeGraff, J., & Thakor, A. V. (2006). Competing values leadership: Creating value in organizations. Northampton, MA: Edward Elgar. <https://doi.org/10.4337/9781847201560>.
- Cassell, C., & Symon, G. (1994). Qualitative Methods in Organizational Research: A Practical Guide (pp. 1-18). Sage Publications, London.
- Caruth, G. D. (2013). Demystifying mixed methods research design: A review of the literature. *Online Submission*, 3(2), 112-122.
- Caruth, G. D. (2013). Demystifying Mixed Methods Research Design: A Review of the Literature. *Mevlana International Journal of Education*, 3, 112-122. <http://dx.doi.org/10.13054/mije.13.35.3.2>.
- Chadha, D. (2018). A study of training and development practices in service sector in relation to employee engagement across Delhi and NCR. *International Journal of Human Resource Development and Management*, 8(1), 1–11. https://www.ripublication.com/ijhrdm18/ijhrdmv8n1_01.pdf
- Chalofsky, N., & Krishna, V. (2009). Meaningfulness, commitment, and engagement: The intersection of a deeper level of intrinsic motivation. *Advances in Developing Human Resources*, 11(2), 189–203. <https://doi.org/10.1177/1523422309333147>.
- Charmaz, K. (2006). *Constructing grounded theory: A practical guide through qualitative analysis*. Sage Publications.
- Cherrington, D., J. (1995). The management of human resources, 4th ed. (New

- Jersey: Prentice Hall).
- Christopher, M., Payne, A., & Ballantyne, D. (2017). *Relationship marketing: Creating stakeholder value*. Routledge.
- Chu, Cheng-I & Lee, Ming shinn & Hsu, Hsiang-Ming & Chen, I-Chi. (2005). Clarification of the antecedents of hospital nurse organizational citizenship behavior - An Example from a Taiwan regional hospital. *Journal of Nursing Research*. 13. 313-324. <https://doi.org/10.1097/00134372-200512000-00009>.
- Chughtai, A. A. (2008). Impact of job involvement on in-role job performance and organizational citizenship behaviour. *Journal of Behavioral and Applied Management*, 9(2), 169–183. <https://doi.org/10.21818/001c.17123>.
- Clark, B.R. (1983). *The higher education system: Academic organization in cross-national perspective*. Berkeley and Los Angeles: University of California Press.
- Cohen, J. (1988). *Statistical Power Analysis for the Behavioral Sciences*. (2nd ed.). Lawrence Erlbaum Associates. (cited in Pallant, 2016, p.137). <https://doi.org/10.4324/9780203771587>.
- Cohen, S. G., & Bailey, D. E. (1997). What makes teams work: Group effectiveness research from the shop floor to the executive suite. *Journal of Management*, 23(3), 239–290. <https://doi.org/10.1177/014920639702300303>.
- Cohen, L., Manion, L., & Morrison, K. (2007). *Research Methods in Education* (6th ed.). London and New York, NY: Routledge Falmer.
- Cohen, L., Manion, L., & Morrison, K. (2018). *Research Methods in Education* (8th ed.). London: Routledge. <https://doi.org/10.4324/9781315456539>.
- Colquitt, J., Lepine, J. A., & Wesson, M. J. (2014). *Organizational Behavior: Improving Performance and Commitment in the Workplace (4e)*. New York, NY, USA: McGraw-Hill.
- Cooke, R. A., & Lafferty, J. C. (1987). *Organizational Culture Inventory*. Human Synergistics International: Plymouth, MI, USA.
- Cooksey, R. W., & McDonald, G. (2011). *Writing up your research: Surviving and thriving in postgraduate research*. Prahran, Vic.: Tilde University Press.
- Courtenay, G. (1978). "Questionnaire Construction." In Hoinville, G., and Jowell, R., *Survey Research Practice*, chapter 3. Heinemann Educational Books: London.

- Cozby, P. C., & Bates, S. C. (2018). *Methods in behavioral research*. McGraw-Hill Education.
- Crawford, E. R. (2010). Development of a brief measure of work engagement. Paper presented at the *Annual Conference of the Society for Industrial and Organizational Psychology*, Atlanta, GA.
- Crawford, E. R., LePine, J. A., & Rich, B. L. (2010). Linking job demands and resources to employee engagement and burnout: A theoretical extension and meta-analytic test. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 95(5), 834. <https://doi.org/10.1037/a0019364>.
- Creswell, J. W. (2005). *Educational research: Planning, conducting, and evaluating quantitative and qualitative research* (2nd ed.). Columbus, OH: Pearson Merrill Prentice Hall.
- Creswell, J. W. (2006). Mixed methods designs. In J. W. Creswell, & V. L. Plano Clark (Eds.), *Designing and conducting mixed methods research* (pp. 45-68). Sage Publications.
- Creswell, J. W. (2012). *Educational research: Planning, conducting, and evaluating quantitative and qualitative research* (4th ed.). Boston, MA: Pearson.
- Creswell, J.W. (2013) *Research Design: Qualitative, Quantitative, and Mixed Methods Approaches*. 4th Edition, SAGE Publications, Inc., London.
- Creswell, J. W. (2014a). *Research design: Qualitative, Quantitative, and mixed Methods Approaches*. (4th ed.). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage. English Language Teaching. <https://doi.org/12.40.10.5539/elt.v12n5p40>.
- Creswell, J.W. (2014) *A Concise Introduction to Mixed Methods Research*. Sage Publications, Thousand Oaks.
- Creswell, J.W. and Creswell, J.D. (2018) *Research Design: Qualitative, Quantitative, and Mixed Methods Approaches*. Sage, Los Angeles.
- Creswell, J. W., & Plano Clark, V. L. (2007). *Designing and Conducting Mixed Methods Research*. Sage Publications. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1753-6405.2007.00096.x>.
- Creswell, J. W., Plano Clark, V. L, Gutmann, M.L., & Hanson, W. E., (2003). *Advanced Mixed Methods Research Design*. In Tashakkori A & Teddlie C (Eds.),

- Handbook of mixed methods in social and behavioral research (pp. 209 - 240). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage
- Creswell, J. W., & Plano Clark, V. L. (2011). *Designing and Conducting Mixed Methods Research* (2nd ed.). Ch. 3–4, pp. 68–142. Sage Publications, Los Angeles.
- Creswell, J. W., & Plano Clark, V. L. (2013). *Designing and conducting mixed methods research*. Sage Publications.
- Crouch, M., & McKenzie, H. (2006). The logic of small samples in interview-based qualitative research. *Social Science Information*, 45(4), 483-499. <https://doi.org/10.1177/0539018406069584>.
- Csikszentmihalyi, M. (1990). *Flow: The Psychology of optimal experience*. New York: Harper & Row.
- CultureIQ. (2020). CultureIQ: Culture insights platform. Retrieved from <https://cultureiq.com/>.
- Curry, L. A., Nembhard, I. M., & Bradley, E. H. (2009). Qualitative and mixed methods provide unique contributions to outcomes research. *Circulation*, 119(10), 1442–1452. <https://doi.org/10.1161/CIRCULATIONAHA.107.742775>. PMID: 19289649.
- Darden, V., & Maroney, E. M. (2018). “Craving to hear from you...” An exploration of m-learning in global interpreter education. *Translation and Interpreting Studies*, 13(3), 442-464.
- Davies, P. L., Borland, H., Fraser, A., Orton, P., Ratcliffe, J., & Sachdev, J. (2014). The effectiveness of training and development for improving performance in the public sector: A systematic review. *Australian Journal of Public Administration*, 73(4), 518-536.
- Deal, T. E., & Kennedy, A. A. (2000). *The New Corporate Cultures: Revitalizing the Workplace after Downsizing, Mergers and Reengineering*. Perseus Books Groups, Philadelphia, PA.
- Dean, J. W. (2011). Developing ethical leaders: A case study of the University of Ghana Business School. *Journal of Business Ethics Education*, 8(1), 91-104.
- Delport, C. S. L. (2002). *Research at grass roots: For the social sciences and human*

- service professions* (2nd ed.). Van Schaik Publishers.
- Demerouti, E., Bakker, A. B., Jonge, J., Janssen, P. P. M., & Schaufeli, W. B. (2001). Burnout and engagement at work as a function of demands and control. *Scandinavian Journal of Work, Environment & Health*, 27(4), 279–286. <https://doi.org/10.5271/sjweh.615>.
- Demerouti, E., Bakker, A. B., Nachreiner, F., & Schaufeli, W. B. (2001). The job demands-resources model of burnout. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 86(3), 499-512. <https://doi.org/10.1037/0021-9010.86.3.499>.
- Demerouti, E., & Cropanzano, R. (2010). From thought to action: Employee work engagement and job performance. In A. B. Bakker & M. P. Leiter (Eds.), *Work engagement: A handbook of essential theory and research* (pp. 147-163). New York, NY: Psychology Press.
- Deming, E. W. (1986). *Out of the crisis*. Cambridge University Press, MA, Massachusetts Institute of Technology, Centre for Advanced Engineering Studies.
- Denny, S. (2009). Saturation: An emerging methodological concept and implications for social work research. *Social Work Research*, 33(4), 357-367.
- Denscombe, M. (2010). *The Good Research Guide for Small Scale Research Projects* (4th ed.). Buckingham: Open University Press.
- Denzin, N. (2006) *Sociological Methods: A Sourcebook*. 5th Edition, Aldine Transaction, Piscataway.
- Denzin, N. K. (2017). *The Research Act: A Theoretical Introduction to Sociological Methods*. London, England: Routledge. <https://doi.org/10.4324/9781315134543>.
- Denzin, N. K., & Lincoln, Y. S. (2011). *The SAGE Handbook of Qualitative Research*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.
- Department of Education and Science. (1989). *Higher education: Meeting the needs of the 1990s*. HMSO.
- Desson, K., & Clouthier, J. (2010). Organizational culture - why does it matter. *Symposium on International Safeguards International Atomic Energy Agency Vienna, Austria*, November 3, 2010.

- DeVaus, D. (1996). *Surveys in Social Research* (4th ed.). London: UCL Press, 1996.
- De Vos, A. S. (2002). *Research at grass roots: For the social sciences and human service professions*. Van Schaik Publishers.
- De Vos, A. S., Strydom, H., Fouche, C. B., & Delport, C. S. L. (2011). *Research at Grass Roots: For the Social Sciences and Human Service Professions*. Van Schaik Publishers, Pretoria.
- Dill, D.D. & Sporn, B. (1995). University 2001: What Will the University of the Twenty-First Century look Like? In D.D. Dill & B. Sporn (eds), *Emerging patterns of Social Demand and University Reform: Through a Glass Darkly*. Oxford. Pergamon, 212-236.
- Dokua, E. K. (2019). Analysis of staff profile in selected public universities in Ghana. *Journal of Education and Practice*, 10(18), 1-10.
- Doody, O., & Noonan, M. (2013). Preparing and conducting interviews to collect data. *Nurse Researcher*, 20(5), 28-32. <https://doi.org/10.7748/nr2013.05.20.5.28.e327>. PMID: 23687846.
- Du Plooy-Cilliers, F., Davis, C. and Bezuidenhout, R. (2014) *Research Matters*. Paarl Media Paarl, South Africa.
- Duncan, T. (2019). Communication in higher education institutions: A review of best practices. *Journal of Higher Education Management*, 34(1), 1-16. doi: 10.1177/0312896219826343.
- Durán, A., Extremera, N., & Rey, L. (2010). Building and maintaining engaged workforces: The role of employers. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 95(2), 345-357. <https://doi.org/10.1037/a0017895>.
- Effah, J. (2003). The evolution of higher education in Ghana: A historical overview. *African Studies Quarterly*, 7(3), 45-60.
- Effah, J. (2018). The importance of collaboration between non-academic and academic employees in achieving university goals. *International Journal of Higher Education*, 7(2), 144-151. <https://doi.org/10.5430/ijhe.v7n2p144>.
- Effah, P. (2018). Rethinking Higher Education Governance in Ghana: Reflections of a Professional Administrator. CODESRIA Working Paper Series. Council for the Development of Social Science Research in Africa. Avenue Cheikh Anta Diop,

- Angle Canal IV, BP 3304 Dakar, 18524, Senegal. Website: www.codesria.org. ISBN: 978-2-86978-786-5. <https://doi.org/10.1000-0001-7698-143X>.
- Eldor, L., & Vigoda-Gadot, E. (2017). The nature of employee engagement: Rethinking the employee–organization relationship. *The International Journal of Human Resource Management*, 28(3), 526–552. <https://doi.org/10.1080/09585192.2016.1180312>.
- Erickson, R. J. (2005). Why emotion work matters: Sex, gender, and the division of household labor. *Journal of Marriage and Family*, 67(2), 337–351. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.0022-2445.2005.00120.x>.
- Ehtesham, U. R., & Shakil, A. (2011). The impact of organizational culture on employee's job performance: A study of banking sector in Pakistan. *Interdisciplinary Journal of Contemporary Research in Business*, 2(6), 601-613.
- Ehtesham, UI Mujeeb, Tahir Masood Muhammad, and Shakil Ahmad Muhammad. 2011. "Relationship between Organizational Culture and Performance Management Practices: A Case of University in Pakistan." *Journal of Competitiveness* (4): 78–86.
- Faulkner, S. L., & Trotter, R. T. (2017). *Data saturation*. In *The International Encyclopedia of Communication Research Methods*. Wiley-Blackwell. <https://onlinelibrary.wiley.com/doi/abs/10.1002/9781118901731.iecrm0060>.
- Fernández-Mesa, A., & Alegre, J. (2015). Entrepreneurial orientation and export intensity: Examining the interplay of organizational learning and innovation. *International Business Review*, 24(1), 148–156. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ibusrev.2014.07.004>.
- Fetters, M.D., Curry, L.A., & Creswell, J.W. (2013). Achieving integration in mixed methods designs-principles and practices. *Health Services Research*, 48(6, Pt 2), 2134–2156. <https://doi.org/10.1111/1475-6773.12117>.
- Fischer, F. (2006). Participatory Governance as Deliberative Empowerment: The Cultural Politics of Discursive Space. *The American Review of Public Administration*, 36(1), 19–40. <https://doi.org/10.1177/0275074005282582>.
- Fletcher, C. (2001). Performance appraisal and management: The developing research agenda. *Journal of Occupational and Organizational Psychology*, 74(4),

- 473–487. <https://doi.org/10.1348/096317901167488>.
- Fletcher, D., & Sarkar, M. (2012). A grounded theory of psychological resilience in Olympic champions. *Psychology of Sport and Exercise*, 13(5), 669–678. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.psychsport.2012.04.007>
- Flick, U. (2002). Triangulation revisited: Strategy of validation or alternative? *Journal for the Theory of Social Behaviour*, 32(2), 175-197.
- Flick, U. (2014). *An Introduction to Qualitative Research* (5th ed.). Sage Publications, London.
- Flick, U. (2018). *The SAGE Handbook of Qualitative Data Collection*. Sage Publications Ltd.
- Fonagy P., Steele M., Steele H., Higgitt A., Target M. (1994). The Emanuel Miller memorial lecture 1992: The theory and practice of resilience. *Child Psychology & Psychiatry & Allied Disciplines*, 35(2), 231–257. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1469-7610.1994.tb01160.x>.
- Fralinger, B., & Olson, V. (2007). Organizational culture at the university level: A study using the OCAI instrument. *Journal of College Teaching & Learning (TLC)*, 4(11). <https://doi.org/10.19030/tlc.v4i11.1528>.
- Fugazzotto, S. J. (2009). Mission statements, physical space, and strategy in higher education. *Innovative Higher Education*, 34(5), 285 - 298. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s10755-009-9118-z>.
- Fusch, P. I., & Ness, L. R. (2015). Are we there yet? Data saturation in qualitative research. *The Qualitative Report*, 20(9), 1408 -1416.
- Geertz, C. (1983). *Local Knowledge: Further Essays in Interpretive Anthropology*. Basic books.
- George, J. M. (1989). Mood and absence. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 74(2), 317-324. <https://doi.org/10.1037/0021-9010.74.2.317>.
- Gerwe, A. R. (2014). Leadership and the creation of organizational culture. *International Journal of Business and Social Science*, 5(3), 1-11.
- Giangreco, A., Carugati, A., Sebastiano, A., & Al Tamimi, H. (2012). War outside, ceasefire inside: An analysis of the performance appraisal system of a public hospital in a zone of conflict. *Evaluation and Program Planning*, 35(1), 161–170.

- <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.evalprogplan.2010.11.004>.
- Gibson, W., Brown, A., & Courtney, R. (2013). Theorizing practice research in social work. In *The Sage handbook of social work research* (2nd ed., pp. 100-117). Sage Publications.
- Giddings, L. S. (2006). Epistemological positions in design research. In *Proceedings of the 6th International Conference on Design & Decision Support Systems in Architecture and Urban Planning* (pp. 187-201).
- Gilbert, N. (2001). *Researching social life*. Sage Publications.
- Gill, J., & Johnson, P. (2001). *Research Methods for Managers*. Third Edition, Sage Publications Ltd., New York.
- Gill, P., Stewart, K., Treasure, E., & Chadwick, B. (2008). Methods of data collection in qualitative research: Interviews and focus groups. *British Dental Journal*, 204(6), 291- 295. <https://doi.org/10.1038/bdj.2008.192>. PMID: 18356873.
- Glaser, B. G., & Strauss, A. L. (1967). *The discovery of grounded theory: Strategies for qualitative research*. New York: Aldine De Gruyter.
- Glen, C. (2006). Key skills retention and motivation: The war for talent still rages and retention is the high ground. *Industrial and Commercial Training*, 38(1), 37-45. <https://doi.org/10.1108/00197850610646034>.
- Gobbi, S., Płomecka, M. B., Ashraf, Z., Radziński, P., Neckels, R., Lazzeri, S., Dedić, A., Bakalović, A., Hrustić, L., & Skórko, B. (2020). Worsening of preexisting psychiatric conditions during the COVID-19 pandemic. *Frontiers in Psychiatry*, 11, 1407. <https://doi.org/10.3389/fpsy.2020.581426>.
- Goffee, R., Jones, G., Duncan, B., & Pfeffer, J. (1999). *Understanding organizations through language*. Sage Publications.
- Gomez, M. (2015). Institutional culture in higher education. *Higher Learning Research Communications*, 5(4), 1-8.
- Goodenough, W. H. (1956). Componential analysis and the study of meaning. *Language*, 32(1), 195–216. <http://www.jstor.org/stable/410665?origin=JSTOR-pdf>.
- Gordon, G. (2008). The impact of university culture on organizational learning. *Journal of Higher Education Management*, 23(1), 43-54.

- Goris, J.R., Vaught, B.C., Pettitt, T.N., & Bishop, J.W. (2000). The relationship of employee communication satisfaction to job satisfaction, organizational commitment, and turnover intention: A study of cable television employees. *Journal of Business and Psychology*, 14(4), 597- 615. <https://doi.org/10.1023/A:1022995416165>.
- Grant, A. M., Curtayne, L., & Burton, G. (2009). Executive coaching enhances goal attainment, resilience and workplace well-being: A randomised controlled study. *The Journal of Positive Psychology*, 4(5), 396–407. <https://doi.org/10.1080/17439760902992456>.
- Gray, D. E. (2014). *Doing research in the real world* (3rd ed.). Sage Publications.
- Green, J., & Thorogood, N. (2009). *Qualitative methods for health research*. Sage Publications.
- Greenidge, D., (2010). The relationship between employee engagement and organisational performance: Implementation of a workplace intervention. *Journal of Corporate Real Estate*, 12(4), 224-238. <https://doi.org/10.1108/14630011011102311>.
- Greenwood, D. J., & Levin, M. (1998). *Introduction to action research: Social research for social change*. Sage Publications.
- Griffin, L. & Ragin, C. C. (1994). Some observations on formal methods of qualitative analysis. *Sociological Methods & Research*, 23(1), 4-21. <https://doi.org/10.1177/0049124194023001002>.
- Grix, J. (2001). Introducing students to the generic terminology of social research. *Politics*, 21(3), 165-172.
- Gruman, J. A., & Saks, A. M. (2010). Performance management and employee engagement. *Human Resource Management Review*, 20(2), 125-133. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.hrmr.2010.09.004>
- GSS. (2015). *Labour Force Report*. Ghana Statistical Service.
- Guest, D. (2014). Human resource management and employee engagement. In D. Truss, K. Alfes, R. Delbridge, A. Shantz, & E. Soane (Eds.), *Employee Engagement in Theory and Practice* (pp. 50-63). Routledge.
- Guest, G., Bunce, A., & Johnson, L. (2006). How many interviews are enough? An

- experiment with data saturation and variability. *Field Methods*, 18(1), 59–82. <https://doi.org/10.1177/1525822X05279903>.
- Guimaraes, T. (1996). TQM's impact on employee attitudes. *The TQM magazine*, 8(1), 20-25.
- Guimaraes, T. (1997), "Assessing employee turnover intentions before/after TQM", *International Journal of Quality & Reliability Management*, 14(1), 46-63. <https://doi.org/10.1108/02656719710156770>.
- Guion, L. A., Diehl, D. C., & McDonald, D. (2011). Conducting an In-depth Interview: FCS6012/FY393, rev. 8/2011. *Edis*, 2011(8).
- Guzzo, R. A., & Shea, G. P. (1992). Group performance and intergroup relations in organizations. In M. D. Dunnette & L. M. Hough (Eds.), *Handbook of industrial and organizational psychology* (Vol. 3, pp. 269-313). Consulting Psychologists Press.
- Gwaltney, B. R. (2013). *Cultural diversity and social work practice*. Routledge.
- Gwaltney, D. (2013). Do high performance human resource practices and organizational culture affect staff turnover in institutions of higher education? (Doctoral dissertation, Eastern University). [ProQuest Dissertations and Theses Global database].
- Haglund, M. E., Nestadt, P. S., Cooper, N. S., Southwick, S. M., & Charney, D. S. (2007). Psychobiological mechanisms of resilience: Relevance to prevention and treatment of stress-related psychopathology. *Development and Psychopathology*, 19(3), 889-920. <https://doi.org/10.1017/S0954579407000430>.
- Haines, V. Y., & St-Onge, S. (2012). Rewards and recognition: Two highly effective ways to enhance institutional culture. *International Journal of Business and Social Science*, 3(21), 17-23.
- Haines III, V. Y., & St-Onge, S. (2012). Performance management effectiveness: Practices or context? *The International Journal of Human Resource Management*, 23, 1158-1175. <https://doi.org/10.1080/09585192.2011.561230>
- Hakanen, J. J., Schaufeli, W. B., & Ahola, K. (2008). The job demands-resources model: A three-year cross-lagged study of burnout, depression, commitment,

- and work engagement. *Work & Stress*, 22(3), 224–241. <https://doi.org/10.1080/02678370802379432>.
- Halbesleben, J.R.B. (2010) A Meta-Analysis of Work Engagement: Relationships with Burnout, Demands, Resources, and Consequences. In: Bakker, A.B. and Leiter, M.P., Eds., *Work Engagement: A Handbook of Essential Theory and Research*, Psychology Press, New York, 102-117.
- Halbesleben, J. R., & Wheeler, A. R. (2008). The relative roles of engagement and embeddedness in predicting job performance and intention to leave. *Work & Stress*, 22(3), 242-256. <https://doi.org/10.1080/02678370802483952>.
- Halid, H. (2023). Effect of organizational culture on organizational learning, employee engagement, and employee performance: Study of banking employees in Indonesia. *Problems and Perspectives in Management*, 21(3), 471-482. [https://doi.org/10.21511/ppm.21\(3\).2023.38](https://doi.org/10.21511/ppm.21(3).2023.38).
- Hamid, M., Maheen, S., Cheem, A., & Yaseen, R. (2017). *Impact of human resource management on organizational performance*, J Account Mark, an open access journal, ISSN: 2168-9601
- Hammersley, M. (1992) *What's wrong with ethnography? – Methodological explorations*. Routledge. <https://doi.org/10.4324/9781351038027>.
- Hanaysha, J. (2016). Examining the effects of employee empowerment, teamwork, and employee training on organizational commitment. *Procedia-Social and Behavioral Sciences*, 229, 298–306. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.sbspro.2016.07.140>.
- Hanaysha, J., & Tahir, M. (2016). The effect of teamwork on employee performance. *Journal of Business and Management*, 18(5), 6-12. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.sbspro.2016.05.016>.
- Harman, B. (2003). Work engagement in universities. *Journal of Higher Education Policy and Management*, 25(1), 27-38.
- Harrison, R. (1972). Understanding your organization's character. *Harvard Business Review*, 50(3), 119-128. <http://www.uulead.org/docs/orgcharacter.pdf>
- Harrison, R. (1975). Diagnosing organizational cultures. *Human Resource Management*, 14(4), 31-47.

- Hartley, D. (2004). Rural health disparities, population health, and rural culture. *American Journal of Public Health*, 94(10), 1675–1678. doi: 10.2105/ajph.94.10.1675. PMID: 15451729; PMCID: PMC1448513.
- Hartnell, C. A., Ou, A. Y., & Kinicki, A. (2011). Organizational culture and organizational effectiveness: a meta-analytic investigation of the competing values framework's theoretical suppositions. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 96(4), 677. <https://doi.org/10.1037/a0021987>.
- Hasan H, Astuti E. S., Tri Wulida A., Igbal M (2020). Impact of organizational culture on employee engagement and performance: a stimuli-organism-response approach. *Wacana*, 23(4):235–347.
- Hasibuan, M. S. P., Akbar, R., & Suyanto. (2018). The effects of transformational leadership, organizational culture, and job satisfaction on employee performance: The mediating role of employee satisfaction. *International Journal of Research in Business and Social Science*, 7(5), 11-22.
- Hashim, H., Ishak, N. A., & Hilmi, Z. A. G. (2017). Job embeddedness and organizational climate. *Asian Journal of Quality of Life*, 2(6), 31–42. <https://doi.org/10.21834/ajqol.v2i6.44>.
- Healey, N. M. (2015). Developing and implementing risk management strategies in higher education institutions. *Journal of Education and Learning*, 4(2), 14-23.
- Henning, E. (2004). *Finding your way in qualitative research*. Van Schaik Publishers.
- Hendrickson, A. R., Lange, D., Harris, J., & Dorman, H. (2013). The effects of leadership style and team process on performance and innovation in functionally heterogeneous teams. *Journal of Occupational and Organizational Psychology*, 86(3), 346-372. <https://doi.org/10.1111/joop.12007>.
- Hesse-Biber, S. N. (2010). *Mixed methods research: Merging theory with practice*. Guilford Press.
- Hirota, S., Kubo, K., Miyajima, H., Hong, P., & Park, Y. W. (2010). Corporate mission, corporate policies and business outcomes: evidence from Japan. *Management Decision*, 48(7), 1134-1153. <https://doi:10.1108/00251741011068815>.
- Hobfoll, S. E. (2011). Conservation of resource caravans and engaged settings. *Journal of Occupational and Organizational Psychology*, 84(1), 116–

122. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.2044-8325.2010.02016.x>
- Hobfoll, S. E., Johnson, R. J., Ennis, N., & Jackson, A. P. (2003). Resource loss, resource gain, and emotional outcomes among inner city women. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 84(3), 632. <https://doi.org/10.1037/0022-3514.84.3.632>.
- Hoffi-Hofstetter, H., & Mannheim, B. (1999). Managers' coping resources, perceived organizational patterns, and responses during organizational recovery from decline. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, 20(5), 665–685. <http://www.jstor.org/stable/3100435>.
- Hoffman, A. J. (2006). Institutional culture and individual behavior: Creating the climate for good practice. *Journal of Higher Education Policy and Management*, 28(2), 143-155. <http://www.jstor.org/stable/3100435>.
- Honorene, K. G. (2017). Triangulation in social science research: Importance and limitations. *Journal of Psychological and Brain Sciences*, 2(2), 1-5.
- Hoover, A. & Krishnamurti, S. (2010). Survey of college students. MP3 listening: Habits, safety issues, attitudes, and education. *American Journal of Audiology*, 19, 73-83. [https://doi.org/10.1044/1059-0889\(2010/08-0036\)](https://doi.org/10.1044/1059-0889(2010/08-0036)).
- Houston, D., Meyer, L. H., & Paewai, S. (2006). Academic staff workloads and job satisfaction: Expectations and values in academe. *Journal of Higher Education Policy and Management*, 28(1), 17–30. <https://doi.org/10.1080/13600800500283734>.
- Hruschka, D. J., & Hadley, C. (2008). A glossary of culture in epidemiology. *Journal of Epidemiology & Community Health*, 62(11), 947–951. <https://doi.org/10.1136/jech.2008.076729>.
- Hughes, J. C., & Rog, E. (2008). Talent management: A strategy for improving employee recruitment, retention and engagement within hospitality organizations. *International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management*, 20, 743-757. <https://doi.org/10.1108/09596110810899086>.
- Huczynski, A., & Buchanan, D. A. (2010). *Organizational behaviour*. Pearson Education Limited.
- Hussein, A. M. (2015). The use of triangulation in social sciences research: Can

- qualitative and quantitative methods be combined? *Journal of Comparative Social Work*, 6(1), 1-12. <https://doi.org/10.31265/jcsw.v4i1.48>.
- Hyman, H. H. (1955). *Survey Design Analysis*. The Free Press Glencoe, Ill.
- ICEBSH. (2021). The impact of institutional culture on employee engagement and OCB partial procedures: Evidence from a survey in Indonesia. Proceedings of the International Conference on Economics, Business, Social, and Humanities, 1-12. <https://www.atlantis-press.com/proceedings/series/assehr>.
- Idowu, A. (2017) Effectiveness of performance appraisal system and its effect on employee motivation. *Nile Journal of Business and Economics* 3.5 (2017): 15-39.
- Ikramullah, M., Hassan, S., & Malik, S. (2016). Impact of employee performance appraisal on organizational performance: An analytical investigation of Pakistani service industry. *Pakistan Journal of Commerce and Social Sciences*, 10(1), 139-156.
- Institute of Employment Studies. (2018). Employee engagement: A review of current thinking. Retrieved from <https://www.employment-studies.co.uk/resource/employee-engagement-review-current-thinking>.
<http://hdl.voced.edu.au/10707/388758>.
- Iqbal, A., Akbar, M., & Budhwar, P. (2015). Impact of employee development on job satisfaction and employee retention: A study of Pakistani universities. *International Journal of Training and Development*, 19(1), 19-37.
- Isaksen, S. G., & Lauer, K. J. (2002). The climate for creativity and change in teams. *Creativity and Innovation Management Journal*, 11, 74-86.
- Ivankova, N. V., Creswell, J. W., & Stick, S.L. (2006). Using mixed methods sequential explanatory design: From theory to practice. *Field Methods*, 18(1), 3–20. <https://doi.org/10.1177/1525822X05282260>.
- Janetius, S. (2016). Employee engagement in educational institutions: An exploratory study. *Journal of Education and Practice*, 7(23), 101-108. <https://www.iiste.org/Journals/index.php/JEP/article/view/32702/33666>.
- Jappie, T.N. (2019). Institutional culture: A reflection of social system to ensure continuity. *International Journal of Social Science Research*, 7(1), 56-68.

- Jick, T.D. (1979). Mixing qualitative and quantitative methods: Triangulation in action. *Administrative Science Quarterly*, 24(4), 602-611. <https://doi.org/10.2307/2392366>.
- Jiony, M. M., Tanakinjal, G. H., Gom, D., & Sigantul, R. S. (2015). Understanding the effect of organizational culture and employee engagement on organizational performance using organizational communication as mediator: A conceptual framework. *American Journal of Economics*, 5(2), 128–134. <https://doi.org/10.5923/c.economics.201501.13>.
- John, A. C. (2015). Reliability and validity: A sine qua non for fair assessment of undergraduate technical and vocational education projects in Nigerian universities. *Journal of Education and Practice*, 6(34), 68-75.
- Johnson, R. B., & Larry, B. C. (2016). *Educational research: Quantitative, qualitative, and mixed approaches*. 6th Ed.: Sage Publications.
- Johnson, R. B., & Onwuegbuzie, A. J. (2004). Mixed methods research: A research paradigm whose time has come. *Educational Researcher*, 33(7), 14–26. <http://dx.doi.org/10.3102/0013189X033007014>.
- Johnson R. B., Onwuegbuzie A., Turner L. A. (2007). Toward a definition of mixed methods research. *Journal of Mixed Methods Research*, 1(2), 112-133. <https://doi.org/10.1177/1558689806298224>.
- Judge, T. A., Bono, J. E., Erez, A., & Locke, E. A. (2005). Core self-evaluations and job and life satisfaction: the role of self-concordance and goal attainment. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 90(2), 257. <https://doi.org/10.1037/0021-9010.90.2.257>. PMID: 15769236.
- Junyong, L. (2017). The significance of pilot studies. *Annals of Translational Medicine*, 5(4), 83. <https://do.org/10.21037/atm.2017.01.54>
- Kahn, W. A. (1990). Psychological conditions of personal engagement and disengagement at work. *Academy of Management Journal*, 33(4), 692–724. <https://doi.org/10.2307/256287>.
- Kahn, W. A. (1992). To be fully there: Psychological presence at work. *Human Relations*, 45(4), 321–349. <https://doi.org/10.1177/001872679204500402>.
- Kalia, N., & Verma, Y. (2017). Organizational culture and employee engagement: an

- interrelationship study in hospitality industry of Himachal Pradesh. *International Journal of Human Resource Management and Research*, 7(3), 17-22.
- Karia, N. (1999). The impact of TQM practices on employees' work-related attitude. MBA Unpublished Research Report, Universiti Sains Malaysia.
- Karia, N and Ahmad, Z.A (2000). Quality practices that pay: Empowerment and teamwork. *Malaysian Management Review*, 35(2), pp 66-76.
- Karia, N., and Asaari, M. H. (2006). The effects of total quality management practices on employees' work-related attitudes. *The TQM Magazine*. 18(1), pp 30–43.
- Kampkotter, P. (2016). Performance appraisals and job satisfaction. *The International Journal of Human Resource Management*, 28(5), 750-774.
- Kanungo, R. N. (1982). Measurement of job and work involvement. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 67(3), 341-349. <https://doi.org/10.1037/0021-9010.67.3.341>.
- Kaplan, B., & Duchon, D. (1988). Combining qualitative and quantitative methods in information systems research: A case study. *MIS Quarterly*, 12(4), 571-586. <https://doi.org/10.2307/249133>.
- Kapoulas, A., & Mitic, M. (2012). Understanding challenges of qualitative research: rhetorical issues and reality traps. *Qualitative Market Research*, 15, 354-368. <http://doi.org/i:10.1108/13522751211257051>.
- Kapur, P. (2020). Understanding organizational culture: A review and future directions for research. *Journal of Business Research*, 109, 62-75. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jbusres.2019.12.005>.
- Karatepe, O. M., & Olugbade, O. A. (2009). The effects of job and personal resources on hotel employees' work engagement. *International Journal of Hospitality Management*, 28(4), 504–512. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ijhm.2009.02.003>.
- Kellerman, B. (2008). *Followership: How followers are creating change and changing leaders*. Harvard Business Press. ISBN # 13:978-1- 4221-0368-5.
- Kezar, A. J. (2001). Understanding and facilitating organizational change in the 21st century: Recent research and conceptualizations. Washington DC: ASHE-ERIC Higher Education Reports, 28(4), 1-174. Jossey-Bass Higher and Adult Education Series.

- Kezar, A., and Eckel, P. D. (2002). The effect of institutional culture on change strategies in higher education. *The Journal of Higher Education*, 73(4), 435-460. <https://doi.org/10.1080/00221546.2002.11777159>.
- Kezar, A. J., Carducci, R., & Contreras-McGavin, M. (2006). *Rethinking the “L” word in higher education: The revolution of research on leadership*. ASHE higher education report. John Wiley & Sons.
- Khalifa, S. (2011). Three Fs for the mission statement: What's next?. *Journal of Strategy and Management*, 4(1), 25-43. <https://doi.org/10.1108/17554251111110104>.
- Khurotin, N., & Afrianty, T. W. (2018). Analysis of training and development of human resources at PT Beon Intermedia Malang Branch. *Journal of Business Administration*, 64(1), 195–203.
- Kim, H. S. (2007). A multi-level study of antecedents and a mediator of employee-organization relationship, *Journal of Public Relations Research*, 19, 167–197. <https://psycnet.apa.org/doi/10.1080/10627260701290695>.
- Kim, W., Kolb, J.A., Kim, A. (2012), The relationship between work engagement and performance: A review of empirical literature and a proposed research agenda, *Human Resource Development Review*, 12(3), 248-276.
- Kim, J. N. & Rhee, Y. (2011), “Strategic thinking about employee communication behaviour (ECB) in public relations: testing the models of megaphoning and scouting effects in Korea”, *Journal of Public Relations Research*, 23(3), 243-268, <https://doi.org/10.1080/1062726x.2011.582204>.
- King, N., & Horrocks, C. (2010). *Interviews in qualitative research*. Sage Publications, London.
- Kinser, K., & Lane, J. E. (2014). Managing the oversight of international branch campuses in higher education. *Higher Education Management and Policy*, OECD Publishing, 24(3), 161–176. <https://doi.org/10.1787/hemp-24-5jz8tqscxk25>.
- Kivunja, C. (2018). Distinguishing between theory, theoretical framework, and conceptual framework: A systematic review of lessons from the field. *International Journal of Higher Education*, 7(6), 44-53.

- <https://doi.org/10.5430/ijhe.v7n6p44>.
- Koch, T. (1994). Establishing rigour in qualitative research: the decision trail. *Journal of Advanced Nursing*, 19(5), 976-986. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1365-2648.1994.tb01177.x>.
- Kortmann, S., Gelhard, C., Zimmermann, C., & Piller, F. T. (2014). Linking strategic flexibility and operational efficiency: The mediating role of ambidextrous operational capabilities. *Journal of Operations Management*, 32(7–8), 475–490. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jom.2014.09.007>.
- Kotter, J. P. (1996). *Leading Change*. Boston: Harvard Business School Press.
- Kreitner, R., & Kinicki, A. (2010). *Organizational Behaviour* (9th ed.). McGraw-Hill/Irwin.
- Kubicek, J. (2011). *Leadership is dead: How influence is reviving it*. Howard Books.
- Kuh, G. D., & Whitt, E. J. (1988). The Invisible Tapestry: Culture in American Colleges and Universities. ASHE-ERIC Higher Education Report, 16(1), 1-124.
- Kuhn, T. S. (1962). *The structure of scientific revolutions* (2nd ed.). Chicago, IL: University of Chicago Press Press.
- Kumekpor, K.B. (2002) *Research Methods & Techniques of Social Research*. SonLife Printing Press and Services, Ghana, 304.
- Kühnel, J., Sonnentag, S., & Bledow, R. (2012). Resources and time pressure as day-level antecedents of work engagement. *Journal of Occupational and Organizational Psychology*, 85, 181-198. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.2044-8325.2011.02022.x>.
- Kvale, S. (1996). *Interviews Views: An introduction to Qualitative Research Interviewing*. Sage Publications. Thousand Oaks, CA.
- Kvale, S., & Brinkmann, S. (2014). *Interviews: Learning the craft of qualitative research interviewing* (3rd ed.). Sage Publications, Thousand Oaks, CA.
- Kweitsu, R. 2014. "Ghana's Education Sector: Key Challenges Hindering the Effective Delivery of Education and the Way Forward." Accessed February 16, 2023. <https://www.modernghana.com/news/579629/ghanas-education-sector-key-challenges-hindering-the-effec.html>.

- Kubicek, J., 2011, *Leadership is dead: How influence is reviving it*, Howard Books, New York.
- Lacatus, M. L. (2013). Organizational culture in contemporary university. *Procedia-Social and Behavioral Sciences*, 76, 421–425. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.sbspro.2013.04.139>.
- Lane, J. E. (2011). Global expansion of international branch campuses: Managerial and leadership challenges. *New Directions for Higher Education*, 155, 5-17.
- Last, J. M. (2001). *A dictionary of epidemiology* (4th ed.). New York, NY: Oxford University Press.
- Lourel, J. & Guéguen, M. (2007). Homework interferences: their consequences on organizational commitment and perceived stress, *Les Cahiers Internationaux de Psychologie Sociale*. 73, 49-58.
- Lawler, E.E. (1971) *Pay and Organizational Effectiveness: A Psychological View*. McGraw-Hill, NY.
- Lawler, E. E., & Jenkins, G. D. (1992). Strategic reward systems. In M. D. Dunnette & L. M. Hough (Eds.), *Handbook of industrial and organizational psychology* (2nd ed., pp. 1009–1055). Consulting Psychologists Press.
- Le, T. K. A. (2016). *Developing the Academy in Vietnam: An investigation of the formation of academic identity by university lecturers in Vietnam*. Lismore, Australia, PhD Thesis: Southern Cross University.
- Lee, C. (2004). Creating a collaborative campus culture. *Community College Journal of Research and Practice*, 38:503-511.
- Lee J. H., Hwang J., & Lee K. S. (2019). Job satisfaction and job-related stress among nurses: the moderating effect of mindfulness. *Work*. 2019;62(1):87-95. <https://doi.org/10.3233/WOR-182843>. PMID: 30741714.
- Leedy, P. D., & Ormrod, J. E. (2005). *Practical research* (Vol. 108). Saddle River, NJ, USA: Pearson Custom.
- Leninger M. (1994). Evaluation criteria and critique of qualitative research studies. In: Morse JM, ed. *Critical Issues in Qualitative Research Methods*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications; :95–115.
- Li, L., & Titsworth, S. (2015). Student misbehaviors in online classrooms: Scale

- development and validation. *American Journal of Distance Education*, 29(1), 41 - 55. <https://doi.org/10.1080/08923647.2015.994360>.
- Lim, B. (1995), "Examining the organizational culture and organizational performance link", *Leadership & Organization Development Journal*, 16 (5), 16-21. <https://doi.org/10.1108/01437739510088491>.
- Liao, H., & Chuang, A. (2007). Transforming service employees and climate: a multi-level multi-source examination of transformational leadership in building long-term service relationships. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 92, 1006–1019. <https://doi.org/10.1037/0021-9010.92.4.1006>.
- Lincoln, Y.S. and Guba, E.G. (1985) *Naturalistic Inquiry*. SAGE, Thousand Oaks, 289-331. [http://doi.org/10.1016/0147-1767\(85\)90062-8](http://doi.org/10.1016/0147-1767(85)90062-8).
- Llorens, S., Schaufeli, W.B., Bakker, A.B., & Salanova, M. (2007). Does a positive gain spiral of resources, efficacy beliefs and engagement exist? *Computers in Human Behaviour*, 23, 825-841. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.chb.2004.11.012>.
- Lockwood, N.R. (2007) Leveraging Employee Engagement for Competitive Advantage. *Society for Human Resource Management Research Quarterly*, 1, 1-12.
- Lodahl, T. M., & Kejnar, M. M. (1965). The definition and measurement of job involvement. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 49(1), 24-33. <https://doi.org/10.1037/h0021692>.
- Longenecker, C. & Fink, L. (2013). Creating human-resource management value in the twenty-first century: Seven steps to strategic HR. *Human Resource Management International Digest*. <https://doi.org/21.10.1108/09670731311306814>.
- Luthans, F. (2002). Positive organizational behavior: Developing and managing psychological strengths. *Academy of Management Perspectives*, 16(1), 57-72. <https://doi.org/10.5465/AME.2002.6640181>.
- Luthans, F., Youssef, C. M., & Avolio, B. J. (2007). *Psychological Capital: Developing the Human Competitive Edge* (Vol. 198). Oxford University Press. <https://doi.org/10.1093/acprof:oso/9780195187526.001.0001>.
- Luthans, F., Youssef, C. M., & Avolio, B. J. (2015). *Psychological capital and beyond*.

Oxford University Press.

- Luthans, F., Vogelgesang, G. R., & Lester, P. B. (2006). Developing the psychological capital of resiliency. *Human Resource Development Review*, 10(4), 406-425. <https://doi.org/10.1177/1534484305285335>.
- Lloyd, R. (2008). Discretionary effort and the performance domain. *The Australian and New Zealand Journal of Organizational Psychology*, 1, 22-34.
- Macey, W. H., & Schneider, B. (2008). The meaning of employee engagement. *Industrial and Organizational Psychology*, 1(1), 3-30. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1754-9434.2007.0002.x>
- Mackenzie, S. (1995). Surveying the organizational culture in an NHS trust. *Journal of Management in Medicine*. 9(6):69-77. <https://doi.org/10.1108/02689239510101157>. PMID: 10152863.
- Mackenzie, N., & Knipe, S. (2006). Research dilemmas: Paradigms, methods and methodology. *Issues in Educational Research*, 16(2), 193-205.
- Malmquist, D., Hellberg, K., Mollas, G., Rose, J., & Shevlin, M. (2019). The benefits of pilot studies in psychological research. *Journal of European Psychology Students*, 10(3), 68-74. <https://doi.org/10.5334/jeps.478>.
- Malmqvist, J., Hellberg, K., Möllås, G., Rose, R., & Shevlin, M. (2019). Conducting the pilot study: A neglected part of the research process? Methodological findings supporting the importance of piloting in qualitative research studies. *International Journal of Qualitative Methods*. <https://doi.org/10.1177/1609406919878341>.
- McCaffery, P. (2010). A Review of Organisational Culture Research: Implications for Information Professionals. *Australian Academic & Research Libraries*, 41(4), 204-217. <https://doi.org/10.1080/00048623.2010.10721373>.
- McCracken, G. (1988). *The long interview (Vol 13)*. Sage.
- McMillan, J.H. and Schumacher, S. (2010). *Research in Education: Evidencebased Inquiry*. (7th ed.) Upper Saddle River. New Jersey: Pearson Education, Inc.
- Madu, N. G., Asawo, S. P., & Gabriel, J. M. O. (2017). Physical workplace environment and employees' engagement: A theoretical exploration. *International Journal of Arts and Humanities*, 1(10), 867-884.

- Marks, D. F., & Yardley, L. (2004). *Research methods for clinical and health psychology*. Sage. <https://doi.org/10.4135/9781849209793>.
- Marshall, B., Cardon, P., Poddar, A., & Fontenot, R. (2013). Does sample size matter in qualitative research? A review of qualitative interviews in is research. *Journal of Computer Information Systems*, 54(1), 11-22. <https://doi.org/10.1080/08874417.2013.11645667>.
- Maslach, C., & Jackson, S. E. (1981). The measurement of experienced burnout. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, 2(2), 99–113. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1002/job.4030020205>.
- Maslach, C., Jackson, S.E. & Leiter, M.P. (1997) Maslach Burnout Inventory. In: *Evaluating Stress: A Book of Resources*, 3rd Edition, Scarecrow Education, Lanham, 191-218.
- Maslach, C., & Leiter, M. P. (2008). *The truth about burnout: How organizations cause personal stress and what to do about it*. San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.
- Maslach, C., Schaufeli, W. B. & Leiter, M. P. (2001). Job burnout. *Annual Review of Psychology*, 52(1), 397-422. <https://doi.org/10.1146/annurev.psych.52.1.397>.
- Mason, J. 2002. *Qualitative Researching*, 2nd ed. London, Thousand Oaks: Sage Publications.
- May, D. R., Gilson, R. L., & Harter, L. M. (2004). The psychological conditions of meaningfulness, safety and availability and the engagement of the human spirit at work. *Journal of Occupational and Organizational Psychology*, 77(1), 11–37. <https://psycnet.apa.org/doi/10.1348/096317904322915892>.
- Mays, N., & Pope, C. (2000). Qualitative research in health care: Assessing quality in qualitative research. *BMJ*, 320(7226), 50-52. <https://doi.org/10.1136/bmj.320.7226.50>.
- McBain, R. (2007), "The practice of engagement: Research into current employee engagement practice", *Strategic HR Review*, 6 (6),16-19. <https://doi.org/10.1108/14754390780001011>.
- McLellan-Lemal, E., Macqueen, K. M., & Neidig, J. L. (2003). Beyond the Qualitative Interview: Data Preparation and Transcription. *Field Methods*. 15(1), 63-84. <https://doi.org/10.1177/1525822X02239573>.

- McLeod, S. (2018) Questionnaire: Definition, Examples, Design and Types. <https://www.simplypsychology.org/questionnaires.html>.
- McMillan, J. H., & Schumacher, S. (2010). *Research in Education: Evidence-Based Inquiry*. Upper Saddle River, NJ: Pearson Education, Inc.
- McShane, S. L., & Von Glinow, M. A. (2015). *Organizational Behavior*. (7th ed.). McGraw-Hill, Boston.
- Melamed, S., Shirom, A., Toker, S., Berliner, S., & Shapira, I. (2006). Burnout and risk of cardiovascular disease: evidence, possible causal paths, and promising research directions. *Psychological Bulletin*, 132(3), 327. <https://doi.org/10.1037/0033-2909.132.3.327>.
- Melcrum (2007), *The Practitioner's Guide to: essential techniques for employee engagement*, Melcrum Publishing Limited.
- Merriam, S. B., & Tisdell, E. J. (2016). *Qualitative Research: A Guide to Design and Implementation* (4th ed.). San Francisco, CA: Jossey Bass.
- Miles, M. B., & Huberman, A. M. (1994). *Qualitative Data Analysis: An Expanded Sourcebook*. (2nd Ed) Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications.
- Milton, P. (2010). Kuhn's philosophy of scientific practice. In *The Oxford handbook of philosophy of science* (pp. 68-97). Oxford University Press.
- Mohamed, A. I., & Abukar, A. A. S. (2013). The impact of organizational culture on employees performance of Mogadishu Universities. *Academic Research International*, 4(6), 382–391.
- Mohd Roffeei S. H., Kamarulzaman Y., Yusop F. D. (2018) Inculcating innovative behavior among students: determinants of innovation culture in Malaysian higher education. *Malaysian Online Journal of Educational Management* 5(4):1–17.
- Mohrman, A. M., Jr., Mohrman, S. A., Ledford, G. E., Jr., Cummings, T. G., & Lawler, E. E. III. (1989). *Large-scale organizational change*. Jossey-Bass.
- Moliner, C., Martinez-Tur, V., Ramos, J., Peiró, J. M., & Cropanzano, R. (2008). Relationships between organizational justice and burnout at the work-unit level. *International Journal of Stress Management*, 12(2), 99-116. <https://doi.org/10.1037/1072-5245.12.2.99>.
- Moore L. (2020). *The impact of company culture on employee engagement*.

- FlashPoint Leadership Consult. 83:9758–9764.
<https://www.flashpointleadership.com/blog/company-culture-impact-on-employee-engagement>.
- Morgan, D. L. (1998). Practical strategies for combining qualitative and quantitative methods: Applications to health research. *Qualitative Health Research*, 8(3), 362-376. <https://doi.org/10.1177/104973239800800307>.
- Morgan, G. (1998). *Images of organization: The executive edition*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications.
- Morgan, D. L. (2007). Paradigms lost and pragmatism regained: Methodological implications of combining qualitative and quantitative methods. *Journal of Mixed Methods Research*, 1(1), 48–76. <https://doi.org/10.1177/2345678906292462>.
- Morgan, H. (2022). Conducting a Qualitative Document Analysis. *The Qualitative Report*, 27(1), 64-77. <https://doi.org/10.46743/2160-3715/2022.5>.
- Morgeson, F. P., Aguinis, H., Waldman, D. A., & Siegel, D. S. (2013). Extending corporate social responsibility research to the human resource management and organizational behavior domains: A look to the future. *Personnel Psychology*, 66(4), 805 - 824. <https://doi.org/10.1111/peps.12055>.
- Morphew, C. C., & Hartley, M. (2006). Mission statements: A thematic analysis of rhetoric across institutional type. *The Journal of Higher Education*, 77(3), 456 - 471. <https://doi.org/10.1080/00221546.2006.11778934>.
- Morse, J. M. (1991). Approaches to qualitative-quantitative methodological triangulation. *Nursing Research*, 40(2), 120-123.
- Morse, J. M. (1995). The significance of saturation. *Qualitative Health Research*, Sage Social Science Collection 5(2), 147-149. <https://doi.org/10.1177%2F104973239500500201>.
- Morse, J. M., & Niehaus, L. (2009). *Mixed Method Design: Principles and Procedures*. Walnut Creek, CA, USA: Left Coast Press Inc.; 193 pages
- Mostert, K. (2006). Job resources, work engagement and the mediating role of positive work-home interaction of police officers in the North West Province. *Acta Criminologica*. 19. 64-87.
- Muijs, D. (2011). *Doing Quantitative research in education with SPSS* (2nd ed.). Sage

- Publications. <http://doi.org/10.4135/9781849203241>.
- Mukherji, P., & Albon, D. (2022). *Research methods in early childhood: An introductory guide*. Sage.
- Munene, J. C. (1995). 'Not-on-seat': An investigation of some correlates of organisational citizenship behaviour in Nigeria. *Applied Psychology: An International Review*, 44(2), 111 - 122. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1464-0597.1995.tb01069.x>
- Munir, F., Nielsen, K., Garde, A. H., Albertsen, K., & Carneiro, I. G. (2012). Mediating the effects of work-life conflict between transformational leadership and health-care workers' job satisfaction and psychological wellbeing. *Journal of Nursing Management*, 23(2), 231-241. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1365-2834.2011.01308.x>
- Naderi Anari, N. (2012). Teachers: emotional intelligence, job satisfaction, and organizational commitment. *Journal of workplace Learning*, 24(4), 256-269.
- Naidoo, P. (2014). The relationship between organizational culture and work engagement (Masters mini-dissertation). University of South Africa, Pretoria.
- Naidoo, M., & Hoque, M. E. (2017). Reducing youth unemployment beyond the Youth Wage Subsidy: A study of Simtech apprentices. *SA Journal of Human Resource Management*, 15(1), 1-10.
- Naidoo, Pervashnee & Martins, N. (2014). Investigating the relationship between organizational culture and work engagement. *Problems and Perspectives in Management*. 12. 433-441.
- Naidoo-Chetty, M., & du Plessis, M. (2021). Systematic Review of the Job Demands and Resources of Academic Staff within Higher Education Institutions. *International Journal of Higher Education*. 10. 268. [10.5430/ijhe.v10n3p268](https://doi.org/10.5430/ijhe.v10n3p268).
- Nazneen, A., Miralam, M. S., & Qazi, S. (2018). Impact of employee engagement and organizational culture in high performing accredited university of Saudi Arabia. *International Journal of Accounting and Financial Reporting*, 8(4), 180–196. <https://doi.org/10.5296/ijafr.v8i4.13864>.
- Ndoro, T., & Martins, N. (2019). Employee engagement at a higher education institution in South Africa: Individual, team and organisational levels. *Journal of Psychology in Africa*. 29. 121-125. [10.1080/14330237.2019.1603342](https://doi.org/10.1080/14330237.2019.1603342).

- Needle, D. (2004). *Business in context: An introduction to business and its environment by David Needle* (4th ed.). Cengage Learning Business Press.
- Neuman, W. L. (1997). *Social Research Methods: Qualitative and Quantitative Approaches*. 3rd Ed. Allyn and Bacon, Boston.
- Neuman, D. (2014). Qualitative research in educational communications and technology: A brief introduction to principles and procedures. *Journal of Computing in Higher Education*, 26(1), 69–86. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s12528-014-9078-x>.
- Newman, I. and Benz, C.R. (1998) *Qualitative-quantitative Research Methodology: Exploring the Interactive Continuum*. Southern Illinois University, Carbondale.
- Nguyen, T. H. (2009). Information technology adoption in SMEs: an integrated framework. *International Journal of Entrepreneurial Behavior & Research*, 15(2), 162-186. <https://doi.org/10.1108/13552550910944566>.
- Nnuro, E. K. (2012). Occupational stress and its effects on job performance: A case study of Koforidua Polytechnic. [Unpublished master's thesis]. University of Ghana. <https://ir.knust.edu.gh/handle/123456789/4799>.
- Noah, Y. (2008). "A study of worker participation in management decision making within selected establishments in Lagos", *Nigeria Journal of Social Science*, 17 (1) 31-39.
- Noble, H., & Heale, R. (2019). Triangulation in research, with examples. *Evidence-Based Nursing*, 22, 67-68. <https://doi.org/10.1136/ebnurs-2019-103145>.
- Nwugwo, B.C. (2001). The impact of organizational culture on employee behavior and attitude. Running head. 2, 1-34.
- Nyan, E., (2017). Causes and Management of Industrial Disputes between University Management and the Junior Staff at the University of Cape Coast, Ghana. *Ghana Journal of Higher Education Management*, 4, 1-10.
- Obenchain, A. M., Johnson, W. C., & Dion, P. A. (2004). Institutional types, organizational cultures, and innovation in Christian colleges and universities. *Christian Higher Education*, 3, 15-39.
- Ojo, A. O., Fawehinmi, O., & Yusliza, M. Y. (2021). Examining the predictors of

- resilience and work engagement during the COVID-19 pandemic. *Sustainability*, 13(5), 1-18. <https://doi.org/10.3390/su13052902>.
- Oldham, G. R., & Cummings, A. (1996). Employee creativity: Personal and contextual factors at work. *Academy of Management Journal*, 39(3), 607–634. <https://doi.org/10.2307/256657>.
- Olssen, M., & Peters, M. A. (2005). Neoliberalism, higher education and the knowledge economy: From the free market to knowledge capitalism. *Journal of Education Policy*, 20(3), 313–345. <https://doi.org/10.1080/02680930500108718>.
- Onwuegbuzie, A. J., & Johnson, R. B. (2006). The validity issue in mixed research. *Research in the Schools*, 13(1), 48-63.
- O'Reilly, M., & Parker, N. (2012). Unsatisfactory saturation: a critical exploration of the notion of saturated sample sizes in qualitative research. *Qualitative Research*, 13(2), 190-197. <https://doi.org/10.1177/1468794112446106>.
- Ormston, R., Spencer, L., Barnard, M., & Snape, D. (2014). The Foundations of Qualitative Research. *Qualitative Research Practice. A Guide for Social Science Researchers*, 2, 52-55. Sage.
- Osborne, S., & Hammoud, M. S. (2017). Effective employee engagement in the workplace. *International Journal of Applied Management and Technology*, 16, 50-67. <https://doi.org/10.5590/IJAMT.2017.16.1.04>.
- Osland, J., & Bird, A. (2000). Beyond sophisticated stereotyping: Cultural sensemaking in context. *Academy of Management Perspectives*, 14, 65-77.
- Osuola, E. C. (2007). *Foundation of Vocational Education Onitsha*. Cape Publishers International.
- Othman, A. K., Hamzah, M. I., Abas, M. K., & Zakuan, N. M. (2017). The influence of leadership styles on employee engagement: The moderating effect of communication styles. *International Journal of Advanced and Applied Science*, 4(3), 107–116. <https://doi.org/10.21833/ijaas.2017.03.017>.
- Pallant, J. (2005). *SPSS Survival Manual: A Step by Step Guide to Data Analysis using SPSS for Windows* (2nd ed.). Allen & Unwin.
- Pallant, J. (2016). *SPSS Survival Manual: A step by Step Guide to Data Analysis using IBM SPSS*. (6th ed.). London, UK: McGraw-Hill Education.

- Pandya, C. N. (2021). The effect of organizational culture on employee engagement—A study across the recruitment sector in Gujarat. *PhD diss., Gujarat Tech. Uni., Ahmedabad.*
- Parent, J. & Lovelace, K. (2018). Employee engagement, positive organizational culture and individual adaptability. *On the Horizon*, 26, 206-214. <https://doi.org/10.1108/OTH-01-2018-0003>.
- Patton, M. Q. (1990). *Qualitative Research and Evaluation Methods (2nd ed.)*. Sage Publications.
- Patton, M. Q. (2002a). *Qualitative Research and Evaluation Methods (3rd ed.)*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications.
- Patton, M. (2014) *Qualitative Research and Evaluation Methods*. 4th ed. Sage, Thousand Oaks
- Patton, M. (2015). *Qualitative Research and Evaluation Methods*, 4th ed. Sage Publications, Thousand Oaks.
- Paullay, I. M., Alliger, G. M., & Stone-Romero, E. F. (1994). Construct validation of two instruments designed to measure job involvement and work centrality. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 79(2), 224. <https://doi.org/10.1037/0021-9010.79.2.224>.
- Pennington, P., Townsend, C., & Cummings, R. (2003). The relationship of leadership practices to culture. *Journal of Leadership Education*, 2(1), 27-44.
- Pepra-Mensah, J., & Kyeremeh, E. A. (2018). Organisational culture: A catalyst for employee engagement in the Ghanaian public sector. *Global Journal of Human Resource Management*, 6(3), 11–28.
- Perva, D. (2016). *Leadership, Organizational Culture and Performance: A Cross-Cultural Aspect of Non-Profit Organization Management* (Master's dissertation, Universidade do Algarve (Portugal). <http://hdl.handle.net/10400.1/9837>.
- Pettit Jr, J. D., Goris, J. R., & Vaught, B. C. (1997). An examination of organizational communication as a moderator of the relationship between job performance and job satisfaction. *The Journal of Business Communication*, 34(1), 81–98. <https://doi.org/10.1177/002194369703400105>.
- Pfeffer, J. (1994) *Competitive advantage through people unleashing the power of the workforce*. Harvard Business School Press, Boston.

- Pickard, A. (2007). *Research methods in information*. UK Facet publishing, London, p. 336.
- Pipe, T. B., Buchda, V. L., Launder, S., Hudak, B., Hulvey, L., Karns, K. E., & Pendergast, D. (2012). Building personal and professional resources of resilience and agility in the healthcare workplace. *Stress and Health*, 28(1), 11 - 22. <https://doi.org/10.1002/smi.1396>. Epub 2011 Mar 13. PMID: 22259154.
- Polit, D. F., & Beck, C. T. (2010). Generalization in quantitative and qualitative research: myths and strategies. *International Journal of Nursing Studies*, 47(11), 1451-1458. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ijnurstu.2010.06.004>. Epub 2010 Jul 3. PMID: 20598692.
- Polit, D. F., Beck, C. T., & Hungler, B. P. (2001). *Essentials of nursing research: Methods, appraisal, and utilization*. Lippincott Williams & Wilkins.
- Polkinghorne, D. E. (2005). Language and meaning: Data collection in qualitative research. *Journal of Counseling Psychology*, 52(2), 137-145. <https://doi.org/10.1037/0022-0167.52.2.137>.
- Pongton, P., & Suntrayuth, S. (2019). Communication satisfaction, employee engagement, job satisfaction, and job performance in higher education institutions. *ABAC Journal*, 39(3), 90 -110.
- Popli, S., & Rizvi, I. A. (2016). Drivers of employee engagement: The role of leadership style. *Global Business Review*, 17(4), 965-979. <https://doi.org/10.1177/0972150916645701>.
- Putri, N., Nimran, U., Rahardjo, K., & Wilopo, W. (2021). The Impact of Organizational Culture on Employee Engagement and Organizational Citizenship Behavior: A Study on XYZ Manufacturing Company. *Proceedings of the International Conference on Economics, Business, Social, and Humanities (ICEBSH 2021)*. <https://doi.org/10.2991/assehr.k.210805.072>.
- Quinlan, C. (2011). *Business Research Methods*. South-Western Cengage Learning.
- Quinn, R. E. (1996). *Deep Change: Discovering the Leader Within*. John Wiley & Sons.
- Quinn, R. E., & Rohrbaugh, J. (1981). A competing values approach to organizational effectiveness. *Public Productivity Review*, 122–140. Taylor & Francis, Ltd. <https://doi.org/10.2307/3380029>.

- Rabinowitz, S., & Hall, D. T. (1977). Organizational research on job involvement. *Psychological Bulletin*, 84(2), 265. <https://doi.org/10.1037/0033-2909.84.2.265>.
- Radcliffe, L. S. (2013). Qualitative diaries: Uncovering the complexities of work-life decision-making. *Qualitative Research in Organizations and Management: An International Journal*, 8(2), 145-162. <https://doi.org/10.1108/QROM-04-2012-1058>.
- Raja, V. J. A. (2016). A study on effectiveness of performance appraisal system in manufacturing industries in India. *International Journal of Advanced Research in Management*, (IJARM, 7, (1).
- Ramlall, S. J. (2008). Enhancing employee performance through positive organizational behavior. *Journal of Applied Social Psychology*, 38(6), 1580–1600. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1559-1816.2008.00360.x>.
- Rapley, T. (2018) Doing Conversation, Discourse and Document Analysis (Book 7 of The SAGE Qualitative Research Kit, 2nd ed.). London: Sage.
- Rapley, T. (2007) The Sage Qualitative Research Kit. Doing Conversation, Discourse and Document Analysis. Sage Publications Ltd., Thousand Oaks.
- Ravitch, S. M., & Riggan, M. (2017). *Reason & rigor: How conceptual frameworks guide research*, (2nd ed.). Thousand Oaks, CA: SAGE Publications.
- Resnik, D. B. (2011). Scientific research and the public trust. *Science and Engineering Ethics*, 17(3), 399-409. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s11948-010-9210-x>. Epub 2010 Aug 29. PMID: 20803259; PMCID: PMC3151305.
- Rhoades, G. (2005). Capitalism, academic style, and shared governance. *Academe*, 91(3), 38-42. <https://doi.org/10.2307/40252785>.
- Rich, B. L. (2006). *Job engagement: Construct validation and relationships with job satisfaction, job involvement, and intrinsic motivation*. Ph.D. dissertation, University of Florida, United States -- Florida. Retrieved March 31, 2008, from ProQuest Digital Dissertations database. (Publication No. AAT 3228825).
- Rich, B. L., Lepine, J. A., & Crawford, E. R. (2010). Job engagement: Antecedents and effects on job performance. *Academy of Management Journal*, 53(3), 617-635. <https://doi.org/10.5465/AMJ.2010.51468988>.
- Ritchie, J., & Lewis, J. (2003). *Qualitative Research Practice: A Guide for Social*

Science Students and researchers. Sage Publications.

- Robbins, S. P., & Judge, T. A. (2011). *Organizational Behavior* (14th ed.). Pearson Education.
- Robbins, S. P., & Judge, T. A. (2019). *Organizational behavior* (18th ed.). Pearson.
- Robertson, I. T., Cooper, C. L., Sarkar, M., & Curran, T. (2015). Resilience training in the workplace from 2003 to 2014: a systematic review. *Journal of Occupational and Organizational Psychology*, 88(3), 533-562. <https://doi.org/10.1111/joop.12120>.
- Roopa, S & Menta Satya, Rani. (2012). Questionnaire designing for a survey. *The Journal of Indian Orthodontic Society*. 46. 37-41. 10.5005/jp-journals-10021-1104.
- Rotenberry, P.F., & Moberg, P.J. (2007). Assessing the impact of job involvement on performance. *Management Research News*, 30, 203-215 *Psychology*, 63, 53-61.
- Rothbard, N. P. (2001). Enriching or depleting? The dynamics of engagement in work and family roles. *Administrative Science Quarterly*, 46(4), 65-684. <http://doi.org/10.2307/3094827>.
- Rothbard, N. P., & Patil, S. V. (2011). Being there: Work engagement and positive organizational scholarship. *Research in Organizational Behavior*, 30, 91-125. <https://doi.org/10.1093/oxfordhb/9780199734610.013.0005>.
- Rovai, A., Baker, J., & Ponton, M. (2014). *Social Science Research Design and Statistics: A Practitioner's Guide to Research Methods and IBM SPSS Analysis*. Chesapeake, VA: Watertree Press LLC.
- Rubel, M. R., Hossain, M. S., Azad, M. A. K., & Haque, M. E. (2018). Work engagement, just rewards and employee retention: A theoretical perspective. *Journal of General Management Research*, 5(2), 25-35.
- Rusli, A., & Sopian, B. (2013). Issues and challenges in the practice of performance appraisal activities in the 21st century. *International Journal of Education and Research*, 1 (4), 1-8.
- Saad, S. K. (2014). Investigating the effectiveness of the performance appraisal process in the Egyptian tourism companies. *Journal of Association of Arab*

- Universities for Tourism and Hospitality, 11(2), 111-121.
- Saad, G. B., & Abbas, M. (2018). The impact of organizational culture on job performance: A study of Saudi Arabian public sector work culture. *Problems and Perspectives in Management*, 16(3), 207–218. [http://dx.doi.org/10.21511/ppm.16\(3\).2018.17](http://dx.doi.org/10.21511/ppm.16(3).2018.17).
- Saks, A. M. (2006). Antecedents and consequences of employee engagement. *Journal of Managerial Psychology*, 21(7), 600-619. <https://doi.org/10.1108/02683940610690169>.
- Sambrook S. (2012). Human and resource development is hard. *Human Resource Development International*, 15, 135-139.
- Saunders, M., Lewis, P., & Thornhill, A. (2001). *Research methods for business students* (3rd ed.). Prentice Hall.
- Saunders, P. (2003). *Social theory and the urban question*. Routledge.
- Saunders, M. N. K., Saunders, M., Lewis, P., & Thornhill, A. (2012). *Research Methods for Business Students* (6th ed.). Prentice Hall.
- Schaufeli, W. B., Martínez, I., Marques-Pinto, A., Salanova, M., & Bakker, A. B. (2002). Burnout and engagement in university students: A cross national study. *Journal of Cross-Cultural Psychology*, 33(5), 464-481. <https://doi.org/10.1177/0022022102033005003>.
- Schaufeli, Wilmar. (2012). Work engagement. What do we know and where do we go? Work engagement in everyday life, business, and academia. *Romanian Journal of Applied Psychology*. 14. 3-10.
- Schaufeli, W. B. (2013). What is engagement? In C. Truss, K. Alfes, R. Delbridge, A. Shantz, & E. Soane (Eds.), *Employee engagement in theory and practice* (pp. 15-35). London Routledge.
- Schaufeli, W. B., & Bakker, A. B. (2003). *Utrecht Work Engagement Scale: Preliminary manual*. Occupational Health Psychology Unit, Utrecht University, The Netherlands.
- Schaufeli, W. B., & Baker, A. B. (2004). Job demands, job resources, and their relationship with burnout and engagement: A multi-sample study. *Journal of Organizational Behaviour*, 25(3), 293-315. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1002/job.248>.

- Schaufeli, W. B., and T. W. Taris. 2014. "A Critical Review of the Job Demands-Resources Model: Implications for Improving Work and Health." In *Bridging Occupational, Organizational and Public Health: A Transdisciplinary Approach*, edited by G. F. Bauer and O. Hämmig, 43–68. New York, NY, US: Springer Science + Business Media.
- Schaufeli, W.B., Bakker, A.B. & Van Rhenen, W. (2009) How Changes in Job Demands and Resources Predict Burnout, Work Engagement, and Sickness Absenteeism. *Journal of Organizational Behaviour*, 30 (7), 893-917. <https://doi.org/10.1002/job.595>.
- Schaufeli, W. B., Salanova, M., González-Romá, V., & Bakker, A. B. (2012). The measurement of engagement and burnout: A two sample confirmatory factor analytic approach. *Journal of Happiness Studies*, 3, 71-92. <https://doi.org/10.1023/A:1015630930326>.
- Schein, E. H. (1992). *Organizational Culture and Leadership: A Dynamic View* (2nd ed.). Jossey-Bass, San Francisco.
- Schein, E. H. (2010). *Organizational Culture and Leadership* (4th ed.). San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.
- Schiller, S. Z., & Cui, J. (2010). Communication openness in the workplace: the effects of medium (F2F and IM) and culture (US and China). *Journal of Global Information Technology Management*, 13(2), 37–75. <https://doi.org/10.1080/1097198X.2010.10856514>.
- Scotland, J. (2012). Exploring the philosophical underpinnings of research: Relating ontology and epistemology to the methodology and methods of the scientific, interpretive, and critical research paradigms. *English Language Teaching*, 5(9), 9–16.
- Scott, T., Mannion, R., Davies, H., & Marshall, M. (2003). The quantitative measurement of organizational culture in health care: a review of the available instruments. *Health Services Research*, 38(3), 923–945. <https://doi.org/10.1111/1475-6773.00154>. doi:10.5539/elt.v5n9p9.
- Sechrest, L., & Sidana, S. (1995). Quantitative and qualitative methods: Is there an alternative? *Evaluation and Program Planning*, 18(1), 77-87.

- [https://doi.org/10.1016/0149-7189\(94\)00051-X](https://doi.org/10.1016/0149-7189(94)00051-X).
- Senge, P. M., Kleiner, A., Roberts, C., Ross, R. B., & Smith, B. J. (1999). *The dance of change: The challenges of sustaining momentum in learning organizations*. Crown Business.
- Serdenciuc, A. (2015). Institutional identity and stakeholders' perceptions: a case study of a Romanian university. *Procedia Economics and Finance*, 32, 1-7. [https://doi.org/10.1016/S2212-5671\(15\)01426-4](https://doi.org/10.1016/S2212-5671(15)01426-4).
- Shadish, W. R., Cook, T. D., & Campbell, D. T. (2002). *Experimental and quasi-experimental designs for generalized causal inference*. Houghton, Mifflin and Company.
- Shameem, A., & Rengamani, J. (2018). Impact of organizational culture and communication on employee engagement in automobile firms in Chennai. *International Journal of Mechanical Engineering and Technology (IJMET)*, 9(7), 1152–1161.
- Shamoo, A. E., & Resnik, D. B. (2003). *Responsible conduct of research*. Oxford University Press.
- Sharma, N. P., Sharma, T., & Agarwal, M. N. (2016). Measuring employee perception of performance management system effectiveness: conceptualization and scale development. *Employee Relations*, 38(2), 224-247. <https://doi.org/10.1108/ER-01-2015-0006>.
- Sheaffer, Z., Landau, D., & Drori, I. (2008). Mission statement and performance: an evidence of "Coming of Age". *Organization Development Journal*, 26(2) 49-62.
- Sekaran, U., & Bougie, R (2010). *Research Methods for business: A skill building approach* (5th ed.) West Sussex, UK John Wiley & Sons Ltd.
- Shen, X., and Tian, X. (2012). Academic culture and campus culture of universities. *Higher Education Studies* 2, 61–65.
- Shin, J.C., & Jung, J. (2014). Academics job satisfaction and job stress across countries in the changing academic environments. *Higher Education*, 67, 603–620. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s10734-013-9668-y>.
- Shuck, B., & Wollard, K. (2010). Employee engagement and HRD: A seminal review of the foundations. *Human Resource Development Review*, 9(1), 89-

110. <https://doi.org/10.1177/1534484309353560>.
- Shuck, B., Reio Jr, T. G., & Rocco, T. S. (2011). Employee engagement: an examination of the antecedent and outcome variables. *Human Resource Development International*, 14(4), 427-445. <https://doi.org/10.1080/13678868.2011.601587>.
- Siddique K., P. (2019). Impact of organizational culture on employee engagement. *International Journal of Advance Research Management in Social Science*. 8(12):34–43.
- Sieveking, N., Bellet, W., & Marston, R. C. (1993). Employees' views of their work experience in private hospitals. *Health Services Management Research*, 6(2), 129–138. <https://doi.org/10.1177/095148489300600207>.
- Silverman, D. (2013). *Doing qualitative research: A practical handbook*. Sage.
- Sirisetti, S. (2012a). Employee engagement culture. *Journal of Commerce* (22206043), 4(1).
- Spencer, L., Ritchie, J., Lewis, J., & Dillon, L. (2014). *Quality in qualitative evaluation: A framework for assessing research evidence*. Cabinet Office.
- Simone, J. V. (2009). Institutional culture. *Oncology Times*, 31(5), 5–6.
- Sinkovics, R. R., Penz, E., & Ghauri, P. N. (2008). Enhancing the Trustworthiness of Qualitative Research in International Business. *Management International Review*, 48(6), 689-714. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s11575-008-0103-z>.
- Smaling, A. (1992). The conditional nature of local knowledge: A case study of a farming community in the Ghanaian semi-arid tropics. *Geoderma*, 55(1-2), 145-163. [https://doi.org/10.1016/0016-7061\(92\)90059-S](https://doi.org/10.1016/0016-7061(92)90059-S).
- Smeeton, N. C. (2003). *Statistical methods for data analysis*. In R. K. Burton (Ed.), *Data Collection and Analysis* (pp. 29-42). Sage Publications.
- Smith, J. & Gardner, D. (2007). Factors affecting employee use of work-life balance initiatives. *New Zealand Journal of Psychology*. 36. 3-12. 10.2307/30034926.
- Smith, J., Johnson, L., & Brown, K. (1991). The debate over research paradigms: Incommensurability, rhetoric, and theory. *Journal of Research in Science Teaching*, 28(9), 771-785. <https://doi.org/10.1002/tea.3660280904>.
- Soni, P. (2019). Employee engagement: A review of the concept, its antecedents and

- outcomes. *Global Journal of Enterprise Information System*, 11(1), 1-7.
- Sonnentag, S. (2011). Research on work engagement is well and alive. *European Journal of Work and Organizational Psychology*, 20(1), 29–38. <https://doi.org/10.1080/1359432X.2010.510639>
- Sonnentag, S., Dormann, C., & Demerouti, E. (2008). Not all days are created equal: The concept of state work engagement. In *Research in occupational stress and well-being* (Vol. 7, pp. 265-288). Emerald Group Publishing Limited.
- Soong, S. W. (2000). *The study on the devotion and job satisfaction of adults' participation in volunteer services*. Taiwan: National Kaohsiung Administration, Normal University.
- Sparkes, A. C., Smith, B., & Barker-Ruchti, N. (2011). Qualitative research on women in sport and physical activity. *International Journal of Sport and Exercise Psychology*, 9(4), 357-378.
- Spencer, L., Ritchie, J., Lewis, J., & Dillon, L. (2014). *Quality in qualitative evaluation: A framework for assessing research evidence*. Government Chief Social Researcher's Office.
- Sporn, B. (1996). Managing the university culture: An analysis of the relationship between institutional culture and management approaches. *Higher Education Quarterly*, 50(3), 212-228.
- Stensaker, B., & Vabø, A. (2013). Re-Inventing Shared Governance: Implications for Organisational Culture and Institutional Leadership. *Higher Education Quarterly*. 67(3) 256-274. <https://doi.org/10.1111/hequ.12019>.
- Stephenson, M. (2000). Development and validation of the Stephenson Multigroup Acculturation Scale (SMAS). *Psychological Assessment*, 12(1), 77–88. <https://doi.org/10.1037/1040-3590.12.1.77>.
- Stevenson, B. (2019). Work engagement and organizational success: Exploring the mediating role of affective commitment. *Journal of Business and Psychology*, 34(1), 53-68.
- Stough, S., & Eom, S., & Buckenmyer, J. (2000). Virtual teaming: A strategy for moving your organization into the new millennium. *Industrial Management & Data Systems*. 100. 370-378. <https://doi.org/10.1108/02635570010353857>.

- Strauss, A., & Corbin, J. (1990). *Basics of qualitative research: Grounded theory procedures and techniques*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage publications.
- Streefkerk R (2023, April 13). The 5 types of plagiarism | explanations & examples. *Scribbr*. Available at: <https://www.scribbr.com/plagiarism/types-of-plagiarism/> (accessed 5 July 2023).
- Suong, H., Thanh, D. D., & Dao, T. T. X. (2019). The impact of leadership styles on the engagement of cadres, lecturers and staff at public universities. *The Journal of Asian Finance, Economics, and Business*, 6(1), 273. <https://doi.org/10.13106/jafeb.2019.vol6.no1.273>.
- Suuk, M. (2022). University Strike cripples study: DW News, <https://www.dw.com/en/ghana-university-strike-cripples-study/a-60701053>.
- Swathi, S. (2013). Effecting employee engagement factors. *International Journal of Scientific and Research Publications*, 3(8), 1–3.
- Swanson, R. A., & Holton, E. F. (2009). *Foundations of Human Resource Development*. Berrett-Koehler Publishers, San Francisco.
- Sweetman, D., & Luthans, F. (2010). The power of positive psychology: Psychological capital and work engagement. In Bakker, A. B., & Leiter, M. P. (Eds.), *Work engagement: A handbook of essential theory and research* (pp.54-68). East Sussex: Psychology Press.
- Swider, B. W., Boswell, W. R., & Zimmerman, R. D. (2011). Examining the job search–turnover relationship: The role of embeddedness, job satisfaction, and available alternatives. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 96(2), 432. <https://doi.org/10.1037/a0021676>.
- Tabachnick, B. G., & Fidell, L. S. (2013). *Using multivariate statistics*. (6th ed.). Pearson Education. Boston, MA.
- Tashakkori, A., & Creswell, J. W. (2008). Mixed methodology across disciplines. *Journal of Mixed Methods Research*, 2(1), 3-6. <https://doi.org/10.1177/1558689807309913>.
- Tashakkori, A., & Teddlie, C. (1998). *Mixed Methodology: Combining Qualitative and Quantitative Approaches*, 46; Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications.
- Tashakkori, A., & Teddlie, C. (2003). *Issues and dilemmas in teaching research*

- methods courses in social and behavioural sciences: US perspective. *International Journal of Social Research Methodology*, 6(1), 61-77. <https://doi.org/10.1080/13645570305055>.
- Tashakkori, A., & Teddlie, C. (2003b). *Handbook of mixed methods in social and behavioral research*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications.
- Taylor, O. A. (2012). *The relationship between culture and Counterproductive workplace behaviours: A meta-analysis*. PhD thesis . Ontario, Canada: The University Of Western Ontario.
- Taylor, C. M., Cornelius, C. J., and Colvin, K. (2014), "Visionary leadership and its relationship to organizational effectiveness", *Leadership & Organization Development Journal*, Vol. 35 No. 6, pp. 566-583. <https://doi.org/10.1108/LODJ-10-2012-0130>.
- Teegavarapu, S., Summers, J. D., & Mocko, G. M. (2008). Case study method for design research: A justification. *Proceedings of the ASME Design Engineering Technical Conference*. 4. <https://doi.org/10.1115/DETC2008-49980>.
- The Times of India. (2016, September 2). Work stress, unattractive work conditions are major reasons for poor employee engagement: TimesJobs survey. The Times of India. <https://timesofindia.indiatimes.com/business/india-business/Work-stress-unattractive-work-conditions-are-major-reasons-for-poor-employee-engagement-TimesJobs-survey/articleshow/53936180.cms>.
- Thien, N. H. (2020). Exploring The organizational culture of higher education institutions in Vietnam from faculty's perspective – a case study. *Journal of International and Comparative Education (JICE)*, 59–76. <https://doi.org/10.14425/jice.2020.9.2.0704>.
- Thierry, A. Z. (2018). Punctuality, attendance policy and organizational performance. *International Journal of Research Science and Management*, 5(8), 20-39.
- Thomas, C. H. (2006). *Clarifying the concept of work engagement: Construct validation and an empirical test* (Doctoral dissertation, University of Georgia). Hsu, D. W., Shen, Y. C., Yuan, B. J., & Chou, C. J. (2015). Toward successful commercialization of university technology: Performance drivers of

- university technology transfer in Taiwan. *Technological Forecasting and Social Change*, 92, 25-39.
- Thomas, K. W., & Velthouse, B. A. (1990). Cognitive elements of empowerment: An “interpretive” model of intrinsic task motivation. *The Academy of Management Review*, 15(4), 666–681. <https://doi.org/10.2307/258687>.
- Thomas, L. (2012). Building student engagement and belonging in Higher Education at a time of change. *Paul Hamlyn Foundation*, 100(1-99).
- Thomas, N. (2009). *Entangled objects: exchange, material culture, and colonialism in the Pacific*. Harvard University Press.
- Thuku, R.W., Abiero, I.O., & Juma, D. (2016). Influence of Organizational Culture on Employee Performance: A Case Study of East African Breweries Limited. *International Journal of Science and Research*, 5 (9), 1500-1506.
- Tierney, W. G. (1988). Organizational culture in higher education: Defining the essentials. *The Journal of Higher Education*, Vol. 59, No. 1 (Jan. - Feb., 1988), pp. 2-21 pages <https://doi.org/10.2307/1981868>.
- Tierney, W.G. (2008). Trust and organizational culture in higher education. In: Välimaa, J., Ylijoki, OH. (eds) *Cultural perspectives on higher education*. Springer https://doi.org/10.1007/978-1-4020-6604-7_3.
- Tierney, W. G., & Lanford, M. (2015). An investigation of the impact of international branch campuses on organizational culture. *Higher Education*, 70(2), 283–298. <http://www.jstor.org/stable/43648869>
- Tierney, W. G., & Lanford, M. (2017). From massification to globalization: Is there a role for rankings? In E. Hazelkorn (Ed.), *Global rankings and the geopolitics of higher education. Understanding the influence and impact of rankings on higher education, policymakers, and society* (pp. 295-308). Routledge.
- Tierney, W.G., and Rhoads, R.A. (1994). Enhancing Promotion, Tenure and Beyond: Faculty Socialization as a Cultural Process. ASHE-ERIC Higher Education Report No. 6, Washington, DC: The George Washington University No, School of Education and Human Development.
- Tims M., Bakker A. B, Xanthopoulou D., (2011) Do transformational leaders enhance their followers' daily work engagement? *The Leadership Quarterly*, 22(1):121–

131. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.leaqua.2010.12.011>.
- Tobin, G. A., & Begley, C. M. (2004). Methodological rigour within a qualitative framework. *Journal of Advanced Nursing*, 48(4), 388-396. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1365-2648.2004.03207.x>. PMID: 15500533.
- Tomic M. & Tomic E. (2010) Existential fulfilment, workload and work engagement among nurses. *Journal of Research in Nursing* 16 (5), 468–479.
- Tong, A., Sainsbury, P., & Craig J. (2007) Consolidated criteria for reporting qualitative research (COREQ): a 32-item checklist for interviews and focus groups. *International Journal for Quality in Health Care*, Volume 19, Issue 6, December 2007, Pages 349–357, <https://doi.org/10.1093/intqhc/mzm042>.
- Trend, M.G. (1979) "On the reconciliation of qualitative and quantitative analyses: a case study," in T. D. Cook and C. S. Reichardt (eds.) *Qualitative and Quantitative Methods in Evaluation Research*. Beverly Hills, CA: Sage.
- Tsang, E. W. (2014). Generalizing from research findings: The merits of case studies. *International Journal of Management Reviews*, 16(4), 369-383.
- Tubbs, S. L., & Moss, S. (2006). *Human communication: Principles and contexts*. McGraw-Hill.
- United Nations (UN) (n.d.) The 17 goals: Sustainable development. <https://sdgs.un.org/goals>.
- United Nations Development Programme UNDP (2015). UN SGD goals explained. <https://www.undp.org/sustainable-development-goals>.
- Universities and Colleges Employers Association (UCEA) (2013) Report, <http://www.ucea.ac.uk/en/empres/epl/engage-well/initiatives/index.cfm>.
- Universities Human Resource (UHR) 2023 – 2004 Annual Review Report. <https://www.uhr.ac.uk/>.
- Valerio, M.A., Rodriguez, N., Winkler, P., Lopez, J., Dennison, M., Liang, Y., Turner, B.J.. Comparing two sampling methods to engage hard-to-reach communities in research priority setting. *BMC Medical Research Methodology*. 2016 Oct 28;16(1):146. <https://doi.org/10.1186/s12874-016-0242-z>. PMID: 27793191; PMCID: PMC5084459.
- Van den Broeck, A., Van Ruysseveldt, J., Vanbelle, E., & De Witte, H. (2013). The job

- demands-resources model: Overview and suggestions for future research. In A. B. Bakker (Ed.), *Advances in Positive Organizational Psychology*, 1, (pp. 83-103). Emerald Group Publishing Limited. [https://doi.org/10.1108/S2046-410X\(2013\)0000001007](https://doi.org/10.1108/S2046-410X(2013)0000001007).
- Van den Broeck, A., Vansteenkiste, M., De Witte, H., & Lens, W. (2008). Explaining the relationships between job characteristics, burnout, and engagement: The role of basic psychological need satisfaction. *Work & Stress*, 22(3), 277-294. <https://doi.org/10.1080/02678370802393672>.
- Van Veldhoven, M. (2014). "Quantitative job demands," in *An Introduction to Contemporary Work Psychology*, eds M. C. W. Peeters, J. De Jonge, and T. W. Taris (Hoboken, NJ: John Wiley & Sons, Ltd.), 117–143.
- Van Teijlingen, E. and Hundley, V. (2002) The Importance of Pilot Studies. *Nursing Standard*, 16, 33-36. <http://dx.doi.org/10.7748/ns.16.40.33.s1>.
- Vasyakin, B. S., Ivleva, M. I., Pozharskaya, Y. L., & Shcherbakova, O. I. (2016). A Study of the Organizational Culture at a Higher Education Institution: Case Study: Plekhanov Russian University of Economics (PRUE)]. *International Journal of Environmental and Science Education*, 11(10), 11515–11528.
- Vogelgesang, G. R., Leroy, H., & Avolio, B. J. (2013). The mediating effects of leader integrity with transparency in communication and work engagement/performance. *The Leadership Quarterly*. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.leaqua.2013.01.004>
- Wagner, J. A. (1995). Studies of individualism-collectivism: Effects on cooperation in groups. *Academy of Management Journal*, 38(1), 152-172. <https://doi.org/10.2307/256731>.
- Waldner, L., & Weeks, B. (2006). Exploring the connection between organizational culture and leadership using agribusiness. Paper presented at the Association of Annual Leadership Educators, Bozeman Montana. Management. 10. 197-206.
- Walker, J. L. (2012). Research column: The use of saturation in qualitative research. *Canadian Journal of Cardiovascular Nursing*, 22(2), 37-41.
- Wang, P., Lawler, J. J., Walumbwa, F. O., & Shi, K. (2004). Work-family conflict and job withdrawal intentions: The moderating effect of cultural differences.

- International Journal of Stress Management*, 11(4), 392.
<https://doi.org/10.1037/1072-5245.11.4.392>.
- Warter, L. (2019). The Impact of Organizational Culture in Higher Education. Case Study. *Journal of Intercultural Management and Ethics*. 2 (2). 173-200.
<https://doi.org/10.35478/jime.2019.2.15>.
- Welch, M. (2011). The evolution of the employee engagement concept: communication implications. *Corporate Communications: An International Journal*. 16. <https://doi.org/10.1108/13563281111186968>.
- Wellington, J. (2000). *Educational research: Contemporary Issues and Practical Approaches*. Continuum, London.
- Weston, J. W. (2016). *Employee Engagement: Understanding the Construct's Stability*. Colorado State University.
- Weyers, M., Strydom, H., & Huisamen, A. (2014). Triangulation in social work research: the theory and examples of its practical application. *Social Work/Maatskaplike Werk*, 44(2). <https://doi.org/10.15270/44-2-251>.
- Wilkins, S., & Huisman, J. (2012). The international branch campus as transnational strategy in higher education. *Higher Education*, 64(5), 627–645.
<http://www.jstor.org/stable/23275717>.
- Williams, B. N., Christensen, R. K., LePere-Schloop, M., & Silk, P. D. (2015). Appraising the appraisal process: Manager and patrol officer perspectives. *The Police Journal*, 88(3), 231-250. <https://doi.org/10.1177/0032258X15601808>.
- Willis, G. B. (2005). *Cognitive Interviewing: A Tool for Improving Questionnaire Design*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications.
- Wilms, W. W. (1996). *Restoring organizations: how workers and managers are foreign a new culture of cooperation*. New York: Times Book.
- Wilson, J. P. (2006). *Human resource development: Learning and training for individuals and organizations*. London, England: Kogan Page Publishers.
- Wimalasiri, S.J., & Kouzmin, A. (2000). A comparative study of employee involvement initiatives in Hong Kong and the USA. *International Journal of Manpower*, 21(8), 614-634. <https://doi.org/10.1108/01437720010379510>.

- Woldegiorgis, E., T. & Doevenspeck, M. (2013). The changing role of higher education in Africa: a historical reflection, *Higher Education Studies*, 3(6), 35-45. <https://doi.org/10.5539/hes.v3n6p35>.
- Xanthopoulou, D., Bakker, A. B., Demerouti, E., & Schaufeli, W. B. (2007). The role of personal resources in the job demands-resources model. *International Journal of Stress Management*, 14(2), 121-141.
- Xanthopoulou, D., Bakker, A. B., Demerouti, E., & Schaufeli, W. B. (2009). Reciprocal relationships between job resources, personal resources, and work engagement. *Journal of Vocational Behaviour*, 74(3), 235-244. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jvb.2008.11.003>.
- Xanthopoulou, D., Bakker, A. B., & Fischbach, A. (2013). Work engagement among employees facing emotional demands. The role of personal resources. *Journal of Personnel Psychology*, 12(2), 74-84. <https://doi.org/10.1027/1866-5888/a000085>.
- Xu, J., & Thomas, H. C. (2011). How can leaders achieve high employee engagement? *Leadership & Organization Development Journal*, 32(6), 399-416. <https://doi.org/10.1108/01437731111134661>.
- Yang, H.-L., Kao, Y.-H., & Huang, Y.-C. (2006). The job self-efficacy and job involvement of clinical nursing teachers. *Journal of Nursing Research*, 14(3), 237-249. <https://doi.org/10.1097/01.jnr.0000387582.81845.57>.
- Yin, R. K. (2011). *Qualitative Research from Start to Finish*. Guilford Press.
- Yin, R.K. (2013) *Case Study Research: Design and Methods*. Sage Publications, Thousand Oaks.
- Yuan, X., Zuo, J., & Huisingsh, D. (2013). Green universities in China—what matters? *Journal of Cleaner Production*, 61, 36-45.
- Zell, D. (1997). *Changing by Design: Organizational Innovation at Hewlett-Packard*. USA, Cornell University Press.
- Žukauskas, P., Vveinhardt, J., & Andriukaitienė, R. (2018). Philosophy and paradigm of scientific research. *Management Culture and Corporate Social Responsibility*, 121. <https://doi.org/10.5772/intechopen.70628>.
- Zwetsloot, Gerard & Pot, Frank. (2004). *The business value of health management*.



Journal of Business Ethics. 55. 115-124. <http://doi.org/10.1007/s10551-004-1895-9>.

APPENDICES

Appendix A: Letter of Consent for Senior Members/Senior Staff /Junior Staff



UNIVERSITEIT VAN PRETORIA
UNIVERSITY OF PRETORIA
YUNIBESITHI YA PRETORIA



TITLE: The Impact of Institutional Culture on Work Engagement in Selected Public Universities in Ghana

Dear Colleague,

I am Mrs. Eleanor Araba Antwi, a Ph.D. student at the University of Pretoria. The title of my proposed research is "**The Impact of Institutional Culture on Work Engagement at Selected Public Universities in Ghana**".

This study aims at investigating the role institutional culture plays in engaging employees at the workplace. The findings of the study will serve as a guide to managers of public universities in developing an understanding of the relationship between institutional culture and work engagement.

I am working under the supervision of Dr. Nevensha Sing, Department of Education Management and Policy Studies at the University of Pretoria.

I kindly invite you to participate in this study which involves the use of structured questionnaire distributed via a link generated through the Qualtrics Survey to Senior Members, Senior Staff and Junior Staff. I would be grateful if the completed *questionnaire is returned to the researcher within two weeks of receiving the link*.

Your participation in this study is voluntary. You are at liberty to withdraw your participation at any stage without any consequences. Confidentiality and anonymity are guaranteed. No personal information of yours will be mentioned in the study.

Should you have any concerns regarding the data collection procedure, please do not hesitate to contact my supervisor or me.

Please, indicate your consent to participate by completing the consent form below.

Yours sincerely,

Eleanor Araba Antwi (Mrs.)

E-mail address: misseleanorsam@gmail.com

Contact number: 0244989963

Supervisor: Dr. N. SING

E-mail address: Nevensha.Sing@up.ac.za

Consent Form for Senior Members/Senior Staff/Junior Staff

I _____ consent to respond to the questionnaire administered by Mrs. Eleanor Araba Antwi for her study on “**The Impact of Institutional Culture on Work Engagement at Selected Public Universities in Ghana**”.

I understand that:

- Participation in this study is voluntary.
- I am at liberty to withdraw my participation at any stage of the research.
- I may refuse to answer any questions I would prefer not to.
- The data obtained from this study will be treated as confidential. Anonymity is guaranteed as **no respondent’s name or personal information will be mentioned in the findings**. All gathered data will be stored on a password-protected computer and will only be accessed by the supervisor or researcher.
- The data will be used for further research purposes, as the data sets are the intellectual property of the University of Pretoria. Further research may include secondary data analysis and use of data for teaching purposes. The confidentiality and privacy applicable to this study will be binding on future research studies.

PERMISSION BY SENIOR MEMBER/SENIOR STAFF/JUNIOR STAFF FOR RESEARCH

I, _____, hereby give permission to Mrs. Eleanor Araba Antwi to include me as a respondent in her research on “**The Impact of Institutional Culture on Work Engagement at Selected Public Universities in Ghana**”.

Signature: _____

Date: _____

Appendix B: Letter of Consent for Heads of Department



TITLE: The Impact of Institutional Culture on Work Engagement in Selected Public Universities in Ghana

Dear Head of Department,

I am Mrs. Eleanor Araba Antwi, a Ph.D. student at the University of Pretoria. The title of my proposed study is “**The impact of institutional culture on work engagement at selected public universities in Ghana**”.

This study aims at investigating the role institutional culture plays in engaging employees at the workplace so that it serves as a guide to managers of public universities in developing a better understanding of institutional culture and work engagement.

I am working under the supervision of Dr. Nevensha Sing, Department of Education Management and Policy Studies at the University of Pretoria.

I kindly invite you to participate in this study which involves the use of a semi-structured interview guide for data collection. The interview will be scheduled as per your availability and will take place at a venue convenient to you. The interview should take approximately 45 minutes. However, due to the COVID-19 pandemic restrictions, a virtual meeting through the most suitable and preferred platform such as; WhatsApp, Video call/zoom/google meet/FaceTime/Facebook Messenger/ or any valid suggestion will be considered. I am flexible to accommodate what would suit you best.

I would like to emphasise that your participation in this study is entirely voluntary and you are at liberty to withdraw your participation at any stage of the research study without any consequences. Confidentiality and anonymity are guaranteed as no **participant’s name or personal information will be mentioned in the findings.**

In participating in this research, your permission to make an audio recording of the interview is requested. The purpose of the audio recording is to ensure the validity and authenticity of the data transcription. The audio recording will be kept safely in pass-worded devices which only my supervisor and I will have access to.

If you have any concerns regarding the data collection procedure, please do not hesitate to contact my supervisor or me. As a participant, you will have the opportunity to access and verify the recorded views and the transcriptions of interviews made if necessary. Please indicate your consent to participate by completing the consent form below.

Kind regards.

Eleanor Araba Antwi (Mrs.)

E-mail address: misseleanorsam@gmail.com

Contact number: 0244989963

Supervisor: Dr. N. SING

E-mail address: Nevensha.Sing@up.ac.za

Head of Department Consent Form

I _____ consent to participate in an interview by Mrs. Eleanor Araba Antwi for her study on “**The impact of institutional culture on work engagement at selected public universities in Ghana**”.

I understand that:

- Participation in this study is voluntary.
- I am at liberty to withdraw my participation at any stage of the research study.
- I may refuse to answer any questions I would prefer not to.
- The semi-structured interviews will be audio recorded for transcription.
- Anonymity is guaranteed as **no participant’s name or personal information will be included in the findings**. The data obtained from this study will be treated as confidential, recordings will be transcribed in a private setting or with the use of headphones and no third party will have access to the raw data obtained during the interview sessions. In instances of direct quotes, pseudonyms and codes will be used. All gathered data will be stored on a password-protected computer and will only be accessed by the supervisor or researcher.
- Data transcripts will be provided for you to confirm the accuracy and truthfulness before conclusions are drawn from the findings of the data. The data will be used for further research purposes, as the data sets are the intellectual property of the University of Pretoria. Further research may include secondary data analysis and use of data for teaching purposes. The confidentiality and privacy applicable to this study will be binding on future studies.

PERMISSION BY HEADS OF DEPARTMENT FOR RESEARCH

I, _____, hereby give permission to Mrs. Eleanor Araba Antwi to include me as a participant in her research on “**The impact of institutional culture on work engagement at selected public universities in Ghana**”.

Signature: _____

Date: _____

Appendix C: Letter of Consent for Registrars

**APPENDIX C:
Letter of Consent for Registrars**





UNIVERSITEIT VAN PRETORIA
UNIVERSITY OF PRETORIA
YUNIBESITHI YA PRETORIA

TITLE: The Impact of Institutional Culture on Work Engagement in Selected Public Universities in Ghana

Dear Registrar,

I am Mrs. Eleanor Araba Antwi, a Ph.D. student at the University of Pretoria. The title of my proposed research study is “**The impact of institutional culture on work engagement at selected public universities in Ghana**”.

This study aims at investigating the role institutional culture plays in engaging employees at the workplace so that it serves as a guide to managers of public universities in developing a better understanding of institutional culture and work engagement.

The study will be conducted under the supervision of Dr. Nevensha Sing, Department of Education Management and Policy Studies at the University of Pretoria.

I am hereby seeking your consent to approach Heads of Departments/Senior Members/Senior Staff/Junior Staff in your university to participate in this study. This study involves the use of a semi-structured interview guide to be administered on Heads of Departments. The interview should take approximately 45 minutes. However, due to the COVID-19 pandemic restrictions, a virtual meeting through a most suitable and preferred platform by the participant such as WhatsApp Video call/zoom/google meet/Face Time/Facebook Messenger/ or any valid suggestion will be considered. I am flexible to accommodate what would suit your Institution best. Questionnaires will be distributed via a link generated through the Qualtrics Survey to Senior Members, Senior Staff and Junior Staff.

During the reporting phase of the study, pseudonyms and codes will be used. No personal information such as the name of the Institution or Heads of Departments/Senior Members/Senior Staff/Junior Staff will be mentioned in the study.

I undertake to provide your office with a pdf copy of the full research on completion of the study should it be requested. Should any further information be required, please do not hesitate to contact my supervisor or me.

Yours sincerely,


Mrs. Eleanor Araba Antwi

E-mail address: misseleanorsam@gmail.com
Contact number: 0244989963
Supervisor: Dr. N. SING

To whom it may concern
Permission is granted Mrs. Eleanor A. Antwi to conduct her research at UoP. Kindly extend to her, any assistance she may require.

17/11/2020



E-mail address: Nevensha.Sing@up.ac.za

PERMISSION BY REGISTRARS FOR RESEARCH

I, Mr. J. P. S. O. O. hereby give permission to Mrs. Eleanor Araba Antwi to include my Institution and Heads of Departments/Senior Members/Senior Staff/Junior Staff as participants in her research on "The impact of institutional culture on work engagement at selected public universities in Ghana".

Signature: [Handwritten Signature]

REGISTRAR
University of Pretoria

Date: 17-11-2020



APPENDIX C:

Letter of Consent for Registrars



UNIVERSITEIT VAN PRETORIA
UNIVERSITY OF PRETORIA
YUNIBESITHI YA PRETORIA



TITLE: The Impact of Institutional Culture on Work Engagement in Selected Public Universities in Ghana

Dear Registrar,

I am Mrs. Eleanor Araba Antwi, a Ph.D. student at the University of Pretoria. The title of my proposed research study is "**The impact of institutional culture on work engagement at selected public universities in Ghana**".

This study aims at investigating the role institutional culture plays in engaging employees at the workplace so that it serves as a guide to managers of public universities in developing a better understanding of institutional culture and work engagement.

The study will be conducted under the supervision of Dr. Nevensha Sing, Department of Education Management and Policy Studies at the University of Pretoria.

I am hereby seeking your consent to approach Heads of Departments/Senior Members/Senior Staff/Junior Staff in your university to participate in this study. This study involves the use of a semi-structured interview guide to be administered on Heads of Departments. The interview should take approximately 45 minutes. However, due to the COVID-19 pandemic restrictions, a virtual meeting through a most suitable and preferred platform by the participant such as WhatsApp Video call/zoom/google meet/Face Time/Facebook Messenger/ or any valid suggestion will be considered. I am flexible to accommodate what would suit your Institution best. Questionnaires will be distributed via a link generated through the Qualtrics Survey to Senior Members, Senior Staff and Junior Staff.

During the reporting phase of the study, pseudonyms and codes will be used. No personal information such as the name of the Institution or Heads of Departments/Senior Members/Senior Staff/Junior Staff will be mentioned in the study.

I undertake to provide your office with a pdf copy of the full research on completion of the study should it be requested. Should any further information be required, please do not hesitate to contact my supervisor or me.

Yours sincerely,


Mrs. Eleanor Araba Antwi

E-mail address: misseleanorsam@gmail.com

Contact number: 0244989963

Supervisor: Dr. N. SING



PERMISSION BY REGISTRARS FOR RESEARCH

I, SAKASHI hereby give permission to Mrs. Eleanor Araba Antwi to include my Institution and Heads of Departments/Senior Members/Senior Staff/Junior Staff as participants in her research on "The impact of institutional culture on work engagement at selected public universities in Ghana".

Signature: 

Date: 20-11-2020

REGISTRAR
UNIVERSITY OF PRETORIA

Appendix D: Research Instruments

QUESTIONNAIRE ON THE IMPACT OF INSTITUTIONAL CULTURE ON WORK ENGAGEMENT AT SELECTED PUBLIC UNIVERSITIES IN GHANA

Dear Sir/Madam,

The purpose of this research is **to assess the impact of institutional culture on work engagement in public universities in Ghana**. Kindly assist me by completing the questionnaire.

Please do not write your name on the questionnaire.

Anonymity is guaranteed. It should take you a few minutes to complete this questionnaire.

Completed questionnaires should be submitted electronically via misseleanorsam@gmail.com to the researcher within two weeks of receiving the link.

For any enquiries relating to this questionnaire, please do not hesitate to contact the researcher. Please tick the appropriate answer or fill in the spaces where needed.

Thank you for your valuable participation.

Kind regards

Eleanor Araba Antwi (Mrs.)

E-mail address: misseleanorsam@gmail.com

Contact number: 0244989963

Supervisor: Dr. N. SING

E-mail address: Nevensha.Sing@up.ac.za

Disagree [2]

Strongly disagree [1]

Question 1.

1. Mission		1	2	3	4	5
A.	There is a clearly defined mission and vision statement for the institution.					
B.	The institution has a strategic plan.					
C.	There are clearly defined goals for the institution and its employees to work towards.					
D.	Institutional policies are clearly spelt out.					
E.	There is emphasis on goal accomplishment.					
F.	Rules and regulations are clearly spelt out.					
G.	There are clearly defined job description and duties for employee.					
2. Communication		1	2	3	4	5
A.	There are clearly defined channels of communication.					
B.	There is a two-way form of communication.					
C.	Information is widely shared.					
D.	Information is widely accessible.					
E.	Information distributed is clear and accurate.					
F.	There is a better understanding of the mission and vision statements.					
G.	Institutional policies are clearly communicated from time to time.					
H.	New policies are communicated to employees before they are enforced.					
I.	Institutional policies are fair.					
J.	There are proper channels for handling grievances.					
3. Leadership		1	2	3	4	5
A.	The lines of authority are clearly defined in the Institution.					
B.	Most leaders in the organisation symbolise the values and beliefs of the institution.					
C.	Management style is characterised by achievement.					
D.	Maintaining a smooth running of the institution is paramount to management.					
E.	Management practices what they preach.					
F.	Leadership is interested in the welfare of staff.					
G.	Management is committed to stability of relationships.					
H.	Leadership coordinates efficiently and smoothly.					
4. Involvement of employees in decision making		1	2	3	4	5
A.	Employees are involved in decision making in the organisation.					
B.	Employees' views are sought before policies are rolled out.					
C.	Employees' suggestions are listened to.					
D.	Employees' opinions and ideas count at work.					
E.	Employees have the authority to correct problems as they occur.					


5. Rewards/Recognition		1	2	3	4	5
A.	Rewards are given for outstanding performance.					
B.	Rewards are given based on qualification and merit.					
C.	There is equity in the distribution of reward.					
D.	There is fair compensation for work.					
6. Performance Evaluation		1	2	3	4	5
A.	There are well-defined criteria for evaluating performance.					
B.	Performance and personal objectives are set at the beginning of the year.					
C.	Employees are reminded of performance goals to be achieved from time to time.					
D.	Progress towards meeting job objectives is reviewed periodically.					
E.	Performance is compared with objectives at the end of the year.					
F.	Performance evaluation is done fairly.					
G.	Feedback on performance is given at the end of the year.					
7. Change/Innovation		1	2	3	4	5
A.	The institution is ready to accept new and improved ways of doing things.					
B.	The institution is open to the acquisition of new resources and create new challenges.					
C.	Employees are encouraged to make improvements on the job.					
D.	There is an opportunity for independent thought and action.					
E.	The institution is characterised by individual risk taking, innovation, freedom and uniqueness.					
8. Teamwork		1	2	3	4	5
A.	The institution is characterised by teamwork, consensus and participation.					
B.	Employees are bonded by loyalty, mutual trust and work					
C.	There is a better team to work with.					
D.	The institution is characterised by openness.					
9. Training and Development		1	2	3	4	5
A.	The institution emphasises on employee training and development.					
B.	There are sufficient opportunities for job training.					
C.	There are ample opportunities for personal growth and upgrade of skills.					
D.	The institution has made provision for better resources (facilities, equipment, tools, etc.) to work with.					
E.	There is an opportunity for mentoring and menteeship.					

SECTION C

Question 2.

Responses to the following questions will help the researcher understand how employees are engaged in their work in your institution. Check the answer that most describes your feelings using the scale below:

Always/Most times in a week	[4]
Often / few times in a week	[3]
Sometimes /A few times in a month	[2]
Rarely/Once in a month or less	[1]
Never	[0]

No.	ITEM	1	2	3	4	5
Mental Resilience						
	 UNIVERSITEIT VAN PRETORIA UNIVERSITY OF PRETORIA YUNIBESITHI YA PRETORIA					
A.	I have a high level of energy at work					
B.	I put in effort to get work done					
C.	I feel physically attached to my work					
D.	No matter how I work, I still have stamina to go on					
E.	I gain more strength when I start to work.					
F.	I have high levels of mental resilience in me at work.					
Engrossment		1	2	3	4	5
A.	I always think about work even when I am out of the office.					
B.	I feel happy being part of the institution.					
C.	My mind is always filled with ideas to make work better.					
D.	Time flies without me noticing, when I am at work.					
E.	I focus on my work more often.					
F.	My attention is always on details of my work.					
Strong involvement		1	2	3	4	5
A.	I am proud of the work I do.					
B.	My work is meaningful to me.					
C.	I feel very happy when I am doing my work.					
D.	I draw inspiration from my work.					
E.	I am always delighted to carry out my responsibilities at the workplace.					
F.	My work challenges me and brings out the best in me.					
G.	I feel a strong enthusiasm for my work.					
H.	I feel a sense of ownership of my job.					
I.	I speak positively about the institution to potential employees and clients.					

SECTION D

Question 3. In one word, describe an ideal culture that engages employees at the workplace...

.....

Provide signals of the ideal culture that engages employee at the workplace.

i.....

ii.....

iii.....

iv.....

v.....

vi.....

Thank you

SEMI-STRUCTURED INTERVIEW GUIDE FOR HEADS OF DEPARTMENTS

1. How will you describe the existing institutional culture?
2. What are the determinants of culture in the institution? Among the determinants of institutional culture, which one is the most dominant?
3. What formal procedures, rules, policies, mission and clear expectations have been put in place to bind the members of the institution?
4. How well does the institution keep employees informed on matters important to their interest? How well is information shared amongst departments for the coordination of work efforts?
5. How will you describe the leadership style in your institution?
6. What are the structures put in place to ensure that every employee realises their full career potential?
7. What system has been put in place to promote creativity, the freedom to fail and to be innovative?
8. What system does the institution have in place to encourage the involvement of employees in decision- making and sharing of ideas and working in a team?
10. What system has been put in place to ensure appraisal and recognition of staff?
11. What structures has the institution put in place to support teamwork among its employees?
12. How will you describe the mental resilience of employees at work?
13. How well are employees engrossed in their work?
14. How will you describe the involvement of employees in their work?
15. What is the attitude of senior management in getting employees engaged in work?
16. What are the measures to ensure that employees are fully engaged in their work?
17. How does the culture of the institution cause employees to be engaged in their work?
18. How does the existing culture influence work engagement?

Appendix E: Sample of Transcripts for Interviews

INTERVIEW NO: 13 (55 minutes)

Description of the Existing Institutional Culture

I personally believe that there are policy guidelines on expected behaviour or characteristics and that is what forms the basis of our institutional culture as a university. We have our way of doing things and that is what distinguishes us from other universities.

Determinants of Institutional Culture and Dominant Determinants of Institutional Culture

What happens when an institution has a clearly stated mission but is not communicated to employees? In that case, employees will not know the direction in which the institution wants to go, or the employees will not know the prime focus of the institution. Also, if there is no communication of a determinant, then no work is done by employees. My university has clearly defined channels of communication, there is a two-way form of communication information is widely accessible and is shared in the university. The institution's policies are clearly communicated from time to time before they are enforced, institutional policies are fair and here are proper channels for handling grievances. I am of the view that, communication could only be effective when information distributed is clear and accurate, and there is better understanding of the mission and vision statements.

Formal Procedures, Rules, Policies, Mission, and Clear Expectations to bind the Institution's Members.

The mentoring policy is meant to pair employees to understudy each other, this binds the members of the institution. Training and Development workshops and seminars also brings employees together to brainstorm and share ideas.

Structures put in Place to Ensure that every Employee Realises their Full Career Potential

In this institution, if one does not learn on their own, you will continue to stay in the dark because the institution does not make available training and development opportunities to all. HoD13 added that this is because, the university does not follow the capacity building principle but only operates with the "whom you know" syndrome.

System put in place to ensure that employees come in with new ideas, have the freedom to fail and be innovative

For that one, I am not too sure. There are committees and teams where ideas can be shared. I have not seen any system allowing employees to fail and be innovative.

Involvement of employees in decision-making

There are suggestion boxes but how often is it opened and does management take into account the suggestions during decision-making?

System put in place to ensure performance evaluation and recognition of staff

External assessors evaluate the publications and other articles of most of us senior members before we are recommended for promotion to the next rank at our university.

Structures the institutions have put in place to support teamwork amongst employees

The university's Third Trimester Field Practical Programme (TTFPP) offers the employees in other schools and sections the opportunity to come together while assessing students on the field. I am of the view that the TTFPP gives us a chance to work in teams. In so doing, diverse ideas and information needed for the growth of the institution are shared and implemented. Thus, Committees set bring different categories of employees in the university together to brainstorm and generate policy decisions that encourage teamwork.

Level of Work Engagement

I personally believe that employees just set their minds to support the university by committing to work and earning their salaries. And that, I for instance come to work with a suitable mental resilience because my livelihood depends on the institution's survival.

Employees' Engrossment in their Work

I am personally engrossed in work because, I have been assigned responsibilities I must complete. For other, employees in this university, it is difficult to tell whether they are engrossed in work or not because, performance appraisal is done only when the person is applying for promotion. So, one cannot really tell, whether the person is attached and committed to work as the days go by. But once a while, when I assign tasks, I receive feedback.

How will you describe the involvement of employees in their work?

I would say, it is good because, people come to work every day and the university is moving forward. Strategic plans are being executed and accomplished and the mission is being attained. I will draw a conclusion that the level of involvement in work is good.

The Attitude of Senior Management in getting Employees Engaged in Work

Once I am appointed, work schedules were set and all the needed resources were provided for me to carry out and complete schedules to earn salaries and other benefits.

Measures put in place to ensure that employees are fully engaged in their work

In our university, rewards and recognition systems have been instituted for employees who put in their best. This means an employee must come onto the work fully engaged in bringing out a sterling performance to earn an award. Let me also add here that there are well-laid requirements for promotion and employees must be fully involved

at the workplace to meet these requirements. Also, reports are submitted on employee attendance and work output from time to time.

How does the culture of the institution cause employees to be engaged in their work?

Generally, the culture in this university is a positive one and one of discipline and diligence. We are aiming at achieving international standards. The idea has gone down well for everyone. We are all working together as a university to achieve.

How does the existing culture affect work engagement?

Institutional culture primarily affects work engagement because employees still have the zeal to work despite the challenges encountered by public universities in Ghana. Despite the challenges associated with work I am focused and I beat timelines.

INTERVIEW NO: 27 (40 minutes)

Description of the existing institutional culture

I think every public university is unique and has its mandate. The uniqueness and mandate are what define the culture of the institution. So, I would say that over the years the university has built it on exceptional image and culture and that is what makes us stand out of all other universities. The culture here is positive and welcoming and we all are working to achieve our mandate in this university.

Determinants of institutional culture and dominant determinants of institutional culture

Personally, I would mention consistency and adaptability as additional determinants of institutional culture worth taking note of. I am of the opinion that the mission is the core mandate of the university, and the leadership is to operate within the institution's mission. I maintain that we the employees are substantial internal factors that impact institutional culture because we have unique backgrounds, characters, and

experiences. While universities cannot fully direct how different employees should act, guidelines can be instituted to guide the behaviour of employees. The mission statement and code of ethics, amongst others, are policy documents that universities use as standards to direct employees. I believe that where there are clearly defined mission and vision statements for the institution in addition to rules and regulations that are clearly spelt out and a well-defined job description, a unique institutional culture is formed.

Formal procedures, rules, policies, mission, and clear expectations that bind the institution's members.

I must admit that there are policy documents that clearly spells out the “dos and don’ts” of the institution. These documents are to help us as an institution to understand ourselves and speak one language. But as to whether every member of the institution understands it that way, that one I cannot tell.

Structures put in place to ensure that every employee realises their full career potential

Personally, I think, professional development is essential in every university. If the university does not encourage employees to grow and develop, the institution does not succeed. In view of this the above institutions have to put in all the needed effort to ensure the growth of their employees. Again, the institution places emphasis on employee training and development and there are sufficient opportunities for job training. In my university, there are ample opportunities for personal growth and skill development for employees. In addition to this, the university have better resources (facilities, equipment, tools, etc.) to work with.

When one is given orientation on the first appointment, that ends it. There may not be an opportunity for mentorship because there is no system in place for that. Also, study leave is not accessible to all because an employee may have completed the waiting period but can only go on study leave when the university is in good financial standing when there are vacancies for study leave.

System put in place to ensure that employees come in with new ideas, have the freedom to fail and be innovative

I have not encountered any system that gives room for employees to create, fail or innovate.

Involvement of employees in decision-making

I will disagree employees are involved in decision-making in the university. It will interest you to know that the platform for decision-making is open and set, but opinions and concerns of employees are not welcomed. When an employee tries to share a thought or express a view, they are not given the chance. At my university, sometimes employees are victimised or chastised for airing their opinions and concerns. In fact, there is much vindictiveness in the university. This causes fear and panic and prevents employees from making inputs towards the development of the university. If this goes on, "employees will sit on the fence, fold their hands and watch".

System put in place to ensure performance evaluation and recognition of staff

There are performance evaluation tools but they are not used consistently, but they have been used a few times and helped in the identification of the strengths and weaknesses of some employees. It is based on the performance evaluation that recognition and rewards have been given to deserving staff.

Structures the Institutions have put in Place to Support Teamwork amongst Employees

Conferences, summer schools and workshops are organised from time to time for all the categories of staff. This is an avenue for teamwork. Convocation also serves as a platform to share ideas and work together as colleagues.

Level of Work Engagement

I come in generally with the mindset to work. I have the right mental resilience, I am engrossed in my work, and I am personally involved in every work activity.

The attitude of senior management in getting employees engaged in work

As a matter of fact, the rampant industrial action, irregular attendance to work and minimal productivity level at the workplace, should tell the universities that employees are not fully engaged at the workplace and there is the need to put in structures to improve the system.

Measures put in place to ensure that employees are fully engaged in their work

Maybe the daily attendance and punctuality. However, the interesting thing is you cannot measure what is done between the reporting time and closing time.

How does the Culture of the Institution cause Employees to be Engaged in their Work?

When the culture is right and sound, discipline is instilled in the operations of the institution. Employees will become naturally engaged when the system is running smoothly.

How Institutional Culture engages Employees at the Workplace

For me, the high ranking received by the university on the universities' league table has put employees on their toes and has increased engagement levels to maintain the high performance and productivity level in public universities in Ghana.

How does the Existing Culture Affect Work Engagement?

I will conclude by saying that a positive culture will attract high levels of engagement. If the institutional culture is not favourable, employees will not invest their energies and they will be low levels of commitment and work engagement.