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# Organizational Culture of the Public Sector. A Study of Romanian Public Organizations

Adrian HUDREA<sup>1</sup>, Ciprian TRIPON<sup>2</sup>

## Abstract

The present article is an attempt at analyzing Organizational Culture from the point of view of two separate theoretical models – Denison and Hofstede. It presents the results of two research studies, the former conducted on a sample of 15 public institutions, while the latter, on 6, all of them from Transylvania. The main conclusion of the article is that, despite what expert literature theories claim, organizational culture in the Romanian public sector is not greatly influenced by endo- and exogenous variables (here we are referring to only three dimensions, namely the size of the organization, the type of activity it performs, and its demographic, economic, cultural, and ethnic environment). In other words, we do not have specific and particular organizational cultures but a common one that can be termed *sectorial culture*. Of course, our claims are limited by the number of organizations we included in the research sample, and merely pave the way to more comprehensive research studies.

*Keywords:* organizational culture, sectorial culture, local public administration, public institutions, organizational identity, endogenous and exogenous organizational dimensions, theoretical anomalies.

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## Introduction

The concept of culture plays a very special role within any organization. The research conducted over almost thirty years, in various fields, such as sociology, anthropology, psychology, and, mostly, management –more specifically, change management - has shaped the essence of culture within the structure of organizations, with implications at the level of its members' beliefs, values, and behavior patterns. The present article is an attempt at analyzing organizational culture from the point of view of two separate theoretical models – Denison and Hofstede. It presents the results of two research studies (conducted between 2012 and 2014), the former conducted on a sample of 15 public institutions, while the latter, on 6, all of them from Transylvania. Our purpose is to test the statement of the literature that infers that organizational culture is influenced by organizational size, type of activity and immediate environment.

## Literature review

A significant number of definitions of organizational culture have done nothing if not emphasize the value of myths, symbols, values, beliefs, norms, and expectations, to organizational culture (Ott., 1989: 49-73). Kroeber and Klukhohn (1952) defined culture as a combination of patterns conveyed by values and ideas that shaped employees' behavior. This type of definition was valid for a lengthy period of time, but in the late '80s and the beginning of the '90s theories started to be refined to include the formal structures of organizations, as well. For instance, according to Uttal (1983), culture consisted of “shared values and beliefs that interact with the organizational structure and control systems and produce behavior norms” (Dumitrescu, 2012: 2). According to certain authors (Reichers & Schneider, 1990), interest and research in the field of organizational culture were stimulated by Pettigrew. In his article Pettigrew (1979) introduced the anthropological concept of culture, and showed how other linked concepts, such as symbolism, myth, ritual, and so on, may be used in studying organizations. The book *Corporate Cultures*, by Deal and Kennedy (1982), brought similar ideas into discussion. In spite of such popularity, a universal framework that was generally accepted in order to understand this concept was not yet developed in the '90s (Peterson & Spencer, 1991).

Expert literature shows that there is a certain lack of precision and agreement on the definition of culture. For instance, Martin and Siehl (1983: 53) defined it as “that which keeps the organization united through the sharing of patterns which supply meaning. Culture is based on values, certainties, and expectations that the members of the organization come to share”. Deal and Kennedy (1982) defined it as a set of implicit presumptions, meanings, and rules that governed the everyday

behavior in the workplace. For Fiol and Lyles (1985) culture represented a set of common certainties, ideologies, and norms, which influenced the actions of an organization; these actions were expressed through core ideologies and pre-set behavior patterns. Jelink, Smircich and Hirsch (1983) defined culture as an integrated framework that offered meaning to organizational life. Cooke and Rousseau (1988) believed that organizational culture included “the way of thinking, of behaving, and the certainties that the members of a certain organization share” (Cooke & Rousseau, 1988: 247). According to O’Reilly (1989: 12), organizational culture was simply “a potential social control system”.

Out of all theoretical models, the authors of the present article chose two (those of Hofstede and Denison) as basis for the research they conducted. The rationale of this choice is based on their notoriety and, most of all, their reliability, namely their capacity to analyze organizational behavior in a more detailed and accurate manner than other models and their fitting with our specific research intent (they correspond more closely with the organizational dimensions we set out to study).

### ***Geert Hofstede’s Model***

One of the most well-known definitions of organizational culture belongs to Hofstede (2010: 6) and defines it as „the collective programming of thought that separates one group member from the others”. However, Hofstede places a great emphasis in his research on the fact that individuals are able to re-model the „mental programming” they acquired over time and accept new ways of thinking, fact that enables them to eventually identify with the group they want to integrate in. In other words, organizational culture, as well as national culture, has its origins in history, contains myths, heroes, rituals and symbols developed around and from the organization’s values. It is the result of the interaction between social values (of the host culture) and those values specific to the organization. Hofstede introduces a difference here: if the national culture is defined by values and beliefs common to a certain geographical space organizational culture is defined by work-related practices created and supported by a specific organization. Therefore, organizational cultures can be perceived as subsystems of the national culture, a fact that explains the presence at organizational level of many of the national values. Hofstede’s model, in its current form, has six dimensions:

(1) *Individualism vs. Collectivism* – this dimension refers to the value placed upon individual deeds. In a predominantly individualistic society the links between its members are scarce, there is a great amount of freedom granted to each individual, and everybody can choose their own course of action and pursue their own goals. In a predominantly collectivistic society individuals cooperate in order to achieve common goals and their decisions and actions are often influenced by the positions of the other members of that particular society. *Organizational level*

- in a predominantly individualistic organization employees relate to their organization on a logical base; their commitment level is low and is determined by their own individual interests; as a consequence, the level of employees involvement in organizational activities not related to their personal needs is also low. In a predominantly collectivistic society individuals tend to relate to their organization on a moral base; the common good is highly valued; the employees trust the organization they work for and exhibit a high level of commitment and loyalty; the employees identify themselves with the organization;

(2) *Power Distance* - this dimension refers to the way in which society is treating inequality (social, economic, cultural, of chances, etc.); in other words we are talking about resource distribution. There are two types of societies: (a) societies that encourage increased power distance – the resource distribution system amplifies inequality and social distance and (b) societies that encourage reduced power distance - the resource distribution diminishes inequality and social distance. *Organizational level* - This particular dimension refers to certain organizational characteristics such as centralization, decision making process, formalization and vertical cooperation;

(3) *Uncertainty avoidance* – this dimension is based on how a society perceives time, what is more important, the past, the present or the future? From this point of view there are two extreme approaches: the *fatalistic view* that considers that the uncertainty brought by the future is just an intrinsic part of life and we cannot change that; and the *pragmatic view* – the future can be shaped by our actions in the present. Hence, two types of societies: (a) high tolerance toward risks, uncertainty is to be accepted because there are many things beyond our control and (b) low tolerance toward risks, uncertainty can be reduced and the level of control that we exert over our environment can be maximized. *Organizational level* - there are two types of organizations: (a) organizations that manifest a powerful tendency toward uncertainty avoidance and, as a consequence, place a lot of emphasis on planning (including long-term), rules, regulations and procedures in an effort to structure and control the organizational system; (b) organizations that manifest a more relaxed attitude toward uncertainty – little emphasis is placed on control and planning, the employees are encouraged to take risks and to embrace the unknown.

(4) *Masculinity vs. femininity* – this dimension refers to the division of social roles in accordance to gender. *Masculine* societies tend to value subordination (as in hierarchical relations), monetary gains and indifference toward others. *Feminine* societies tend to value cooperation, quality of life and protection of the environment; they believe that „small is beautiful, not big or huge” (Hofstede, 1990: 178). *Organizational level* - This dimension refers to the importance the employees attach to financial gains, merit recognition and various chances offered by the organization. In other words, we are talking about the reward system (in all

its forms, from salary to disciplinary actions), professional development, career management and leadership style.

(5) *Short Term (STO) vs. Long Term Orientation (LTO)* – refers to the importance of long/short terms goals and objectives for a society or an organization. *Societies with a short term orientation* tend to be consumerist societies and exhibit „respect for (...) the public image and the fulfilment of social obligations” (Hofstede & Hofstede, 2005: 210). On the other hand, *societies with a long term orientation* respect „perseverance, long but slow efforts (...), and individuals’ willingness to work for the achievement of a goal and their concern with social demands” (Hofstede & Hofstede, 2005: 212). *Organizational level* - Family and work are not two separate items in LTO organizations. The hierarchical structure is absolute, decisions are always top to bottom, relations are dictated by status and obedience is considered to be a virtue (see the Japanese *Zaibatsu*). The focus is on the harmony generated by respecting traditions and authority coupled with the respect shown for seriousness and effort. STO organizations appreciate innovation, entrepreneurship and initiative. Tradition and stability are important, yes, but only as tools for (and not against) economic growth. Success is important, first and foremost, everything else is subordinated to the efforts to be successful within your organization. Performance evaluation and control systems place a great deal of emphasis on getting results and the management values short term gains. Instant gratification is the goal, here and now is what is important, not a distant future.

(6) The last dimension, *the degree of indulgence vs. constraint*, refers to societies where the social actors have the freedom to pursue their own entertainment and fun and those where such endeavors are the subject of constraints from strict social norms (Hofstede, 2015). *Organizational level*: (a) The prevalence of rules within the workplace, the relations between procedures and the quality of life at the workplace; we are here to work not to have fun; we must work now if we are going to have a better life sometime in the future; (b) The subordination of every organizational resource (including those directly connected to the quality of life at the workplace) to the efforts to achieve results – the organization takes care of us because we must reach the established goals; (c) We are here in order to work for the good of the organization, which overshadows the good of individuals.

### ***Daniel Denison’s Model***

The model developed by Daniel R. Denison has a bottom-up approach, starting at the level of the employees in order to establish the cultural profile of the organization – defined as a result of all individual values and behaviors. Unlike Hofstede’s model, Denison focused mainly on the analysis and evaluation of organizational culture at the level of the whole organization. The bulk of his

research study was conducted on the impact of organizational culture on the organizations' performance and effectiveness over time, in a context in which many organizational culture researchers focused on the importance of values and beliefs, and on the way organizations developed these values and conveyed them to others. Graphically, Denison's model is represented by a straight-forward diagram (see *Figure 1*) that allows a fast comprehension and interpretation of organizational culture, with its four main dimensions.

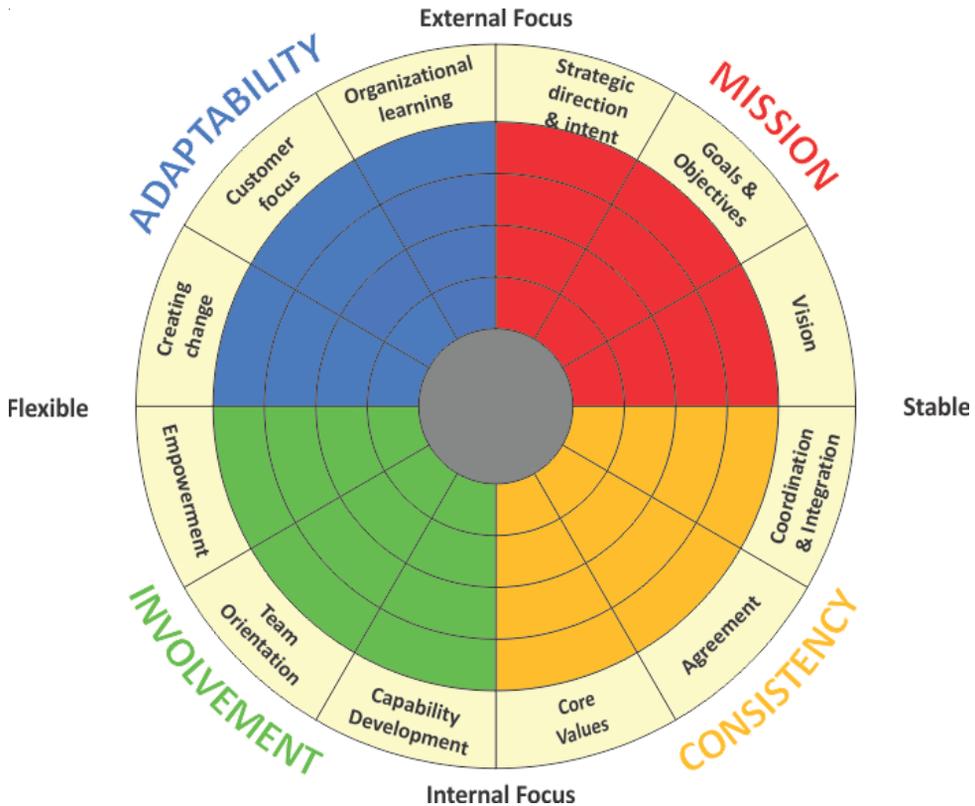


Figure 1. *The four dimensions of organizational culture – Own adaptation based on Denison (Denison Consulting, 2005)*

*Involvement* is one of the main conditions that organizations realized they had to fulfill and that, when exploited, led to success. Denison talked about two types of approach regarding involvement: on the one hand, involvement meant capability development, and the accountability of each individual to the smooth running of the organization; on the other hand, involvement led individuals to identify with the organization, and developed their sense of belonging, both of which greatly influenced the members' motivation.

Besides involvement, the development of a system of shared values, certainties, and symbols is highly important for any organization. Denison gathered these aspects under the umbrella of *Consistency* (Denison, 1990: 8-11) and emphasized the importance of a strong culture in reaching effectiveness. A system of beliefs, values, and symbols, which was accepted by all the members of the organization, has a positive impact on their ability to reach consensus. The first two cultural traits of Denison's model are all about the organizations' internal environment; the author believed that effective organizations seemed to combine the two principles – that of involvement and that of consistency. Involvement was used to generate ideas and solutions, which were then transposed into a more specific set of principles, accepted by all organization members. Measuring these two concepts should allow an overview of the degree of their internal integration.

*Adaptability* is necessary to any organization if effectiveness is to be reached; if the aspect of adaptability is not considered, we are dealing with a rigid, bureaucratic system, based on values and beliefs that are stability-oriented.

The last component of Denison's model is *Mission*. First of all, the Mission of an organization offers it meaning and purpose – implicitly, a purpose other than financial wellbeing, in order to understand the importance of work in an organization. In other words, it defines the social role of the organization. However, the role of the Mission is to also define the values on which the bureaucratic system relies, and that lead the actions of individuals towards reaching the organization's purpose, through the accomplishment of its objectives. Adaptability and Mission (Denison, 1990: 11-15) are dimensions that emphasize the organizations' capacity to adapt to their external environment.

## Methodology

The present article includes data from two research studies on the issue of organizational culture. They are based on different theoretical models (Denison and Hofstede), have different samples (even though there are overlaps regarding the public institutions included in our analysis), and were conducted in different time frames. The reason why we believed our research should be published together was that, despite all these differences, the conclusions inferred from the data gathered were surprisingly similar, as it can be seen in other published papers (Șandor & Tripon, 2015; Hudrea, 2014; Macarie, Crea & Tuță, 2008; Abrudan et al, 2015; Tripon, 2014; Macarie, Hîntea, & Mora, 2011, Șandor & Tripon, 2008). The hypothesis on which our whole endeavor relies refers to the need to test the validity of the claims of expert literature, which are that organizations build their own organizational culture, according to (among other elements that are not in scope for this research) their size, type, and environment (demographic, cultural, ethnic, and economic factors). We tested this hypothesis by choosing various

public institutions. City Halls, County Councils, and Prefectures all perform different types of activity, offer their clients different types of services; therefore, their organizational cultures should be different. Furthermore, the size of these organizations is different – as City Halls are larger than County Councils or Prefectures. Last but not least, the counties chosen are different from points of view that concern ethnicity (the proportion of Romanians/Hungarians), culture (different historical and ethnic backgrounds), and economy (both standards of living and economic appeal are quite different from one county to another). We will go on by making a brief description of the two research studies and of their methodology.

### ***Organizational culture research based on the Denison model***

This research study, conducted in 2014, set out to examine, using Denison's model, the organizational culture of 15 local public institutions (County Council, Prefecture and the City Hall of the county seat from five different counties: Cluj, Bistrița-Năsăud, Satu Mare, Covasna, and Sălaj), the following traits: (1) The type of organizational culture of each kind of organization (City Hall, Prefecture, County Council); (2) The cultural differences between the three kinds of organizations and their respective causes. We started from the assumption that the peculiarities of each of the three kinds of organizations (different tasks, different dimensions, different type of subordination, and so on) should be mirrored in significant changes in organizational culture; (3) The differences of organizational culture between each county's institutions. We started from the assumption that both national and local culture have an influence on organizational culture, and should, therefore, result in differences between the organizational cultures of, let's say, Bistrița Năsăud and Covasna, as the two geographical areas are culturally divergent; (4) The similarities between the 15 organizations. Is there a common profile of the organizational culture of local public administration? Can we speak of an organizational culture specific to Romanian public administration, regardless of the type of institution?

It is a quantitative research study that employs the method of questionnaire-based sociological survey. The questionnaire we used was a translated and adapted version of the one developed by Daniel Denison and his organization<sup>3</sup>. The questionnaire consists of 60 statements; the answer to each of them is on a 1 to 5 scale, where 1 means "strong disagreement" and 5 – "strong agreement". Each of the 12 dimensions of the Denison model (see Figure 1 above) is measured by 5 out of 60 statements of the questionnaire. The questionnaire also includes eight additional questions regarding age, gender, education level, seniority, and so on. The questionnaires were distributed to most of the employees of the 15 insti-

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<sup>3</sup> The instrument was provided to us by the organization led by Daniel Denison (Denison Consulting) together with the permission to use it for academic purposes.

tutions; the sample is a convenience sample, as no other type of sampling would have been possible (because of lack of resources, of cooperation of the institution, of their employees, and so on). A number of 534 questionnaires were filled in and returned, amounting to 22% of the total number of employees of the 15 organizations.

### ***Organizational culture research based on the Hofstede model***

General objective of this research: measuring the level and establishing the type of resistance to change an organization exhibits according to the nine organizational characteristics that comprise our theoretical model. For this present paper we will only use the data regarding organizational culture. Briefly, this is the theoretical model we constructed:

ORC= f (G, W, OS, OC, L, C, Sz., M, Com., Ex.), where:  
ORC – overall resistance to change (comprised of Subjective and Rational resistance to change)  
G – Goal  
W – Work  
OS – organizational structure (with its components formalization, complexity and centralization)  
OC – Organizational culture  
L – Leadership  
C – Conflicts (conflictual environment)  
Sz. – Size  
M – Motivation  
Com. – Communication  
Ex – Exogenous factors – social, economic and demographic variables of the three counties)

The theories the model is based on are as follows: Robbins – goals and structure (Robbins, 1996), Hackman, Lawler and Oldham – work (apud Jex & Britt, 2008), Hofstede (2005) – organizational culture (we used an earlier version of Hofstede’s model with only five dimensions), Blake and Mouton – leadership (apud Cole, 2004), Shephard – organizational conflict (apud Morgan, 2006), Hatch and Robbins – organizational size (Robbins, 1996; Hatch, 2006), Latham – motivation (apud Rice & Cooper, 2010), McShane and Von Glinow – organizational communication (McShane & Von Glinow, 2009). The sample was constructed in three stages. First, we chose the type of public institutions – we selected City Halls and County Councils because of their complex profile - the service they offer covers a wide range of activities. Second, we chose the actual public institutions we were going to research, our options being the City Halls from Cluj-Napoca, Satu Mare and Sfântu Gheorghe and the corresponding County Councils from the three counties. Finally, we randomly distributed 100 questionnaires in each organization. The timeframe for the research: 2012-2013.

Table 1. *Questionnaires per organizations*

Organization	No. of sent questionnaires	No. of distributed questionnaires	No. of completed questionnaires	Response rate (%)
Cluj-Napoca City Hall	100	100	39	39.00
Cluj County Council	100	100	54	54.00
Sfântu Gheorghe City Hall	100	85	44	51.76
Covasna County Council	100	87	56	64.36
Satu Mare City Hall	100	100	65	65.00
Satu Mare County Council	100	92	36	39.13
Total	600	564	294	52.13

The questionnaire is comprised of 95 questions. The first 83 of them are intended to analyze the theoretical model, the last 12 are identification questions (demographic, cultural, ethnic, social factors). The organizational characteristics were grouped in 18 dimensions. Each item was measured on a 5 items Likert scale. The value of each dimension is the mean of all that dimension’s items.

## Results

### *Organizational culture research based on the Denison model*

*City Halls.* Figure 2 shows a general overview of organizational culture for the five City Halls. A first observation would be the fact that there are no significant differences among them, and that none of them stands out in any way – quite the contrary, they almost overlap; their cultures are somewhat similar, and balanced, as none reached maximum or minimum rates on any dimension.



Figure 2. *Organizational culture of City Halls*

By analyzing the score of each City Hall, we noticed that they are all within the interval 3.01-3.78, meaning slightly above average, which, according to Denison's research (Denison D. , 1990; Denison, Haaland, & Goelzer, 2004), implies sound grounds for good performance. What is surprising is not only that all dimensions scored above average (we would have expected *customer focus*, at least, to score lower, given the nature of these institutions), but also the fact that there were no major differences between them, although they are in five separate counties, in separate geographical areas, with separate regional cultures.

*County Councils.* Figure 3 shows a general overview of organizational culture regarding the five County Councils. Once again, we witness an almost total overlap of the five cultures, as the differences actually seem smaller than in the case of City Halls; as shown above, there is a balance between the 12 dimensions in each case, with no major discrepancies.



Figure 3. Organizational cultures of County Councils (CC)

If we take a look at the score of each County Council, we will notice that they are all situated between 3.00-3.82, meaning slightly above average, a fact which, according to Denison's research (Denison D., 1990; Denison, Haaland, & Goelzer, 2004), represents sound grounds for good performance. The highest score was reached by the Bistria County Council, with a general average of 3.49 and with 5 highest-scoring dimensions; the lowest score was reached by the Covasna County Council, with an average of 3.25 and with 3 of the lowest scoring dimensions.

*Prefectures.* Figure 4 shows a general overview of organizational culture for the five Prefectures. We notice that all five cultures are extremely close to one another in the median area, with no major variances; the difference between the highest-rated and the lowest-rated Prefecture is quite small, but still visible on our graph.

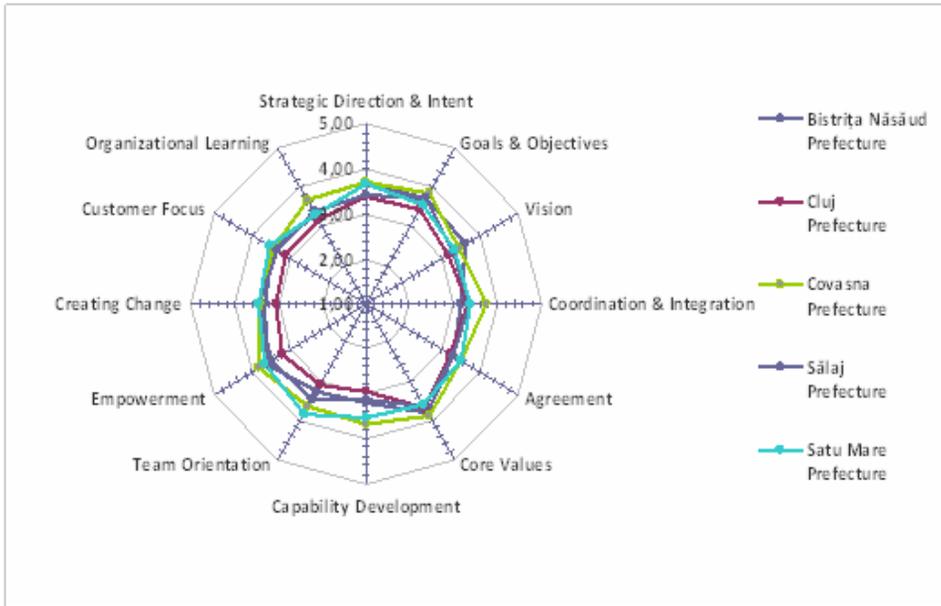


Figure 4. *Organizational culture of Prefectures*

*All organizations.* By analyzing all 15 organizations on a single graph (see Figure 5), it is plain to see, even without their respective scores, how much alike these cultures are. Not only do we have 15 lines that are quite hard to distinguish, but all 15 are also bundled in the same interval (2.9-3.9), namely the median one. All cultures are balanced, without high or low values, without a defining, dominant dimension.

The data becomes even clearer in Table 2, which shows that the difference between the total score of organizational culture of all the institutions studied is very small, from a statistical point of view, more specifically between 3.16 and 3.64. Therefore, we are talking about a variation of under 0.50 on a scale of 1 to 5. That cluster of values is extremely tight and, considering all the endo- and exogenous differences between the 15 organizations, unexpected.

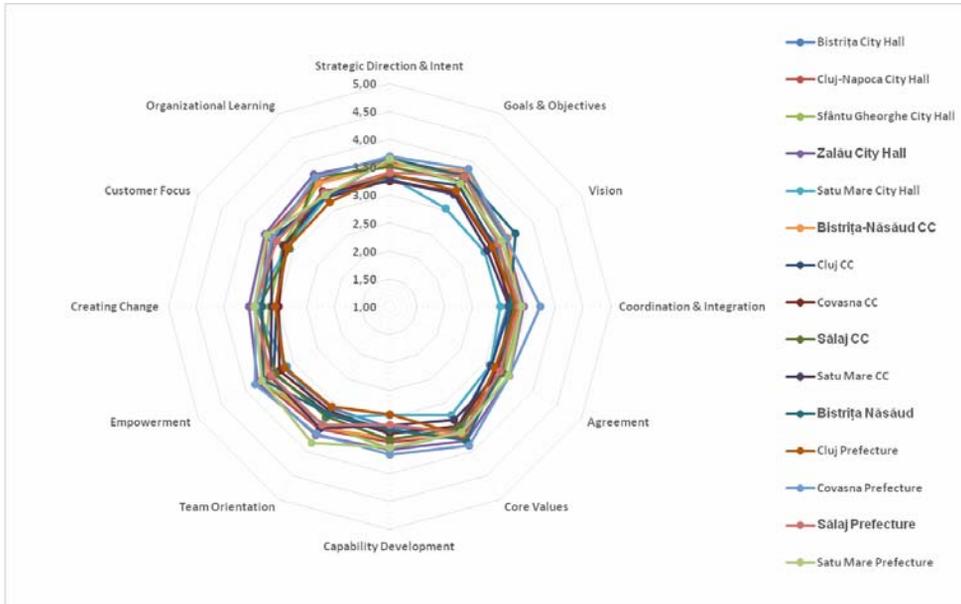


Figure 5. *Organizational culture of local public administration*

Table 2. *The total score of organizational cultures, according to type of institution*

No.	Type of institution	Total
1	Bistrița City Hall	3.22
2	Cluj-Napoca City Hall	3.51
3	Sfântu Gheorghe City Hall	3.48
4	Zalău City Hall	3.62
5	Satu Mare City Hall	3.16
6	Bistrița-Năsăud County Council	3.49
7	Cluj County Council	3.27
8	Covasna County Council	3.25
9	Sălaj County Council	3.39
10	Satu Mare County Council	3.29
11	Bistrița Năsăud Prefecture	3.44
12	Cluj Prefecture	3.22
13	Covasna Prefecture	3.64
14	Sălaj Prefecture	3.41
15	Satu Mare Prefecture	3.53

Surprisingly enough, our hypothesis (that organizational culture was influenced by local culture and peculiarities, as well as by the size of the organization) was not confirmed, as all three types of organizations (City Halls, County Councils, and Prefectures) had similar organizational culture traits, regardless of the county (host culture) they came from, as well as of their size. There are indeed some dissimilarities, but they are not noteworthy. Romanian local public administrations seems to have a common culture, perhaps a bureaucratic culture that is

specific rather to the system than to a certain institution, or region; moreover, it does not seem influenced by factors such as size or type of activity, either.

**Organizational culture research based on the Hofstede model**

Of all the information collected only the data pertinent to the topic of this paper are presented in the following pages, as can be seen in *Table 3*.

Table 3. *Organizational culture’s values per each institution*

No.	Dimension	Cluj City Hall	Cluj County Council	Sfântu Gheorghe City Hall	Covasna County Council	Satu Mare City Hall	Satu Mare County Council	Total
1.	Individualism vs. Collectivism	2.84	2.69	2.63	2.62	2.74	2.84	2.72
2.	Femininity vs. Masculinity	3.17	3.13	3.16	3.15	3.14	3.01	3.13
3.	Uncertainty Avoidance	2.72	2.67	2.87	2.83	2.97	2.75	2.80
4.	Power Distance	3.10	3.07	3.00	2.98	3.10	3.05	3.05
5.	Long Term vs. Short Term Orientation	3.41	3.53	3.67	3.64	3.39	3.55	3.53

According to the data Satu Mare County Council registers the highest scores on Individualism/Collectivism, Cluj City Hall on Femininity/Masculinity, Covasna County Council on Uncertainty Avoidance, Cluj City Hall on Power Distance and Sfântu Gheorghe City Hall on Short Term/Long Term Orientation. There is no pattern to the data, no type of institution is consistently scoring higher or lower on any dimension. Taking the analysis a step further we compared the aggregated overall scores for organizational cultures for all our organizations. As shown in *Table 4* all of them are in the vicinity of the arithmetical mean for a 5 steps Likert scale, inside the 3.0-3.1 interval. Again, no specificity for any organization, no particular and individualized organizational culture.

Table 4. *The organizational culture’ values per institutions – means*

Cluj City Hall	Cluj County Council	Sfântu Gheorghe City Hall	Covasna County Council	Satu Mare City Hall	Satu Mare County Council	Total
3.05	3.02	3.07	3.04	3.07	3.04	3.05

Regarding our hypothesis, the data proves that: (1) There are no significant differences among institutions in accordance to their environment (Cluj, Satu Mare and Covasna counties have different demographic, ethnic, economic and cultural features but the scores for their county councils organizational culture do not vary significantly); (2) There is no clear and distinct cultural profile per type and size of institution (one cannot identify specific organizational cultures for county councils or City Halls, nor is there a difference linked to organizational size) and (3) All the analyzed organizations have closely grouped scores, close to the arithmetic means, which implies that they do not have a clear, well defined and articulated organizational culture. This last statement is subject to discussion, it can be that data corruption due to respondents' unwillingness to deviate from the perceived social desirability model influenced their answers and thus created the image of an amorphous organizational culture, common for all six institutions. However, we tried to control this tendency by employing one (out of five) reverse-valued question for each dimension so it is likely that the answers reflect the truth of the matter. All in all, we can say that our initial hypothesis is not supported by the data.

## Conclusions

This paper presents the findings of two researches regarding the organizational culture of several Romanian public institutions. Our aim was to test a hypothesis that postulated that there will be (significant) differences among these institutions, according to their size, type/activity and immediate environment. Based on the data analyzed in the previous pages, the hypothesis was proven wrong, there being no discernable patterns of organizational culture that can be connected to the three variable mentioned above. In other words, we have a model of organizational culture that seems to be specific not for a particular institution but rather for an entire system. It would seem that we do not have individual organizational cultures but something that we can term "sectorial culture" – its specificity seems to be due to the field which all these organizations function in (the public sector) rather than to the organizational characteristics we studied (there are several possible explanations for this state of facts, but the aim of our article is to only present these findings).

This statement could be challenged on various grounds (data corruption due to social desirability, the number of cases taken into consideration was too small, too few institutions were analyzed, possible inconsistency in the data gathering instruments, employment of different theoretical models might have produced other results, etc.) and it is the intention of the authors to continue the research, to expand its sample and scope, in an effort to further study the organizational profile of Romanian public institutions.

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