University Culture: An Analysis at the Level of Research and Educational Units (using the Competing Values Framework)

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Abstract: The aim of the present study was to investigate the current organizational culture in one large Romanian university, using the Competing Values Framework (CVF). Specifically, we aimed to identify the current overall culture profile and the cultural dominant dimensions at the level of the education and research units. The data was provided by 898 participants, coming from 96 teaching and research units, using a paper-and-pencil form of the ipsative Organizational Culture Assessment Instrument, Part 1. The data was analysed at the level of the organizational units. The results indicated that the overall culture profile of the analysed units comprises a combination of the four cultures, with the predominance of the values of bureaucratic and human relations/clan cultures. This profile was not fully invariant across the six dimensions of the organizational culture: (1). dominant characteristics; (2). organizational leadership; (3). management of employees; (4). organizational glue; (5). strategic emphases, and (6). success criteria. The predominance of the values of bureaucratic and human relations/clan cultures is confirmed in three of the six cultural dimension profiles, namely, the organizational leadership, strategic emphases, and success criteria.

I. Introduction

One type of the organizations having a great impact on the development, growth, and welfare of the society, particularly on the communities that include them, is represented by the higher education institutions such as universities (Gasca-Pliego & Olvera-García, 2011). Universities are considered complex organizations with multiple objectives and standards in teaching, research, and community service that are forced by the changes in their environments to reflect on their functions in society (Kantanen, 2005). They shape individuals and society (Heap, 2016). At the same time, in its course of action, as a result of the existing increased competition to attract more high-quality applicants, severe research funding cuts, and strong globalization of education, the university adopts a market orientation and manages its reputation (Folch & Ion, 2009; Ressler & Abratt, 2009; Kallio, Kallio, Tienari, & Hyvönen, 2015). This is the case also for one of the largest university in Romania, Babes-Bolyai University of Cluj-Napoca (UBB). To face the aforementioned environmental challenges, UBB manages its reputation by striving to ascent the international universities league tables and to maintain the top position achieved in the national metaranking of the Ministry of Education and Research (2016) through a strong emphasis on advanced research and teaching.

According to The Strategic Plan for the 2016-2020 period, this emphasis aims to strengthen the role of UBB as an institution responsible, active, and capable to produce competent graduates for the society, development projects and solutions to major issues and to establish structural correspondences between itself and world-class universities in the European and Atlantic environment (Centre for University Strategy and Quality Management, Babeş-Bolyai University, 2017). These stated strategic goals increasingly determine the work and the actions of the individuals and groups within the university. To achieve high performance and to be successful, UBB embraces the values of "*Traditio et Excellentia*" and expects that its internal stakeholders will embrace and share these espoused values, too, and that the enactment of the university strategic goals will be highly guided by these shared values.

Literature reveals that a socially shared value system within an organizational context reflects the culture of that organization (Zohar & Hofman, 2012). Organizational culture is an important social characteristic that influences organizational, group, and individual behaviour (Cameron & Quinn, 2011; Hartnell, Ou, & Kinicki, 2011) and explains why organizations do what they do and focus on what they focus on (Schneider, González-Romá, Ostroff, & West, 2017). Furthermore, it can manifest as motivation that drives the organizational members to formulate, initiate, and implement certain ways of action (Schein, 1985) and it represents their learned way of thinking (Chirică, 1996).

The role that organizational culture plays in organizational level processes and outcomes has been largely discussed by scholars from various fields. Although it was postulated and strongly agreed among scholars and practitioners that organizational culture can be a source of the competitive advantage (Barney, 1986; Chan, Shaffer, & Snape, 2004), organizational performance (Gordon & DiTomaso, 1992) and effectiveness (Denison & Mishra, 1995; Kotter & Heskett, 1992; Wilkins & Ouchi, 1983), only relatively recently the links of organizational culture to organizational and individual level outcomes were documented using empirical and meta-analytical investigations (Hartnell et al., 2011; Sackman, 2011; Schneider, Ehrhart, & Macey, 2013). While some studies provide empirical support for the effects of the organizational culture on organizational and employee level outcomes (Berson, Oreg, & Dvir, 2008; Bezrukova, Thatcher, Jehn, & Spell, 2012; O'Reilly, Caldwell, Chatman, & Doerr, 2014), others revealed no association or provided mixed results.

Literature reveals a strong emphasis on developing organizational culture's theoretical boundaries (Hartnell et al., 2011). Many definitions and underlying instruments of organizational culture were developed (Martin, 1992; Ostroff, Kinicki, & Tamkins, 2003; Schneider, Ehrhart, & Macey, 2011; Taras, 2006). However, many of the organizational culture conceptualizations include common characteristics such as being shared among members (Louis, 1985; Glisson & James, 2002), having a multilevel nature and existing at multiple levels (e.g., group and organizational levels; Detert, Schroeder, & Mauriel, 2000), influencing employees' attitudes, thinking, and behaviours (Sathe, 1985; Smircich, 1983), including collective values, beliefs, and assumptions (Schein,

2004; Schneider et al., 2017) that are distinctive for the organizational members and, in general, tacit and relative (Louis, 1985; Sathe, 1985; Schneider et al., 2017).

In what regards the content of organizational culture, there is a strong consensus among scholars that it consists of different elements such as values, beliefs, assumptions, ideologies (Schein, 2004; Schneider et al., 2017), and the ways these are transmitted through symbols, language, narratives (myths, stories), and practices (rituals and taboos) (Schneider et al., 2011). These elements are hierarchically ordered from deeper to more surface levels (Rousseau, 1990; Schein, 2004; Zohar & Hofman, 2011). The deep-level may include basic assumptions, values, and/or beliefs about the organizational context that have shown to be successful in the past and are, therefore, now ingrained, taken for granted, and unquestioned (Detert et al., 2000; Schein, 2004). They represent the essence of an organization's culture (Zohar & Hofman, 2011). In contrast, the surface-level consists in observable artefacts or (behavioral) manifestations of the deep-level elements, such as organizational structures and processes, myths, stories, language, signals, policies, and procedures. Schein (2004) considers that there is an intermediary-level comprising the espoused beliefs, values, and ideologies. These elements are considered as a subset of the surface-level artefacts. Furthermore, a great variety of the surface-level elements can represent manifestations of a few basic assumptions, beliefs and core values (Zohar & Hofman, 2011).

An organization's basic assumptions or successful solving solutions to fundamental organizational problems on internal integration and external adaptation, validated by the (collective) experience and transmitted to newcomers (Schein, 1985) can be found in the organization's goals, mission and policies, but they can also cover the distance between what is formally declared by the organization as its way of action (espoused theory of organizational action) and what is actually taking place in the organizational action (theory-in-use of organizational action) (Argyris & Schon, 1974). Any basic assumption can result in a variety of (espoused) values and beliefs, giving rise, in turn, to a variety of observable or reportable artefacts. Considered as important elements of the culture-generating process, core values refer to the shared moral criteria or action standards that define what is good, desirable, and right (Zohar & Hofman, 2011). Values can activate

unconscious assumptions, thus, influencing the individual and the collective behaviour of the organizational members often without their awareness of the content of these values (Jackson, 2002). Values can serve as a foundation for the organizational members' beliefs formation and attitudes development.

Several authors consider that deep-level elements of an organizational culture and their surface-level manifestations can be reflected in different cultural types. Several cultural typologies resulted from the consideration of different dimensions regarding organizational effectiveness criteria (organizational focus, organizational structure, and organizational means-ends; Cameron & Quinn, 1999; Quinn & Rohrbaugh, 1983; Denison, 2001; Denison & Mishra, 1995), social interaction (solidarity and sociability; Goffee & Jones, 2001), and behavioral orientation (people vs. task and satisfaction vs. security; Cooke & Szumal, 1993, 2000). Thereof, a well-known typology in understanding and describing an organization's culture is provided by the Competing Values Framework (CVF; Quinn & Rohrbaugh, 1983; Cameron & Quinn, 1999). As Cameron and Quinn (2011) noted, the CVF can offer six major advantages in diagnosing and changing organizational culture: (1) practicality; (2) efficiency; (3) involvement of the organizational members (participation); (4) qualitative and quantitative methodologies; (5) manageability, and (6) validity.

In the CVF framework, organizational culture consists of collective memory systems that include core values, assumptions, beliefs, expectations, and organizational members' definitions on how their organization function (Schein, 1992) and a common, consensual, integrated set of perceptions, memories, values, attitudes, and definitions (Cameron & Quinn, 2011). These elements can reflect four cultural types corresponding to the four quadrants resulted from the consideration of mainly two dimensions of organizational effectiveness criteria: (1) organizational structure: flexibility vs. stability and (2) organizational orientation: internal vs. external. The first dimension differentiates a focus on flexibility, discretion, and dynamism from a focus on stability, order and control (Cameron, 2004). The control aspect indicates that in some extent the behaviour of the organizational members is formally regulated, while flexibility reflects the degree of freedom of the organizational members' behaviour. On this continuum,

some organizations are effective if they are constantly in a change process, while others if they pursue stability and predictability.

The second dimension describes the organization's focus on an internal orientation, integration and unity or its focus on an external orientation, differentiation and rivalry (Cameron, 2004). Some organizations base their effectivity on the congruence of their internal characteristics and harmonious internal relations, while others on the interaction and competition with others from their relevant environment. The dimension describes a continuum whose one pole refers to organizational cohesion and consonance, while the other refers to organizational separation and independence.

The intersection of these two organizational dimensions give rise to four quadrants, "*each representing a set of organizational effectiveness indicators*" (Cameron, 2004, p. 4) and describing each one type of organizational culture: hierarchy (internal orientation and stability), market (external orientation and stability), human relations or clan (internal orientation and flexibility), and adhocracy (external orientation and flexibility). The four types of culture describe the core values based on which judgements are made about the way in which an organization acts. An illustration of the four types of organizational cultures is presented in *Figure 1.*
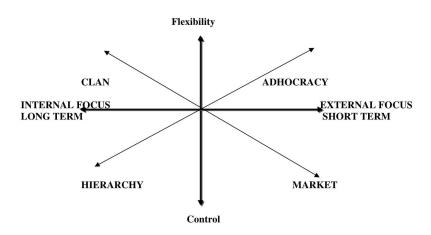

Figure 1. An illustration of the competing values model (Quinn, 1988).

In the following, we will detail each type of organizational culture included in *Figure 1.*

Human relations-based (clan) culture or the organization that is oriented towards supporting its members is characterized by participation, cooperation, and focus on the individual and social element, mutual trust, group cohesion, and individual development. The communication system is predominantly verbal and informal. In such a culture, organizational members are encouraged to express their ideas about their work and feelings towards each other. Decision-making is often based on informal contacts. Also, such an organization drives and capitalizes on the individual's commitment as a member of the organization. The human relations-based or clan culture is akin to the adhocracy type through the flexibility of the organization's course of action.

In the adhocracy culture or the innovation-oriented culture, the emphasis is on seeking new information, creativity, openness to change, anticipation of events and experimentation. Communication is informal and information is disseminated. Hierarchical control is possible, but it is not considered indispensable. In such a culture, management expects employees to be involved in work and to fulfil their obligations derived from the strategic plan to meet the organization's goals.

The third type of culture, the market one, is characterized by orientation towards goals. A strong emphasis is placed on concepts such as rationality, leadership and management by objectives, selection of information, fulfilment of functionality and group reward. The central point of this type of culture is the achievement of objectives through rational ways, in close connection with the existing external environment. The control element specific to this type of culture can also be found in the bureaucratic culture.

In the bureaucratic or the hierarchical culture type, the rules and the extent to which the organizational members comply with them are strongly valued. At the same time, more compliance with authority, rational approach to procedures, and division of labour are valued, too. The way in which the organization's activity is structured is a hierarchical one. The communication is done through written provisions, from the upper to the lower level. Power is based on formal authority.

These four culture types are assumed to compete one with the other. As a consequence, an organization will have a certain level of each culture. Organizational effectiveness will result from different patterns of cultures that are congruent with environmental demands. Furthermore, CVF assumes that organizational culture cannot be characterized by a single cultural type because there are many subunits in an organization that have different cultures at various organizational levels (Cameron & Quinn, 1999). Furthermore, there is no ideal culture profile. Each organization must determine the degree of cultural development needed to succeed in its environment. A strong culture corresponds to an increased degree of effort homogeneity, a clear sense of direction, an unambiguous environment and services. The degree to which an organization needs a strong, homogeneous culture despite a mixture of cultures is determined by the environment in which the organization exists. However, the stronger the culture, the more effort the organization requires to initiate and implement the change needed to be organizationally successful. The model predicts that when the organization does anything, the organizational members in it will respond within the primary ideology that defines it or, in other words, the culture that defines it. To the degree that the afore-mentioned anything is not in keeping with the primary ideology, it will be rejected at worst and reinterpreted by the organizational members to fit the ideology at best (Cameron & Quinn, 2011). In an organization, its distinct structures / units may have a different culture from the culture of the organization as a whole.

In the Competing Values Framework and its underlying measurement instrument (The Organizational Culture Assessment Instrument or OCAI), the four types of organizational culture are reflected in the following organizational dimensions: (1) dominant characteristics; (2) organizational leadership; (3) management of employees; (4) organization glue; (5) strategic emphases, and (6) criteria of success. The culture of an organization can be reflected to the same extent or differently in these six dimensions. According to Cameron and Ettington (1988), and Cameron and Quinn (1999, 2005, 2011), these dimensions are not comprehensive, but they address basic assumptions (dominant characteristics, organizational glue), interaction patterns (leadership, management of employees), and organizational direction (strategic emphases, criteria of success) that

typify the fundamentals of culture in an organization. It is important to mention that OCAI measures each quadrant-based culture profile by reference to the current and preferred organizational practices. In both cases, the measurement of (current) culture is based on observable artefacts, whereas the measurement of (ideal or preferred) culture is assumed to be driven by underlying values and assumptions (Zohar & Hofman, 2012). Thus, these six dimensions can reflect either observable and behavioural manifestations and/or their underlying values and assumptions of each cultural type. Also, it provides information about the cultural strength, type and congruence.

In an organization, there may be different degrees of congruence between these six dimensions. Cultural congruence reflects the extent to which the six dimensions are based on the same core values. Usually, successful organizations characterized by a high degree of cultural congruence have few internal conflicts and contradictions. An increased degree of cultural incongruence stimulates awareness of the need for organizational change. Furthermore, as the CVF assumes that organizational culture cannot be characterized by a single cultural type because there are many subunits in an organization that have different cultures at various organizational levels (Cameron & Quinn, 1999), the cultural congruence can differ also within different subunits of the organization and between them.

The role of the culture of organizational subunits in the emergence of the organizational culture is revealed by two research directions. The first one resides in Martin's (1992) work on the perspectives or approaches to culture: (1) the integration perspective; (2) the differentiation perspective and (3) the fragmentation perspective. The CVF and OCAI rely more on the first perspective that culture is what organizational members share or serves as the glue that holds them together and consensus about what culture exists in an organization can be detected. The second direction reveal that organizational culture is only recently subjected to academic discussions and empirical research underlined by the conceptualization of the organizational culture as a multilevel phenomenon (Chan, 2012). Based on Chan's (1998), Kozlowski and Klein's work (2000) on composition and compilation models, most scholars agree that organizational culture emerges based on a compositional model (Glisson & James, 2002; Ostroff et al., 2003; Schein, 2004). Thus, it is assumed that the culture of

the organization as a whole (organizational culture) and the culture of its units (subcultures) are theoretically isomorphic because both of them influence behaviour through shared, social normative cues (O'Reilly & Chatman, 1996). The CVF and OCAI consider organizational culture as a common, consensual, integrated set of perceptions, memories, values, attitudes, and definitions (Cameron & Quinn, 2011). According to these theoretical backgrounds, the culture of the organizational units (or the subcultures) can serve as clue of the culture of an organization as a whole (or organizational culture).

Although it was initially designed to identify an organization's values, the model developed by Cameron and Quinn (1999) based on the Competing Values Framework (Quinn & Rohrbaugh, 1983) and Cameron and Ettington's (1988) work on using this framework to describe an organization's culture, it subsequently proved to be useful in applications related to organizational culture (Cameron & Quinn, 2011), including academic environment (Berrio, 2003; Kwan & Walker, 2004). There are few theoretical contributions on describing and diagnosing organizational culture in a Romanian university (Lăcătuş, 2012), as well as empirical studies conducted with this framework (Nica, Constantin, Nestian & Leon, 2013) Thus, the aim of the present study was to employ the Competing Values Model to describe the culture, mainly behavioural manifestations existing in one of the most performant university in Romania at the organizational unit level (or subcultures). Specifically, we aim to investigate the behavioural manifestations of the university units' core values, basic assumptions and beliefs as they are understood, shared, and perceived by the organizational members such as academics and researchers. Thus, we will describe the strength of the existing behavioural manifestations, the cultural type and the congruence of the cultural type on the six dimensions stated in the Competing Values Model.

This study is in line with the stream of research that examines the content of the culture and evaluates the association between organizational culture and organizational effectiveness (Denison & Mishra, 1995; Hofstede, Neuijen, Ohayv, & Sanders, 1990). Specifically, it provides information about organizational effectiveness by identifying the organizational cultural content, mainly the observable artefacts and behavioural manifestations that exists in the university and not by taking measures of the two concepts (effectiveness and culture).

Furthermore, the analysis of the observable behavioural manifestations of the core values can inform future changes in university in order to become more effective. Also, they can become the first target in implementing cultural changes considering that as elements of the surface level of organizational culture they are easier to change compared to the deep level elements such as core values, basic assumptions and beliefs.

II. Methods

II.1. Participants

The instrument was sent to 1472 academics and 290 researchers representing all the personnel having a job in teaching or research in Babeş-Bolyai University. Thereof, 1014 participants returned the instrument. They came from 96 organizational units such as departments and research units from 27 faculties, research centres and labs. The response rate was 57.59%. However, after the primary check of the responses offered by the participants in term of the missing data and correctness of the completion of the instrument, only 898 individual responses were considered for the subsequent data analyses. 9 incomplete responses and 107 responses with errors in terms of the completion procedure were excluded.

The final sample comprises 898 participants. More than 95% were academics (855 participants, 95.2%), while the rest of the sample comprised researchers (4.8%; 43 participants). The participants having a teaching job came from 21 faculties. They were members of 90 departments. The participants having a research job came from six research centres and institutes. The majority of the participants reported an age between 30 and 49 years (85.76%). Only 4.45% of the participants reported an age under 30 years, while 6.68% reported an age over 60 years. A small percentage of the participants, 3.12%, did not report their age.

In terms of job title, the distribution of the participants was the following: teaching assistant (15.8%), lecturer (37.8%), associate professor (25.8%), full professor (11%), research assistant (1.9%), researcher-level III (2.1%), researcher-level II (0.4%), researcher-level I

(0.3%). One participant reported two job titles, one involving teaching and the other one research. Almost 4.7% of the participants did not report their job title.

A percentage of 61.5% participants reported that they conduct their teaching and research activities mainly in Romanian language. In contrast, 25.4% of the participants reported Hungarian (14.6%), German (3%), English (5.6%), French (2%) and other languages (1.8%) or combinations between the mentioned languages. A percentage of 5% did not report the main language used in their work.

The mean organizational tenure was 18.91 years (SD = 22.21). Most of the participants reported that they have a full-time contract from an unlimited period (87%).

The data was analysed at the level of the organizational unit (96 teaching and research units).

III. Instrument

Considering that the theoretical model adopted in this study was the Competing Values Framework (Quinn & Rohrbaugh, 1983; Cameron & Quinn, 1998), the instrument used to measure the content of the organizational culture was the Organizational Culture Assessment Instrument (OCAI; Cameron & Quinn, 1999). OCAI was developed to measure the organizational culture types specified by the Competing Values Framework and it is the best-known instrument developed from this framework. Literature reveals that it has good psychometric properties (Choi, Seo, Scott, & Martin, 2010; DiStefano & Scrima, 2016).

This instrument offers an assessment of the organizations in terms of four culture types: (1) human relations or clan, (2) adhocracy, (3) market, and (4) hierarchy. Each culture type is assessed on six dimensions: (1) *dominant characteristics*, how the organization is as a whole; (2) *organizational leadership,* what the formal leadership in the organization is considered to exemplify; (3) *management of employees,* how employees are managed and how the work environment is; (4) *organizational glue,* the tie that keeps together the organization; (5) *strategic emphases* that define the areas emphasized in the organizational strategy; (6) *success criteria* that specify how the achievement is defined, what is rewarded and celebrated in the

organization. Based on these dimensions, the OCAI is designed to help identify an organization's current culture or the culture that exists today (part 1) and the culture that organizational members believe should be developed to match future demands of the environment and the opportunities to be faced by the organization in the coming five years (part 2) (Cameron & Quinn, 1999).

In this study, we used the ipsative six items form of the OCAI instrument to assess only the current culture existing at the level of the departments and research units. The six items version have been found to be equally predictive of an organization's culture as the longer versions of the OCAI (Cameron & Quinn, 2011). Each item was one of the six dimensions representing core attributes of an organization that reflect its culture. Furthermore, each (ipsative) item had four alternatives. The respondents were asked to divide 100 points, among the four alternatives, describing each of the four quadrants in the CVF, and according to how similar the description included in the statement is to the description of their department or research unit. Thus, this instrument provided data only about the subcultures that exist in university at the level of the departments and research units. Considering the constructs measured by OCAI through the current culture, the data collected reflects the perception of the participants on the behavioural manifestation of the core values, basic assumptions, and orientations of the organizational units in which they are embedded.

The higher the score given by participants for one type of culture or dimension (an alternative of the ipsative item), the more dominant that type of culture or dimension is in the analysed organization. The scoring of the instrument was conducted in line with the procedure presented by Cameron and Quinn (1999).

IV. Procedure

The data was collected through the paper-and-pencil form of the instrument after the institutional approval was obtained by the research team. To ensure anonymity and confidentiality of the responses, each questionnaire was coded and placed in an envelope. The instrument was distributed through the secretary office of the

organizational unit included in this study. Each participant received an envelope with one coded unfilled copy of the instrument. After filling in the instrument, the participant put it back in the envelope, closed it, and returned this envelope to the secretary office of the unit.

The research design adopted in this study was a descriptive cross-sectional one. Data collection was conducted during January-February 2015.

V. Results

For each type of culture and the six dimensions through which it can be analysed, the mean score given by the participants and the standard deviation at the level of the organizational unit were computed. For the entire sample of the teaching and research units, these statistics are included in Table 1.

Variables	Mean	Standard deviation	Minimum	Maximum
A. Human relations culture	25.64	12.63	0.00	76.67
1. Dominant characteristics	22.75	17.04	0.00	100.00
2. Organizational leadership	25.77	17.12	0.00	100.00
3. Management of employees	28.00	18.21	0.00	100.00
4. Organizational glue	26.83	19.06	0.00	100.00
5. Strategic emphases	24.33	15.25	0.00	100.00
6. Success criteria	26.15	16.60	0.00	100.00
B. Adhocracy culture	21.15	7.81	0.00	56.67
1. Dominant characteristics	24.35	14.47	0.00	100.00
2. Organizational leadership	18.20	12.24	0.00	100.00
3. Management of employees	21.71	15.84	0.00	100.00
4. Organizational glue	19.02	12.19	0.00	100.00
5. Strategic emphases	20.87	11.76	0.00	100.00
6. Success criteria	22.76	14.53	0.00	100.00
C. Market culture	25.17	11.64	0.00	100.00
1. Dominant characteristics	31.17	18.10	0.00	100.00
2. Organizational leadership	16.64	20.59	0.00	100.00
3. Management of employees	26.26	17.22	0.00	100.00
4. Organizational glue	29.65	19.04	0.00	100.00
5. Strategic emphases	25.86	17.34	0.00	100.00

6. Success criteria	21.43	16.39	0.00	100.00
D. Hierarchy culture	28.04	13.74	0.00	100.00
1. Dominant characteristics	21.72	19.10	0.00	100.00
2. Organizational leadership	39.40	22.12	0.00	100.00
3. Management of employees	24.02	18.32	0.00	100.00
4. Organizational glue	24.50	20.63	0.00	100.00
5. Strategic emphases	28.95	19.15	0.00	100.00
6. Success criteria	29.66	19.61	0.00	100.00

Table 1. Descriptive statistics for organizational culture types and dimensions (N = 96 organizational units)

The results included in Table 1 reveal that at the level of the organizational unit the participants gave the highest score to the hierarchical/ bureaucratic culture (M = 28.04). However, the differences between the four types of organizational culture are small and less than 10 points: human relations culture (M = 25.64), adhocracy culture (M = 21.15), and market culture (M = 25.17). The graphical representation of the overall type of organizational culture existing within the organizational units of the university is presented in Figure 2.
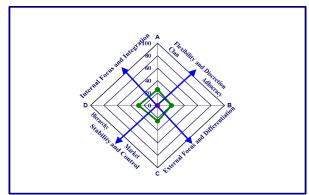

Figure 2. The overall culture profile of the teaching and research units within the university (N = 96 units)

These results suggest that the overall culture profile of the organizational units existing in the university is rather a mixture of the four types of organizational culture, with a focus on compliance to procedures and planning that is specific to hierarchical culture (c^2 = 77.38, p < .001). Participants perceive their units as simultaneously being internally oriented towards their members and control. In such a

culture, the workplace is characterized by a high degree of formalization and structuring. Procedures govern what the members of the organizational unit are doing. Those with formal authority are considered good coordinators and organizers and viewed as leaders. The goal is to make the organization work smoothly in achieving the unit's goals. Formal policies and rules are the ones that maintain together the organizational unit. The long-term orientation is to maintain stability and performance through efficient operations. Success is defined in terms of results and low costs. Human resources management focuses on job security and predictability.

Regarding the frequency (expressed as percentages) of the dominant culture type existing in the teaching and research organizational units (Figure 3), the data shows that about 64% of these units have a type of mixed cultures, that includes to a similar extent the values specific to the human relations, adhocracy, market, and hierarchical culture. There are also organizational units dominated by one cultural type. Thus, 16.67% of these units are characterized by the values specific to human relations culture. In the case of 10.42% of the organizational units, we found the specific values of the market type culture. Approximately 6% of the organizational units are characterized by values specific to hierarchical culture. No organizational unit is predominantly characterized by the adhocracy culture.

The overall culture profile with the predominance of the values of bureaucratic and human relations/clan cultures (**Figure 2**) is confirmed in three of the six cultural dimension profiles, namely, the current organizational leadership (**Figure 6**), strategic emphases (**Figure 12**), and success criteria (**Figure 14**). In the case of other two dimensions, namely, the dominant characteristics (**Figure 4**) and organization glue (**Figure 10**), the cultural profile highlights the relative importance of market values, while in the case management of employees (**Figure 8**), the cultural profile shows a relatively homogeneous mix of the four types of culture values. It seems that the perception of the organization as a whole is more guided by the explicit theory of managerial action.
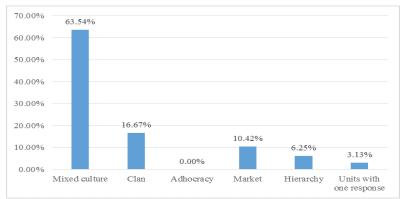
Figure 3. The frequency of the culture type of the teaching and research units (N = 96 units)

Thus, with respect to the dominant characteristics of the organizational unit, we found specific values of the market-type culture (M = 31.17), followed by the adhocracy (M = 24.35), human relations (M = 22.75), and hierarchical culture values (M = 21.72) (c^2 = 257.03, p <. 001). The dominant characteristics culture profile of teaching and research units within the university is presented in *Figure 4.*
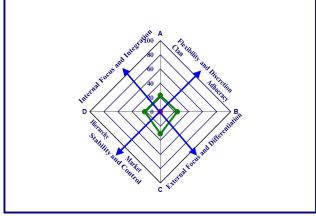

Figure 4. The dominant characteristics culture profile of the teaching and research units (N = 96 units)

A presentation of the dominant characteristics within the organizational units is included in *Figure 5.* Approximately 59.38% of these units have a combination of characteristics based on values specific to the four types of organizational culture: human relations,

adhocracy, market, and hierarchical. The dominant characteristics specific to the market type culture were found in the case of 22.92% of the analysed units, followed by those specific to the adhocracy culture identified in 9.38% of the units. There is also a small percentage of organizational units that have dominant characteristics specific to human relations culture and a combination between market and hierarchical cultures (4.17% and 1.04% respectively).

Figure 5. The frequency of the dominant characteristics of the teaching and research units (N = 96 units)

The organizational leadership style of the analysed units is based rather on hierarchical culture values (M = 39.40), followed by human relations culture (M = 25.77) and less by the values of the adhocracy (M = 18.20) and market type cultures (M = 16.64) (c^2 = 703.36, p < .001). This profile is illustrated in *Figure 6.*
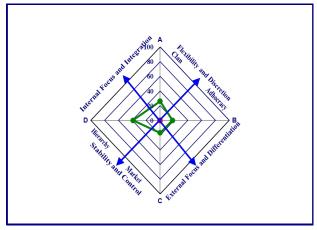

Figure 6. The organizational leadership culture profile of the teaching and research units (N = 96 units)

In more than half of the units analysed, the cultural dimension of the organizational leadership is based on values specific to hierarchy culture. However, approximately 38% of the units had an organizational leadership based on values specific to the four types of organizational culture (**Figure 7**). Only 7.29% of the units were characterized by a leadership style based on human relations-specific culture values. In

one unit, the organizational leadership style was based on a mixture of human relations and hierarchical culture-specific values.

Figure 7. The frequency of the organizational leadership of the teaching and research units (N = 96 units)

Management of employees was predominantly guided by a mixture of cultures, with strong accents of the human relations (M = 28.00) and market-type culture values (M = 26.26) (c^2 = 88.65, p < .001) (*Figure 8*).
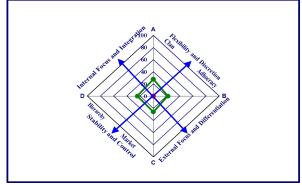

Figure 8. The management of employees culture profile of the teaching and research units (N = 96 units)

Specifically, the data revealed that 77.08% of the organizational units analysed were characterized by a management of employees based on a relatively homogeneous mix of values specific to the four types of organizational culture (*Figure 9*). The management of employees guided by the human relations culture values was found in 12.50% of the analysed organizational units, while 5.21% units had a management of employees specific to the market-type culture. One
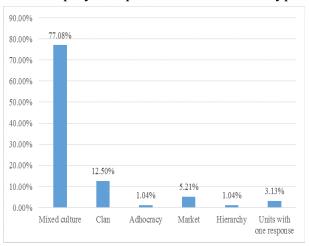
Figure 9. The frequency of the management of employees of the teaching and research units (N = 96 units)
department was characterized by a management of employees specific to the hierarchy cultural type, while another one based on adhocracy values.

The current organizational glue cultural dimension comprised a mixture of values in which prevailed the market (M = 29.65), human relations (M = 26.83) and hierarchical culture type values (M = 24.50) (c^2 = 161.21, p < .001) (*Figure 10).*
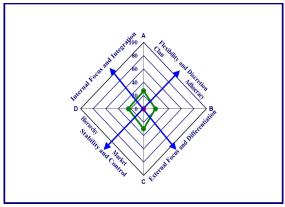

Figure 10. The organizational glue culture profile of the teaching and research units (N = 96units)
Figure 11. The frequency of the organizational glue of the teaching and research units (N = 96 units)

More than half of the analysed organizational units (64.58%) had an organizational glue cultural dimension comprising a mixture of values specific to the four types of organizational culture (*Figure 11*). The organizational glue based on human relations culture was characteristic to 11.46% of the units, while the one based on values of control and external orientation was found in the case of 17.71% of the units. However, the force that maintains the organization unified driven on values of internal orientation and control was characteristic to 2.08% of units.

The strategic emphases were founded on the mixture of the four types of organizational culture, in which prevailed hierarchy (M = 28.95), market (M = 25.86), and human relations cultures (M = 24.33, c^2 = 44.35, p < .001) *(Figure 12).*
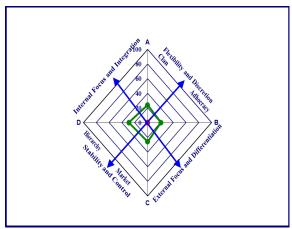
Figure 12. The strategic emphases culture profile of the teaching and research units (N = 96 units)

Data revealed that 76.04% of the analysed units carry out an organizational activity guided by a mixture of the values specific to the four types of organizational culture. There is a small number of units that are more characterized by strategic values specific to human relations (7.29%), market (5.21%) and hierarchical cultures (8.33%) *(Figure 13)*.

The criteria of success were defined by a mixture of the values from the four types of organizational culture. In this mixture, the prevailing values were those of the internal orientation (hierarchy and human relations values, M = 29.66, M = 26.15) rather than those of the external orientation (adhocracy and market values, M = 22.76, M = 21.43) (c^2 = 100.27, p < .001) (*Figure 14).*

Figure 13. The frequency of the strategic emphases of the teaching and research units (N = 96 units)
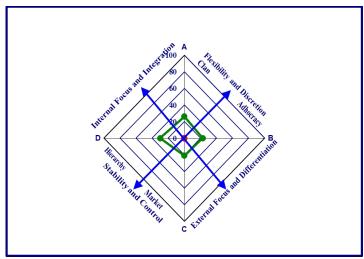
Figure 14. The success criteria culture profile of the teaching and research units (N = 96 units)

Almost 64% of the units defined their and their members' success based on a combination of human relations, adhocracy, market, and hierarchical values (*Figure 15*). Approximately 15.63% of units defined their success mainly on the basis of human relations values, 7.92% based on hierarchical culture values, while a single department considered success in terms of the combination of human relations and hierarchy values. Adhocracy was adopted by 2.08% of the units to define success, while the market type values guided the definition of success in the case of 3.13% of the units.

Figure 15. The frequency of the success criteria of the teaching and research units (N = 96 units)

VI. Discussions

In the present study, the Competing Values Model was employed to describe the culture, mainly behavioural manifestations existing in one of the most performant university in Romania at the teaching and research unit level (or subcultures). Specifically, we investigated the behavioural manifestations of the university units' core values, basic

assumptions and beliefs as they were understood, shared, and perceived by the organizational members such as academics and researchers. Furthermore, we described the strength of the existing behavioural manifestations of the unit culture on the six dimensions stated by the Competing Values Model: (1) dominant characteristics; (2) organizational leadership; (3) management of employees; (4) organizational glue; (5) strategic emphases; and (6) success criteria. In line with Cameron and Ettington's work (1988), these six dimensions provided information that allowed us to describe the fundamental manifestations of the organizational culture of the university's teaching and research units by addressing basic assumptions (dominant characteristics, organizational glue), interaction patterns (leadership, management of employees), and organizational direction (strategic emphases, criteria of success) that typify the fundamentals of culture.

The results reveal that the overall culture profile of the teaching and research units consists in the mixture of the human relations (commitment, communication, development), adhocracy (innovative outputs, transformation, agility), market (market share, goal achievement, profitability), and hierarchy (efficiency, timeliness, consistency and uniformity) values. The relative strength of these four cultural types is low. This cultural profile is similar to those specific to organizations from public administration (Cameron & Quinn, 2011). The data shows that about 64% of these units have a type of mixed cultures.

The CVF theory suggests that culture types are expected to relate to different organizational effectiveness indicators as a function of their basic assumptions, values, and structures. The cultural mix, identified in more than 60% of the university's units, matches the environmental requirements. In the case of the university, and implicitly its units, the environmental requirements are various. As previously stated in this paper, universities are considered complex organizations with multiple objectives and standards in teaching, research, and community services that are forced by the changes in their environments to reflect on their functions in society (Kantanen, 2005). Thus, the university needs to be at the same time flexible (to initiate and adopt changes needed to its organization form) and oriented toward stability and control (to manage rapidly in an efficient and effective manner a high rate of external and internal changes, the consistency of the change in different

parts of the university is facilitated by delineating clear roles and procedures that are formally defined by rules and regulations). Simultaneously, as a result of the existing increased competition to attract more high-quality applicants, severe research funds cuts and strong globalization of education, university adopts a market orientation (Folch & Ion, 2009; Ressler & Abratt, 2009; Kallio, Kallio, Tienari, & Hyvönen, 2015). The university competes with other international and local organizations from various industries to attract highly talented job applicants and to keep them as committed, motivated, and satisfied employees. Thus, in order to be a good employer, the university needs to have an internally oriented control (e.g. the rewards procedures).

The presence of the mixed cultures in more than 60% of the units can be explained also by the particular mix of the scores of the six dimensions that reflect culture. The same strength of one culture type can be given by different combination of scores on cultural dimensions. Although the difference between the points/ scores awarded to the types of organizational culture is less than ten points and considering the rank of each culture type mean scores, we identified that hierarchical cultural elements received higher rates on some dimensions compared to those of other culture types. The inspection of the mean scores of the six dimensions used to describe each type of culture showed that the highest rank of the hierarchy culture was influenced by the score registered at the dimension of organizational leadership (M = 39.40). Also, in the case of 51.04% of the units, organizational leadership is based on values specific to hierarchy culture. Thus, formal leaders are considered as good coordinators, monitors, and organizers in order to ensure efficiency, timeliness, consistency and uniformity.

In terms of the congruence between the overall culture profile and the six cultural dimensions, we found that the overall culture profile with the predominance of the values of bureaucratic culture followed by the human relations/clan culture (**Figure 2**) was confirmed in three of the six cultural dimensions, namely, the current organizational leadership (**Figure 6**), strategic emphases (**Figure 12**) and success criteria (**Figure 14**). In the case of other two dimensions, namely, the dominant characteristics (**Figure 4**) and organization glue (**Figure 10**), the culture profile highlights the relative importance of market values.

Furthermore, in the case management of employees (**Figure 8**) the culture profile shows a relatively homogeneous mix of the four types of culture values. It seems that the perception of organization as a whole is more guided by the explicit theory of managerial action.

Moreover, these results permit the description of the fundamental manifestations of the university's teaching and research units' culture. The relative predominance of the market values in the case of the dominant characteristics and organizational glue cultural dimensions highlights the following basic assumptions about obtaining organizational effectiveness: achievement through aggressively competing and customer focus produces organizational effectiveness (Cameron & Quinn, 2011). Thus, the organization is very results-oriented. It is considered that people behave appropriately when they have clear objectives and are rewarded based on their achievements. Furthermore, the glue that holds the organizational unit together is the emphasis on achievement and goal accomplishment.

Information about the teaching and research units' organizational direction, as fundamental of culture, was revealed by the relative predominance of the hierarchical culture values on the following two cultural dimensions: strategic emphases and criteria of success. Thus, university's units emphasize permanence and stability through efficiency, control, and smooth operations and define success based on efficiency. In the organizational course of action, dependable delivery, smooth scheduling, and low - cost production is critical.

The interaction patterns existing within university's units are reflected on units' leadership and human resource management. We found that the leadership style is based predominantly on hierarchical values followed at a great distance by the human relation values. The management of employees is firstly based on clan culture values followed shortly by the market and hierarchy values. Considering these results, the organizational leadership style is internally oriented and emphasizes integration, being concerned with collaboration and control of the internal processes. Leaders are considered as good coordinators, monitors, and organizers but also as facilitators, mentors, and team builders. Furthermore, the means used to manage employees are the following: responding to the employees' needs, aligning human resources with business strategy, and reengineering organizational processes.

These results should be considered in the light of some limitations. Some critiques of the concepts measured by OCAI concern the fact that data about observable artefacts as elements of the surface level of the organizational culture are used to infer core values and basic assumptions. According to CVF statements, the four types of values about organizational effectiveness or the four types of culture represent opposite or competing assumptions. A different line of studies suggests that a complete description of organizational culture requires the separation of basic assumptions and core values as deep-level elements and each of these cultural elements should be both measured separately. Conceptualizations of the nature of relationships between these two cultural dimensions would be necessary in order to better describe organizational culture (Zohar & Hofmann, 2012).

VII. Conclusions

In this study, the Competing Values Model was employed to describe the culture, mainly behavioural manifestations/ artefacts existing in one of the most performant university in Romania at the organizational unit level (or subcultures). The results indicated that the average cultural profile of the analysed units comprises a combination of the four cultures in which relatively predominates hierarchy culture. Furthermore, the types of culture existing at the level of units are not fully invariant across the six cultural dimensions.

As a complex organization with multiple objectives and standards in teaching, research and community service, the investigated university is characterized by a cultural mix, identified in more than 60% of the university's units. Thus, the university manifests an internally oriented control, using enough centralization and formalization to assure its stability and continuity to obtain predictable performance outcomes. The university employees obey the management rules, but the academic managers are also recognized as good human relations leaders, using teamwork and employees' participation. At the same time, the university adopts a market orientation and is flexible enough to initiate structural changes, internal aligned, yet sensitive to a competitive complex environment.

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