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The influence of authoritarian organizational culture in the South Korean civil service

Organization of land management, organization management,
human resource management, healthcare and social welfare

JUNGHO, PARK



Dr. ADRIAN CAMPBELL

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**International Development Department
School of Government and Society
University of Birmingham**

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Abstract

In earlier work by the author, human resource management in the South Korean public sector was analysed in terms of professionalism, sustainability, transparency, motivation and support systems (Park, 2015). One finding was that when the central government establishes and introduces a new system in the public sector, even though the new system has limitations and the majority of staff know the limitations they rarely report them to their seniors or the central government for solution. The earlier study suggested that the finding may originate from an organizational culture based on military style.

Many civil servants have also pointed out the necessity of escape from an administrative culture based on authoritarianism for advanced administration, but the administrative culture has not been improved, according to surveys conducted between 2007 and 2016 (Kim, 2016). As for authoritarian organizational culture, this study also has referred to experience of military service, the past military regime, Confucianism, the East Asian model and Asian values. From this point of view, this study has reviewed authoritarian organizational culture conceptually and analysed the nature and effects of organizational culture in the South Korean civil service in terms of authoritarianism.

For this study, there are five research questions: (1) What is the nature of authoritarian organizational culture?; (2) To what extent is authoritarian organizational culture present in the South Korean civil service?; (3) What are the effects of authoritarian organizational culture in the South Korean civil service?; (4) Has authoritarian organizational culture changed in the South Korean civil service?; and (5) How does authoritarian organizational culture operate in the South Korean civil service?

Authoritarian organizational culture has been conceptualized in terms of collectivism, Confucianism, paternalism and bureaucracy in this study. Based on the conceptual approach, the key element of authoritarian organizational culture is hierarchy and conformity. In particular, the top-down approach is strong, while the bottom-up approach is weak in the hierarchical structure. Aside from the two key elements, other elements are also involved in authoritarian organizational culture such as loyalty, respect, group orientation, expertise, and power and resource inequality.

When beginning this study, finding a strong authoritarian organizational culture in the South Korean civil service was expected. According to the findings, however, the organizational culture in the South Korean civil service is not as authoritarian as civil servants think, although the civil service does have some residual authoritarian characteristics. Around 70% of the respondents said that the South Korean civil service shows authoritarian tendencies, when asked directly. However, the response in most general scenarios showed flexible and reasonable tendencies. On the other hand, the response in more serious scenarios, such as the *audit* scenario, did show authoritarian tendencies.

Over 80% of the survey respondents perceived authoritarian organizational culture negatively. Inefficiency, low morale, lack of creativity and communication, and risk of corruption and improper decision-making were also referred to as negative effects. On the other hand, positive effects were also pointed out, such as rapidity, efficiency, convenience, high morale, organization management and cohesion of professional or small groups. Efficiency and morale were referred to from both negative and positive perspectives.

Over 60% of the survey respondents in this study said that the organizational culture in the South Korean civil service has changed towards a flexible culture. On the other hand, one finding suggested that recently the younger generation has shown authoritarian tendencies, while the organizational culture has changed from an authoritarian to a flexible style. Given the two perspectives, it could be argued that organizational culture has changed from an authoritarian to a flexible organizational culture but the change does not mean that younger staff are less authoritarian than older staff.

Political elements and promotion are deeply related with the operation of authoritarian organizational culture. For instance, elections are of paramount importance to politicians and certain interest groups are highly influential in elections. In the relationship between politicians and interest groups, politicians ask for the support of interest groups during an election period. After the elections, the group demands protection and expansion of their interests from the (elected) politicians, and the elected politicians, with the support of the interest group, instruct civil servants to meet these demands directly and indirectly. In the civil service, compliance with instructions from the top level is highly important because it affects not only current but also future human resource affairs directly or indirectly, such as promotion, disciplinary measures and transfer. In order to be promoted or not to suffer disadvantages, civil servants

follow even political or controversial instructions, which eventually strengthens and maintains the authoritarian organizational culture in the civil service.

In particular, there are more possibilities for authoritarian organizational culture to work through promotion and political elements at the senior level than the junior level. There are few possibilities for politics and promotion to be used to maintain and reinforce authoritarianism at the junior level because there are many positions at junior levels and junior civil servants can be promoted without political elements. On the other hand, there are comparatively more possibilities for politics and promotion to be used to maintain and reinforce authoritarianism at the senior level. The senior has more authority and power than the junior, while senior positions are few. Therefore, political elements could be deeply involved in promotion to senior positions, although not all promotions at the senior levels are closely related with political elements. In addition, some civil servants could prepare for or consider political activities, such as running for election for a certain political party.

Table of Contents

1. Introduction	1
1.1. Research background	1
1.2. Research questions and objectives	4
1.3. Structure	6
2. Literature review	9
2.1. The concept of culture	9
2.1.1. Culture	9
2.1.2. National culture	10
2.1.3. Organizational culture	14
2.1.4. The formation of organizational culture	18
2.1.5. Conclusion	19
2.2. The concept of authoritarian organizational culture	21
2.2.1. Collectivism	23
2.2.2. Confucianism	25
2.2.3. Paternalism	28
2.2.4. Bureaucracy	32
2.2.5. Conclusion	35
2.3. The concept of flexible organizational culture	38
2.3.1. Adhocracy culture	38
2.3.2. Post-bureaucracy	41
2.3.3. Neo-Weberian state	44
2.3.4. Individualism	46
2.3.5. Conclusion	48
2.4. Change of organizational culture	51

2.4.1. Necessity of organizational culture change	51
2.4.2. Process of organizational culture change	55
2.4.3. Difficulties of organizational culture change	58
2.4.4. Conclusion	61
2.5. Organizational culture in the South Korean public sector	63
2.5.1. National culture in South Korea.....	63
2.5.2. Organizational culture in the public sector	65
2.5.3. Organizational culture in the South Korean public sector	70
2.5.4. Conclusion	73
2.6. Conclusion	75
3. Methodology.....	76
3.1. Research design	76
3.2. Research method	78
3.3. Sampling	85
3.4. Method of analysis	90
3.5. Ethical considerations	93
3.6. Fieldwork	94
4. Overview of survey and interviews	99
4.1. Introduction	99
4.2. Overview of survey	99
4.3. Overview of interviews	104
4.4. Discussion	108
4.5. Conclusion	109

5. Authoritarian organizational culture	111
5.1. Introduction	111
5.2. The degree of authoritarian organizational culture	111
5.3. The case of authoritarian organizational culture	128
5.3.1. The <i>department dinner</i> scenario	128
5.3.2. The <i>meeting time</i> scenario	132
5.3.3. The <i>getting off work</i> scenario	135
5.3.4. The <i>different opinions from boss</i> scenario.....	138
5.3.5. The <i>budget</i> scenario	144
5.3.6. The <i>audit</i> scenario	152
5.4. Discussion	156
5.5. Conclusion	157
6. The effect of authoritarian organizational culture	159
6.1. Introduction	159
6.2. The perception of authoritarian organizational culture	159
6.3. The positive and negative effect on authoritarian organizational culture	169
6.4. The change of authoritarian organizational culture	178
6.5. The element of the change of authoritarian organizational culture	186
6.6. Discussion	198
6.7. Conclusion	199
7. The operation of authoritarian organizational culture	200
7.1. Introduction	200
7.2. Elements of operation of authoritarian organizational culture	200
7.3. Process of operation of authoritarian organizational culture	212
7.4. Discussion	216

7.5. Conclusion	217
8. Conclusion	219
8.1. What is the nature of authoritarian organizational culture?	219
8.2. To what extent is authoritarian organizational culture present in the South Korean civil service?	220
8.3. What are the effects of authoritarian organizational culture in the South Korean civil service?	221
8.4. Has authoritarian organizational culture changed in the South Korean civil service?	221
8.5. How does authoritarian organizational culture operate in the South Korean civil service?	222
8.6. Conclusion	223
Bibliography	225
Appendix I: The degree of AOC	251
Appendix II: The perception of AOC	258
Appendix III: The change of AOC	265
Appendix IV: Survey	271
Appendix V: Interviews	285

List of Tables

[Table 2.1.1] Five dimensions of national culture	11
[Table 2.1.2] Three levels of organizational culture.....	16
[Table 2.1.3] The four types of organizational culture	17
[Table 2.2.1] The main elements of collectivism	23
[Table 2.2.2] The five relationships in Confucianism	25
[Table 2.2.3] The key values of Confucianism	27
[Table 2.2.4] Characteristics of paternalism	29
[Table 2.2.5] Three factors of paternalistic leadership	32
[Table 2.2.6] Characteristics of bureaucracy by Max Weber	33
[Table 2.3.1] Adhocracy culture.....	39
[Table 2.3.2] Characteristics of adhocracy culture.....	40
[Table 2.3.3] Bureaucracy vs post-bureaucracy	42
[Table 2.3.4] Characteristics of post-bureaucracy	43
[Table 2.3.5] Key elements of neo-Weberian state.....	45
[Table 2.3.6] Positive and negative elements of individualism	48
[Table 2.4.1] Elements that cause organizational culture change.....	52
[Table 2.4.2] Elements affecting change of organizational culture in the public sector.....	52
[Table 2.4.3] The process of organizational culture change	57
[Table 2.4.4] Difficulties of organizational culture change	60
[Table 3.1.1] Definitions of research design.....	76
[Table 3.1.2] Types of research design.....	77
[Table 3.1.3] Typical types of research design.....	78
[Table 3.2.1] Methods of data collection.....	79
[Table 3.2.2] Mixed method research.....	80
[Table 3.2.3] Main types of survey and associated methods	81
[Table 3.2.4] The advantages and disadvantages of surveys	82
[Table 3.2.5] Types of interviews.....	83

[Table 3.2.6] The four types of interview	84
[Table 3.2.7] The advantages and disadvantages of interviews.....	85
[Table 3.3.1] Types of sampling.....	86
[Table 3.3.2] Consideration for decision on sample size.....	87
[Table 3.3.3] The South Korean administrative district.....	87
[Table 3.3.4] Errors in the process of sampling.....	90
[Table 3.5.1] Ethical issues.....	94
[Table 4.2.1] Overview of survey respondents.....	103
[Table 4.3.1] Overview of interviews.....	106
[Table 4.4.1] Civil servants working for over 20 years.....	108
[Table 5.2.1] Degree of authoritarian organizational culture in the South Korean civil service.....	111
[Table 5.2.2] Independent-samples T-test	112
[Table 5.2.3] Age.....	116
[Table 5.2.4] Levels of education.....	117
[Table 5.2.5] Work place.....	118
[Table 5.2.6] Position	121
[Table 5.2.7] Total work period.....	123
[Table 5.2.8] Work type	124
[Table 5.2.9] Current work period.....	127
[Table 5.3.1] Department dinner	130
[Table 5.3.2] Meeting time	133
[Table 5.3.3] Getting off work.....	136
[Table 5.3.4] Different opinions from bosses I.....	139
[Table 5.3.5] Different opinions from bosses II	142
[Table 5.3.6] Budget I.....	145
[Table 5.3.7] Budget II	147
[Table 5.3.8] Budget III	150
[Table 5.3.9] Audit	153
[Table 6.2.1] Perception of authoritarian organizational culture	160
[Table 6.2.2] Independent-samples T-test	160

[Table 6.2.3] Age.....	163
[Table 6.2.4] Levels of education.....	164
[Table 6.2.5] Work place.....	164
[Table 6.2.6] Positions.....	166
[Table 6.2.7] Total work period.....	166
[Table 6.2.8] Type of work.....	167
[Table 6.2.9] Current work period.....	168
[Table 6.4.1] Perception of change of organizational culture.....	179
[Table 6.4.2] Independent-samples T-test	179
[Table 6.4.3] Age.....	181
[Table 6.4.4] Levels of education.....	182
[Table 6.4.5] Work place.....	183
[Table 6.4.6] Positions.....	183
[Table 6.4.7] Total work period.....	184
[Table 6.4.8] Type of work.....	185
[Table 6.4.9] Current work period.....	185

List of Figures

[Figure 1.3.1] The structure of the study	8
[Figure 2.1.1] The competing value framework	17
[Figure 2.2.1] Collectivism vs Confucianism vs Paternalism vs Bureaucracy vs Authoritarianism	22
[Figure 2.2.2] The relationship among Collectivism vs Confucianism vs Paternalism vs Bureaucracy vs Authoritarianism	36
[Figure 2.3.1] The relationship among flexible organizational culture vs adhocracy culture vs post-bureaucracy vs neo-Weberian state vs individualism	49
[Figure 2.4.1] Relationship between change of organizational and exogenous, endogenous and overlapping elements.....	55
[Figure 2.4.2] Change of organizational culture	62
[Figure 3.3.1] Sampling of this study	88
[Figure 3.4.1] Process of analysis.....	91
[Figure 6.5.1] Elements of change of authoritarian organizational culture	197
[Figure 7.2.1] Elements of operation of authoritarian organizational culture.....	211

Chapter 1

Introduction

1.1 Research background

In earlier work by the author, human resource management in the South Korean public sector was analysed in terms of professionalism, sustainability, transparency, motivation and support systems (Park, 2015). In the study, one finding was that when the central government establishes a new system and introduces it to the public sector, even though the new system has limitations and the majority of staff know these limitations, they rarely report them to their senior or the central government for resolution. The earlier study suggested that the finding may originate from an authoritarian organizational culture based on military style. The top-down approach is strong in the hierarchical structure of the civil service, while a bottom-up approach is rare.

Public sector reform has been identified as emerging from authoritarianism in South Korea. Kim (2016) conducted a survey of civil servants in central and local government. Especially, in order to improve the quality and efficiency of public administration, most respondents in 2016 (21.7%) said that the administrative culture based on authoritarianism needs to change. On the same issue in 2013, most respondents (21.3%) also said that the administrative culture based on authoritarianism needs to change. In 2010 the second-largest percentage of respondents, accounting for 18.4%, and in 2007 the third-largest percentage of respondents, accounting for 13.0%, said a change of the administrative culture based on authoritarianism was required in order to improve quality and efficiency of public administration. The responses in 2016, 2013, 2010 and 2007 suggest that the administrative culture based on authoritarianism in the civil service has caused ineffective administration. However, the culture has not been changed and the degree of authoritarianism in the civil service has in fact been reinforced.

Ko *et al.* (2007) analysed authoritarianism in central government between 1971 and 2006. They argue that the degree of authoritarian characteristics has changed from high to medium levels but that authoritarianism still exists in central government.

Cho and Lee (2001) compare managers' perceptions and attitudes between the public sector and private sector in South Korea. They argue that managers in the public sector show stronger centralized tendencies than in the private sector, and managers in the public sector are more satisfied than managers in the private sector in terms of job prestige.

It could be argued that experience of military service affects authoritarian organizational culture. Men in South Korea must undertake military service, except in a few cases. Since the end of the Korean War in 1953, a conscription system has been implemented. Initially, the period of military service was 3 years, while more recently the period has been for less than 2 years. Although the period of military service has decreased, it could be argued that the experience impacts the organizational culture in the civil service.

It could be argued that there are more male civil servants than female civil servants in senior positions, which maintains an authoritarian organizational culture in the civil service with men's experience of military service. Senior staff in the civil service are predominantly people born in the 1960s. The generation born in the 1960s started their career in the 1980s, and women's prominence in social, economic and political activities was less common at that time. Recently, the participation of women in social, economic and political activities has increased and the position of women in society has become higher. However, there are still few women in senior positions in the civil service. Therefore, it could be argued that an authoritarian organizational culture is still prevalent in the civil service.

Aside from the experience of military service, authoritarian organizational culture could be approached in terms of the modern history of South Korea. Korea was colonized and exploited by Japan for 35 years between 1910 and 1945. Korea became independent in 1945 after the Second World War and the fall of Japan, but was divided into South and North Korea. The US military government ruled over the southern part of the Korean peninsula, while the Soviet Union military government ruled over the northern part until the South and North governments were established in 1948.

In 1961, Park Jung-Hee staged a military coup and seized power and control in South Korea. In 1963, Park Jung-Hee was elected president and the regime showed strong centralized characteristics based on the military. In 1972, Park Jung-Hee amended the Constitution to enable a prolonged one-man rule, including the indirect election system for presidential elections, and was elected president based on this amended Constitution. The strongly

centralized regime under Park Jung-Hee lasted until he was assassinated by the director of the central intelligence agency in 1979.

After the assassination, there was another military coup in 1979, when Chun Doo-Whan seized power and control in South Korea. In 1980, Chun Doo-Whan was elected president through the indirect election system and then amended the Constitution again to lay the foundation for a prolonged one-man rule. However, through a continuous pro-democracy movement in the 1980s, the Constitution was amended in 1987 and the military regime of Chun Doo-Whan ended in 1988.

In 1988, Roh Tae-Woo was elected president based on the new Constitution, including the direct election system, but he had been deeply involved in the military coup with Chun Doo-Whan in 1979. Therefore, it is argued that the military government continued until the next president was elected in 1993. Heady (1992: 330) argues that even after the 1990s, politicians and scholars with military backgrounds have dominated government (Cho and Lee, 2001: 88). In 2013, Park Geun-Hye, a daughter of Park Jung-Hee, was elected president, which suggests that politicians and scholars with military backgrounds still tend to be influential in the government even in the 2010s. In terms of national culture, Cho and Lee (2001: 87–88) also refer to the experience of the centralized military regime and Cho and Yoon (2001: 71–72) point out the military dictatorial regime under Park Jung-Hee as the origins of South Korean corporate culture.

Considering all the above, it is argued that South Korea was directly under a military regime for around three decades and the influence has persisted in South Korean society, even after the regime's official end.

The authoritarian organizational culture in the South Korean civil service could be explained in terms of the legacy of Confucianism. In Confucianism, there are five relationships: ruler–subject; father–child; husband–wife; older–younger; and friend–friend. Loyalty of the subject to her or his ruler is highlighted in the relationship between ruler and subject, which could be viewed in terms of the civil service. In addition, the vertical relationship is emphasized in the relationship between father and child, husband and wife, and older and younger.

Confucianism prevails in East and Southeast Asian countries such as Korea, Japan, Singapore and China (Turner and Halligan, 1999; Robertson, 2000; Park *et al.*, 2005; Wang *et al.*, 2005; Suen *et al.*, 2007). The above countries tend to favour a strong, top-down management style. In particular, Turner and Halligan (1999: 140) argue that South Korea is the most Confucian

state. Base and Rowley (2001: 411), Cho and Lee (2001: 87–88), Lee (2001: 1–2) and Rowley *et al.* (2004: 923–924) also refer to Confucianism in terms of South Korean national culture. Base and Rowley (2001: 411) argue that Confucianism was prevalent in Korea between the fourteenth and nineteenth centuries. While both Japan and America influenced Korea in the twentieth century, Confucian values and their influence have continued in the country. Given the above, it is argued that the South Korean national culture based on Confucianism has affected the authoritarian organizational culture in the civil service.

Broadly, authoritarian organizational culture could be interpreted based on the East Asian model and Asian values. From the mid-1960s to the 1990s, East Asian countries such as South Korea, Hong Kong, Taiwan and Singapore achieved dramatic economic growth (Word Bank, 1993: 1). With this growth, the East Asian model began to attract attention to and to be reviewed. In terms of the East Asian model, Cline (1982: 81) points out the export-led developmental strategy of the government and Jomo (2001: 2–3) refers to the important role of the government in the economic growth, based on the Word Bank (1993). The East Asian model could be understood as a government-led and export-oriented economic development system.

Thompson (2004: 1079) refers to the authoritarian characteristics of Asian values. Based on Lee Kuan Yew, Barr (2000: 309) points out the paternalistic characteristics of Asian values and Dalton and Ong (2005: 211) mention Confucianism-based Asian values. Hill (2000: 187) also refers to Confucianism as a key element in Asian values based on Lee Kuan Yew. Approaches to Asian values are somewhat different, but they could be interpreted in terms of authoritarianism.

In this context, this study will analyse organizational culture in the South Korean civil service, especially in terms of authoritarianism. Finding a strong authoritarian culture in the South Korean civil service is expected, but some findings in this study are somewhat different.

1.2 Research questions and objectives

The research questions are divided into five parts and they are as follows:

1. What is the nature of authoritarian organizational culture?
2. To what extent is authoritarian organizational culture present in the South Korean civil service?
3. What are the effects of authoritarian organizational culture in the South Korean civil service?
4. Has authoritarian organizational culture changed in the South Korea civil service?
5. How does authoritarian organizational culture operate in the South Korean civil service?

The hypothesis is that the organizational culture in the South Korean civil service is authoritarian and authoritarian organizational culture affects the civil service negatively. The purpose of this study is to review authoritarian organizational culture conceptually and analyse the nature and effects of organizational culture in the South Korean civil service in terms of authoritarianism.

The specific objectives of this study are to review what authoritarian organizational culture is, how prevalent authoritarian organizational culture is in the South Korean civil service, how authoritarian organizational culture affects the South Korean civil service, the current trends in organizational culture, and how authoritarian organizational culture operates.

In particular, this study investigates land management, human resource management, organization management, healthcare and social welfare organizations in central and local government to reflect organizational culture in the South Korean civil service fully. Staff in land management undertake regulatory-based work such as permission for development and construction, and staff in human resource management and organization management are responsible for internal-based work such as training, personnel transfers and reorganization. Staff in healthcare and social welfare perform service provision-based work such as free health checks and subsidy support for low-income groups.

This study is designed based on a mix of case and comparative study, and both surveys and interviews were adopted in order to collect the primary data.

1.3 Structure

The study consists of four parts: literature review, methodology, the South Korean case and the conclusion, as shown in [Figure 1.3.1]. In the literature review, culture, authoritarian organizational culture, flexible organizational culture and change of organizational culture are reviewed conceptually, and organizational culture in the South Korean public sector is also examined.

The concept of culture is reviewed in terms of culture, national culture, organizational culture and formation of organizational culture. The concept of authoritarian organizational culture is approached based on collectivism, Confucianism, paternalism and bureaucracy, while the concept of flexible organizational culture is investigated from the perspectives of adhocracy culture, post-bureaucracy, the new-Weberian state and individualism. The change of organizational culture is examined in terms of necessities, process and difficulties. As for the organizational culture in the South Korean public sector, the national culture in South Korea, organizational culture in the public sector and organizational culture in the South Korean public sector are investigated.

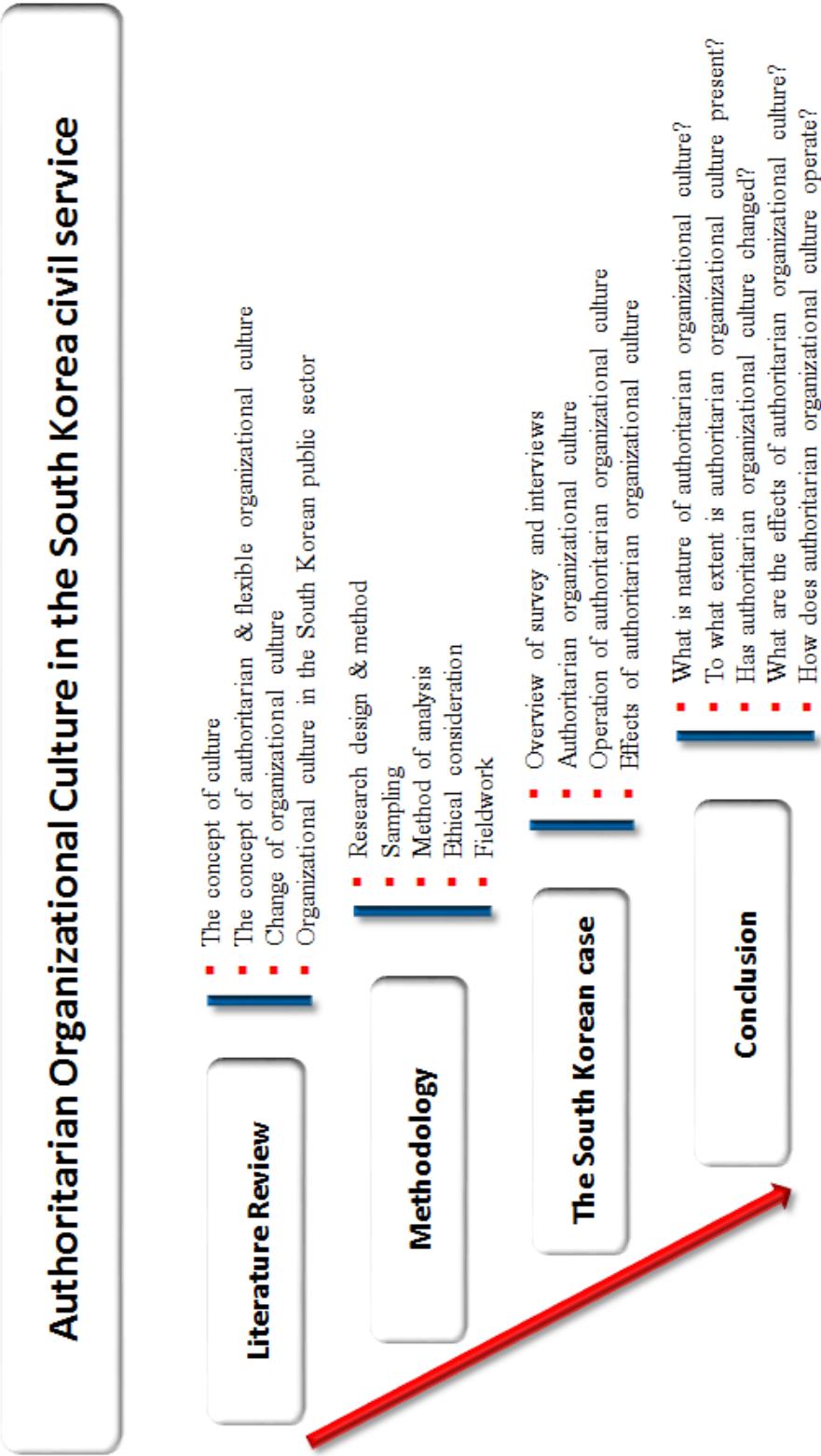
The methodology part comprises research design, research method, sampling, method of analysis, ethical considerations and fieldwork. The research design, research method, sampling, method of analysis and ethical considerations are mainly reviewed based on related theories. On the other hand, in the fieldwork, the process of collecting data through surveys and interviews for this study is explained empirically.

There are four parts analysing the South Korean case: an overview of survey and interviews, authoritarian organizational culture, effects of authoritarian organizational culture and operation of authoritarian organizational culture.

The data collected through survey and interviews for this study is reviewed before analysis and interpretation of that data is performed. In the part on authoritarian organizational culture, the degree of authoritarian organizational culture in the South Korean civil service is analysed by survey and interviews. Responses to both direct and scenario-based survey questions are mainly analysed and interviews are interpreted as part of the analysis. The effects of authoritarian organizational culture are also investigated by survey and interviews. The perception of authoritarian organizational culture is examined by survey, and both the positive and negative effects of authoritarian organizational culture are reviewed by interviews. In addition, the change of authoritarian organizational culture is explored by survey and its

elements are examined by interviews. The operation of authoritarian organizational culture is explored by interviews. In particular, elements and processes of the operation of authoritarian organizational culture are analysed.

The conclusion is in line with the research questions of this study: (1) What is the nature of authoritarian organizational culture?; (2) To what extent is authoritarian organizational culture present in the South Korean civil service?; (3) What are the effects of authoritarian organizational culture in the South Korean civil service?; (4) Has authoritarian organizational culture changed in the South Korean civil service?; and (5) How does authoritarian organizational culture operate in the South Korean civil service?



[Figure 1.3.1] The structure of the study

Chapter 2

Literature review

2.1 The concept of culture

In this part, the concept of culture is reviewed broadly. Not only culture but also national and organizational culture are reviewed theoretically. Aside from the concept of culture, the formation of organizational culture is also examined. The findings and analysis form the foundation of this study on authoritarian organizational culture in the South Korean civil service.

2.1.1 Culture

According to Parsons and Shils (1951), culture is ‘shared characteristic of a high-level social system’ (Shore and Venkatachalam, 1996: 20). Hofstede and Bond (1988) define it as ‘the collective programming of the mind that distinguishes the members of one category of people from those of another’ (Chui *et al.*, 2002: 101). Schneider (1989: 152) argues that the definition of culture is ‘a system of shared assumptions that have developed over time to solve problems of environmental adaption and internal integration’, based on Schein (1985) and van Maanen and Barley (1983). Erez and Earley (1993) say that culture is ‘shared values of a particular group of people’ (Shore and Venkatachalam, 1996: 20).

Aside from the above, there are many definitions of culture (Smircich, 1983: 339: 2; Schneider, 1987: 3; Tayeb, 1994: 430; Tharp, 2009; Mousa and Alas, 2016: 2; Abbas *et al.*, 2017: 3; Laskovaia *et al.*, 2017: 690; Meng *et al.*, 2018: 2; Tian *et al.*, 2018: 1089-1090). Deshpande *et al.* (1989: 5) and Tharp (2009: 3) insist that there were 164 definitions of culture at least by the 1950s based on the research performed by Kroeber and Kluckhohn (1952). Even after the 1950s, the concept of culture has been explored continuously (Goodenough 1971 cited in Rossi and O’Higgins, 1980: 63 cited in Smircich, 1983: 348; Geertz, 1973 and Tyler, 1871 cited in Tharp, 2009: 3; Schwartz and Davis, 1981: 30–48 cited in O’Reilly, 1989: 12; Smircich, 1983: 341–342; Allaire and Firsirotu, 1984: 218–219 cited in Gordon, 1991: 396–397; Sathe, 1985: 2, Schein, 1985: 9, Deal and Kennedy, 1988: 13 and Sackman, 1991: 34 cited in Mullins, 2007:

7; Triandis *et al.*, 1986 and Hofstede and Bond, 1988 cited in Chui *et al.*, 2002: 101; Deshpande *et al.*, 1989: 5; Lane *et al.*, 2000: 22 cited in Yazdani and Yaghoubi, 2011: 270; Yazdani and Yaghoubi, 2011: 270).

Schneider (1987: 3) argues that diverse disciplines such as anthropology, sociology and psychology have applied the concept of culture in their fields, which leads to multiple definitions. Eventually, the definition of culture becomes vague. Many researchers in fact claim there is no consensus on the definition of culture (Smircich, 1983: 339; Tayeb, 1994: 430; Tharp, 2009: 2).

One approach to culture is closely related to nation. Smircich (1983: 343) refers to culture as ‘a background factor (almost synonymous with country)’ and Tayeb (1994: 431–432) approaches culture in terms of nation based on relevant literatures. Yazdani and Yaghoubi (2011: 270) also contend that culture affects the behaviour of the general public in a country or region. Hofstede (1980) identifies four dimensions of culture based on data collected from 66 nations (Tayeb, 1994: 434–435; McCoy *et al.*, 2005: 212).

Another approach to culture is related to organization. Tayeb (1994: 430–435) contends that there are many studies analysing the relationship between culture and organization. For instance, Ronen (1986) and Adler (1990) investigate culture in terms of organizational behaviour, and Hofstede (1980) refers to the relationship between culture and organizational structure. This study intends to explore the concept of culture further from the national and organizational perspectives in the following part.

2.1.2 National culture

Approaches to the concept of national culture are also diverse (Filimonau and Perez, 2019: 239). Shore and Venkatachalam (1996: 20) insist that there are many definitions of national culture. Fukuyama (1995) defines national culture as ‘inherited ethical habit’ (Morden, 1999: 20). It could be argued that Fukuyama (1995) approaches national culture from an ethical perspective. Newman and Nollen (1996: 754) argue that ‘national culture is defined the values, beliefs and assumptions learned in early childhood that distinguish one group of people from another’, based on Beck and Moore (1985) and Hofstede (1991). Newman and Nollen (1996) tend to focus on childhood in terms of national culture. Nakata and Sivakumar (2001: 257) insist that the definition of national culture is ‘patterns of thinking, feeling, and acting rooted

in common values and conventions of a society’, from the perspective of social scientists such as Cushman and King (1985), Douglas and Dubois (1977), Jusdanis (1995), Schudson (1994), Wallace (1970) and White (1975). It could be argued that, fundamentally, the main elements of national culture in the above definitions, such as value, beliefs and thinking, overlap somewhat, although approaches to national culture are somewhat different.

[Table 2.1.1] Five dimensions of national culture

Dimension	Content
Power Distance	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> · The extent to which the less powerful members of organizations and institutions (like the family) accept and expect that power is distributed unequally. · This represents inequality (more versus less), but defined from below, not from above. · Power and inequality, of course, are extremely fundamental facts of any society. · All societies are unequal, but some are more unequal than others.
Uncertainty–Avoidance	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> · A society’s tolerance for ambiguity. · Uncertainty avoiding cultures try to minimize the possibility of unstructured situations by strict behavioural codes, laws, and rules, disapproval of deviant opinions and a belief in absolute truth
Individualism–Collectivism	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> · The degree to which people in a society are integrated into groups · On the individualist side, the ties between individuals are loose: everyone is expected to look after him/herself and his/her immediate family · On the collectivism side, people from birth onwards are integrated into strong, cohesive in-groups, often extended families that continue protecting them in exchange for unquestioning loyalty, and oppose other in-groups
Masculinity–Femininity	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> · The distribution of value between the genders which is another fundamental issue for any society · Women’s values differ less among societies than men’s values · Men’s values from one country to another contains a dimension from very assertive and competitive and maximally different from women’s values on the one side, to modest and caring and similar to women’s values on the other. · The assertive pole has been called ‘masculine’ and the modest, caring pole ‘feminine’.
Long-Term–Short-Term Orientation	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> · Confucianism · Value at the long-term pole is perseverance, thrift, ordering relationships by status, and having a sense of shame · Value at the short-term is reciprocating social obligations, respect for tradition, protecting one’s ‘face’, and personal steadiness and stability.

Source: Adapted from Hofstede 2011: 9–15.

In terms of national culture, Hofstede's theory tends to be perceived as one of the most important (Newman and Nollen, 1996: 754; Shore and Venkatachalam, 1996: 23; Schuler and Rogovsky, 1998: 163; Nakata and Sivakumar, 2001: 257–258; Png *et al.*, 2001: 37; Steenkamp, 2001: 31, 32; Veiga *et al.*, 2001: 146; Pagell *et al.*, 2005: 375–376; Bockstedt *et al.*, 2015: 189; Kim *et al.*, 2016: 967; Griffin *et al.*, 2017: 746; Humphries and Whelan, 2017: 152-154; Beugelsdijk and Welzel, 2018: 1472). In particular, the five dimensions of national culture have been widely accepted and analysed, as shown in [Table 2.1.1].

As for Hofstede's theory, on the one hand, the empirical and comprehensive elements are highlighted as strengths (Triandis, 1982 and Shackleton and Ali, 1990 cited in Schuler and Rogovsky, 1998: 163; Sondergaard, 1994 cited in Png *et al.*, 2001: 37; Nakata and Sivakumar, 2001: 258; Steenkamp, 2001: 31). On the other hand, however, the limitations of Hofstede's theory have also been pointed out. For instance, recent national culture is not reflected because data was collected over 20 years ago and the subject of the research had limitations in reflecting national culture (Shore and Venkatachalam, 1996: 23; Steenkamp, 2001: 32; Pagell *et al.*, 2005: 377).

The five dimensions could be interpreted in terms of authoritarianism. As for the power distance dimension, the precondition is that all societies are unequal, even though the degree of inequality can be somewhat different. It could be argued then that authoritarianism exists in all societies because authoritarianism tends to be prevalent in unequal societies, although the degree of authoritarianism is somewhat different between societies.

In the individualism–collectivism dimension, unquestioning loyalty is referred to especially in collectivism. It could be argued that unquestioning loyalty in groups is perceived as one of the key elements of authoritarianism, which suggests a connection between authoritarianism and collectivism. From the reverse perspective, it is argued that individualism is conceptually involved in non-authoritarianism or flexibility because individualism and collectivism tend to be opposing concepts. The two interpretations suggest that individualism and collectivism contribute to shedding light on conceptualizing authoritarianism.

In terms of the masculinity–femininity dimension, it could be argued that gender affects authoritarianism. For instance, a group mainly consisting of male staff is more authoritarian than a group mainly consisting of female staff, and a group consisting of a single gender is more authoritarian than a group consisting of mixed genders.

The long- and short-term orientation was initially called Confucian dynamism, which describes the effect of Confucianism on culture. Especially, Confucianism is one of the traditional values in Asia and Turner and Halligan (1999: 140) in particular argue that South Korea is the most Confucian state. In this context, it is argued that Confucianism needs to be reviewed conceptually to explore authoritarian organizational culture and the South Korean case.

Schneider (1989: 152) also analyses national culture conceptually, dividing it into two sets of assumptions: external adaption and internal integration. External adaption is the relationship with the environment, while internal integration is the relationship among people. In external adaption, there are six variables: (1) uncertainty and ambiguity; (2) control over the environment; (3) proactivity vs reactivity; (4) truth and reality; (5) time; and (6) change. As for internal integration, there are three variables: (1) hierarchy; (2) individual vs group; and (3) social vs task orientation.

It is argued that hierarchy based on power and status in Schneider's (1989) internal integration is in line with inequality in Hofstede's power distance dimension. In addition, both individualism (individual) and collectivism (group) are also referred to by both Schneider (1989) and Hofstede. The analysis suggests the importance of hierarchy, individualism and collectivism in terms of national culture.

Aside from Hofstede and Schneider, there have been many researches into the theory of national culture, such as Parsons and Shils (1951), Kluckhohn and Strodtbeck (1961), McClelland (1961), Haire, Chiselli and Porter (1963), Rokeach (1973), Clenn and Glenn (1981), Laurent (1983, 1986), Ronen and Shenkar (1985), Trompenaars (1993, 1994), and Schwartz (1994, 1997) (Schneider, 1989: 152; Newman and Nollen, 1996: 754; Shore and Venkatachalam, 1996: 22; Steenkamp, 2001: 31; Pagell *et al.*, 2005: 377–378).

There are approaches focusing on the relationship between national and organizational culture. Hofstede *et al.* (1990) investigate the relationship between national and organizational culture (Tayeb, 1994: 436) and Hofstede (1991) argues that both power distance and uncertainty avoidance could affect corporate behaviour (Png *et al.*, 2001: 37). Shore and Venkatachalam (1996: 21–22) insist that organizational culture could not go much beyond national culture, and Chow *et al.* (1991: 210–211) contend that national culture plays a pivotal role in organizational structure. Tayeb (1994: 431) also argues that nation is related with culture and social, economic and political institutions, and they impact styles of organization management.

2.1.3 Organizational culture

It is also difficult to define what organizational culture is exactly because there are many definitions of organizational culture and its approaches (Shao *et al.*, 2015: 591; Tang *et al.*, 2016: 180; Chang *et al.*, 2017: 473). Pettigrew (1979: 574) argues that ‘culture is the system of such publicly and collectively accepted meanings operating for a given group at a given time’. Deshpande and Webster (1989: 5) argue that Pettigrew’s (1979) definition is included in the concept of organizational culture. Schwartz and Davis (1981: 33) also define culture as ‘a pattern of beliefs and expectations shared by the organization’s members’ and Smircich (1983: 344) argues that the definition of culture is ‘social or normative glue that holds an organization together’ based on Siehl and Martin (1981) and Tichy (1982). The definition of culture by Schwartz and Davis (1981) and Smircich (1983) also could be interpreted from the organizational perspective.

Denison (1984: 5) argues that “‘corporate culture’ refers to the set of values, beliefs, and behaviour patterns that form core identity of an organization’ and Davis (1984) also defines corporate culture as ‘the pattern of shared beliefs and values that shapes the meaning of an institution for its members and behaviour in their organization provides them with the rules for on’ (Mullins, 2007: 7). In addition, the definition of corporate culture is defined as ‘an organization-specific system of widely shared assumptions and values that give rise to typical behaviour patterns’ by Gordon (1991: 397). Schein (2010: 1) suggests that organizational culture tends to be called corporate culture in the private sector. From this point of view, it could be argued that corporate culture is fundamentally the same as organizational culture.

According to Deshpande and Webster (1989: 4), the definition of organizational culture is ‘the pattern of shared values and beliefs that help individuals understand organizational functioning and thus provide them norms for behaviour in the organization’. In terms of a pattern, Schein (1985) also defines organizational culture as ‘a pattern of basic assumptions, invented or developed by a given group as it learns to cope with its problems of external adaption and internal integration’ (Mullins, 2007: 7).

Aside from the definitions, Pieterse (2017: 263) defines organizational culture as ‘a shared set of values, norms, assumptions, and beliefs that exist among organizational members, which influence employee attitudes, thoughts, feelings, decisions, and behaviors’. Barney (1986: 657) insists that ‘organizational culture typically is defined as a complex set of values, beliefs, assumptions, and symbols that define the way in which a firm conducts its business’ and Sathe

(1985) argues that ‘organizational cultures represent the collective, shared meaning of existence in the organization and how life in this setting is to proceed.’ (Mullins, 2007: 7). O’Reilly and Chatman (1996) define organizational culture as ‘a system of shared values (that define what is important) and norms that define appropriate attitudes and behaviours for organizational members (how to feel and behave).’ (Pfeffer, 1997: 121)

Based on the above definitions, it could be argued that organizational culture is classified in two phases in the 1980s and the 1990s from a chronological perspective. In the 1980s, researchers such as Schwartz and Davis (1981), Denison (1984), Davis (1984), Schein (1985) and Deshpande and Webster (1989) tended to approach organizational culture in terms of a pattern, while the definition tends to be approached in terms of a system from the 1990s onwards in studies such as Gordon (1991), O’Reilly and Chatman (1996) and Leland (2002). The difference suggests that the importance of organizational culture began to be acknowledged as a part of organization from the 1990s.

Given the above, it is argued that the main elements of the definitions are beliefs, values and assumptions, even though there are diverse approaches to conceptualizing organizational culture. In the 1980s, many researchers pointed out not only those three elements but also other elements. Since the 1990s, research has tended to focus mainly on the three elements in terms of the definition. It could be argued that the theory of organizational culture was reviewed from the diverse perspectives and developed in the 1980s, and since the 1990s the theory has reached the phase of generalization.

The history of the theory of organizational culture also supports the above interpretation. Research on organizational culture began to be conducted in earnest in the 1980s, although issues on organizational culture had been reviewed since the 1940s (Schein, 1988: 3; O’Reilly III *et al.*, 1991: 491; Hatch, 1993: 657; Leland, 2002; Alvesson, 2003: 1; Tharp, 2009). In the late 1970s and the early 1980s, Japanese companies showed strong international competitiveness in competition with US companies, which could not be explained by the existing perspectives such as national culture or formal structure of organization (Denison, 1984: 6; Ouchi and Wilkins, 1985: 458; Schein, 1988: 3). This gave rise to a strong interest in organizational culture, and since then, academic and practical research about organizational culture has been continuously conducted (Ouchi and Wilkins, 1985: 458; Schein, 1988: 3; Tharp, 2009). From this point of view, it could be argued that research on organizational culture

was carried out diversely in the 1980s as a phase of development of theory, and since the 1990s the theory has reached an agreement to some extent.

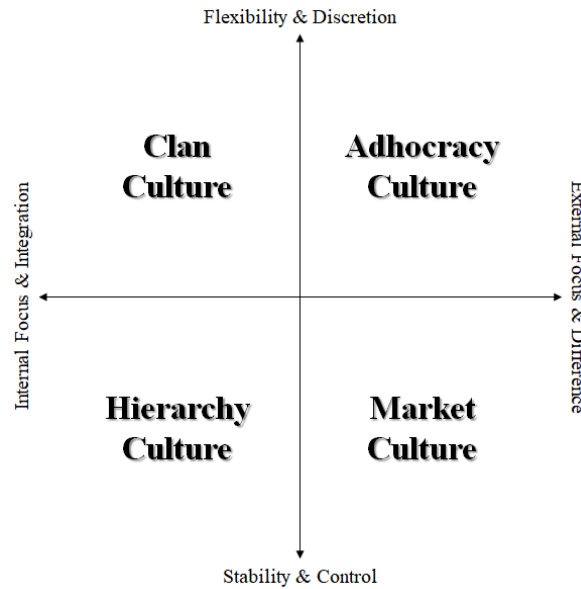
Schein (2010) is perceived as one of the distinguished scholars in the discipline of organizational culture (Gordon, 1991: 396–397; Hatch, 1993: 659–660; Klobucher, 2006: 5; Knapp, 2015: 856; Chang *et al.*, 2017: 473; Zerella *et al.*, 2017: 3; Longman, 2018: 2). In particular, the three levels of organizational culture identified by Schein have been widely perceived and analysed. He argues that organizational culture comprises artefacts, espoused values, and basic assumptions and values, as shown in [Table 2.1.2].

[Table 2.1.2] Three levels of organizational culture

Level	Content
Artefacts	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> · Visible and feelable structures and processes · Observed behaviour - Difficult to decipher
Espoused Values	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> · Ideals, goals, values, aspirations · Ideologies · Rationalizations - May or may not be congruent with behaviour and other artefacts
Basic Assumptions and Values	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> · Unconscious, taken-for-granted beliefs and values - Determine behaviour, perception, thought, and feeling

Source: Adapted from Schein 2010: 24.

It is argued that the three levels of organizational culture play a crucial role in interpreting cultural change. For instance, in terms of artefacts, organizational culture has changed from an authoritarian to a flexible style. However, basic assumptions and values have been maintained consistently. On the one hand, it is argued that culture has changed towards flexible styles based on the change of artefacts. On the other hand, it is also argued that authoritarian culture has not changed, focusing on consistent basic assumptions and values. The different interpretations need to be carefully considered in the analysis of the change of organizational culture in the South Korean civil service.



Source: Adapted from Cameron and Quinn, 1999: 49-52.

[Figure 2.1.1] The competing values framework

[Table 2.1.3] The four types of organizational culture

Types	Content
Hierarchy culture	· A formalized and structured place to work
Market culture	· A results-oriented culture
Clan culture	· A friendly place to work
Adhocracy culture	· Dynamic, entrepreneurial and creative workplace

Sources: Adapted from Mullins, 2007: 9.

The competing value framework by Cameron and Quinn is also widely reviewed in the discipline of organizational culture (Knapp, 2015: 856; Eisend *et al.*, 2016: 261; Lee *et al.*, 2016: 465; Maria Del Rosario *et al.*, 2017: 72; Zerella *et al.*, 2017: 3; Malakouti, 2018: 2; Blouin *et al.*, 2019: 3; Dubey *et al.*, 2019: 123). Cameron and Quinn (1999) classify organizational culture in four types: hierarchy culture, market culture, clan culture and adhocracy culture, as shown in [Figure 2.1.1] and [Table 2.1.3]. It is argued that hierarchy culture is related to authoritarian organizational culture, given the axis of internal focus and integration, stability and control, external focus and difference, and flexibility and discretion, as shown in [Figure 2.1.1]. On the other hand, the concept of adhocracy culture tends to be the opposite of the concept of hierarchy culture, as shown in [Figure 2.1.1]. From this view, it is

argued that adhocracy culture is associated with non-authoritarian or flexible organizational culture. In this context, the concept of adhocracy culture could help us understand authoritarian organizational culture from the reverse perspective.

2.1.4 The formation of organizational culture

As for the formation of organizational culture, O'Reilly (1989: 23–24) contends that members of an organization recognize the key values and beliefs of a leader by her or his actions, words or patterns. The values and beliefs are perceived by members with consistency and an organizational culture is formed. In addition, the achievement of tasks and rewards impacts on this process.

O'Reilly (1989) suggests a leader or leadership strongly affects the formation of organizational culture. A leader's actions, words and patterns form organizational culture, and a leader's consistency, achievement of tasks and rewards strengthen it. From this point of view, it is argued that authoritarian organizational culture is formed and maintained by an authoritarian leader or leadership.

Gordon (1991: 399–400) argues that organizations are established in compliance with industrial environments such as customers, competitors and society. In this process, certain values are formed. In order for the values to be clearly perceived, consistency is also crucial. Gordon (1991) approaches the formation of organizational culture in the private sector, which tends to be relatively more influenced by the industrial environment, while the public sector tends to be less influenced by this environment. The analysis suggests the formation of organizational culture is different between the public and private sectors.

Both O'Reilly (1989) and Gordon (1991) refer to consistency, which suggests its importance in the process of formation of organizational culture. However, O'Reilly (1989) focuses on internal elements, while Gordon (1991) concentrates on external elements. The different elements suggest that the formation of organizational culture could be interpreted from both an internal and external perspective.

Allaire and Firsirotu (1984: 213) insist that 'ambient society, the history of the organization and the particular contingency factors' are involved in the formation of organizational culture. The formation of organizational culture, according to Allaire and Firsirotu (1984), could be analysed from both the internal and external perspectives, as referred to above. Ambient society

could be interpreted as an external element, while the history of the organization could be reviewed as an internal element.

Given all the above research, elements affecting the formation of organizational culture could be divided into internal and external. A leader, leadership and the history of an organization are identified as internal elements, while customers, competitors, society and contingency are referred to as external elements. Which is more important between internal and external elements could be controversial. One interpretation highlights internal elements, such as a leader or leadership as O'Reilly (1989) argues, while another interpretation emphasizes external elements such as the industrial environment, as Gordon (1991) insists. Aside from the two interpretations, it could be argued that the internal elements are closely interrelated with the external elements. For instance, a leader or founder establishes his or her own values and beliefs for an organization based on the surrounding or industrial environments.

Meanwhile, there are differences between the private and public sectors. For instance, customers, competitors and society are relatively important external elements in the private sector, while the political environment is a more crucial external element in the public sector. In addition, the actions, words and patterns of a leader or founder can be relatively consistent in the private sector, while they may be less consistent in the public sector because leaders change regularly following elections.

2.1.5 Conclusion

In this part, the concept of culture has been reviewed theoretically. In particular, culture has been deeply explored from the national and organizational perspective. It is difficult to conceptualize culture that is widely accepted because there are diverse views and approaches such as anthropology, sociology and psychology, and the related academic history is long. Meanwhile, it is argued that sharing beliefs and values with group members is crucial in a culture because the related literatures refer to sharing beliefs and values with group members in common.

There are also many approaches to national culture. Among diverse approaches and interpretations, the Hofstede theory of the five dimensions of national culture – power distance, uncertainty avoidance, individualism and collectivism, masculinity and femininity, and long-term and short-term orientation – has been analysed in particular. The theory has also been

explored in terms of authoritarianism. In terms of the power distance dimension, it is argued that authoritarianism exists in all societies, although the degree is somewhat different. In the individualism and collectivism dimension, it is argued that collectivism is linked to authoritarianism, while individualism is conceptually related to non-authoritarianism or flexibility. In the masculinity and femininity dimension, it is argued that authoritarianism can be different depending on gender. As for long- and short-term orientation, the influence of Confucianism on authoritarian organizational culture was analysed.

Schein's three levels of organizational culture – artefacts, espoused values, and basic assumptions and values – have been analysed. In particular, how to interpret a change of organizational culture was analysed based on the three levels of organizational culture. In addition, the competing values framework by Cameron and Quinn, consisting of clan culture, hierarchy culture, adhocracy culture and market culture, has been explored. It is argued that hierarchy culture is related to authoritarian organizational culture and adhocracy culture is linked to non-authoritarian or flexible organizational culture.

Aside from the above, internal and external elements in the formation of organizational culture have been investigated. A leader, leadership and the history of an organization were identified as internal elements. In terms of external elements, there are customers, competitors, society and contingency. Meanwhile, which is more important between internal and external elements is somewhat controversial. In terms of internal and external elements, there are differences between the public and private sectors. For instance, in terms of external elements, industrial environments are important in the private sector, while political environments are more crucial in the public sector. In addition, as previously stated, the actions, words and patterns of a leader or founder can be relatively consistent in the private sector, while they may be less consistent in the public sector because leaders change regularly following elections.

2.2 The concept of authoritarian organizational culture

Authoritarian organizational culture or authoritarianism are familiar terms, but the conceptual studies on authoritarian organizational culture are somewhat insufficient. Therefore, this study aims to shed light on authoritarian organizational culture based on collectivism, Confucianism, paternalism and bureaucracy in this part.

The above literature on culture suggests a relationship among authoritarian organizational culture and Confucianism and/or collectivism. In addition, there are the relationships between authoritarianism and paternalism (Cheng *et al.*, 2004; Aycan, 2006; Pellegrini and Scandura, 2008), between paternalism and Confucianism (Cheng *et al.*, 2004; Aycan, 2006; Pellegrini and Scandura, 2008), between paternalism and collectivism (Khatri and Tsang, 2003; Pellegrini and Scandura, 2008; Pellegrini *et al.*, 2010), between Confucianism and collectivism (Lee, 2001; Rarick, 2007), and between Confucianism and bureaucracy (Turner and Halligan, 1999).

In terms of the relationship between authoritarianism and paternalism, Max Weber reviews paternalism in terms of 'legitimated authority' (Pellegrini and Scandura, 2008: 568) and Aycan (2006: 454) refers to authoritarianism as one of the elements of paternalism. Cheng *et al.*, (2004: 91) insist that there are three elements of paternalistic leadership, one of which is authoritarianism. Farh and Cheng (2000) contend that a paternalistic leader shows authoritarian tendencies (Cheng *et al.*, 2004: 92), while Uhl-Bien and Maslyn (2005) argue that a paternalistic leadership tends to be understood as authoritarianism from the Western perspective (Pellegrini and Scandura, 2008: 570). These literatures suggest that paternalism is closely related to authoritarianism.

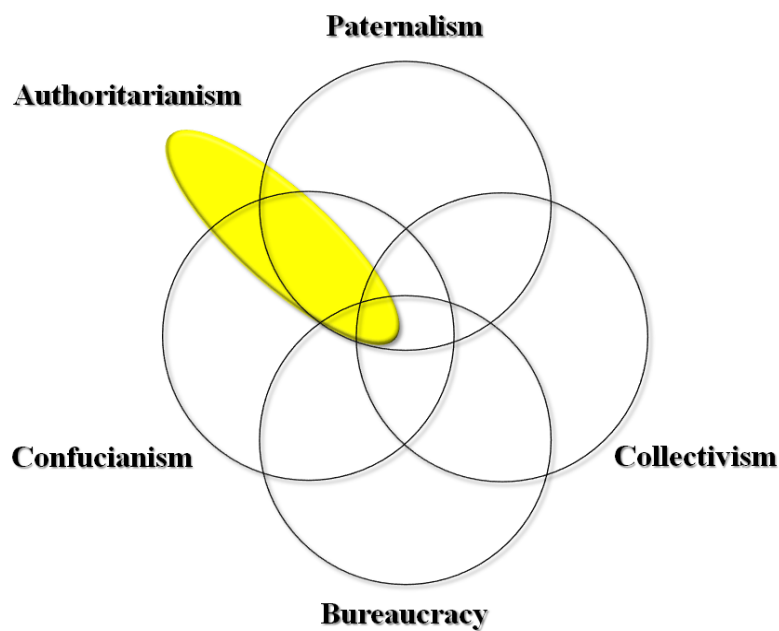
In terms of the relationship between paternalism and Confucianism, Cheng *et al.*, (2004: 91–92) classify paternalism into three factors, which are authority, benevolence and morality, and they argue that the origin of benevolent leadership is Confucianism. Chao (1990) claims that paternalism is related to the major principle of Confucianism (Aycan, 2006: 447). Aside from this, Farh and Cheng (2000) point out Confucianism as one of the roots of authoritarian leadership (Cheng *et al.*, 2004: 91; Pellegrini and Scandura, 2008: 570–571).

With respect to the relationship between paternalism and collectivism, Gelfand *et al.* (2007) argue that paternalistic leadership is positively influential for employees in collective organizations (Pellegrini and Scandura, 2008: 572). Erez and Earley (1993) insist that a collectivistic organization prefers the paternalistic style (Khatri and Tsang, 2003: 293).

Pellegrini *et al.* (2010: 395) also claim that paternalistic leadership equates with collectivistic values.

As for the relationship between Confucianism and collectivism, Lee (2001: 13) argues that Confucian ethical values are achieved in a collectivist society, and Rarick (2007: 2) also refers to the individual sacrifice for family and society as one of the Confucian values. Aside from this, in terms of the relationship between Confucianism and bureaucracy, Turner and Halligan (1999) argue that Confucianism influences bureaucracy in Asian countries.

Given the above, relationships among authoritarianism, paternalism, Confucianism, collectivism and bureaucracy can be established, as shown in [Figure 2.2.1]. This research intends to analyse authoritarian organizational culture deeply based on the relationship in the following part.



[Figure 2.2.1] Collectivism vs Confucianism vs Paternalism vs Bureaucracy vs
Authoritarianism

2.2.1 Collectivism

Collectivism prevails in Asia, Africa, South America and the Pacific, whereas individualism is prevalent in Northern and Western Europe and North America (Triandis *et al.* 1988: 271). On the other hand, it could be argued that some countries in Northern and Western Europe and North America have shown collectivistic tendencies in specific periods and regions, even though it is argued that individualism is more prevalent in those areas.

[Table 2.2.1] The main elements of collectivism

Author	Main elements
Triandis <i>et al.</i> (1988)	· Needs of groups / Subordinated goals / Internalized norms
Morris <i>et al.</i> (1994)	· Subordinated goals / Sharing / Cooperation / Harmony / Group welfare / (Inter)dependence
Tiessen (1997)	· Interdependence / Sharing / Cooperation / Group's interests
Goncalo <i>et al.</i> (2005)	· Interdependence / Conformity / Harmony / Group' interests, well-being and goals / Sharing / Standard / Norm / Collaboration
Triandis (2001)	· Interdependence / Group's goals and norms / Communality / Relationships /
Hui (1988)	· Sharing / Consideration about social recognition
Bochner <i>et al.</i> (1994)	· Group's identity and interests / Consideration about social recognition
Oyserman <i>et al.</i> (2002)	· Mutual obligation / Communality / Components within societies
Realo <i>et al.</i> (1997)	· Social pattern / Norms / Goals of collectives / Connectedness / Social support / Conformity
Trubisky <i>et al.</i> (1991)	· Group's needs, goals and interests / Interpersonal relations
McCarty <i>et al.</i> (2001)	· Group's goals / Conformity / Harmony / Relations in groups / Sharing

Sources: Adapted from Hui, 1988; Triandis *et al.*, 1988; Trubisky *et al.*, 1991; Bochner and Hesketh, 1994; Morris *et al.*, 1994; Realo *et al.*, 1997; Tiessen, 1997; McCarty and Shrum, 2001; Triandis, 2001; Oyserman *et al.*, 2002; Goncalo and Staw, 2006.

Many researchers have reviewed collectivism conceptually and the analysis and interpretations are somewhat similar (Hui, 1988; Triandis *et al.*, 1988; Trubisky *et al.*, 1991; Bochner and Hesketh, 1994; Morris *et al.*, 1994; Realo *et al.*, 1997; Tiessen, 1997; McCarty and Shrum,

2001; Triandis, 2001; Oyserman *et al.*, 2002; Goncalo and Staw, 2006). The main elements of collectivism are summarized in [Table 2.2.1].

It is argued that the main values of collectivism are group-based orientation, interdependence, cooperation, sharing, subordination, norms and conformity based on the above elements. Among the values, it is argued that both subordination and conformity are closely associated with authoritarian organizational culture because authoritarianism rarely comes into existence without these two values. The analysis suggests that subordination and conformity are of paramount importance in authoritarian organizational culture from the collective perspective.

Another approach is to consider that both subordination and conformity are common cultural elements. As reviewed above, Hofstede (2011: 9–15) argues that all societies are unequal in terms of the power distance dimension. In other words, in societies or organizations, less powerful members become subordinates and comply with more powerful members' instructions. From this point of view, it is argued that subordination and conformity are not special characteristics that authoritarian organizational culture has.

Given the two different interpretations, it is argued that the degree of subordination and conformity is the main issue in terms of authoritarian organizational culture. Both subordination and conformity exist in all societies. However, if the value of subordinates' conformity to superiors is strongly highlighted in an organization, the organizational culture becomes authoritarian.

Group-based orientation could be analysed in terms of authoritarian organizational culture. Both subordination and conformity might exist even in individual-based orientation but they are more influential in group-based orientation. This suggests that group-based orientation could contribute to strengthening authoritarian organizational culture.

Aside from subordination, conformity and group-based orientation, interdependence, cooperation and sharing are somewhat controversial in terms of authoritarian organizational culture. Seemingly, they do not have any connection with authoritarian organizational culture. On the other hand, subordination and conformity in groups could be interpreted in terms of interdependence, cooperation and sharing. For instance, the authoritarian or vertical relationship between superiors and subordinates based on conformity could be perceived as cooperation or interdependence between superiors and subordinates. This analysis suggests that authoritarian organizational culture and its degree could be perceived differently depending on perspectives.

2.2.2 Confucianism

Confucianism is prevalent in East and Southeast Asian countries. Emery (1999) argues that Confucianism prevails in Asian countries such as Japan, Korea, Singapore and Vietnam (Wang *et al.*, 2005: 314) and Chan (2002) also identifies mainland China, Taiwan, Hong Kong, Singapore, Korea and Japan as Confucian states (Suen *et al.*, 2007: 261). Similarly, Robertson (2000: 256–257) insists that Confucianism prevails in Asian countries such as Hong Kong, Thailand, mainland China, Korea and Japan, and Ma and Smith (1992: 655) refer to Far East Asian countries such as South Korea, Japan, China and Singapore where Confucianism prevails (Park *et al.*, 2005: 390). Turner and Halligan (1999: 140) argue that South Korea is the most Confucian state.

Meanwhile, Nakata and Sivakumar (1996: 66-67) argue that not only Asian countries but also Brazil shows Confucian tendencies. From this perspective, it could be argued that the viewpoints on Confucianism are somewhat biased towards a certain perspective. The considerable influence of Confucianism in East and Southeast Asia are well known and there is no doubt about it. On the other hand, it could be argued that there are other regions showing Confucian or similar tendencies, although different terms are used. However, research based on Confucianism tends to be mainly performed in the Asian context.

[Table 2.2.2] The five relationships in Confucianism

Relationships	Roles
Ruler–Subject	· A benevolent leader should act in the best interests of subjects, and subjects should give loyalty to the leader
Father–Child	· Father should guide child, and child should show deference
Husband–Wife	· Wife should obey and dedicate herself to her husband
Older–Younger	· The young should pay respect to their seniors
Friend–Friend	· Cooperation plays a pivotal role in the relationship

Source: Adapted from Rarick (2007: 2–4).

In Confucianism, five relationships are perceived: ruler–subject, father–child, husband–wife, older–younger and friend–friend (Xing, 1995: 16; Park, *et al.*, 2005: 390; Wang *et al.*, 2005: 314; Rarick, 2007: 2–4; Kee, 2008: 4). The roles of the five relationships are explained in [Table 2.2.2].

The five relationships suggest that hierarchy and obedience form the foundation of the Confucian relationships. All the relationships are based on a vertical structure except for the relationship between friends. Roles are also determined depending on vertical position and obedience is of paramount importance in maintaining relationships. Without obedience, Confucian relationships rarely exist. Ultimately, hierarchy and obedience are naturally perceived as important values in Confucian societies.

In line with this viewpoint, Buttery and Leung (1998) also point out the importance of hierarchy in terms of Confucian thought (Wang *et al.*, 2005: 314), while Park *et al.* (2005: 390) highlight hierarchy in terms of the Confucian ethic. Xing (1995: 16–17) argues that Confucian society consists of hierarchical roles, insisting that ‘questioning the predefined social order is forbidden’. Wang *et al.* (2005: 314) claim that the majority of the Confucian relationships show the ‘dominant–subservient’ tendency, while Kee (2008: 4) claims that the general public should comply with their roles and moral principles depending on their position in Confucian society. Lee (2001: 13) refers to loyalty and respect as subordinates’ ethical values and forgiveness and benevolence as superiors’ ethical values. In addition, he insists that Confucian relationships are ‘based on hierarchical rules’ (Lee, 2001: 13). Rarick (2007: 1) argues that loyalty and dedication play a pivotal role in Confucian societies.

Considering the above, it could be argued that the difference between Confucianism and authoritarianism is somewhat vague or, fundamentally, Confucianism and authoritarianism are the same. On the other hand, another interpretation is that authoritarianism is perceived positively in Asian countries. In Asian countries, authoritarianism tends to be recognized in terms of Confucianism and Confucianism could be perceived positively or as being ethical.

In Confucian societies, five virtues are perceived as crucial: humanity/benevolence (*ren*), righteousness (*yi*), propriety (*li*), wisdom (*zhi*) and trustworthiness (*xin*) (Xing, 1995: 16; Wang *et al.*, 2005: 314; Rarick, 2007: 4–5). In addition, there are various values of Confucianism such as hierarchy, social order, benevolence, harmony, loyalty, family and filial piety, as shown in [Table 2.2.3]. Among them, some values could especially be interpreted in terms of authoritarianism, such as hierarchy, social order and loyalty.

[Table 2.2.3] The key values of Confucianism

Author	Values
Lee (2001)	· Ruler: forgiveness, benevolence, wisdom, rectification · Subject: loyalty, filial piety, respect
Park <i>et al.</i> (2005)	· Strict hierarchical order for human relationships, family · (In Korea) Loyalty based on righteousness between sovereign and subject
Wang <i>et al.</i> (2005)	· Hierarchy and harmony, group orientation, relationships, face, time orientation
Rarick (2007)	· Hard work, loyalty, dedication, learning, social order
Suen <i>et al.</i> (2007)	· Benevolence/humanity, propriety, family
Kee (2008)	· Love, harmony, kindness, benevolence, filial piety, awareness of right, caring about virtues, social order · (In Korea) Loyalty, filial piety, gender differences, hierarchy

Sources: Adapted from Lee, 2001: 12–13; Park *et al.*, 2005: 390–391; Wang *et al.*, 2005: 315; Rarick, 2007: 1; Suen *et al.*, 2007: 261; Kee, 2008: 3.

The above research can be divided into three groups based on background. Lee (2001), Park *et al.* (2001) and Kee (2008) have a Korean background. Wang *et al.* (2005) and Suen *et al.* (2007) have an Asian background. Meanwhile, Rarick (2007) has a non-Asian background.

Lee (2001: 12–13) approaches the Confucian values in terms of the relationship between ruler and subject, and Park *et al.* (2005) also refer to the values especially between sovereign and subject in Korean Confucianism. Kee (2008) does not refer to hierarchy as one of the key Confucian values in general but he identifies it as one of the key Confucian values in Korea. Lee (2001), Park *et al.* (2005) and Kee (2008) all point out loyalty.

On the other hand, approaches appear somewhat different based on the different backgrounds of the researchers. For instance, Wang *et al.* (2005), Suen *et al.*, (2007) and Rarick (2007) interpret Confucian values less in terms of vertical relationships such as a ruler and subject. In addition, relatively, Wang *et al.* (2005) and Suen *et al.*, (2007) refer to authoritarian elements such as hierarchy and face – as Wang *et al.* (2005: 317) note: ‘A person who does not follow a rule of equity and refuses to return favor for favor will lose his face (*mianzi*) and be perceived as untrustworthy’ – as well as non-authoritarian elements such as benevolence, harmony, propriety and family. Rarick (2007) tends to focus on diligence and education.

The analysis suggests that Confucian values are somewhat different between Asian and non-Asian countries and between countries in Asia. In addition, the hierarchical or vertical values are stronger than other values in Korean Confucianism, which suggest that Confucianism based on authoritarianism is stronger in Korea than in other countries. In line with this, Turner and Halligan (1999: 140) also insist that South Korea is the most Confucian state, as noted above.

2.2.3 Paternalism

Paternalism tends to prevail in Asia, the Middle East and Latin America. Aycan (2006: 445) argues that the root of paternalism is in Pacific Asia, the Middle East and Latin America from the psychological perspective. Ali (1993), Kim (1994) and Osland *et al.* (1999) also refer to paternalism as one of the common management styles in Asia, the Middle East and Latin America (Pellegrini *et al.*, 2010: 394). In addition, Kim (1994) and Redding *et al.* (1994) insist that paternalism is one of prevalent features in Asian countries (Yetim and Yetim, 2006: 261).

Max Weber refers to the patriarchal household in terms of the origin of traditional paternal authority (Pellegrini and Scandura, 2008: 568). Aycan (2006: 446–447) argues that paternalism, which originated from familyism, spreads throughout societies, according to Redding and Hsiao (1990) and Kim (1994), and also emphasizes the vertical relationship in families. Meanwhile, Erben and Gunecer (2008: 956) claim that paternalism is prevalent in agricultural societies in terms of economy.

The above literature suggests that paternalism originates from agrarian societies. In agrarian societies, a sufficient labour force is required, which leads to the importance of familyism. In this environment, male labour would often be preferred and female labour would be overlooked because of the perceived physical differences. In the process, paternalism appears with familyism in agrarian society.

Paternalism in Asia, the Middle East and Latin America could be also interpreted in terms of agrarian societies. Traditionally, countries in Asia and the Middle East have been known for agriculture, for example the civilizations of China (Huangho), Mesopotamia and the Indus civilization originated in Asia and the Middle East. The Inca civilization also supported an ancient agrarian society in Latin America. Agriculture is also one of the key economic foundations of modern Latin American countries. Europe achieved modernization through industrialization earlier than the Middle East, Asia and Latin America. In addition, in Europe

the environment for agriculture, such as mild climate and fertile land, is relatively less appropriate than the environment in the Middle East, Asia and Latin America. From this point of view, it is argued that paternalistic tendencies are prevalent in the Middle East, Asia and Latin America.

[Table 2.2.4] Characteristics of paternalism

Author	Characteristics
Weber (1968)	· Form of legitimate authority
Newby (1975)	· A method of control that, intentionally or unintentionally, is generally successful in shaping the political affiliations of employees
Webster (1975)	· The principle of system of governing or controlling a country, group of employees, etc. in a manner suggesting a father's relationship with his children
Jackman (1994)	· Acting in a manner similar to the way a father behaves towards his children
Hofstede (1997)	· The less powerful members of organizations expect and accept that power is distributed unequally
Farh & Cheng (2000)	· Combining strong discipline and authority with fatherly benevolent and moral integrity couched in a personalistic atmosphere
Ackers (2001)	· One expression of ordinary people needs for hierarchy in society and to humanize and socialize any work roles that they happen to occupy
Yetim & Yetim (2006)	· 'Fatherly' behaviour towards employees
Gelfand <i>et al.</i> (2007)	· A hierarchical relationship in which a leader guides professional and personal lives of subordinates in a manner resembling a parent, and in exchange expects loyalty and deference
Erben & Guneser (2008)	· Acting like a father or to treat another person like a child
Chirico & Nordqvist (2010)	· The practice of excessively caring for others so as to interfere with their decisions and autonomy

Sources: Adapted from Khatri and Tsang, 2003: 292; Cheng *et al.*, 2004: 91; Fleming, 2005: 1472–1473; Aycan, 2006: 446; Yetim and Yetim, 2006: 260; Erben and Guneser, 2008: 957; Pellegrini and Scandura, 2008: 568; Chirico and Nordqvist, 2010: 490; Pellegrini *et al.*, 2010: 394.

There are diverse characteristics of paternalism, as shown in [Table 2.2.4]. Based on these characteristics, it is argued that hierarchy, a father–child relationship and control are the main elements of paternalism. Gelfand *et al.* (2007) define paternalism in terms of a hierarchical relationship (Pellegrini *et al.*, 2010: 394), while Aycan (2006: 446) argues that hierarchy plays

a pivotal role in paternalism based on Webster's (1975) definition of paternalism. Knights and McCabe (2001: 627) also identify the relationship between paternalism and hierarchy (Fleming, 2005: 1473).

Hierarchy has been consistently referred to and it is argued that it is a fundamental element in culture and organization regardless of its characteristics. The analysis suggests that the difference between hierarchical and authoritarian organizational cultures needs to be analysed to conceptualize authoritarian organizational culture clearly.

In the father-child relationship, the role of the father tends to be focused on. Sinha (1990) argues that the father is 'nurturant, caring and dependable but also authoritative, demanding, and a strict disciplinarian', and Jackman (1994) mentioned fathers' benevolence and authority in traditional father-child relations (Pellegrini and Scandura, 2008: 569). Erben and Gunesser (2008: 956) also emphasize not only the 'care/nurture' but also the 'control' a father shows towards his children. On the one hand the father-child relationship is approached in terms of authoritarianism, but on the other it is interpreted from a benevolent perspective.

Webster (1975) refers to a father's behaviour towards his children in terms of control and governance (Aycan, 2006: 446), and Aycan (2006: 453-454) points out the 'duality between control and care' as the nature of paternalism. Meanwhile, Pellegrini and Scandura (2008: 568) refer to the exchange of the benevolent care of leaders and the loyalty and compliance of subordinates in organizations or cultures. Gelfand *et al.* (2007: 493) is also in agreement with the perspective based on this exchange (Pellegrini *et al.*, 2010: 394-395).

Control of subordinates or children by a leader or a father could be perceived as strict. However, it could be understood as reasonable in terms of the exchange of care and loyalty. Both the father-child relationship and control could be interpreted differently, which suggests that there are diverse approaches to paternalism.

One approach to paternalism is based on power and resource inequality. Hofstede's five dimensions were reviewed above, one of which is the power distance dimension. Members in groups have different levels of power and accept this difference. Khatri and Tsang (2003: 292) and Pellegrini *et al.* (2010: 395) approach paternalism from this point of view. Padavic and Earnest (1994) also point out the asymmetric power in paternalism (Pellegrini and Scandura, 2008: 568).

Abercrombie and Hill (1976) and Pfeffer and Salancik (1978) interpret power inequality in terms of resource inequality. Pfeffer and Salancik (1978) insist that those who control valuable resources are more powerful than those who cannot control resources in groups (Khatri and Tsang, 2003: 292–293). Abercrombie and Hill (1976: 418–419) also contend that a lack of resources or access to resources leads to power inequality. If a person monopolizes resources or access to them, others will depend on the person and this will result into obedience.

In terms of power and resource inequality, it is argued that authoritarianism is an inevitable phenomenon in societies. Power and resources are rarely distributed equally in reality, and this inequality forms a hierarchy depending on power or resources. Eventually, a hierarchy based on inequality leads to authoritarianism, though the degree of authoritarianism is different depending on the degree of power and resource inequality: the lower the degree of inequality, the lower the degree of authoritarianism.

Another approach to paternalism concerns the background of the researchers. Asia-based researchers tend to review paternalism in terms of father–child relations such as Farh and Cheng (2000), Yetim and Yetim (2006) and Erben and Guneser (2008), while Western-based researchers tend to understand paternalism in terms of power inequality, hierarchy or a control method such as Newby (1975), Abercrombie and Hill (1976), Pfeffer and Salancik (1978) Hofstede (1997) and Ackers (2001). Some researchers approach paternalism from both perspectives such as Webster (1975) and Gelfand *et al.*(2007).

Aycan (2006: 454) and Erben and Guneser (2008: 956) argue that there are negative viewpoints towards paternalism in the West because paternalism tends to be recognized there as authoritarianism. Yang (1996) insists that egalitarianism is prevalent in the West but that paternalism shows opposing tendencies, such as authoritarianism (Pellegrini *et al.*, 2010: 395–396). Pellegrini and Scandura (2006: 267) argue that paternalism tends to be negatively interpreted in the West because voluntary compliance with authority rarely happens. It is also argued that the difference between the Asian and Western perspectives is caused by a lack of clarity of constructs (such as structure or characteristics) regarding paternalism (Pellegrini and Scandura, 2008: 572–573).

The analysis suggests that, relatively speaking, paternalism tends to be perceived positively from the Asian perspective, while it tends to be perceived negatively from the Western perspective. From this point of view, it is argued that authoritarianism is perceived and interpreted differently between the West and East.

Kim (1994) classifies paternalism into benevolent and exploitative types (Aycan, 2006: 455–456). Care shown by superiors and loyalty shown by subordinates are perceived as the crucial elements in these two types, but there are differences between them. Benevolent superiors take care of subordinates with sincerity, which results in subordinates’ loyalty and respect. On the contrary, in exploitative paternalism, subordinates show loyalty and respect to avoid penalties or receive rewards from superiors.

[Table 2.2.5] Three factors of paternalistic leadership

Classification	Content
Authority	· A leader’s behaviour that asserts absolute authority and control over subordinates and demands unquestionable obedience from subordinates.
Benevolence	· A leader’s behaviour demonstrates individualized, holistic concern for subordinates’ personal or familial well-being.
Morality	· A leader’s behaviour that demonstrates superior personal virtues, self-discipline and unselfishness.

Source: Adapted from Cheng *et al.*, 2004: 91.

Farh and Cheng (2000) refer to three factors of paternalistic leadership: authority, benevolence and morality, as shown in [Table 2.2.5]. Cheng *et al.*, (2004: 91) explore the three elements from the perspective of leadership, while Khatri and Tsang (2003: 293) approach them in terms of a model of paternalism. On the other hand, Shou *et al.* (2005) and Farh *et al.* (2006) point out the negative interrelations among the factors, arguing that authority is negatively related with benevolence and morality (Pellegrini and Scandura, 2008: 573).

Aycan (2006: 455) identifies reduced cost, increased flexibility, decreased turnover, improved commitment, loyalty and teamwork as positive effects of paternalism. From a negative perspective, Kabasaka and Bodur (2003: 21) insist that paternalism could cause nepotism (Erben and Guneser, 2008: 957).

2.2.4 Bureaucracy

Turner and Halligan (1999: 131) argue that China has a long history of bureaucracy, and they also refer to the differences between the Asian and Western bureaucracy. Altay (1999: 35) points out the long history of bureaucracy in Europe and Asia. Jaques (1976: 17–18) refers to

China and Assyria around five thousand years ago in terms of the origins of bureaucracy and insists that bureaucratic systems began to settle down (be stabilized) from the modern state.

Approaches to bureaucracy are somewhat diverse. In terms of organizational theory and public choice theory, Lane (1987: 2) refers to three different perspectives on bureaucracy: (1) rationality or efficiency by Weber (1978); (2) inefficiency by Tullock (1965) and Niskanen (1971); and (3) irrationality by March and Olsen (1976). Altay (1999: 36) also divides bureaucracy into two views – organizational framework and public choice. Beetham (1996: 3–4) suggests four approaches to bureaucracy: (1) rule by the bureau in terms of political systems; (2) a system of administration carried out on a continuous basis by trained professionals in terms of the sociology of organization; (3) public administration; and (4) political economy. Hummel (2008: 9) analyses bureaucracy socially, culturally, psychologically, linguistically, cognitively and politically.

In terms of the conceptual relationship between bureaucracy and organization, Wallis (1989: 2) in particular refers to the importance of the study by Max Weber. Altay (1999: 35) also highlights Weber’s study in terms of bureaucracy. Weber (1968: 987) defines bureaucracy as ‘the means of transforming social action into rationally organized action’ (Hummel, 2008: 31–32). Characteristics of Weberian bureaucracy are explained in [Table 2.2.6]. Beetham (1996: 9) argues that the characteristics of bureaucratic administration are hierarchy, continuity, impersonality and expertise, based on the study by Weber. Hummel (2008: 76–82) also identified characteristics of modern bureaucracy: (1) fixed official jurisdictional areas; (2) principles of office hierarchy; (3) written record; (4) expert training; (5) full working capacity of officials; and (6) general rules.

[Table 2.2.6] Characteristics of bureaucracy by Max Weber

· Each office has a well-defined sphere of competence with duties
· Office are ordered in a hierarchy
· Authority is restricted to official duties
· Officials hold office by appointment (rather than by election)
· Officials are selected on the basis of objective qualifications
· Officials are set for a career (protected from arbitrary dismissal / expected to work permanently)
· Officials are entirely separated from the means of administration
· Activities are regulated by general, consistent, abstract rules
· Official duties are conducted in a spirit of impersonality
· A bureaucracy frequently has a non-bureaucratic head

Source: Adapted from Eva, 1983: 28.

Some characteristics of Weberian bureaucracy, such as hierarchy, appointments and having a non-bureaucratic head, could be interpreted in terms of authoritarianism. For instance, if a non-bureaucratic head is deeply involved in the process of appointments in a hierarchical structure, the appointment system could play a role in strengthening the unconditional obedience of staff towards the head.

On the other hand, stable job security in bureaucracy conflicts with authoritarianism. Staff members are protected from unreasonable treatment and retirement tends to be guaranteed. From this point of view, it is argued that the degree of the obedience of junior staff to senior staff or a head in bureaucracy is weaker than the degree in non-bureaucracy.

Aside from the characteristics identified in Weber's study, expertise (as one of the characteristics of bureaucratic administration) and expert training (as one of the characteristics of modern bureaucracy) are also worthy of attention in terms of authoritarianism. Expertise and expert training could also be interpreted in terms of professionalism. It is argued that professionals have more flexibility and discretion than non-professionals because of their professional knowledge. This suggests that professional groups are less authoritarian than non-professional groups.

On the other hand, it could be argued that professionals show more authoritarian tendencies than non-professionals. For instance, patients rely significantly on doctors and follow doctors' instructions. Seemingly, the relationship between doctors and patients could be shown as a relationship between service providers and customers, while fundamentally it could be interpreted from an authoritarian perspective.

Academically, many researchers refer to the relationship between professionalism and authoritarianism. Based on Rainey and Steinbauer (1999), Whitty (2006), Bhugra (2008), Hwang and Powell (2009), and Biesta (2015), professionalism is closely interrelated with intellectual authority. Biesta (2015) argues that there are high possibilities that professional authority will turn into authoritarianism.

It is argued that bureaucracy has both authoritarian and non-authoritarian elements. It tends to be perceived that in South Korea, the public sector shows authoritarian characteristics because the public sector is based on bureaucracy. However, conceptually, bureaucracy has not only authoritarian elements, such as appointment systems, a non-bureaucratic head and hierarchy,

but also non-authoritarian elements such as stable job security. Expertise could be perceived as both authoritarian and non-authoritarian. The analysis suggests that in one system, two contrary characteristics such as authoritarian and flexible characteristics could coexist.

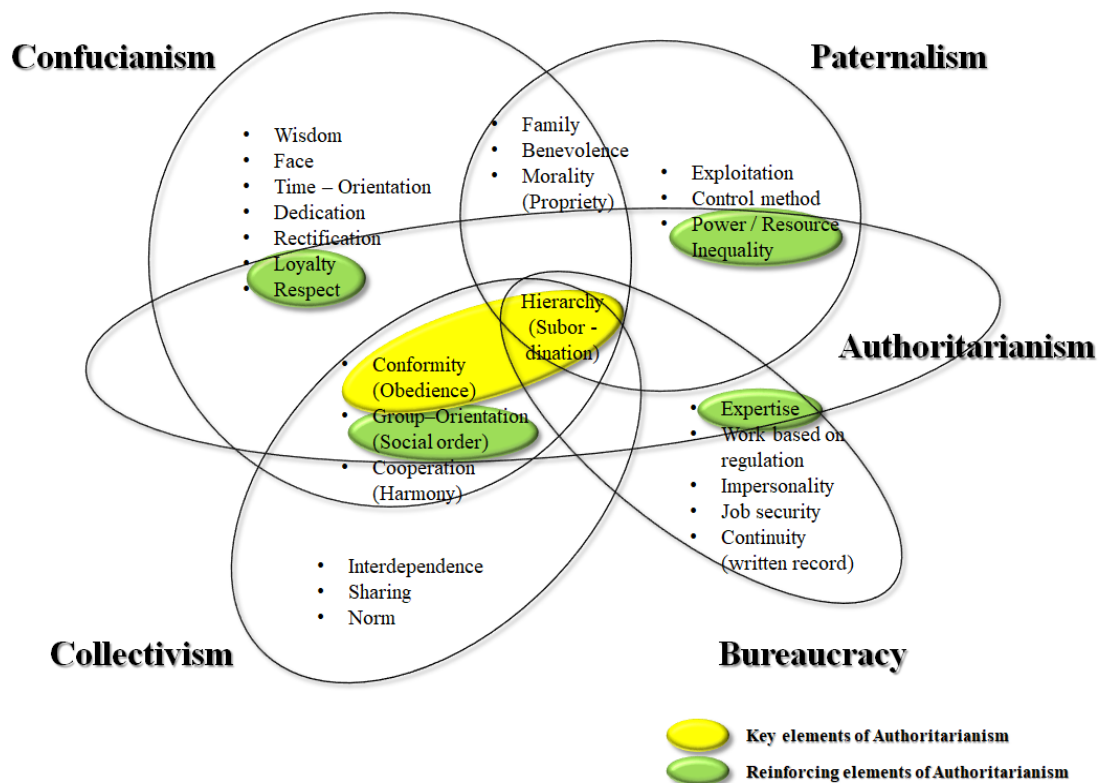
Turner and Halligan (1999) point out the relationship between bureaucracy and Confucianism in Asia, arguing that South Korea is the most Confucian state in the world. With modernization, South Korea has accepted influences from the West. However, the influence has been limited and Confucianism has continued to be deeply involved in politics, economy, society and bureaucracy. Turner and Halligan (1999) focus in particular on the political and social order and loyalty to the state as representing Confucian values.

Based on both Max Weber's ideas on bureaucracy and the study by Turner and Halligan (1999), it is argued that Confucianism strengthens the characteristics of bureaucracy relating to authoritarianism. A combination of Confucianism and bureaucracy creates a synergy effect for strong authoritarianism. Given that South Korea is the most Confucian state in the world, as Turner and Halligan (1999) claim, it is argued that South Korean bureaucracy shows strong authoritarian tendencies.

2.2.5 Conclusion

It is argued that authoritarianism is interrelated with collectivism, Confucianism, paternalism and bureaucracy, as shown in [Figure 2.2.2]. In an authoritarian organizational culture, hierarchy and conformity are of paramount importance. The main characteristic of authoritarian organizational culture is a strong, top-down approach, and concomitantly a weak bottom-up approach, because hierarchy is a fundamental element in culture and organization, regardless of its characteristics. Aside from hierarchy and conformity, other elements are involved in authoritarian organizational culture such as loyalty, respect, group orientation, expertise, and power and resource inequality, as shown in [Figure 2.2.2].

These elements could be interpreted differently depending on perspectives. For instance, expertise is pointed out as one of the elements in an authoritarian organizational culture in this study. However, expertise could also be interpreted in terms of flexibility or discretion.



[Figure 2.2.2] The relationship among Collectivism vs Confucianism vs Paternalism vs Bureaucracy vs Authoritarianism

The relationship suggests that authoritarianism in Asia is stronger than authoritarianism in other regions and, especially, authoritarianism in Korea is stronger than authoritarianism in other Asian countries. Collectivism, Confucianism and paternalism are prevalent in Asia, according to the related literatures. Korea has been identified by some as the most Confucian state. On the other hand, collectivism and paternalism prevail in Latin America and collectivism is influential in Africa and the Pacific. Paternalism, meanwhile, is prevalent in the Middle East.

Authoritarianism is interpreted differently depending on perspectives. For instance, it is argued that authoritarianism is an inevitable phenomenon due to power or resource inequality, although there are differences in terms of the degree. Another interpretation is that authoritarianism is perceived differently depending on regions. Authoritarianism is perceived relatively negatively in the West but it is interpreted less negatively or even positively in the East.

The role of a leader is somewhat controversial in authoritarian organizational culture. The above literature about culture notes the importance of a leader in organizational culture. Meanwhile, the role of a leader is relatively less emphasized in the literature about authoritarian organizational culture. The role of a leader is referred to in discussions on paternalism, for instance when describing how a father drives his children. However, in Confucianism and collectivism, the leader or leadership is rarely referred to, and social norms tend to be focused on. In addition, the role of a leader is rarely highlighted in discussions on bureaucracy.

The authoritarian personality by Adorno et al. (1950) is perceived as one of the most important in the field of authoritarianism. On the other hand, it is argued that Adorno et al. (1950) tend to approach authoritarianism from the western perspective, while this study approaches authoritarianism from the eastern and/or Asian perspective. As reviewed above, there are differences between the West and the East in terms of approaches to authoritarianism. Therefore, this study has not dealt with the authoritarian personality.

2.3 The concept of flexible organizational culture

Flexible organizational culture, or flexibility, is a familiar term but tends to be somewhat abstract conceptually. In order to make the concept clearer, related concepts need to be reviewed. From this point of view, the study intends to review adhocracy culture, post-bureaucracy, the neo-Weberian state and individualism in terms of flexible organizational culture.

In the above literature about culture, the study has reviewed the four types of organizational culture identified by Cameron and Quinn (1999), which are hierarchy culture, market culture, clan culture and adhocracy culture. Among the four types, it is argued that adhocracy culture is linked to non-authoritarian or flexible organizational culture.

Both bureaucracy and collectivism have been explored to conceptualize authoritarian organizational culture. From this perspective, it is argued that post-bureaucracy and individualism are related to the concept of flexible organizational culture. Individualism shows the opposite characteristics to collectivism. Post-bureaucracy also tend to exist on the opposite side to bureaucracy, even though there are diverse approaches and interpretations in terms of post-bureaucracy (Johnson *et al.*, 2009: 39).

The concept of the neo-Weberian State can be somewhat controversial. The concept was suggested due to the limitations of new public management, which is based on business and market principles (Drechsler, 2005: 1; Dunn and Miller, 2007: 350; Kostakis, 2011: 146, 148). Therefore, it is argued that the neo-Weberian state is in opposition to flexibility. However, given that the neo-Weberian state is approached in terms of flat hierarchies and customer orientation (Drechsler, 2005: 1), it is also argued that it is in line with flexible organizational culture.

Given the above, it is argued that flexible organizational culture is interrelated with adhocracy culture, post-bureaucracy, the neo-Weberian state and individualism. From this point of view, this study intends to shed light on the concept of flexible organizational culture in this part.

2.3.1 Adhocracy culture

The competing values framework is one of the more widely reviewed concepts in terms of organizational culture (Dellana and Hauser, 1999: 11–12; Dwyer *et al.*, 2003: 1011; Boggs,

2004: 43; Naranjo-Valencia *et al.*, 2011: 58; Ahmadi *et al.*, 2012: 288). Quinn and Rohrbaugh (1983), Quinn (1988), Cameron and Freeman (1991) and Cameron and Quinn (1999) mainly develop and analyse the competing values framework (Deshpande *et al.*, 1993; Dellana and Hauser, 1999; Lund, 2003; Dwyer *et al.*, 2003; Boggs, 2004; Masood *et al.*, 2006; Yu and Wu, 2009; Shih and Huaug, 2010; Tseng, 2010; Naranjo-Valencia *et al.*, 2011; Ahmadi *et al.*, 2012; Rameezdeen and Gunarathna, 2012; Shurbagi and Zahari, 2012; Yesil and Kaya, 2013). The study by Cameron and Quinn (1999) in particular tends to be widely reviewed because they improved the completeness of the framework based on the studies by Quinn and Rohrbaugh (1983), Quinn (1988) and Cameron and Freeman (1991) (Dwyer *et al.*, 2003; Boggs, 2004; Masood *et al.*, 2006; Yu and Wu, 2009; Naranjo-Valencia *et al.*, 2011; Ahmadi *et al.*, 2012; Shurbagi and Zahari, 2012; Yesil and Kaya, 2013). In the competing values framework, there are four types of culture, one of which is adhocracy culture (Cameron and Quinn, 2006: 43–45).

[Table 2.3.1] Adhocracy culture

Classification	Content
Root	· <i>Ad hoc</i> – implying something temporary, specialized, and dynamic
Major goals	· To foster adaptability, flexibility, and creativity where uncertainty, ambiguity, and information overload are typical
Dominant Characteristics	· Dynamic, entrepreneurial, and creative workplaces
Organizational Leadership	· Visionary, innovative, risk-oriented
Organizational Glue	· Commitment to experimentation and innovation
Management of Employees	· Individuality, risk-taking, and anticipating the future · New knowledge, products and services · Readiness for change and meeting new challenge
Strategic Emphases	· Rapid growth and acquiring new resources
Criteria of Success	· Producing unique and original products and services
Industry	· Aerospace, software development, think-tank consulting, filmmaking

Source: Adapted from Cameron and Quinn, 2006: 43–45.

The concept of adhocracy culture is explained in [Table 2.3.1] and [Table 2.3.2]. The characteristics suggest that both creativity and entrepreneurship represent adhocracy culture,

even though there are other diverse characteristics such as adaptability, risk-taking, the ability to be dynamic and flexibility, as shown in [Table 2.3.2].

[Table 2.3.2] Characteristics of adhocracy culture

Author	Characteristics
Yu & Wu (2009)	· Temporary institution
Deshpande <i>et al.</i> (1993)	· Entrepreneurship, Creativity, Adaptability, Flexibility, Tolerance
Shih & Huaug (2010)	· Flexibility, <i>Growth</i> , Resource acquisition, Creativity, Adaptation
Dwyer <i>et al.</i> (2003)	· Dynamic, Creative, Risks, Individual, Spontaneity
Naranjo-Valencia <i>et al.</i> (2011)	· Flexibility, Change, Dynamic, Creativity, Entrepreneurship, Risk-taking
Rameezdeen & Gunarathna (2012)	· External support, Resource acquisition, <i>Growth</i> , Insight, Innovation, Adaptation, Innovation, Looseness, Flexibility, Entrepreneurial activity, Creativity, Acquiring resources, Risk, Innovation, Development
Lund (2003)	· Dynamic, Entrepreneurial, Innovation, development, <i>Growth</i> , Acquisition of new resources
Ahmadi <i>et al.</i> (2012)	· Flexibility, Change
Shurbagi & Zahari (2012)	· Same as Cameron and Quinn (1999)
Tseng (2010)	· Dynamic, Entrepreneurial, Creative, Individual, Freedom, Risk
Dellana & Hauser (1999)	· A prospector type strategy, <i>Growth</i> , Resource acquisition
Yesil & Kaya (2013)	· Dynamic, Entrepreneurial, Innovative, Creative, New product and service development, Adaptability, Growth, Change, Productivity, Efficiency, Experimentation
Boggs (2004)	· Same as Cameron and Quinn (1999)
Masood <i>et al.</i> (2006)	· Same as Cameron and Quinn (1999)

Sources: Adapted from Deshpande *et al.*, 1993; Dellana and Hauser, 1999; Lund, 2003; Dwyer *et al.*, 2003; Boggs, 2004; Masood *et al.*, 2006; Yu and Wu, 2009; Shih and Huaug, 2010; Tseng, 2010; Naranjo-Valencia *et al.*, 2011; Ahmadi *et al.*, 2012; Rameezdeen and Gunarathna, 2012; Shurbagi and Zahari, 2012; Yesil and Kaya, 2013.

It is argued that creativity is encouraged in flexible environments. Cameron and Quinn (2006: 44) also insist that ‘adhocracies do not have centralized power or authority relationships’, which emphasizes the flexible characteristics of adhocracy culture.

Another interpretation is that adhocracy culture in fact has authoritarian characteristics. Cameron and Quinn (2006: 44) claim that in adhocracies ‘power flows from individual to individual or from task team to task team, depending on what problem is being addressed at

the time'. This suggests that a hierarchy exists between individuals or groups within adhocracy culture and different powers exist within the hierarchy.

It is argued that Steve Jobs, cofounder of Apple Inc., showed authoritarian or autocratic leadership (Kutsar *et al.*, 2014: 127). An authoritative element is also noted as one of the traits of Bill Gates, cofounder of Microsoft (Sakthikumaar and Kiruthika, 2014: 674–675). Jobs and Gates are among the world's most notable entrepreneurs and they are perceived as creative or innovative icons. However, ironically, they also show authoritarian or autocratic tendencies.

The above two different interpretations suggest that authoritarian or autocratic elements are not always negative. In addition, it could be argued that both authoritarianism and flexibility can coexist or at least that authoritarianism does not completely contradict flexibility.

Elements of adhocracy culture tend to be perceived positively such as creativity, entrepreneurship, adaptability, dynamic and flexibility. However, these elements could be interpreted differently, especially in the public sector. Schulman (1989: 131) argues that the continuous application of adhocracy culture means 'failure of the regular government', referring to 'dangers of inadequacy, lack of accountability, and threats to democracy'. Kim (2014: 399) refers to cohesion, teamwork and morale in the South Korean public sector in terms of organizational effectiveness. From this point of view, for instance, if a government has a plan and spends its budget based on principles of risk-taking or creativity, serious problems would be caused in society. This analysis suggests that in the public sector, a flexible organizational culture is not always appropriate and may not be as positive as people perceive.

2.3.2 Post-bureaucracy

The roots of post-bureaucracy can be approached from two different perspectives: the limitations of bureaucracy and capitalism (Grey and Garsten, 2001: 237; Hodgson, 2004: 83). Alvesson and Willmott (2002) argue that bureaucracy has difficulties in enhancing competitive pressure from the responsive and adaptable perspectives (Hodgson, 2004: 83). The limitations of bureaucracy lead to post-bureaucracy.

Meanwhile, Gee *et al.* (1996: 25) refer to the 'fast capitalist story' (Grey and Garsten, 2001: 237). Post-bureaucracy has arisen as people attempt to survive rapid environmental changes such as globalization, intense competition and rapid technological development (Grey and Garsten, 2001: 237).

It is argued that the two approaches are interrelated. Political, economic and social environments consistently change. Even though existing systems are functional in current environments, they could prove dysfunctional in future environments. Therefore, the existing systems disappear or change and adapt to new environments in order to survive. Bureaucracy itself has a long history, which suggests that it was a feature in traditional societies, but it has limitations in contemporary societies. Consequently, changing environments lead to post-bureaucracy.

On the other hand, there is a different view on whether post-bureaucracy is appropriate in the contemporary public sector. Torsteinsen (2012: 325) argues that ‘[i]t is intriguing to observe that in spite of repeated and at times radical criticism, bureaucracy is still with us’. The argument of whether post-bureaucracy is more suitable than bureaucracy in the current public sector is controversial.

Aside from the above, there are diverse conceptual approaches to post-bureaucracy. Hales (2002: 54) and Maravelias (2008: 350) argue that the concept of post-bureaucracy is not as clearly explained as bureaucracy. Peterson (2005: 24) insists that the widely accepted concept of post-bureaucracy is not defined yet, referring to the other relevant concepts of post-industrialism defined by Gershuny (1978), post-Fordism by Rifkin (1995), postmodern organization by Hassard (1996), the information society by Bell (1974) and Lyon (1988), and the individualized corporation by Ghoshal and Bartlett (1997). Hodgson (2004: 83) contends that post-bureaucracy tends to be defined not in terms of what it is, but what it is not.

[Table 2.3.3] Bureaucracy vs post-bureaucracy

Bureaucracy	Post-bureaucracy
· Consensus through acquiescence to authority	· Consensus through institutionalized dialogue
· Influence based on formal position	· Influence through persuasion/personal qualities
· Internal trust immaterial	· High need for internal trust
· Emphasis on rules and regulations	· Emphasis on organizational mission
· Information monopolized at top of hierarchy	· Strategic information shared in organization
· Focus on rules for conduct	· Focus on principles guiding action
· Fixed (and clear) decision-making processes	· Fluid / flexible decision-making processes
· Communal spirit/friendship groupings	· Network of specialized functional relationships
· Hierarchical appraisal	· Open and visible peer review processes
· Definite and impermeable boundaries	· Open and permeable boundaries
· Objective rules to ensure equity of treatment	· Broad public standards of performance
· Expectation of constancy	· Expectation of change

Sources: Adapted from Heckscher, 1994 cited in Hodgson, 2004: 84.

Even though the concept of post-bureaucracy is somewhat unclear, Heckscher's (1994) concept tends to be widely accepted (Grey and Garsten, 2001: 236; Hodgson, 2004: 83; Torsteinsen, 2012: 324). Torsteinsen (2012: 324) identifies Heckscher as 'one of the most prominent academic proponents of post-bureaucracy', and Hodgson (2004: 83) notes that Heckscher's definition of the post-bureaucratic organization has been quoted by many researchers. This suggests that Heckscher's (1994) concept of post-bureaucracy is worthy of review. It is explained in [Table 2.3.3].

[Table 2.3.4] Characteristics of post-bureaucracy

Author	Content	Perspective
Benveniste (1987)	· The deregulation and the termination of formal directives and involves extended and enhanced employee autonomy	-
Heydebrand (1989)	· A thoroughly intentional, conscious postmodern strategy of increasing the flexibility of social structures and making them amenable to new forms of indirect and internalized control, including cultural and ideological control	-
Sewell (1998)	· The creation of shared meaning, which obviates the need for the principles of hierarchy and explicitly rule-governed behaviour	Control
Grey & Garsten (2001)	· Consensus-building dialogue rather than rule-following, a consensus based upon influence structures which are at least partially independent of formal hierarchy	Organization
Peterson (2005)	· Decentralization and flexibility	-
Maravelias (2008)	· A loose alliance of informally constituted teams with a fluid division of labour, which are formed to deal with temporary projects, and which are coordinated by way of shared values and trust-based relations	Organization

Sources: Adapted from Grey and Garsten, 2001: 236; Hodgson, 2004: 84; Peterson, 2005: 25-26; Maravelias, 2008: 350.

Aside from Heckscher (1994), many writers also have conducted research on post-bureaucracy, as shown in [Table 2.3.4]. Considering the diverse views on post-bureaucracy, it is argued that flexibility and autonomy are the main elements that distinguish post-bureaucracy from bureaucracy.

The degree of autonomy and flexibility is important in flexible organizational culture. For example, in terms of decentralization, local autonomy systems are implemented in many countries. However, there are differences in how autonomy is actually given to local governments. South Korea, for example, has a local autonomy system but local governments still tend to be influenced by central government.

2.3.3 Neo-Weberian state

The neo-Weberian state arose in response to the inadequacies of new public management (Dunn and Miller, 2007: 350; Kostakis, 2011: 146, 148). New public management is the application of business and market principles to the public sector and it tends to be perceived as ‘project management, flat hierarchies, customer orientation, abolition of career civil service, depoliticization, total quality management, and contracting-out’ (Drechsler, 2005: 1). The concept of new public management began to be discussed from the early 1980s, but there were not empirically sufficient cases showing that it improved productivity and welfare in the public sector (Drechsler, 2005: 1, 3; Kostakis, 2011: 147). Indeed, Drechsler (2005: 2) argues that new public management is no longer feasible in the public sector. In this situation, the concept of the neo-Weberian state began to be of interest as an alternative (Kostakis, 2011: 148).

Pollitt and Bouckaert (2004) introduced the concept of the neo-Weberian state (Drechsler, 2005: 8; Kostakis, 2011: 148), which has since been widely reviewed and analysed (Drechsler, 2005: 8; Dunn and Miller, 2007: 351–352; Ongaro, 2008: 113; Tallinn University of Technology, 2009: 13; Cepiku and Mititelu, 2010: 59–60; Kostakis, 2011: 153–154). Pollitt and Bouckaert (2004) argue that the neo-Weberian state maintains useful elements of new public management, but based on Weberianism (Cepiku and Mititelu, 2010: 59). Pollitt (2008) insists that the neo-Weberian state is not just a hybrid model of Weberianism and new public management, focusing on a concept that ‘seeks to modernise that state’ (Kostakis, 2011: 149). Meanwhile, Ongaro (2008: 112-113) insists that the neo-Weberian state is somewhat related with the ‘post-bureaucratic state’ (Barzelay, 1992), ‘(new) public governance’ (Kickert, 1997; Osborne, 2006) and ‘post-bureaucratic’ public administration (Bello and Spano, 2015).

The characteristics of the neo-Weberian state as defined by Pollitt and Bouckaert (2004) are shown in [Table 2.3.5]. Dunn and Miller (2007: 351–352) and Cepiku and Mititelu (2010: 59–60) also refer to eight principles of the neo-Weberian state: 1) centrality of the state; 2) reform and enforcement of administrative law; 3) preservation of public service; 4) representative

democracy; 5) external orientation towards citizens; 6) supplemental public consultation and direct citizen involvement; 7) results orientation; and 8) management professionalism.

[Table 2.3.5] Key elements of neo-Weberian state

Elements	Content
Weberian	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> · Reaffirmation of role of the state as the main facilitator of solutions to the new problems of globalization, technological changes, shifting demographics, and environmental threat · Reaffirmation of the role of representative democracy (central, regional, and local) as the legitimating element within the state apparatus · Reaffirmation of administrative law – suitably modernized – in preserving the basic principles pertaining to the citizen – state relationship, including equality before the law, legal security, and the availability of specialized legal scrutiny of state actions · Preservation of the idea of a public service with a distinct status, culture and terms and conditions
Neo-Weberian	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> · Shift from an internal orientation towards bureaucratic rules to an external orientation towards meeting citizens’ needs and wishes. The primary route to achieving this is not the employment of market mechanisms (although they may occasionally come in handy) but the creation of a professional culture of quality and service · Supplementation (not replacement) of the role of representative democracy by a range of devices for consultation with, and direct representation of, citizens’ views (this aspect being more visible in the northern European states and Germany at the local level than in Belgium, France or Italy) · In the management of resources within government, a modernization of the relevant laws to encourage a greater orientation on the achievements of results rather than merely the correct following of procedure. This is expressed partly in a shift from ex ante to ex post controls, but not a complete abandonment of the former · A professionalization of the public service, so that the ‘bureaucrat’ becomes not simply an expert in the law relevant to his or her sphere of activity, but also a professional manager, oriented to meeting the needs of his or her citizens / users

Sources: Adapted from Pollitt and Bouckaert, 2004: 99–100 cited in Kostakis, 2011: 153–154.

In terms of flexible organizational culture, the neo-Weberian state is somewhat controversial. The neo-Weberian state began to be discussed and analysed because of the limitations of new public management, based on business and market principles in the public sector. In addition, authoritarian characteristics such as the centrality of the state are included in the concept of the

neo-Weberian state. From this point of view, it is argued that the neo-Weberian state goes against the market principle, which also contradicts flexible organizational culture.

Meanwhile, other interpretations hold that non-authoritarian elements such as flat hierarchies, customer orientation and post-bureaucracy are included in the neo-Weberian state. This supports the notion that the neo-Weberian state is in line with flexible organizational culture.

All the above analysis suggests that flexibility is interpreted differently between the public and private sectors. Traditionally, the public sector showed bureaucratic tendencies, but new public management began to be prevalent in the West from the 1970s (Lane, 2000: 3; Parker and Bradley, 2000: 130; Drechsler, 2005: 1). Since the 2000s, the neo-Weberian state has been reviewed and analysed because of the perceived limitations of new public management in the public sector.

The change suggests that the degree of flexibility that is required in the private sector is less appropriate in the public sector. In other words, flexibility based on the neo-Weberian state is more appropriate than flexibility based on new public management in the public sector. It is argued that there are different perceptions about flexibility between the public and private sectors. For instance, risk-taking can be positively perceived in the private sector, while it could cause serious problems in the public sector.

Given the concept of the neo-Weberian state and its interpretations, it is worthwhile reviewing whether movement towards a flexible organizational culture in the public sector is needed. Even though new public management based on the market principle was introduced due to the perceived limitations of bureaucracy, it did not improve productivity in the public sector. Eventually, approaches to management that are less flexible than new public management in the public sector have been reviewed, such as the neo-Weberian state. The change leads to doubts about the necessity of having a flexible organizational culture in the public sector. Indeed, it could be argued that authoritarian organizational cultures are functional in the public sector.

2.3.4 Individualism

Individualism is prevalent in countries of Northern and Western Europe and North America such as the United Kingdom, the United States, Canada and Australia (Hui, 1988: 18–19;

Triandis *et al.*, 1988: 271; Morris *et al.*, 1994: 67). On the other hand, collectivism prevails in Asia, Africa, South America and the Pacific.

Individualism has been approached from diverse perspectives such as philosophy, psychology, anthropology and sociology (Hui and Triandis, 1986: 226–227; Hui, 1988: 18; Morris *et al.*, 1993: 67). Hofstede (1980) defines individualism in terms of emotional independence (Hui, 1988: 18; McCarty and Shrum, 2001: 94). Meanwhile, Triandis (2001: 909) refers to autonomy and independence in individual society and also emphasizes the importance of personal goals. Individual values are more important than group values. Waterman (1984) argues that individualism comprises a sense of personal identity, self-actualization, internal locus of control and principled moral reasoning from a psychological perspective (Hui and Triandis, 1986: 226; Hui, 1988: 18). Schwartz (1990: 144) divides individual value types into hedonism, achievement, self-direction, social power and stimulation. Tiessen (1997: 370) emphasizes independence, competition and oneself as key values of individualism, while Oyserman *et al.* (2002: 4–5) analyse individualism in terms of ‘self-concept, well-being, attribution style and relationality’.

There are diverse elements of individualism such as autonomy, independence, personal goal and identity, self-direction and actualization, competition and achievement based on the above literature. In particular, it is argued that autonomy, independence, ‘personal-’ and ‘self-’ are common values of individualism regardless of approaches. The four elements tend to have the opposite characteristics to control. The analysis suggests that the degree of control is one of the crucial criteria in terms of flexible organizational culture.

Morris *et al.* (1994: 68) categorize hypothetically positive and negative elements of individualism based on related literatures such as Hsu (1981), Spence (1985), Hui and Triandis (1986), Gudykunst *et al.* (1987) and Triandis *et al.* (1988), as shown in [Table 2.3.6].

Some negative elements of individualism show authoritarian characteristics, especially (1) emphasis on personal gain at the expense of others, selfishness and materialism; (2) the strong incentive to pursue unethical behaviour and expediency; (3) the fact that insecurity can result from over-dependence on oneself; and (4) the fact that the onus of failure falls on the individual. Individuals have different capacities. Some have sufficient capacities to achieve personal values and goals, while others have relatively insufficient abilities to survive in competition among individuals. The latter are vulnerable in terms of security and they would tend to look for a reliable leader or group to join. From this perspective, it is possible that collectivism

occurs in individual groups, which suggests that authoritarian and flexible organizational cultures can coexist.

[Table 2.3.6] Positive and negative elements of individualism

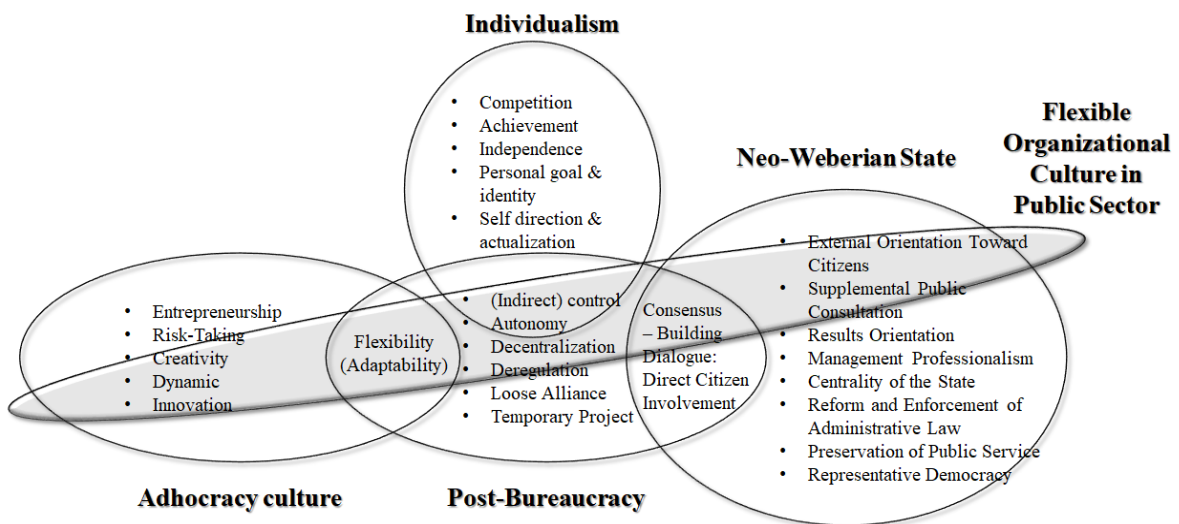
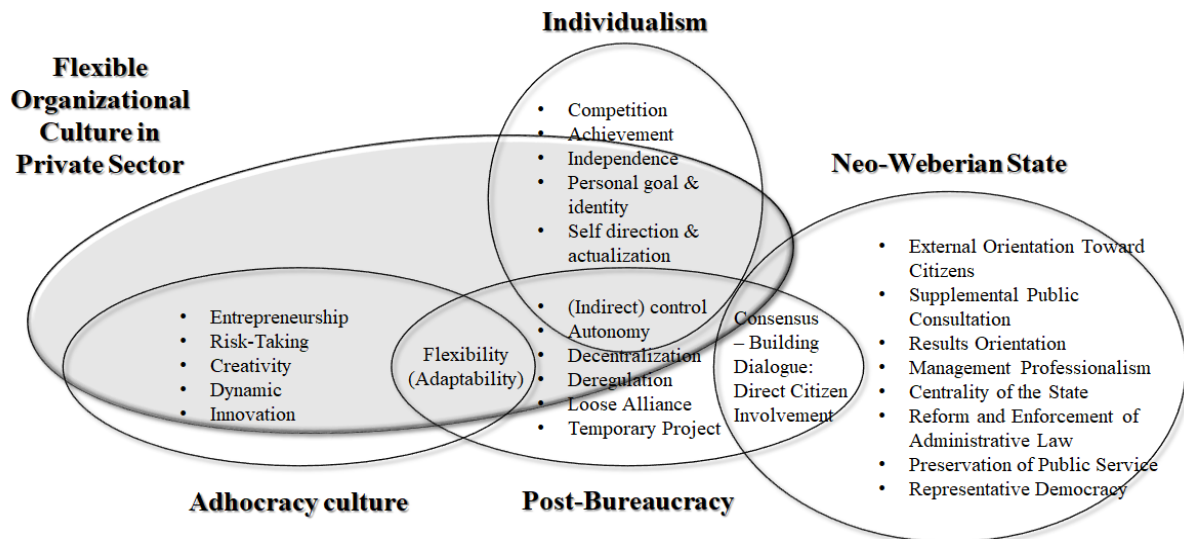
Elements	Content
Positive Elements	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> · Employee develops stronger self-concept, more self-confidence · Consistent with achievement motivation · Competition among individuals encourages greater numbers of novel concepts and ideas; breakthrough innovations · Stronger sense of personal responsibility for performance outcomes · Linkage between personal effort and rewards creates greater sense of equity
Negative Elements	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> · Emphasis on personal gain at expense of others, selfishness, materialism · Individuals have less commitment / loyalty, are more 'up for sale' · Difference among individuals are emphasized · Interpersonal conflicts are encouraged · Greater levels of personal stress, pressure for individual performance · Insecurity can result from over-dependence on one's self · Greater feeling of loneliness, alienation, and anomie · Stronger incentive for unethical behaviour, expediency · Onus of failure falls on the individual

Source: Adapted from Morris *et al.*, 1994: 68.

2.3.5 Conclusion

Flexible organizational culture is interrelated with adhocracy culture, post-bureaucracy, the neo-Weberian state and collectivism, as shown in [Figure 2.3.1]. In the above literature, it is argued that there are differences between the public and private sectors in terms of flexibility. From this point of view, this study interprets flexible organizational culture in the private and public sectors separately.

It is argued that flexible organizational culture in the private sector is closely related with the values of adhocracy culture, post-bureaucracy and individualism, while the relatively flexible organizational culture in the public sector is associated equally with adhocracy culture, post-bureaucracy, individualism and the neo-Weberian state.



[Figure 2.3.1] The relationship among flexible organizational culture vs adhocracy culture vs post-bureaucracy vs neo-Weberian state vs individualism

Based on the relationship among flexible organizational culture, adhocracy culture, post-bureaucracy, the neo-Weberian state and individualism, it is argued that indirect control, autonomy, decentralization, deregulation, adaptability, creativity, ability to be dynamic and innovation are involved in flexible organizational culture in common, whether in the public or private sector. Given the main characteristics of authoritarian organizational culture are hierarchy and conformity, flexible organizational culture could be conceptualized as autonomy in a hierarchical structure. Especially, a high level of autonomy is crucial and a flat hierarchical structure such as decentralization contributes to strengthening autonomy. A high or low level

of autonomy could be decided depending on whether members of an organization fully exercise their autonomy within the bounds of the law and regulation.

On the other hand, entrepreneurship, risk-taking, independence, personal goals and identity, and self-direction and actualization can be somewhat controversial in the public sector. Risk-taking could cause problems, as noted above, and entrepreneurship tends to be aligned with risk-taking. In addition, given that the government serves the public interest, independence, personal goals and identity, and self-direction and actualization are potentially incompatible with the public sector. On the other hand, given that the private sector is based on profit orientation, consensus-building, external orientation towards citizens and supplemental public consultation are also somewhat controversial in that sector.

What elements are included or excluded in flexible organizational culture in the public and private sectors will be different depending on perspectives. There are many variables involved in organizational culture, which could lead to different interpretations of flexible organizational culture. In addition, depending on how flexible organizational culture is conceptualized, approaches to it can be different. For instance, flexible organizational culture has been conceptualized by adhocracy culture, post-bureaucracy, the neo-Weberian state and individualism in this study. However, if it is approached using different concepts, the characteristics of flexible organizational culture and its importance could be interpreted differently.

Aside from the above, important issues have been reviewed: (1) the coexistence of flexible and authoritarian organizational cultures; (2) change from bureaucracy to flexibility and again from flexibility to less flexibility in the public sector; (3) both positive and negative aspects of flexibility and authoritarianism in the public sector; and (4) both flexible and authoritarian characteristics in a single concept. In particular, it could be argued that flexibility does not completely contradict authoritarianism based on the first and fourth issues. In addition, the second issue suggests that authoritarian organizational culture could function in the public sector.

2.4 Change of organizational culture

In this part, this study intends to review literature about change of organizational culture. Especially, necessities, process and difficulties are explored in terms of change of organizational culture. The conceptual analysis of change of organizational culture will contribute to understanding and analysing cultural change in the South Korean civil service.

2.4.1 Necessity of organizational culture change

The necessity of change of organizational culture has been explored. Cameron and Quinn (1999: 1–2, 7) argue that environments change dramatically and unpredictably, and if organizational culture is not in line with these trends, the organization will not survive. Devaraja and Venugopal (2012: 8) claim that previous organizational culture does not fit with contemporary changing environments. If an organization continues to maintain its existing culture, members will act based on this dysfunctional culture, which will affect the organization negatively. Based on Cameron and Quinn (1999) and Devaraja and Venugopal (2012), it is argued that that change of organizational culture is inevitable.

Gladwell (2002) refers to contagiousness, little change and change occurring at one major point as elements causing change of organizational culture (Klobucher, 2006: 10–11). Cameron and Quinn (1999: 7–8) highlight external elements such as the shift from industrialization to informatization. Similarly, Gordon (1991: 406) points out environmental elements such as constant competition, changing tastes and social expectations of customers, and ineffective current value and behaviour in terms of the private sector. Ulrich and Lake (1990) also point out external elements such as globalization, technological development, policy direction in the public sector and demographics, while Childress and Senn (1995) refer to internal elements such as ‘individual accountability, turf issues, and bias-for-action’ (Klobucher, 2006: 10). Schein (2010) and Alvesson (2013) also refer to the diverse elements affecting change of organizational culture, as shown in [Table 2.4.1].

Some of the above elements tend to be more prevalent in change of organizational culture in the private sector rather than the public sector. These include competitive environment, sharp drop in growth rate, loss of sales or profits, and major product failures. From this point of view, the elements affecting change of organizational culture in the public sector could be

summarized as shown in [Table 2.4.2]. Especially, they could be classified into endogenous and exogenous elements; in addition, some elements overlap.

[Table 2.4.1] Elements that cause change of organizational culture

Author	Element
Schein (2010)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> · External crisis (a sharp drop in growth rate, loss of sales or profits, a major product failure, the loss of some key people) · Incremental change (growth of subcultures, diversification into other macro-cultures, gradual ageing/retirement of the founding group, going from private to public ownership, merger, acquisition, self-evolution) · Social-technical issues (introduction of a formal total quality programme, introduction of a new information technology process) · Promotion of insider, leader(ship), relinquishment of control of founder/owner, geographic expansion, new technology, change of composition of the dominant groups or coalition, explosion of scandal/myth
Alvesson (2013)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> · Knowledge society, new economy, e-commerce, rapidly changing consumer tastes, increasing global competition, the young generation being very different from the previous one, people maturing, new impulses, resignation, replacement, change of customer environmental problems, social issues (e.g. gender, sustainable development), healthcare issues, geographical region, general change of value (weaker work morality, higher expectation), an effect of market changes, unintentional effects of specific managerial interventions and systems, downsizing, leader(ship), potential environmental disaster

Sources: Adapted from Schein, 2010: 273–299; Alvesson, 2013: 182–184, 186–188, 194.

[Table 2.4.2] Elements affecting change of organizational culture in the public sector

Classification	Content
Endogenous elements	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> · Leader(ship) · Loss of key people (e.g. retirement, resignation, replacement) · Restructuring and promotion · Change in public policy · Growth of subculture
Overlapping elements	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> · Demographic transition (e.g. the young generation being different from the previous one, people maturing, gradual ageing) · Scandal
Exogenous elements	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> · Globalization, new technology and knowledge society · General change of values (e.g. weaker work morality, higher expectation) · Citizen requirements

Sources: Adapted from Gordon, 1991: 406; Cameron and Quinn, 1999: 8; Klobucher, 2006: 10; Schein, 2010: 273–299; Alvesson, 2013: 182–184, 186–188, 194.

The importance of the role of a leader is highlighted in particular among the endogenous elements. Harigopal (2001) refers to the top-down method for change of organizational culture (Devaraja and Venugopal, 2012: 8–9). First, a leader or senior manager shows her or his intention and efforts in making the change, which affects subordinates. Devaraja and Venugopal (2012: 7) also argue that a leader must recognize the necessity for change of organizational culture. Staw and Fox (1977) emphasize the roles of participants significantly affecting change of organizational culture in terms of decision-making (Gordon, 1991: 407–408), while Schein (2010: 299) also points out the important role of leaders in terms of the change.

Meanwhile, it is argued that the influence of a leader is somewhat different between the public and private sectors. In the public sector, leaders change periodically, sometimes after an election. For example, in South Korea the president takes office following an election and he or she then appoints ministers. After five years, a new president is elected and the ministers also change. On the other hand, a founder or leader in the private sector tends to maintain their position continuously. From this point of view, it is argued that the role of a leader is less influential in the public sector compared with the private sector in terms of change of organizational culture.

Loss of key people, restructuring and promotion are also influential endogenous elements, but they could be interpreted in terms of a leader or leadership. For instance, a leader or senior is also subject to retirement, resignation, replacement, restructuring and promotion and eventually this also leads to a change of leader or leadership.

Changes in public policy could affect changes of organizational culture in part but it could be argued that changes in public policy cannot change organizational culture fundamentally. Culture is interrelated with diverse elements, as reviewed above. Therefore, organizational culture would not simply change through change in public policy.

With respect to growth of subculture, it could be argued that such growth is an outcome rather than an element causing cultural change. A growth of subculture would result from diverse elements such as a leader, loss of key people, restructuring, promotion and change in public policy.

With respect to exogenous elements, rapid environmental change has been highlighted as a key factor; such changes include globalization, new technologies and the knowledge society. It is of paramount importance for organizations to adapt to rapid environmental change in order to

survive in competition. It could be argued that rapid environmental change is more influential in the private sector than the public sector in terms of change of organizational culture. For instance, if a company does not reflect rapid environmental change properly, it could fall into bankruptcy in the worst case. However, even if a government does not reflect such change, the government will not go into bankruptcy, although people would suffer from poor public services.

General changes of values and citizen requirements are also interpreted with rapid environmental change. Environmental change leads to changes of values in society. Eventually, new values in society result in new or different citizen requirements, which change an organization and its culture. For instance, in the past, people worked hard and it was common to work overnight because economic growth was the priority. However, people now pay more attention to the balance between work and personal life, because quality of life has become important in contemporary society. Eventually, such trends are reflected in organizations and their cultures.

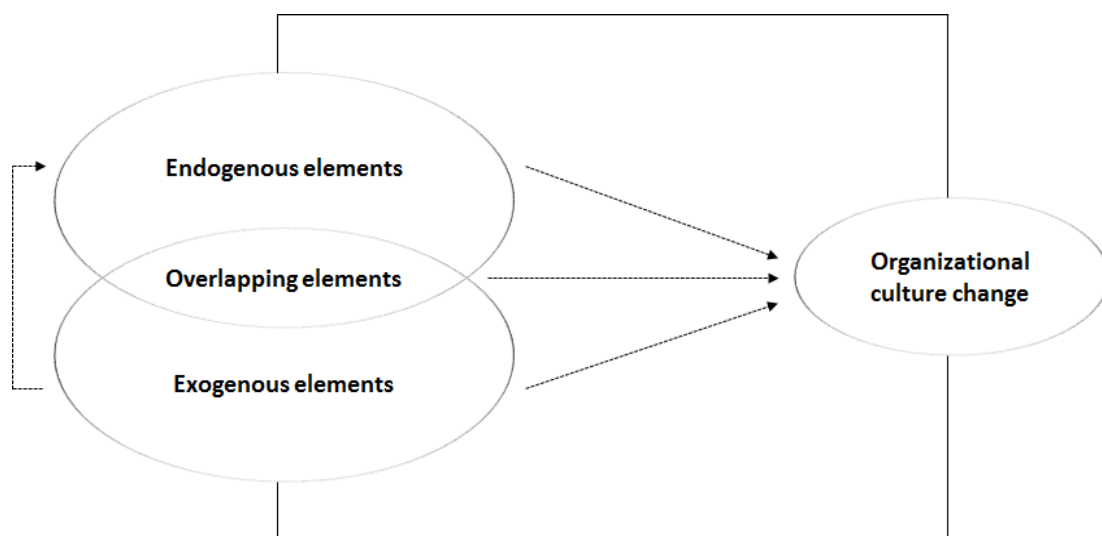
Another interpretation is that a change of values and citizen requirements within society have less influence over organizational culture and changes to it. Organizations employ people based on the vision and values of the particular organization. If applicants do not fit with the organization or its culture, the organization will not employ them.

With respect to the overlapping elements, demographic transition is linked with loss of key people (endogenous element) and environmental changes (exogenous element). With environmental changes, the number of those who have new and different values increases. Meanwhile, the number of those who hold existing values decreases from the demographic perspective as time goes on. From this point of view, within an organization the proportion of the new generation also increases while that of the existing generation decreases because of retirement and resignation. With this change, organizational culture changes naturally. On the other hand, as reviewed above, whether the social change leads to a change of organizational culture and how the social change affects the change of organizational culture could be somewhat controversial.

Scandal is also approached internally and externally. It could be argued that the influence of internal scandal is stronger than the influence of external scandal in terms of change of organizational culture. The internal scandal is directly related to organization, which strongly affects change of organizational culture. On the other hand, another approach is that the

influence of external scandal is stronger than the influence of internal scandal because internal scandal can be covered up or hidden internally. Aside from the two approaches, it could be argued that recently the border between internal and external scandal has become vague due to technological developments such as Internet and social network services (SNS). Through SNS, internal scandals can be released externally and external scandals can be shared internally. Meanwhile, the influence of scandals can be different depending on degree of severity.

Given the above, it is argued that changes of organizational culture are interrelated with endogenous, overlapping and exogenous elements, as shown in [Figure 2.4.1]. All the elements are interrelated with change of organizational culture directly and indirectly, but the influence of a single type of element is insufficient to change organizational culture.



[Figure 2.4.1] Relationship between change of organizational and exogenous, endogenous and overlapping elements

2.4.2 Process of organizational culture change

There are diverse approaches to the process of organizational culture change, as shown in [Table 2.4.3]. In the process by Lewin (1958), it is argued that equilibrium is a key element (Burnes, 2004; Kaminski, 2011). Organizational culture is maintained in equilibrium. If it is not kept so, an organization will begin to change or move to maintain that equilibrium.

Considering the above elements affecting change of organizational culture, it is argued that endogenous and exogenous elements break equilibrium.

It is argued that the process described by Dyer (1986, 1989) is established based on a leader or leadership because the role of a leader is highly important at each stage (Schein, 2010: 287-288). Meanwhile, externally, crises such as declining performance or failure in the market are also perceived importantly in the process of change of organizational culture because the crisis is the start of the process. Without crisis, the process does not start.

The process defined by Lawson and Ventriss (1992) is somewhat in line with that of Dyer (1986, 1989) in terms of a leader or leadership. The leadership team explores the scope of change of organizational culture and its methods. The difference is that a new leader and leadership is important in dealing with crises in Dyer's (1986, 1989) process, but the consistent role of the leadership team is emphasized in the process defined by Lawson and Ventriss (1992). The team consistently monitors the organization and its environment, recognizes problems and determines the method to deal with them.

The process described by Cameron and Quinn (1999) is somewhat gradual; it is relatively smooth through consensus, whereas there are possibilities of conflict in the processes defined by Lawson and Ventriss (1992) and by Dyer (1986, 1989) because a leader or leadership team mainly determines process of change of organizational culture. The analysis suggests that Cameron and Quinn's (1999) process is based on a bottom-up style, while those of Lawson and Ventriss (1992) and Dyer (1986, 1989) are based on a top-down style.

The processes defined by Devaraja and Venugopal (2012) and Alvesson (2013) are somewhat similar to the process developed by Cameron and Quinn (1999) in terms of gradual and bottom-up approaches. The participation and commitment of the members of an organization are crucial in Devaraja and Venugopal's (2012) process, which could be interpreted as a bottom-up approach. Meanwhile, Devaraja and Venugopal (2012: 7) also point out the role of a leader in activities such as encouraging staff involved in the process. In the process by Alvesson (2013), the current organizational culture is reviewed and a more appropriate culture for the present situation is explored and introduced gradually and reasonably. On the other hand, the process developed by Schein (2010) is relatively radical, given the destruction and rebirth involved in it.

The above processes are interpreted from two perspectives: (1) top-down and bottom-up styles; and (2) radical and gradual styles. One interpretation is based on the differences between top-

down and bottom-up styles. In the top-down style, the role of the leader is highly influential. On the other hand, in the bottom-up style the participation of the members of the organization and their consensus are crucial. Another interpretation is the differences between radical or gradual styles of change. In the top-down approach, the process of change tends to be radical, while in the bottom-up approach, it tends to be gradual and smooth.

[Table 2.4.3] The process of organizational culture change

Author	Process
Lewin (1958)	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Unfreezing: Before old behaviour can be discarded (unlearnt) and new behaviour successfully adopted, the equilibrium needs to be destabilized 2. Change or movement: Groups and individuals move to a more acceptable set of behaviours 3. Refreezing: Groups are stabilized at a new quasi-stationary equilibrium in order to ensure that the new behaviour is relatively safe from regression
Dyer (1986, 1989)	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. The organization develops a sense of crisis because of declining performance or some kind of failure in the marketplace, and concludes it needs new leadership 2. Simultaneously, there is a weakening of ‘pattern maintenance’ in the sense that procedures, beliefs, and symbols that support the old culture break down 3. A new leader with new assumptions is brought in from the outside to deal with the crisis 4. Conflict develops between the proponents of the old assumptions and the new leadership 5. If the crisis is eased and the new leader is given the credit, he or she wins out in the conflict and the new assumptions begin to be embedded and reinforced by a new set of pattern maintenance activities
Lawson & Ventriss (1992)	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Determine the scope of change: The leadership team must first determine if the problems confronting their organization are systemic, chronic, and resistant to prior change effort focused upon a given departmental unit or isolated subgroups of individuals. 2. Select methods of cultural observation and action learning: The leadership team must select a mix of method for observing the current organizational culture as reflected in shared organizational behaviours, values, and beliefs of the members. 3. Shape cultural and learning change programmes: Moving from observations of the current culture and action-learning strategies to the designed and implementation of specific cultural change programmes requires the development of action plans that include specific organizational goals.
Cameron & Quinn (1999)	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Reach consensus on the current culture 2. Reach consensus on the desired future culture 3. Determine what the changes will and will not mean 4. Identify illustrative Stories 5. Develop a strategic action plan

	6. Develop an implementation plan	
Schein (2010)	Founding & Early Growth	1. Incremental change through general and specific evolution: environment
		2. Insight
		3. Promotion of hybrids within the culture
	Midlife	4. Systematic promotion from selected subcultures
		5. Technological seduction
		6. Infusion of outsider
	Maturity & Decline	7. Scandal and explosion of myths
		8. Turnarounds
		9. Mergers and acquisitions
		10. Destruction and rebirth
Devaraja & Venugopal (2012)	1. Involving them (staff) in the development of change strategies	
	2. Demonstrating how the new vision will meet their individual needs (e.g. for job security, professional development)	
	3. Modelling the new behaviours he / she needs them to adopt	
	4. Using early successes in some parts of the organization to reinforce further change	
Alvesson (2013)	1. Evaluating the situation of the organization and determining the goals and strategic direction	
	2. Analysing the existing culture and sketching a desired culture	
	3. Analysing the gap between what exists and what is desired	
	4. Developing a plan for developing the culture	
	5. Implementing the plan	
	6. Evaluating the changes, making new efforts to go further and / or engaging in measures to sustain the cultural change.	

Sources: Adapted from Lewin, 1958 cited in Select Knowledge and Simms, 2005: 124; Lawson and Ventriss, 1992: 214–215; Cameron and Quinn, 1999: 89–90; Burnes, 2004: 313; Schein, 2010: 273, 287–288; Kaminski, 2011; Devaraja and Venugopal, 2012: 7; Alvesson, 2013: 187.

2.4.3 Difficulties of organizational culture change

Even though the necessities of change of organizational culture are recognized and the proper process is reviewed, designed and conducted, the change may not be successful because there are many obstacles and points of resistance in the process. Difficulties in the process have been investigated, as shown in [Table 2.4.4].

Instability and responsibility are identified as major difficulties in the process of change of organizational culture based on Staw and Fox (1977) (Gordon, 1991: 407-408). In the process of a change of organizational culture, instability is inevitable to some extent but decision-makers should be responsible for the result. Therefore, they tend not to commit to change, as long as successful change is not guaranteed.

It is argued that instability and reasonability are more influential elements in a top-down approach rather than a bottom-up approach. In a top-down approach, decision-makers are more clear than they are in a bottom-up approach. Therefore, clear decision-makers are responsible for results in a top-down approach, while responsibility is relatively unclear in a bottom-up approach.

Gordon (1991) and Schein (2010) emphasize past success as a difficulty in terms of change of organizational culture. This is because the current culture of an organization is held deeply and strongly by its members because of the continued success from the past. This success causes resistance to the imposition of a new culture because the new culture has not been verified yet.

The continued success from the past is easily identifiable in the private sector through factors such as a sharp rise in growth rate, increase in sales or profits and major product successes. However, it is somewhat less clear in the public sector. For instance, South Korea achieved dramatic economic growth under the dictatorship but democracy was suppressed and delayed. On the one hand, it could be argued that public policy was successful from the economic perspective. However, on the other hand, it could be argued that public policy was not successful from the social or political perspective. The analysis suggests that continued success from the past is a bigger challenge in the private sector than the public sector.

Schein (2010) and Devaraja and Venugopal (2012) refer to psychological safety as one of the main difficulties. People tend to feel somewhat uncomfortable about new cultures because of the potential disadvantages they see in the new culture and complacency about the current culture. From this point of view, how to deal with learning anxiety is also one of the challenges in the process of change of organizational culture.

It is argued that this complacency tends to be more prevalent in the public sector than in the private sector. In the public sector, there is less competition and staff members tend to prefer stability. Retirement is also guaranteed except for in extreme cases. On the other hand, in the private sector competition for survival is severe and staff members tend to be used to this. Therefore, staff in the private sector would be less anxious than staff in the public sector in terms of complacency issues. The analysis suggests that psychological safety is a bigger challenge in the public sector than the private sector.

[Table 2.4.4] Difficulties of organizational culture change

Author	Content
Staw & Fox (1977)	· The escalation of commitment was not stable over time and after the initial negative feedback, participants who had high responsibility for the decisions dramatically decreased their investment
Gordon (1991)	· The culture, based upon successful lessons from the past, resists change
Schein (2010)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> · Continued success creates two organizational phenomena that make culture change more difficult · The learner must come to feel that the new way of being is possible and achievable, and that the learning process itself will not be too anxiety provoking or demeaning. · Learning anxiety can be based on one or more valid reasons: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> : Fear of loss of power or positions : Fear of temporary incompetence : Fear of punishment for incompetence : Fear of loss of personal identity : Fear of loss of group membership
Devaraja & Venugopal (2012)	· Where the culture is strongly moulded, de-stabilization may be needed to shake employees out of their complacency and ‘feel’ the need for change. This de-stabilization also however generates resistance to change
Alvesson (2013)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> · In organization dominated by professionals – such as hospitals, accounting and law firms – management typically is relatively weak · The relative significance of material change is also related to the subject matter. If it is a matter of core business with direct perceived links to production, performance and performance measures, then a ‘pure’ cultural change appears unrealistic · Size is important in the sense that it is much easier to influence the understandings and meanings of people in the near environment by example and direct communication than to reach people at distance with indirect means

Sources: Adapted from Gordon, 1991: 406–408; Schein, 2010: 289; 300–305; Devaraja and Venugopal, 2012: 7; Alvesson, 2013: 179, 191, 194–197.

Alvesson (2013) refers to professional organization, subject matter and size of organization in terms of difficulties in the process of change of organizational culture. It is argued that cultural change in professional organization groups such as doctors, lawyers or accountants is more difficult than in non-professional groups. With respect to subject matter, change of organizational culture can be different depending on the characteristics of the work in question. As for size, it is argued that it is more difficult to change organizational culture in large-scale organizations than small ones.

In an organization, departments are divided depending on the nature of work and some departments mainly comprise professional staff. In addition, professional departments tend to be smaller in size than non-professional departments. From this point of view, it is argued that how authoritarian organizational culture and its change are interrelated with professionalism, nature of work and size in the South Korean civil service is worthy of consideration.

Given the above, it is argued that the difficulties of change of organizational culture are instability, responsibility, continued success from the past, psychological safety, professionalism, nature of work and size of organization.

2.4.4 Conclusion

The above literature and its analysis suggest that change of organizational culture is inevitable. There are diverse elements affecting change of organizational culture and they can be classified into endogenous and exogenous elements. In terms of endogenous elements, leader and leadership, loss of key people, restructuring and promotion, change in public policy and growth of subculture were referred to, and leader and leadership were highlighted in particular.

From the exogenous perspective, rapid environmental change, general change of values and citizen requirements have been reviewed and rapid environmental change has been emphasized in particular. Such environmental changes include globalization, new technology and the knowledge society. Demographic transition and scandal have been explored from both the endogenous and exogenous perspectives.

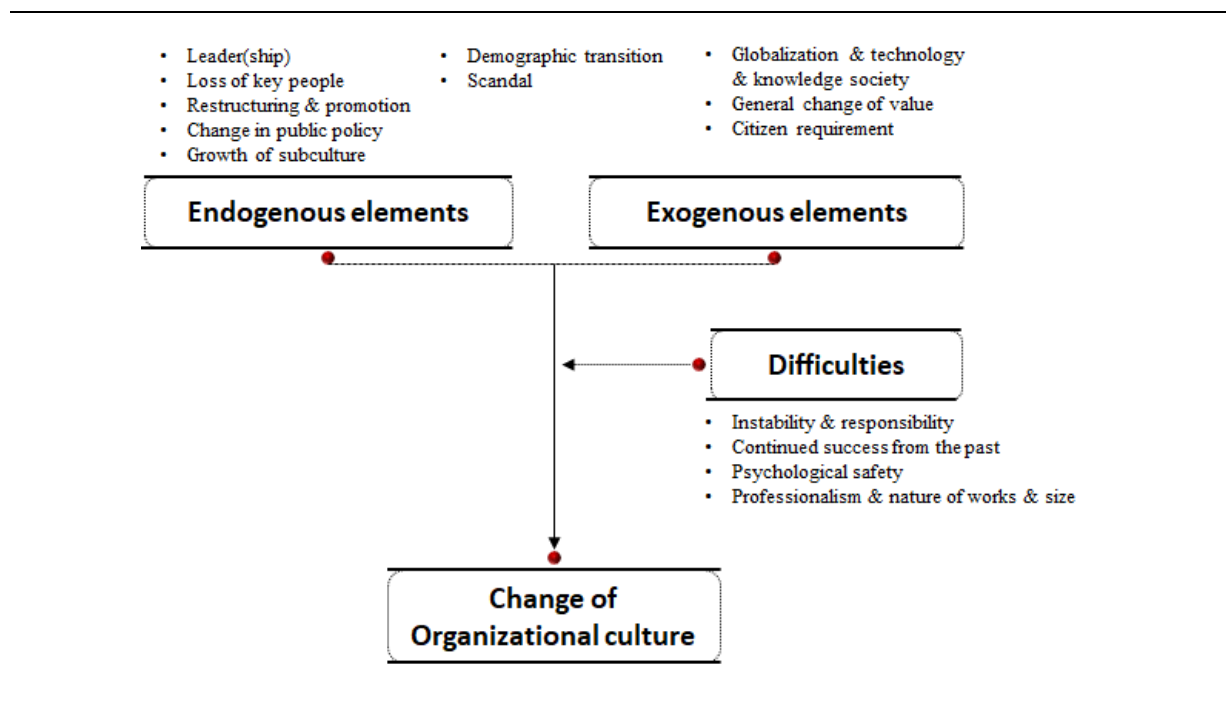
Meanwhile, interpretations of the elements can be different depending on whether the focus is the public or private sector. For instance, a leader changes periodically after an election in the public sector, while a founder or leader tends to maintain her or his position continuously in the private sector. Therefore, it is argued that the role of a leader in the private sector is more influential than the same role in the public sector in terms of change of organizational culture.

It is of paramount importance for organizations to adapt to rapid environmental change for survival in competition. For instance, if a company does not reflect rapid environmental change properly, it could fall into bankruptcy in the worst case. However, even when a government does not reflect such changes, the government will not go into bankruptcy, but people will suffer from poor public services. From this point of view, it is argued that rapid environmental change is more influential in the private sector than the public sector.

As for the process of change of organizational culture, there are diverse approaches, namely top-down and bottom-up. The role of a leader is highly influential in the top-down approach, while the participation of the members of an organization and their consensus are crucial in the bottom-up approach. In addition, processes based on the top-down approach tend to be radical, while those based on the bottom-up approach tend to be gradual and smooth.

In terms of difficulties of change of organizational culture, instability, responsibilities, continued success from the past, psychological safety, professionalism, nature of work and size of organization have been reviewed. Difficulties are interpreted differently depending on perspectives such as the top-down and bottom-up approaches or public and private sector settings. For instance, reasonability is a more influential element in a top-down approach than a bottom-up approach because decision-makers are clear in a top-down approach but they are less clear in a bottom-up approach. In addition, psychological safety is a bigger challenge in the public sector than the private sector because there is less competition in the public sector and staff there tend to prefer stability.

There are diverse approaches and interpretations towards change of organizational culture, as shown in [Figure 2.4.2].



[Figure 2.4.2] Change of organizational culture

2.5 Organizational culture in the South Korean public sector

This study has reviewed culture, authoritarian organizational culture, flexible organizational culture and change of organizational culture conceptually in the above. Before exploring authoritarian organizational culture in the South Korean civil service, it is worthwhile reviewing similar literatures with this study. Therefore, the study intends to review literature on the national culture in South Korea, organizational culture in the public sector and more specifically organizational culture in the South Korean public sector in this part.

2.5.1 National culture in South Korea

Kim and Ko (2016) and Park and Song (2018) refer to Confucianism as the national culture in South Korea. Kim and Ko (2016: 324) insist that the Korean organizational culture is distinguished from the Western culture in terms of Confucianism. Park and Song (2018: 384) also argue that the origins of organizational culture in South Korea are Confucianism.

Cho and Yoon (2001: 71–72) identify Confucianism, military dictatorial regimes and paternalistic leadership in terms of the origins of South Korean corporate culture. In terms of military dictatorial regimes, they refer to the regime under Park Jung-Hee in particular.

Even though the three elements are referred to in terms of corporate culture, it is argued that they are also involved in national culture, especially Confucianism and the military dictatorial regime. Given that Confucianism is one of the traditional values in Korea, Confucianism can reasonably be approached from the perspective of national culture. In addition, the military dictatorial regime element can be interpreted in terms of modern national culture. Korea became independent from Japan in 1945 after the Second World War, but the country was divided into South and North Korea. From 1950 to 1953, the Korean War between South and North Korea ravaged the peninsula. Later, during the military dictatorial regime under Park Jung-Hee in the 1960s and 1970s, South Korea began to achieve dramatic economic growth. From this point of view, it is argued that the military dictatorial regime affected national culture in South Korea in the process of modern state formation. Cho and Lee (2001: 87–88) also refer to Confucian values and the experience of a centralized military regime in terms of the national culture in South Korea.

Base and Rowley (2001: 411) note Confucianism and the Japanese and American influence on national culture in Korea based on studies by Lee (1998) and Rowley (2001). Korea was

colonized by Japan between 1910 and 1945, and subsequently South Korea was under the control of the US military government from 1945 to 1948. However, Base and Rowley (2001) argue that Confucian values are more influential than the Japanese and American influence in the national culture of South Korea.

Lee (2001: 1–2) mentions traditional Confucian values and more modern values recently acquired from the outside in terms of national culture. Confucianism has influenced Korean culture and society. In particular, Confucianism affected politics, society, culture and education in Korea for around 500 years before the Japanese colonial era. Recently, an influx of new values through globalization has influenced South Korea culturally. Lee (2001) argues that these traditional and new values coexist.

Rowley *et al.* (2004: 923–924) refer to Buddhism and Confucianism as the national culture in South Korea from religious and philosophical perspectives. Especially, they emphasize the importance of Confucianism in terms of personal and social norms, explaining that Confucian values were prevalent as the state religion over 500 years in the past.

Given the above, it is argued that Confucianism, Buddhism, the Japanese colonial era, the US military government, a centralized military regime and a recent influx of new values from the outside have affected the national culture of South Korea. The influence of Confucianism is strongly emphasized in particular.

The analysis suggests that the strong influence of Confucianism on the national culture of South Korea has resulted in authoritarianism in South Korean society. In the above literature review, it is noted that Confucianism has authoritarian characteristics, such as hierarchy and conformity, and it has also been noted that Korea is the most Confucian state.

On the other hand, it could be argued that not only Confucianism but also other elements have authoritarian characteristics. Korea was mercilessly oppressed by Japan during the colonial period between 1910 and 1945, and South Korea was strictly controlled under the US military government between 1945 and 1948. After the establishment of the first South Korean government in 1948, the strongly centralized military regime under Park Jung-Hee governed South Korea in the 1960s and 1970s. Heady (1992: 330) argues that even after 1990s, politicians and scholars with military backgrounds continued to dominate government (Cho and Lee, 2001: 88). In other words, all the elements influencing national culture in South Korea have authoritarian characteristics, except for recent new values from outside.

It is argued that once a national culture is formed, it is difficult to change. Since national culture based on Confucianism was formed in the fourteenth century, as noted above, other elements have influenced national culture such as the Japanese colonial era, the US military government, a centralized military regime and a recent influx of new values from the outside. However, national culture based on Confucianism has been maintained continuously and remains strong in the current society.

Another interpretation is that national culture based on Confucianism has been maintained in current society because it existed for around 500 years, from the fourteenth to the nineteenth centuries. On the other hand, the Japanese colonial era lasted from 1910 to 1945 and the period of US military government was only from 1945 to 1948. Park Jung-Hee's military regime lasted through the 1960s and 1970s and the influx of new values from outside is relatively recent. These other elements influenced national culture for less than 30 years, which is insufficient time to reform national culture.

2.5.2 Organizational culture in the public sector

Organizations in the public and private sectors are different (Parker and Bradley, 2000: 137; Schraeder *et al.*, 2005: 494–495). For instance, the public sector is relatively more influenced by the political environment, while the private sector is more influenced by market environments. In addition, the public sector focuses on public concerns, benefits and interests, while the private sector concentrates on the pursuit of profit. From this point of view, it is argued that organizational cultures in the public and private sectors are different. In this part, literature on organizational culture in the public sector will be reviewed.

Slack and Singh (2018) investigated organizational culture in the Fijian public sector based on the competing values framework. The study compares the Fiji Islands Maritime Safety Administration in 2011 and the Maritime Safety Authority of Fiji in 2013 based on six dimensions which are dominant characteristics, organizational leadership, management of employees, organizational glue, strategic emphases and criteria of success. Both qualitative and quantitative data are collected by survey.

The organizational culture in both the Fiji Islands Maritime Safety Administration and the Maritime Safety Authority of Fiji are the hierarchical culture among four cultures which are hierarchy, clan, adhocracy and market. The first preferred organizational culture in the two

organizations is clan culture and the second preferred organizational culture is hierarchical culture.

The analysis could be interpreted in three perspectives. First, it is difficult to change organizational culture. According to the research, there were attempts to change organizational culture in both the Fiji Islands Maritime Safety Administration and the Maritime Safety Authority of Fiji from the late 1990s. However, the current organizational culture in both organizations are the hierarchical culture which is traditional organizational culture in the public sector. Second, it is argued that authoritarianism based on strict hierarchy and strong leadership is needed in certain areas. The two organizations are responsible for the maritime safety and the strict hierarchy and strong leadership could be required in the area. Third, staff in public sector does not want to change to flexible organizational culture. According to the research, the first and second preferred organizational culture are clan and hierarchical culture and the third and fourth preferred organizational culture are adhocracy or market culture. The response shows that staff in public sector prefer hierarchical culture than adhocracy and market culture.

Pimpa (2012) analyses organizational culture in the Thai public sector based on Hofstede's cultural dimensions, which are masculinity–femininity, individualism–collectivism, power distance, uncertainty avoidance and long- and short-term orientation. The study focuses on the Ministry of Education and it is designed based on quantitative research methods.

First, sex, education and experience are referred to as variables in terms of the masculinity vs femininity dimension. A male civil servant with a higher education level and a lot of experience shows stronger masculinity than a female civil servant with a low education level and less experience. In terms of gender equity, a civil servant with a higher education level and a lot of experience is more favourable than a civil servant with a low education level and less experience.

In terms of authoritarianism, sex, education and work experience are also worthy of consideration as variables in the public sector. In addition, analysis about gender equity suggests that authoritarian tendencies could be reduced through education.

Second, in terms of individualism vs collectivism, more junior civil servants show collective tendencies, while more senior civil servants show individual tendencies. Junior civil servants need support from senior civil servants, who are more powerful or influential within the

organization. The difference leads to more collective tendencies in the junior and individual tendencies in the senior.

It tends to be perceived that the younger generation show more individualism than older generations but the above finding in the civil service somewhat contradicts this perception. The Thai case suggests that generational characteristics are different between society and organizations. For instance, the younger generation might show more individual tendencies in society but they show more collective tendencies within an organization. Aside from this difference, the Thai case also suggests that the degree of authoritarianism is different depending on the positions and levels of civil servants. For instance, senior civil servants show individual tendencies while junior civil servants show collective tendencies.

Third, in respect of the power distance dimension, it is rarely deemed acceptable for subordinates to challenge or argue with their superiors in the Thai public sector because superiors are highly powerful. Pimpa (2012) argues that the characteristic is so strong that it rarely changes. Given that the degree of power distance between Thailand and South Korea is similar according to the Hofstede research, it is argued that the South Korean public sector has a strong authoritarian organizational culture.

Fourth, in terms of the uncertainty avoidance dimension, avoiding conflicts and uncertainties is identified as one of the characteristics of the Thai public sector. If a subordinate expresses personal ideas to their superior it could cause a negative impact as they may be perceived as a trouble-maker or a challenger to the leader. Quietness and obedience are accepted as proper traits for an ideal follower.

There are many reasons why subordinates obey and avoid conflict with superiors. It could be argued that one is promotion. Superiors would be directly and indirectly involved in the promotion of subordinates because the influence of superiors is strong. Therefore, subordinates will avoid conflict with superiors in order not to suffer disadvantages in pursuing promotion. From the authoritarian perspective, the analysis suggests that promotion could be utilized as a tool or the means to operate and maintain an authoritarian organizational culture.

Fifth, it is argued that long-term orientation is stronger than short-term orientation in the Thai public sector. Pimpa (2012) argues that there have been changes in terms of gender and group orientation, compared with research conducted by Hofstede in the 1980s.

Parker and Bradley (2000) explore organizational culture in the public sector of Queensland, Australia, based on the competing values framework. The study focuses on six organizations involved in central coordination, infrastructure provision and social services, and is designed based on a quantitative research method. Based on this methodology, it is argued that the degree of authoritarian organizational culture is different depending on the type or nature of the organization in question. For instance, an organization in charge of social services shows less authoritarian tendencies than an organization in charge of infrastructure provision.

Since the 1980s, public sector reform has been performed in Australia based on new public management, emphasizing change, flexibility, entrepreneurialism, outcomes, efficiency and productivity. However, the Queensland public sector shows bureaucratic or hierarchical characteristics. Parker and Bradley (2000) analyse and interpret the findings from the perspective of management and public policy. They found it is difficult to change organizational culture without sufficient managerial support. Meanwhile, the public and private sectors are fundamentally different in terms of public policy.

As for the continuous bureaucratic or hierarchical characteristics with public sector reform based on new public management, it could be argued that the values of new public management, such as flexibility, efficiency and productivity, are not completely in opposition to bureaucracy or hierarchy. For instance, a bureaucratic or hierarchical organization can be flexible, efficient or productive. Meanwhile, given that it is argued that bureaucracy is related to authoritarianism in terms of hierarchy and expertise in the above literature review, it is argued that flexibility is not the complete opposite of authoritarianism.

Kloot and Martin (2007) studied organizational culture and financial information in the local government of Victoria, Australia. The study focuses on six local government authorities who agreed to participate in the study and uses a quantitative research method.

In Australia, public sector reform based on new public management was performed between the 1990s and the mid-2000s but a clan culture rather than market culture has been maintained within organizational culture there. The study suggests that organizational culture has rarely moved into market culture because most managers have been in the public sector for a long time. This means they have become used to the existing culture and take care of each other. Meanwhile, accounting, budgetary and financial information has been improved in terms of quality and use.

The studies by Parker and Bradley (2000) and Kloot and Martin (2007) suggest that organizational culture is different depending on local governments, as evidenced by the hierarchy culture in the Queensland public sector and the clan culture in the public sector in Victoria. From this point of view, it could be argued that the degree of authoritarian organizational culture is different between central and local governments, local governments and departments.

Aside from the different degree of authoritarian organizational culture between central and local governments, local governments and departments, the study by Kloot and Martin (2007) also suggests that organizational culture is less related to the specific type of work. Organizational culture has rarely changed in the Victorian public sector in Australia, but the quality of accounting, budgetary and financial information has been improved.

On the other hand, the study by Goddard (1997) somewhat contradicts the study by Kloot and Martin (2007) in terms of the relationship between organizational culture and work. Goddard (1997) analyses the relationship between organizational culture and financial control in terms of functional paradigm. The study concentrates on a local government organization in the UK and is designed based on quantitative research methods.

According to Goddard (1997), there is a positive relationship between organizational culture and budget-related behaviour such as budgetary participation and the usefulness of budgets in supporting the managerial role, although the relationship is somewhat complicated.

Meanwhile, the relationship between authoritarian organizational culture and quality, efficiency or productivity of work is somewhat controversial. On the one hand, work is carried out efficiently and productively where there is a strong, top-down style based on authoritarianism. On the other hand, wrong or biased decisions made under the same strong, top-down style based on authoritarianism cause inefficiency and unproductivity.

Given the studies by Goddard (1997) and Kloot and Martin (2007), it is argued that quality, efficiency or productivity of work is improved through policy reform and can be maximized by the support of organizational culture.

Ahmad and Gelaidan (2011) studied the relationship among leadership, employee's affective commitment to change and organizational culture in the Yemeni public sector. The study adopts both quantitative and qualitative research methods. According to the study, transformational leadership positively contributes to the employee's affective commitment to

change and organizational culture plays the role of a bridge between leadership and commitment.

Baah *et al.* (2011) also explore how leadership is related with organizational culture and how they influence performance in the Ghanaian public sector. The study is mainly based on literature review. They argue that transformational leadership influences organizational culture and the culture affects the perceptions and behaviours of staff, which eventually has effects on performance.

It is argued that a leader or leadership affects authoritarian organizational culture based on the studies by Ahmad and Gelaidan (2011) and Baah *et al.* (2011). The degree of authoritarian organizational culture can be different depending on the characteristics of the leader or leadership.

2.5.3 Organizational culture in the South Korean public sector

Organizational culture in the public sector has similar characteristics regardless of the country, but there are also differences depending on location due to different national cultures. In this part, the literature on the organizational culture in the South Korean public sector is reviewed.

Cho and Lee (2001) compare managers' perceptions and attitudes between the public and private sectors in South Korea in terms of organizational commitment. The study examines two local governments and three private banks, and a quantitative research method is adopted.

According to the research, managers in the public sector show stronger centralized tendencies than those in the private sector. In terms of job prestige, meanwhile, managers in the public sector are more satisfied than managers in the private sector; indeed, job prestige is one of most important elements in terms of organizational commitment. Cho and Lee (2001) argue that Confucianism and experiences under the military regime in the past affect centralization and job prestige in the public sector. On the other hand, there are no differences between the public and private sectors in terms of commitment to stay, job satisfaction and inequity.

Job prestige could also be approached in terms of elitism and professionalism. In terms of organizational culture, it could be argued that both elite and professional groups such as lawyers and doctors tend to show more authoritarianism than non-elite and non-professional

groups in South Korea. From this point of view, it is worthwhile reviewing how authoritarianism is interrelated with professionalism and elitism.

Park and Song(2018) also compare the relationships among members between the public and private sector in South Korea based on Hofstede model and a quantitative research method is adopted.

Power distance in the private sector is higher than power distance in the public sector and individualism and femininity in the public sector are stronger than individualism and femininity in the private sector. Uncertainty avoid in the public sector is lower than uncertainty avoid in the private sector. Park and Song (2018) agree that flexibility and autonomy in the public sector is secured compared with the private sector.

Park and Song (2018) somewhat contradict Cho and Lee (2001). Cho and Lee (2001) argue that managers in the public sector show stronger centralized tendencies than those in the private sector. However, Park and Song (2018) argue that power distance in the private sector is higher than power distance in the public sector and individualism in the public sector is stronger than individualism in the private sector.

It could be argued that organizational culture has changed toward flexible tendencies in the public sector through continuous efforts for cultural change between the early 2000s and the late 2010s. However, given that objects of the two researches are not completely same, there are limitations to generalize the cultural change toward flexibility in the public sector.

Kim (2014) investigates the relationship among transformational leadership, clan culture, affective commitment and organizational citizenship behaviour in the South Korean public sector. The study focuses on a local government and a quantitative research method is adopted. According to his research, transformational leadership is positively associated with clan culture and affective commitment. Clan culture is positively related with affective commitment, and this commitment is positively concerned with organizational citizenship behaviour. On the other hand, organizational citizenship behaviour is rarely related with clan culture and transformational leadership. Kim (2014) argues that clan culture acts as a mediator between transformational leadership and affective commitment in part, and affective commitment acts as a mediator between clan culture and organizational citizenship behaviour.

Kang and Kim (2016) analyse the relationship between indigenous administrative culture and performance management systems in the South Korean public sector. Especially, the study focuses on local government, and a quantitative research method is adopted.

Authoritarianism, collectivism and favouritism are referred to as the indigenous administrative culture. The performance management system weakens authoritarianism and favouritism. However, the system does not affect collectivism and collectivism in local governments is still prevalent.

Ko *et al.* (2007) explore authoritarianism in the central government between 1971 and 2006 using a quantitative research method. According to their research, it is argued that the degree of authoritarian characteristics has changed from high to middle levels. However, authoritarianism still exists, even though the degree has been weakened.

With respect to organizational culture in the South Korean public sector, Cho and Lee (2001) point out the strong centralized characteristics, while Ko *et al.* (2007) argue that the organizational culture is authoritarian, although its degree has been weakened. Kang and Kim (2016) argue that authoritarianism and favouritism have been weakened but collectivism is still prevalent. On the other hand, Kim (2014) interprets organizational culture in the South Korean public sector in terms of clan culture, and Park and Song (2018) refers to low power distance and individualism in the public sector. Interpretations of organizational culture in the South Korean public sector by Cho and Lee (2001), Ko *et al.* (2007), Kim (2014), Kang and Kim (2016) and Park and Song (2018) are thus somewhat different.

The difference of perception of organizational culture is divided into two perspectives. First, organizational culture and its degree are different depending on governmental organization. The governments whose organizational cultures Cho and Lee (2001), Ko *et al.* (2007), Kim (2014), Kang and Kim (2016) and Park and Song (2018) chose to analyse are different. For instance, the local governments analysed by Cho and Lee (2001) and Kim (2014) belong to different provinces, while Ko *et al.* (2007) focused on the central government. From this point of view, it is argued that the degree of authoritarian organizational culture is different depending on central and local government or local governments.

Second, the difference between clan and authoritarian culture is somewhat vague in South Korea and its Confucian state. Kim (2014) argues that the organizational culture in the South Korean public sector is a clan culture. On the other hand, Ko *et al.* (2007) argue that the organizational culture in the South Korean public sector is authoritarian. Clan culture tends to

be interpreted in terms of family type (Cameron and Quinn, 1999: 41). In the Confucian family, the obedience of the children and dedication of the wife towards the father/husband are important, which could be interpreted as authoritarianism. From this view, it could be argued that clan culture is used interchangeably with authoritarian culture in Confucian society and, as has been established, Korea is the most Confucian state.

Kang *et al.* (2008: 1563–1564) analyse the relationship between knowledge-sharing and work performance in the South Korean public sector in terms of three dimensions: organizational (organizational learning culture, organizational structure, employee training, reward systems and support from top management), individual (openness in communication and cooperative relationships) and characteristics of knowledge (charity of knowledge and usefulness of knowledge). The study focuses on the central government and it is designed based a quantitative research method. According to the research, employee training, reward systems, support from top management and openness in communication affect knowledge-sharing, which is related with work performance. In addition, mutual trust affects both knowledge-sharing and work performance.

Strong support from top management could be seen in terms of authoritarian organizational culture because such support could be interpreted as indicative of a strong, top-down style. The analysis suggests that authoritarianism is functional in some areas, although it tends to be perceived negatively.

2.5.3 Conclusion

There are diverse elements affecting the national culture in South Korea such as Confucianism, Buddhism, the Japanese colonial era, the US military government, a centralized military regime and a recent influx of new values from outside. Confucianism in particular has strongly influenced Korean national culture.

It is argued that the strong influence of Confucianism affects authoritarianism in South Korea. On the other hand, another possible interpretation is that not only Confucianism but also other elements have reinforced authoritarianism.

With respect to formation and change of national culture, it is argued that once a national culture is formed, such as Confucianism, it is difficult to change. On the other hand, another

possible interpretation is that the national culture based on Confucianism has been maintained in current Korean society because it has been in place for around 500 years.

As for organizational culture in the public sector, diverse variables such as sex, education, work experience, positions or levels of civil servants, types or natures of organizations, central or local governments, and a leader or leadership have all been noted as influential.

In terms of organizational culture in the South Korean public sector, centralization and job prestige have been noted. It is argued that Confucianism and experiences under the past military regime have affected this organizational culture based on centralization and job prestige. Especially, job prestige is approached in terms of elitism and professionalism. It is argued that both elite and professional groups tend to show authoritarianism in South Korea, which suggests a connection between authoritarianism and professionalism and elitism.

Aside from this, diverse views on authoritarian organizational culture have been explored, even though they can be somewhat controversial. First, the characteristics of various generations can be different in society and within organizations. Second, authoritarianism may not be the complete opposite concept of flexibility. Third, authoritarianism is functional in some areas. Fourth, promotion plays a role as a tool to maintain authoritarianism.

2.6 Conclusion

In the above, this study has reviewed related literature to analyse authoritarian organizational culture in the South Korean civil service. Even though authoritarianism and authoritarian organizational culture are familiar terms, the concept of authoritarian organizational culture is relatively unclear. In order to shed light on the concept clearly, collectivism, Confucianism, paternalism and bureaucracy were reviewed. It is argued that both hierarchy and conformity are the main elements in authoritarian organizational culture. Especially, the top-down approach is viewed as strong, while the bottom-up approach is weak in hierarchical structures. On the other hand, the concept and its interpretations can be different depending on perspectives and approaches.

The concept of flexible organizational culture is also somewhat unclear, although again the term is familiar. This study has explored adhocracy culture, post-bureaucracy, the neo-Weberian state and individualism to conceptualize flexible organizational culture. Flexible organizational culture has been analysed from the public and private perspectives. Indirect control, autonomy, decentralization, deregulation, adaptability, creativity, dynamic and innovation are involved in flexible organizational culture in common, regardless of whether the setting is the public or private sector. On the other hand, the concept and its interpretation can be controversial depending on whether the perspective is from the public or private sector.

There are many literatures on the national culture in South Korea, organizational culture in the public sector and organizational culture in the South Korean public sector in particular, and research is approached from diverse perspectives. However, research on organizational culture mainly adopts the quantitative research method. In order to understand organizational culture broadly, the quantitative research method is appropriate, but qualitative research methods also contribute to understanding organizational culture deeply.

In addition, research on organizational culture in the public sector mainly chooses either central or local government. However, organizational culture can differ depending on whether the setting is central and local government or local governments, as reviewed above. From this point of view, there are limitations to these attempts to reflect organizational culture in the public sector fully.

This study analyses authoritarian organizational culture in the South Korean civil service, considering the limitations especially in terms of methodologies.

Chapter 3

Methodology

3.1 Research design

Definitions of research design are somewhat different depending on perspectives and periods, as shown in [Table 3.1.1]. Selltitz *et al.* (1962) approach research design in terms of the arrangement of conditions, while Nachmias and Nachmias (1992) define it from the perspective of blueprints. Kumar (2005) interprets it in terms of a plan, and Thyer (1993) analyses it based on both a blueprint and plan. It could be argued that all the definitions of research design are fundamentally similar, although approaches regarding the definition are, seemingly, somewhat different. The purpose of research design is to design a structure for research to achieve the research objectives and answer the research questions.

[Table 3.1.1] Definitions of research design

Author	Content
Selltiz <i>et al.</i> (1962)	· A research design is the arrangement of conditions for collection and analysis of data in a manner that aims to combine relevance to the research purpose with economy in procedure
Nachmias & Nachmias (1992)	· The research design is the ‘blueprint’ that enables the investigator to come up with solution to these problems
Thyer (1993)	· A traditional research design is a blueprint or detailed plan for how a research study is to be completed – operationalizing variables so they can be measured, selecting a sample of interest to study, collecting data to be used as a basis for testing hypotheses, and analysing the results
Kumar (2005)	· A research design is a procedural plan that is adopted by the researcher to answer questions validly, objectively, accurately, and economically
Punch (2014)	· <i>At the most general level</i> , it means all the issues involved in planning and executing a research project – from identifying the problems through to reporting and publishing the results
	· <i>At its most specific level</i> , the design of a study refers to the way a researcher guards against, and tries to rule out, alternative interpretations of results
	· <i>Between these two</i> , there is the general idea of design as situating the researcher in the empirical world, and connecting research questions to data

Sources: Adapted from Nachmias and Nachmias, 1992: 98; Kumar, 2005: 84; Punch, 2014: 114.

There are various types of research design, as shown in [Table 3.1.2]. Nachmias and Nachmias (1992) refer to four types, while Bouma and Atkinson (1995) and Bryman (2016) divide research design into five types. Kumar (2005) and Punch (2014) classify the type based on certain perspectives such as contacts, periods, nature, and qualitative and quantitative approaches.

[Table 3.1.2] Types of research design

Author	Content	
Nachmias & Nachmias (1992)	· Experiments, Correlational Design, Quasi-experimental Design	
Bouma & Atkinson (1995)	· Case study, longitudinal study, comparison, longitudinal comparison, experiment	
Kumar (2005)	Number of contacts with the study population	· Cross-sectional study design, Before – and – after study design, longitudinal study design
	Reference period of the study	· Retrospective study design, Prospective study design, Retrospective-prospective study design
	Nature of the investigation	· Experimental study design, Non-experimental study design, Quasi / semi - experimental study design
	· Action research, Feminist research, Cross-over comparative experimental design, Replicated cross-sectional design, Trend studies, Cohort studies, Panel studies, Blind studies, Double-blind studies, Case studies	
Punch (2014)	Qualitative Perspective	· Case study, Ethnography, Grounded theory, Action research
	Quantitative Perspective	· The experiment, Quasi-experimental design, Non-experimental design
Bryman (2016)	· Experimental design, Cross-sectional or survey design, Longitudinal design, Case study design, Comparative design	

Sources: Adapted from Nachmias and Nachmias, 1992: 97–147; Bouma and Atkinson, 1995: 106; Kumar, 2005: 92–113; Punch, 2014: 113–138, 205–223; Bryman, 2016: 44.

Experimental, case study, longitudinal study, comparative and cross-sectional study have been identified as typical types of research design, as shown in [Table 3.1.3]. Meanwhile, even though each type has its own characteristics, some characteristics partly overlap among different research designs, such as longitudinal study and comparative design, and longitudinal study and case study (Bryman, 2016: 44–70).

[Table 3.1.3] Typical types of research design

Types	Content
Experimental Design	· The experimental design involves determining the effect that a change in one variable has upon another
Case Study Design	· The case study design is to study a social phenomenon through a thorough analysis of an individual case. The case may be a person, group, episode, process, community, society or any other unit of social life
Longitudinal Study Design	· The longitudinal study design involves two or more case studies of the same group with a period of time between each study
Comparative Design	· The comparative design involves comparing one measure of two or more groups. The measure is ideally taken at the same time
Cross-Sectional Design	· This design is best suited to studies aimed at finding out the prevalence of a phenomenon, situation, problem, attitude or issue, by taking a cross-section of the population

Sources: Adapted from Bouma and Atkinson, 1995: 114–134; Kumar, 2005: 93–113.

In terms of selecting research design, Bouma and Atkinson (1995: 133) refer to research questions and hypothesis as key elements. Given the research questions and hypothesis in this study, it is argued that a mix of case study and comparative study is suitable.

This study focuses on authoritarian organizational culture in the South Korean civil service and it can be argued that the case study design fits with this topic. Many organizations in central and local governments are investigated in an effort to understand and analyse authoritarian organizational culture in the South Korean civil service fully. If a single organization were investigated, it would be difficult to analyse comprehensively the degree of authoritarian organizational culture, its effects, and change of organizational culture in the South Korean civil service. From this point of view, it can be argued that a comparative study approach is appropriate. This study thus adopts a mix of case study and comparative design.

3.2 Research method

Bryman (2016: 40) argues that ‘a research method is simply a technique for collecting data’. There are many methods of data collection and they can be classified somewhat differently based on types such as primary and secondary data, and quantitative and qualitative data, as

shown in [Table 3.2.1]. In addition, a single method can be divided in greater detail into categories such as structured, semi-structured and unstructured interviews.

[Table 3.2.1] Methods of data collection

Author	Content		
Nachmias & Nachmias (1992)	· Observational methods, Survey research (personal interviews and questionnaires), Secondary data analysis (analysis of existing documents, and qualitative research)		
Kumar (2005)	Primary data	Observation	· Participants observation
		Interview	· Non-participants observation
		Questionnaire	· Structured interviews · Unstructured interviews
	Secondary data	Document	· Mailed questionnaire · Collective questionnaire · Government publications, Earlier research, Census, Personal records, Client histories, Service records
Bryman (2016)	Quantitative	· Structured interview, Self-administered questionnaires, Structured observation	
	Qualitative	· Ethnography and participant observation, Interview, Focus group	
	Mixed	· Convergent parallel design (Triangulation design), Exploratory (sequential) design, Explanatory (sequential) design, Embedded design	

Sources: Adapted from Nachmias and Nachmias, 1992: 197–198; Kumar, 2005: 118; Punch, 2014: 308–311; Bryman, 2016: 197–283, 422–524, 619–661.

Methods have their own advantages and disadvantages (Nachmias and Nachmias, 1992: 197). Kumar (2005: 119) argues that ‘none of the methods of data collecting provides 100 percent accurate and reliable information’. Nachmias and Nachmias (1992: 197) also recommend using a variety of methods of data collection.

This research uses more than one research method for data collection. In this study, there are five research questions but there would be limitations in attempting to answer all the questions using a single method of data collection. For instance, a survey is more appropriate than interviews to answer the question ‘To what extent is authoritarian organizational culture present in the South Korean civil service?’ On the other hand, an interview is more effective than surveys in seeking to answer the question ‘How does authoritarian organizational culture

operate in the South Korean civil service?’ Hence, the more appropriate method is adopted or data collection methods are mixed depending on the type of research question.

Bryman (2014: 635) argues that mixed method research is ‘a simple shorthand to stand for research that combines quantitative and qualitative research within a single project’. Punch (2014: 302) defines it as ‘empirical research that involves the collection and analysis of both qualitative and quantitative data’. Johnson and Onwuegbuzie (2004: 18) point out that the method maximizes the strengths and complements the weaknesses of methods of data collection (Punch, 2014: 303). On the other hand, the mixed method is criticized from the desirable or feasible perspectives and the term (‘the mixed method’) is explained somewhat differently (Bryman, 2014: 635; Punch, 2014: 302).

[Table 3.2.2] Mixed method research

Type	Content
Triangulation Design	· The purpose of the triangulation design is to obtain complementary quantitative and qualitative data on the same topic, bringing together the different strengths of the two methods. It is a one-phase design, where the two types of data are collected in the same time frame and are given equal weight.
Embedded Design	· One data set plays a supportive secondary role in a study based primarily on the other data type. This design is based on ideas that a single data set is not sufficient, that different questions need to be answered and that different types of questions require different types of data to answer them.
Explanatory Design	· This is a two-phase mixed methods design, where the researcher uses qualitative data to help explain, or to build upon, initial quantitative results. The first phase is quantitative, and the second phase is qualitative.
Exploratory Design	· In this two-phase mixed method design, qualitative data are collected in the first phase, and quantitative data in the second. Its general logic is that quantitative investigation is inappropriate until exploratory qualitative methods have built a better foundation of understanding.

Sources: Adapted from Punch, 2014: 309–310.

According to Punch (2014), there are four types of mixed method research, as shown in [Table 3.2.2]. Based on the above, it is argued that an explanatory design is appropriate for this study but it does not fully reflect the research method ultimately employed.

An explanatory design is adopted to answer the research questions ‘To what extent is authoritarian organizational culture present in South Korean civil service?’ and ‘Has

authoritarian organizational culture changed in the South Korean civil service?’ The degree and change of authoritarian organizational culture are analysed based on a quantitative research method and, subsequently, the qualitative research method is used to support the interpretation of the results.

However, the explanatory design is less appropriate for answering the research questions ‘How does authoritarian organizational culture operate in the South Korean civil service?’ and ‘What are the effects of authoritarian organizational culture in the South Korean civil service?’ The analysis for these two research questions is mainly carried out using a qualitative research method, as a quantitative method would have limitations in this case.

This study uses surveys and interviews to collect data, but it does not approach them from the quantitative and qualitative perspective. Survey is widely accepted as a quantitative research method, while interview is perceived as qualitative. However, the questionnaires of the surveys in this study sought the perception of staff within organizations. In other words, data collected by survey seemingly is quantitative in form, but fundamentally it is qualitative.

[Table 3.2.3] Main types of survey and associated methods

Technology for Distribution	Method of Data Collection	
Postal	Mail	Questionnaire
Face to face	Individual	Interview
	Group	Questionnaire
Telephone	Landline	Interview
	Mobile	Questionnaire
Internet	Email	Interview
	Web-based	Questionnaire
Social networking sites	Facebook	Interview
	Twitter	Questionnaire

Source: Adapted from Denscombe, 2014: 9.

The survey has been widely used in social science as one of the most important research methods (Nachmias and Nachmias, 1992: 234; Denscombe, 2014: 7). There are several types of survey, as shown in [Table 3.2.3] (Nachmias and Nachmias, 1992: 234; Denscombe, 2014: 7–9).

It can be argued that postal would have been a less appropriate method for this study because of the typically low response rate (Nachmias and Nachmias, 1992: 234). The response rate to a telephone survey would be higher than the postal response rate, but would still not be expected to be high enough. As for the Internet and SNS, older participants might not be familiar with the technology, which could lead to a low response rate.

Therefore, the survey for this study was conducted using a face-to-face method. The researcher directly met participants, distributed questionnaires to them and collected the questionnaires from them. More time and costs are required than with other methods. However, the response rate would be higher and the face-to-face method could make participants feel that confidentiality would be guaranteed.

[Table 3.2.4] The advantages and disadvantages of surveys

Advantage	Disadvantage
· Costs and time	· Depth or detail
· ‘Real-world’ data	· Low response rates
· Can be used with large-scale and small-scale research	· Contact with ‘hard-to-reach’ research populations
· Can collect both quantitative and qualitative data	· Tendency to focus on data accumulation and data description more than theory

Source: Adapted from Denscombe, 2014: 29–30.

Surveys have advantages and disadvantages, as shown in [Table 3.2.4]. The disadvantages identified are depth, low response rates, contact and less focus on theory. In terms of depth and detail, data collected through interviews are mainly analysed to answer research questions that require in-depth discussion. As mentioned above, this study used both surveys and interviews to collect data. The disadvantage of low response rate can be addressed by employing the face-to-face method, and, as noted above, this study adopted the face-to-face method for this very reason. In terms of contact with ‘hard-to-reach’ research populations, there were no significant difficulties or challenges because the researcher contacted civil servants in this study through their personal network. In order to deal with the tendency to focus less on theory, this study will create a link between theory based on literature review and analysis based on the data collected in surveys and interviews in seeking to draw conclusions.

[Table 3.2.5] Types of interviews

Author	Type	
Minichiello <i>et al.</i> (1990)	· Structured interviews, Focused or semi-structured interviews, Unstructured interviews	
Fontana & Frey (1994)	· Structured interviewing, Semi-structured interviewing, Unstructured interviewing	
Fielding (1996)	· Standardized, Semi-standardized, Non-standardized	
Patton (2002)	· The informal conversational interview, the general interview guide approach, the standardized open-ended interview	
Kumar (2005)	· Unstructured interviews, (Interviews at different levels of flexible and specificity), Structured interviews,	
Denscombe (2014)	· Structured interviews, Semi-structured interviews, Unstructured interviews	
Punch (2014)	· Structured interviews, Group interviews/focus groups, Unstructured interviews	
Bryman (2016)	Qualitative	· Unstructured interview, Semi-structured interviews
	Quantitative	· Structured interviews

Sources: Adapted from Kumar, 2005: 123; Denscombe, 2014: 186; Punch, 2014: 145–148; Bryman, 2016: 466.

Interviews tend to be a widely used tool in terms of achieving an in-depth study (Kumar, 2005: 123; Punch, 2014: 144; Bryman, 2016: 466). Interviews are classified into four types, which are structured interviews, semi-structured interviews, unstructured interviews and group interviews, although approaches to interviews can be somewhat different, as shown in [Table 3.2.5].

Structured interviews, semi-structured interviews, unstructured interviews and group interviews are explained in [Table 3.2.6]. It is argued that among the four types of interview, the semi-structured interview is the best fit for this study. The structured interview overlaps with surveys in part while the unstructured interview is less appropriate when seeking to answer certain research questions. Focus groups would have been somewhat infeasible, given that most of participants are civil servants. The semi-structured interview, on the other hand, is appropriate, especially in terms of its clear framework of questions and the flexibility of the interviewee.

[Table 3.2.6] The four types of interview

Type	Characteristics
Structured Interview	· <i>Structured interviews</i> involve tight control over the format of the questions and answers. The researcher has a predetermined list of questions, to which the respondent is invited to offer limited-option responses. This standardizes the process of data collection.
Semi-structured Interview	· The interviewer still has a clear list of issues to be addressed and question to be answered. However, the interviewer is prepared to be flexible in terms of the order in which the topics are considered, and, perhaps more significantly, to let the interviewee develop ideas and speak more widely on the issues raised by the researcher.
Unstructured Interview	· <i>Unstructured interviews</i> go further in the extent to which emphasis is placed on the interviewee's thoughts. The idea is to let interviewees develop their own ideas and pursue their own train of thought rather than have the discussion shaped by questions which the researcher already has in mind.
Focus Group	· The focus group method is form of group interview in which there are several participants (in addition to the moderator/facilitator); there is an emphasis in the questioning on a particular fairly tightly defined topic; and the accent is upon interaction within the group and the joint construction of meaning.

Sources: Adapted from Denscombe, 2014: 186–187; Bryman, 2016: 501

Kumar (2005) and Denscombe (2014) refer to the advantages and disadvantages of interviews, as shown in [Table 3.2.7]. In terms of disadvantages, it is argued that reliability is a highly important issue in this study. Whether the opinions of interviewees regarding the question are reliable or whether the interviewees provide truthful statements could be debateable. Therefore, reliability is always considered by the researcher in the process of the analysis and interpretation of interviews. In addition, through comparisons of responses between survey and interviews, and interviews between internal and external stakeholders, reliability is reviewed. On the other hand, even though reliability is referred to as a disadvantage, interviews are still worthwhile because unexpected new or important elements could come up during conversations.

Aside from reliability, Nachmias and Nachmias (1992: 235) refer to ‘low response rate and difficulty in asking sensitive questions’. The low response rate can be minimized by personal access and the face-to-face method, as noted above. In order to deal with the difficulties of asking sensitive questions, the questions in surveys and interviews are designed and asked

indirectly. The indirect method can be useful in helping participants to answer questions honestly and reliably.

There are other disadvantages such as interviewer effects, inhibitions, invasion of privacy, interaction between interviewers and interviewees, issues when multiple interviewers are used and the biases of researchers or interviewers. These elements tend to be related to the interviewers or researchers themselves. In order to minimize the disadvantages, interview guidelines, interview skills and practical issues are comprehensively reviewed based on the relevant literature before interviews.

[Table 3.2.7] The advantages and disadvantages of interviews

Classification	Advantage	Disadvantage
Denscombe (2014)	· Depth of information	· Validity of the data
	· Insights	· Interviewer effect
	· Equipment	· Reliability
	· Informants' priorities	· Time-consuming
	· Flexibility	· Resources
	· High response rate	· Inhibitions
	· Validity of the data	· Invasion of privacy
	· Therapeutic	
Kumar (2005)	· The interview is more appropriate for complex situations	· Interviewing is time-consuming and expensive
	· It is useful for collecting in-depth information	· The quality of data depends upon the quality of the interaction
	· Information can be supplemented	· The quality of data depends upon the quality of the interviewer
	· Questions can be explained	· The quality of data may vary when many interviewers are used
	· Interviewing has a wider application	· The researcher may introduce his/her bias
	· The interviewer may be biased	

Sources: Adapted from Kumar, 2005: 131–132; Denscombe, 2014: 201–202.

3.3 Sampling

Kumar (2005: 164) defines sampling as ‘the process of selecting a few (a sample) from a bigger group (the sampling population) to become the basis for estimating or predicting the prevalence of an unknown piece of information, situation or outcome regarding the bigger group’. It is important to achieve a precise estimate from certain sample size (Nachmias and Nachmias,

1992: 170; Kumar, 2005: 169). Through sampling, time and resources can be saved but accuracy could decrease (Kumar, 2005: 164–165; Bryman, 2016: 184).

Approaches to types of sampling are somewhat different, as shown in [Table 3.3.1]. Bryman (2016) classifies the type in terms of quantitative and qualitative perspectives, while Nachmias and Nachmias (1992) and Kumar (2005) approach it in terms of probability and non-probability. In terms of qualitative and quantitative perspectives, Kumar (2005: 165, 181) argues that sampling is not a serious issue in qualitative research, but Punch (2014: 160–161) claims that sampling in qualitative research is in fact as important as sampling in quantitative research.

[Table 3.3.1] Types of sampling

Author	Type	
Bryman (2016)	Quantitative	· Simple random sample, Systematic sample, Stratified random sample, Multi-stage cluster sample
	Qualitative	· Purposive sample
Nachmias & Nachmias (1992)	Probability	· Simple random sampling, Systematic sampling, Stratified sampling, Cluster sampling
	Non-probability	· Convenience sample, Purposive sample, Quota sample
Kumar (2005)	Random/Probability	· Simple random sampling
		· (Dis)proportionate stratified random sampling
		· Cluster sampling (single, double, multi-stage)
	Non-random/Probability	· Quota sampling · Judgemental sampling · Accidental sampling · Snowball sampling
Mixed sampling	· Systematic sampling	

Sources: Adapted from Nachmias and Nachmias, 1992, 175, 177; Kumar, 2005: 170; Bryman, 2016: 176–180, 409.

There are various elements that need to be taken into account carefully in the process of deciding upon sample size, as shown in [Table 3.3.2]. Bryman (2016: 183) argues that ‘there is no one definitive answer’, which suggests that the element and its importance can be different depending on the research question, purpose and methodology. Meanwhile, given that accuracy and precision are pointed out by both Nachmias and Nachmias (1992) and Kumar (2005), it is argued that the level of accuracy is one of the most crucial elements.

[Table 3.3.2] Consideration for decision on sample size

Author	Content	
Bryman (2012)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> · Saturation · The minimum requirements of the research for an adequate sample · The style of theoretical underpinnings of the research · The heterogeneity of the population from which sample is drawn · Research question 	
Kumar (2005)	Qualitative	· Saturation
	Quantitative	· Level of confidence and variation, Degree of accuracy
	General	· The larger is the sample size, the more accurate will be your estimates
	Practice	· Budget determines the size of sample
Nachmias & Nachmias (1992)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> · Researchers must decide how precise they want their sample results to be, that is, how large a standard error is acceptable. · The decision on a sample size also depends on the way the results are analysed. · If more than one variable is to be studied a sample that is adequate for one variable may be unsatisfactory for author. 	

Sources: Adapted from Nachmias and Nachmias, 1992, 190; Kumar, 2005: 181–182; Bryman, 2016: 418.

[Table 3.3.3] The South Korean Administrative District

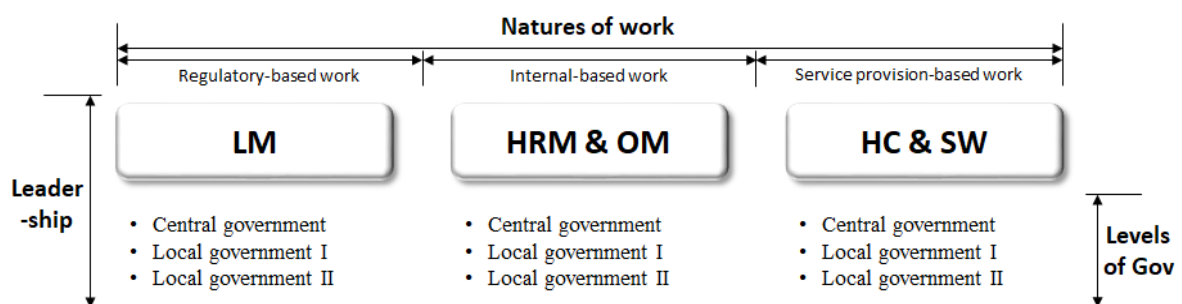
City·County·District		The Level of City, County and District				Non-autonomous	
		Sum	City	County	District	City	District
Metropolitan·Province							
Sum (17)		226	75	82	69	2	32
Special city	Seoul	25			25		
Metropolitan City	Busan	16		1	15		
	Daegu	8		1	7		
	Incheon	10		2	8		
	Gwangju	5			5		
	Daejeon	5			5		
	Ulsan	5		1	4		
Metropolitan autonomous city	Sejong						
Province	Gyeonggi	31	28	3			17
	Gangwon	18	7	11			
	Chungbuk	11	3	8			4
	Chungnam	15	8	7			2
	Jeonbuk	14	6	8			2
	Jeonnam	22	5	17			
	Gyeongbuk	23	10	13			2
	Gyeongnam	18	8	10			5
Self-governing province	Jeju					2	

Source: Adapted from Ministry of Government Administration and Home Affairs, 2017: 4.

Prior to sampling for this study, it was advisable to review the South Korean administrative district. The administrative district can be divided into three levels: (1) the metropolitan city; (2) province (*Si · Do*); and (3) city, county and district (*Si · Gun · Gu*), as shown in [Table 3.3.3]. There are few autonomous counties under metropolitan cities but there are many autonomous counties and cities under provinces. There are many autonomous districts but there are no non-autonomous districts within metropolitan cities. However, there are no autonomous districts and few non-autonomous cities and districts under provinces.

Considering both the above administrative districts and the central government, the South Korean civil service can be divided into three levels: central government, local government I (the level of metropolitan city and province), and local government II (the level of city, county and district). The central government is mainly responsible for the establishment of policy, law and systems, while local government I tends to link central government and local government II. Local government II delivers the established policy, law and systems.

This study uses a purposive sampling method for survey. There are 17 local governments at local government I level and 226 at local government II level, as shown in [Table 3.3.2]. It would have been difficult to cover all the local governments within the limited resources of this study; therefore, local governments were chosen based on representative, historical and geographical perspectives. In order to ensure confidentiality and anonymity, this study does not refer to governments by name.



(LM: Land management / HRM: Human resource management / OM: Organization management / HC: Healthcare / SW: Social welfare)

[Figure 3.3.1] Sampling of this study

In order to analyse organizational culture in the South Korean civil service, this study examines the land management, human resource management, organization management, healthcare and social welfare organizations in central government as well as local government I and II, as shown in [Figure 3.3.1].

As reviewed in the above, diverse elements that could affect organizational culture have been noted such as leadership, nature of work and level of government. Through comparison of all the organizations, the influence of leadership in the South Korean civil service is analysed. In terms of nature of work, this study chose three types of organization that undertake regulatory-based work (land management), internal-based work (human resource management and organization management) and service provision-based work (healthcare and social welfare). Through comparison of the three types of organization, the effects of nature of work are explored. There are different approaches to classifying types of organization based on nature of work, but it is argued that the three types fully reflect the whole civil service. As for the level of government, organizations in central government and local government I and II are compared vertically.

The researcher has personal access to a network for finding interview subjects, but it was insufficient for this study, so snowball sampling was used. As long as the first access for interview is secured, interviews can continue through snowball sampling. It is advisable to conduct interviews until the interviewer reaches the *saturation* point, which means that the interviewer is no longer obtaining new information in terms of accuracy. However, the limited time and costs are also considered.

The researcher interviewed civil servants from each organization responsible for regulatory-based, internal-based and service provision-based work. In the process of the interviews, the level of the civil servants, level of government and nature of work were considered in terms of balance. In addition, interviews with external stakeholders were conducted in order to address concerns of reliability and bias, as it was felt civil servants may hide sensitive or otherwise important points, or talk only from a certain viewpoint.

Errors can arise in the process of sampling. Such errors can be classified in terms of researchers and participants, while there are diverse approaches and interpretations, as shown in [Table 3.3.4]. Errors by the researcher can include sampling errors, inaccurate sampling frame, data collection and processing errors (e.g. poor question wording, poor interviewing technique,

errors in the coding of answers), and conscious and unconscious influence by human choice. Non-response or cooperation are examples of errors caused by the participant.

Researcher errors can be minimized by reviewing related literatures, conducting pilot tests, double-checks in the process of coding and reviews by senior academic researchers and colleagues. In order to address participant errors, personal access to the participants can be secured and interview skills can be improved through related literatures.

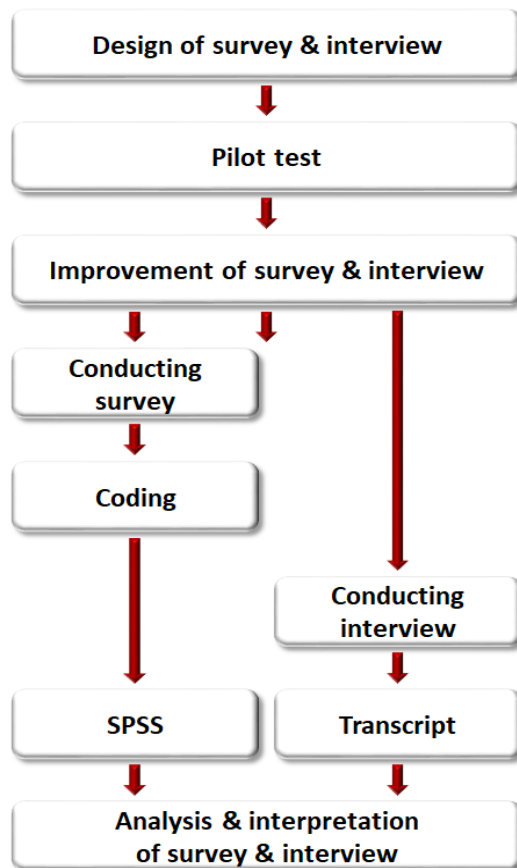
[Table 3.3.4] Errors in the process of sampling

Author	Content
Bryman (2012)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> · Sampling error (e.g. difference between a sample and the population) · Sampling-related error (e.g. inaccurate sampling frame, non-response) · Data-collection error (e.g. poor question wording, poor interviewing tech) · Data-processing error (e.g. errors in the coding of answers)
Kumar (2005)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> · Sampling is done by a non-random method – that is, if the selection is consciously or unconsciously influenced by human choice. · The sampling frame – list, index or other population records – which serves as the basis of selection, does not cover the sampling population accurately and completely. · A section of a sampling population is impossible to find or refuse to cooperation.
Nachmias & Nachmias (1992)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> · Standard / Sampling error · Non-sampling error (e.g. non-response error)

Sources: Adapted from Nachmias & Nachmias, 1992, 185, 190; Kumar, 2005: 169; Bryman, 2016: 194.

3.4 Method of analysis

The method of analysis tends to be approached in terms of qualitative and quantitative perspectives (Kumar, 2005; Guthrie, 2010; Punch, 2014; Bryman, 2016). Guthrie (2010: 164, 168) argues that analysis of qualitative data is performed in the order of description, classification and interpretation, and, similarly, quantitative data is analysed in the order of description, analysis and drawing of conclusions. Kumar (2005: 221) classifies the steps of data processing, editing, coding and analysis from the quantitative and qualitative perspective. Miles, Huberman and Saldana (2013) claim that data display and drawing and verifying conclusions are the key components of qualitative data analysis (Punch, 2014: 171).



[Figure 3.4.1] Process of analysis

The process of analysis for this study is explained in [Figure 3.4.1]. Survey and interview questions are designed based on the research objectives and questions, as well as the related literatures. Before an actual fieldwork investigation, a pilot test is performed and the questions for survey and interview are then revised based on the result of that pilot. After completing the design stage for the questions for survey and interview, the actual survey is conducted. After the survey data is collected, data coding is carried out. Based on the data collected and its coding, the questions for the interviews are revised once again, and then the actual interviews are performed. After each interview, a transcript of the interview is made and the data collected by survey is analysed by SPSS. Analysis by SPSS and the interview transcripts are interpreted together to answer the research questions.

In order to answer the research question ‘To what extent is authoritarian organizational culture present in the South Korean civil service?’, the data collected by survey was analysed and interpreted. The survey contained both direct questions based on the Likert scale and

hypothetical scenario-oriented, multiple-choice questions. There were answer options suggesting authoritarian and flexible characteristics. Responses to the two different types of question were compared. The response to direction questions tends to be subjective but it could become less subjective in comparison with the response to hypothetical scenario-oriented, multiple-choice questions. In addition, among the hypothetical scenario-oriented questions, there were two types of question: ‘what would you do and why?’ and ‘what would most of your colleagues do and why?’ A comparison was also made of the responses to these two different types of question.

Through the survey, the relationship between the response to the degree of authoritarian organizational culture and other variables was also reviewed. These other variables include gender, age, levels of education, work place, nature of work, level of position, total period of work, period of work in the current organization, experience of other organizations, professionalism and experience of military service.

Interviews also support the analysis and interpretation of the findings from the survey. During the interviews, participants’ own opinions and experience about practical and generic questions related to the degree of authoritarian organizational culture were asked. In this process, if unexpected new or important elements arise, they will be reflected in the analysis and interpretation. Based on all the responses from the survey and interviews, how prevalent authoritarian organizational culture is in the South Korean civil service can then be interpreted.

The research questions ‘Has authoritarian organizational culture changed in the South Korean civil service?’ and ‘What are the effects of authoritarian organizational culture in the South Korean civil service?’ are also analysed by both survey and interview, although there are differences compared with the above.

Cultural change is examined by survey. The survey contained direct questions about cultural change based on the Likert scale. Whether participants felt that organizational culture has become more or less flexible was asked from a fact-finding perspective. Elements affecting the cultural change were reviewed based on interviews.

The perception of authoritarian organizational culture was also reviewed through a survey. The survey again contained direct questions about this perception, based on the Likert scale, and the responses to the question were analysed. The effects of authoritarian organizational culture in the South Korean civil service were explored in interviews. Especially, participants were asked about their personal experience of both positive and negative effects.

The research question ‘How does authoritarian organizational culture operate in the South Korean civil service?’ was mainly investigated through interviews. Participants’ own opinions related to the operation of authoritarian organizational culture were asked and the researcher encouraged interviewees to share related personal experience. All the responses were reviewed and interpreted to answer the research question.

3.5 Ethical considerations

There are diverse ethical issues in social science, as shown in [Table 3.5.1]. Although all the ethical issues are important, it is argued that informed consent, anonymity and harm to participants need to be considered specifically in this study.

This study is based on surveys and interviews targeting civil servants in South Korea. A consent form and participant information sheet were provided to participants before they undertook the survey and interviews. On the participant information sheet, detailed information such as the researcher, research purpose, use of data and withdrawal option were included. Participants autonomously decided whether they would participate in the surveys and interviews, and those who agreed signed the consent form.

Civil servants might be concerned about the confidentiality issue. However, confidentiality was fully ensured in this study. The researcher kept the raw data but it is not included in the thesis. In addition, the names of governments and departments are not referred to specifically in this study in order to minimize any possible risks and harm to participants.

In studies such as this there are potential risks to the researcher themselves, albeit small. For instance, if a researcher is funded by a certain institution and that institution is chosen as a case, the analysis could be biased or the researcher could intentionally avoid referring to any negative issues related to the institution concerned. The researcher for this study is independent, but might work in the South Korean public sector in the future. This study does not focus on individuals, but seeks to understand the perception of the national culture in South Korea and organizational culture in the South Korean civil service. As such, the interviews are unthreatening to the subjects and organizations.

[Table 3.5.1] Ethical issues

Author	Issues
Nachmias & Nachmias (1992)	· Balancing costs and benefits; informed consent; privacy; anonymity and confidentiality
Miles & Huberman (1994)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> · Issues arising early in a research project : The worthiness of the project; competence to carry out the project; informed consent; benefits, costs and reciprocity · Issues arising as the project develops : Harm and risk; honesty and trust; privacy, confidentiality and anonymity; intervention (for example, when wrongful or illegal behaviour is witnessed) and advocacy (for example, for participants' interests) · Issues arising later in, or after, the project : Ownership of data and conclusion; use and misuse of results
Punch (1994)	· Harm; consent; deception; privacy; confidentiality of data
ASA (1999)	· Professional competence; integrity; professional and scientific responsibility; respect for people's right; dignity and diversity; social responsibility
Kumar (2005)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> · Ethical issues relating to the participants : Collecting information; seeking consent; providing incentive; seeking sensitive information; the possibility of causing harm to participants; maintaining confidentiality · Ethical issues relating to the researcher : Avoiding bias; provision of depression of a treatment; using inappropriate research methodology; incorrect reporting; inappropriate use of the information · Ethical issues relating to the sponsoring organization : Restrictions imposed by the sponsoring organization; the misuse of information
Guthrie (2010)	· Permission to research; responsibilities; confidentiality; feedback
Hammersley & Traianou (2012)	· Risk of harm; autonomy and informed consent; privacy, confidentiality and anonymity
Bryman (2016)	· Harm to participants; a lack of informed consent; an invasion of privacy; deception

Sources: Adapted from Nachmias & Nachmias, 1992; Kumar, 2005; Guthrie, 2010; Punch, 2014; Bryman, 2016.

3.6 Fieldwork

Initially, the researcher had planned to visit central and local governments and meet participants directly to conduct the survey and interviews in seeking a high response rate, anonymity and confidentiality. However, it was not easy to access participants in governments

because of security systems. At local government II level, it was relatively easy to access participants but at central government and local government I levels it was quite difficult to secure similar access without prior appointment. Therefore, the researcher contacted potential participants through their personal network. The researcher asked civil servants known to the researcher to help with the survey and interviews, explaining what the survey was about and how to conduct it.

When the researcher prepared the first survey, a civil servant offered to distribute questionnaires, collect them and contact the researcher later to help ensure efficiency, high response rate and security.

Even if the researcher visited the government with the survey, participants would likely not fill in the questionnaires immediately; they would complete them later or forget them entirely if they were busy. Therefore, the researcher would need to visit the office again to collect the questionnaires or remind participants about the survey. In addition, whenever a researcher enters an office, a security check is required. In certain government offices, a civil servant from the office must accompany the outsider.

However, a civil servant does not need the same security checks to access the office and could ask her or his colleagues to help with the survey at an appropriate time to help secure a high response rate. One such appropriate time could be the small gap after finishing lunch and before starting work again. In addition, civil servants tend to be more positively disposed and generous towards participation in surveys on Wednesdays and Fridays because they get off work earlier. For these reasons, it seemed more efficient for a civil servant to ask her or his colleagues to help with the survey than the researcher asking directly themselves.

Another suggestion was that filling in consent forms is important from the academic perspective but is difficult in practice because civil servants are highly sensitive about anonymity and confidentiality. If the form were required, participants may be dishonest or even refuse to participate. Therefore, the researcher decided to follow the two suggestions of their civil servant contact: (1) the researcher asked a civil servant to distribute and collect the questionnaire instead of the researcher doing it themselves; and (2) the researcher did not ask participants to fill in consent forms.

There were difficulties in choosing departments for the horizontal comparison between central and local governments. For instance, Department A in central government is only responsible for organization management. However, Department B in local government performs

organization management and other works such as maintenance, security and administrative support. Both names and functions are somewhat different. Therefore, this study chose departments based on nature of work, even though they had different names.

The researcher finished more than half of the departments initially targeted through personal access and network. However, it was difficult to conduct the survey in all the initially targeted departments because of limitations of access. Therefore, the researcher asked civil servants known to the researcher to introduce other civil servants working in other departments similar to the initially targeted departments in terms of nature of work. For instance, under the bureau of land management, there are departments A, B, C and D. The initial target for survey was Department A, but in the end the researcher conducted the survey in Department B. Even though there were changes to the targeted departments, the nature of work was similar. Therefore, the researcher could be confident the change would not affect this study or cause errors.

It could be queried why the researcher did not contact the initially targeted departments and try to conduct the survey there. The researcher considered attempting to conduct the survey in those initially targeted departments without recourse to their personal network, but ultimately changed the targeted departments due to concerns over the response rate, quality of response and limited resources. During the survey phase, one civil servant said that not only government organizations but also other institutions have asked civil servants to participate in other surveys. Therefore, surveys can be quite annoying to civil servants. Two civil servants also said that they sometimes receive requests for telephone surveys but they refuse to participate because they are bothersome and the civil servants need to work their own tasks.

In addition, the civil servants known to the researcher actively helped with the survey and the process of collecting in the questionnaires was faster, but the civil servants newly introduced to the survey were relatively less active and the process was longer by comparison. This difference also partly influenced the amount of collected questionnaires.

Few civil servants newly introduced for the survey phase actively helped with the survey and interviews. For instance, when a high-level civil servant asked a lower-level civil servant to help with the survey or interview, or when a civil servant asked her or his close colleagues to help, the response was active and the process was fast. Aside from this, relationships from school were also influential. During the survey phase, the researcher met alumni by chance and

they were eager to help with the survey and also promised help with the interviews. Given all the above, it is argued that it was a better choice to change the department targeted for survey.

During the survey phase, issues arose about duplication of department and work of participants. As reviewed above, this study chose organizations with responsibility for regulatory-based work (land management), internal-based work (human resource management and organization management) and service provision-based work (healthcare and social welfare). However, some civil servants are responsible for human resource management in land management organizations. Whether they needed to be categorized under regulatory-based or internal-based work could have been somewhat controversial but there were few such cases. Therefore, it was felt it would not affect this study or cause errors.

The main feedback after the survey was that questions were complicated and there was a lot of text. When the questionnaires for the survey were designed, this issue was carefully taken into account and the researcher tried to make the questions simple. However, responses indicated that questions were still difficult. If questions had been designed to be much simpler, participants would have found them easier to understand and the survey process would have been faster.

After collecting in all the survey questionnaires, they were reviewed briefly because the researcher considered revising the interview questions based on the results of the survey. However, there were no major changes to the interview questions because the interviews were initially designed based on open questions.

For the interviews, the researcher also contacted civil servants known to the researcher and conducted interviews with some of them who worked in the targeted organization. In addition, the researcher asked them to introduce other civil servants for interview and contacted civil servants that the researcher met during the survey phase.

One interviewee mentioned that there are differences depending on regions, even though the level of local government is the same. Especially, there are differences between local governments in urban and rural areas. Therefore, the researcher conducted interviews with civil servants in local governments, taking the regional differences into consideration.

The main feedback after the interviews was that flexibility is a somewhat broad concept. For instance, there are many perspectives such as whether male civil servants can apply for paternity leave, whether junior civil servants can use flexible time systems, or whether civil

servants have autonomy in the process of interpreting law or decision-making. Therefore, the researcher gave practical case examples as well as asked interviewees to give any examples as long as they felt they were related to flexibility. The researcher reviewed flexibility broadly through interviews, but if questions about flexibility had been more precise, the answers provided by the interviewees would have been more detailed and concrete. Meanwhile, the broad question about flexibility would not impact this study negatively because this study mainly focuses on authoritarianism.

Two participants wanted to undertake their interviews by email and the researcher sent the interview questions to them. However, one participant refused to answer the questions in a roundabout way because they felt the questions were difficult and the other participant did not reply. Therefore, the researcher asked civil servants known to the researcher to introduce other civil servants. The initial plan was to conduct around 30 interviews but the researcher ultimately conducted 17 interviews due to limited resources.

As for recording of interviews, the civil servants known to the researcher tended to be willing to agree to their interviews being recorded. It seems that they believed the researcher's guarantee of anonymity. However, civil servants newly introduced for interviews tended to be unfavourable to recording, even though the researcher provided a guarantee of anonymity. Hence, the researcher took notes during these interviews. Initially, the researcher had planned to attach all the transcripts as an appendix to this thesis but decided not to in order to minimize the potential harm to the interviewees.

Chapter 4

Overview of survey and interviews

4.1 Introduction

In this study, both survey and interviews were used to collect data, as previously described. In total, 301 civil servants responded to the survey and the researcher conducted interviews with 14 civil servants and 3 staff in public agencies working with civil servants in central or local government.

Before analysing the data to achieve the research objectives and answer the research questions, it is worthwhile exploring the survey and interviews themselves because it helps in the critical analysis. Therefore, this study intends to give an overview of the survey and interviews in the following part.

4.2 Overview of survey

The total number of survey respondents was 301, comprising 167 male and 134 female respondents, representing 55.5% and 44.5%, respectively, as shown in [Table 4.2.1]. According to Statistics Korea (2017), the ratio of male and female civil servants in South Korea is 58.75% and 41.25%, respectively (correct as of 2013), which is similar to the ratio among the survey respondents. It could be argued then that the survey fully reflects the South Korean civil service in terms of gender.

As for age, the total numbers of respondents under the age of 30, in their 30s, in their 40s and over the age of 50 were 14, 108, 116 and 63, accounting for 4.7%, 35.9%, 38.5% and 20.9%, respectively, as shown in [Table 4.2.1]. The number of respondents under the age of 30 is notably lower than the number of respondents in other age groups. According to Statistics Korea (2017), the percentages of South Korean civil servants under 30, in their 30s, in their 40s and over 50 are 7.11%, 28.96%, 35.83% and 28.08%, respectively (as of 2013). This shows the number of civil servants under the age of 30 is also lower than the number in other age groups throughout the civil service.

The age characteristic could be interpreted as follows. In South Korea, when undergraduate students graduate from university, generally they are 24 or 26 years old, depending on gender – men over 18 must complete around 2 years of compulsory military service. Aside from this, in a survey of 1,276 undergraduate students, 43.3% of respondents stated that they took a leave of absence, with 43.6% of these replying it was to earn their tuition fees, 26.7% for social experience to aid in job seeking and 19.6% for overseas trips and study (Kim, 2018). The average period of absence is around 2 years and 7 months for male undergraduate students and around 1 year and 4 months for female undergraduate students. In addition, it takes around 2 years and 2 months to study for and pass civil service exams, according to a survey of civil servants employed within the previous 3 years (Han, 2017). Considering the above, it is somewhat difficult to pass all exams and become a civil servant in one's 20s.

With respect to levels of education, 75.4% of the survey respondents have a bachelor's degree and 20.6% a master's or PhD degree, as shown in [Table 4.2.1]. Only 3.7 % of the respondents do not have an undergraduate or postgraduate degree. According to Statistics Korea (2017), 64.61% of all civil servants in South Korea have a bachelor's degree and 20.24% have a master's or PhD degree (as of 2013). Just 15.15% of civil servants do not have an undergraduate or postgraduate degree.

The education levels of the survey respondents are somewhat higher than those of civil servants in South Korea in general. It is argued that the competition rate for the civil service exam in the local government I and II organizations chosen in this study tends to be higher than the competition rate for the civil service examination in other local government I and II organizations, which led to the difference. However, this difference is not so large that serious error would be caused in this study.

As for work place, 58.8% of the total survey respondents work in central government, as shown in [Table 4.2.1]. Meanwhile, 31.6% of the respondents work in local government I and 9.6% work in local government II. The total number of civil servants in local government in South Korea is much greater than the number of civil servants in central government. However, the scale of a single local government I or II organization is much smaller than the central government. The study chose a single local government I and II organization, which led to the difference.

With respect to levels or positions, 82.4% of the total survey respondents are at junior levels and 16.3% are at middle levels, as shown in [Table 4.2.1]. Only 1.3% of respondents are in

senior positions. The civil service is structured in the form of a pyramid. In such form, there are more junior staff than middle managers and there are few senior staff, which is reflected in the survey, although it could be argued that the number of senior respondents is insufficient. In order to minimize potential errors, data collected in interviews would be analysed together in terms of levels of civil servants.

With regard to types of work, 46.8% of the total survey respondents do internal-based work, as shown in [Table 4.2.1]. Respondents working on regulatory-based work and service provision-based work account for 24.9% and 28.2%, respectively. The ratio of respondents working on regulatory and service provision-based work is somewhat lower than the ratio of respondents working on internal-based work. However, the numbers of respondents working on regulatory and service provision-based work are 75 and 85, respectively, which is not too small a number for analysis. Therefore, it is argued that there is less possibility of causing errors in terms of types of work.

On the other hand, in terms of types of work, there is an issue about duplication of department and work of respondents, as noted earlier. This study categorizes land management as regulatory-based work, human resource management and organization management as internal-based work, and healthcare and social welfare as service provision-based work. Meanwhile, for instance, some civil servants are responsible for human resource management or organization management in land management organizations, as mentioned earlier. They are categorized as doing regulatory-based work in this study because they belong to land management. Whether they need to be categorized under regulatory-based or internal-based work could be controversial but it was felt this issue would not affect this study at least because there were few such cases.

As for total work period, the percentages of respondents with less than 5 years' service, over 5 but less than 10 years, over 10 but less than 15 years, over 15 but less than 20 years, and over 20 years' service are 18.9%, 16.6%, 18.9%, 12% and 33.6%, respectively, as shown in [Table 4.2.1]. The number of respondents with more than 20 years' service is higher than the other groups, while those who have worked for between 15 and 20 years represent the lowest group.

According to Statistics Korea (2017), the percentages of civil servants in South Korea with less than 6 years' service, over 6 but less than 10 years, over 10 but less than 16 years, over 16 but less than 20 years, and over 20 years' service are 18.25%, 13.49%, 15.06%, 11.44% and 41.77%, respectively (as of 2013). Statistics Korea's figures are similar to those of the survey

in this study. Meanwhile, in terms of authoritarian organizational culture it is worthwhile considering the fact that over 40% of all civil servants in South Korea have worked for over 20 years.

[Table 4.2.1] Overview of survey respondents

Gender	Frequency	Percent
Male	167	55.5
Female	134	44.5
Total	301	100.0
Age	Frequency	Percent
Under 30 years	14	4.7
30–39 years	108	35.9
40–49 years	116	38.5
Over 50 years	63	20.9
Total	301	100.0
Education	Frequency	Percent
Middle & high school	11	3.7
Undergraduate	227	75.4
Postgraduate	62	20.6
Other	1	0.3
Total	301	100.0
Work place	Frequency	Percent
Central Government	177	58.8
Local Government I	95	31.6
Local Government II	29	9.6
Total	301	100.0
Levels	Frequency	Percent
Junior	248	82.4
Middle	49	16.3
Senior	4	1.3
Total	301	100.0
Work types	Frequency	Percent
Internal (HRM & OM)	141	46.8
Regulatory (LM & REM)	75	24.9
Service provision (HC & SW)	85	28.2
Total	301	100.0
Total work period	Frequency	Percent
Less than 5 years	57	18.9
5–10 years	50	16.6
10–15 years	57	18.9
15–20 years	36	12.0
More than 20 years	101	33.6
Total	301	100.0

4.3 Overview of interviews

There were 14 internal and 3 external interviews conducted for the study. The internal interviewees are civil servants working in central government and local government I and II, while the external interviewees are staff in public agencies working with civil servants in central or local government I and II. The interviews with civil servants were intended to help understand and analyse authoritarian organizational culture within the civil service. However, there is the possibility interviewees could hide important issues or delude themselves in order to protect themselves or their work place. Therefore, external interviews were also conducted to review external perspectives in respect of the civil service.

Among the internal interviews, 12 are male and 2 are female, as shown in [Table 4.3.1]. The number of male interviewees is more than the number of female interviewees. However, the survey already reflects the real ratio of the South Korean civil service in terms of gender, as reviewed earlier, and the interviews are analysed and interpreted for deeper understanding. Therefore, it is argued that serious errors would not be caused in the process of analysis and interpretation of interviews in terms of gender. With respect to the external interviewees, one is male and two are female.

As for age, the numbers of internal interviewees in their 30s, their 40s and over 50 are six, five and three, respectively, as shown in [Table 4.3.1]. Relatively, the number of internal interviewees over the age of 50 is somewhat less than the number of internal interviewees in their 30s. However, the difference would not cause serious errors in the process of analysis. There was one external interviewee in each of the age categories of 30s, 40s and over 50, which is well balanced.

With respect to levels of education, the number of internal interviewees having an undergraduate degree is eight, accounting for 57.1%, and the number of interviewees with a postgraduate degree is five, accounting for 35.7%, as shown in [Table 4.3.1]. All the external interviewees have postgraduate degrees. As reviewed above, 64.61% of all civil servants in South Korea have a bachelor's degree and 20.24% have a master's or PhD degree (as of 2013), according to Statistics Korea (2017). The ratio of internal interviewees having a postgraduate degree is higher than the ratio of civil servants in South Korea. It could be argued that the interviews do not reflect the South Korean civil service in terms of levels of education. However, another interpretation is that interviewees with postgraduate degrees are relatively less biased or more critical than interviewees with undergraduate degrees. From this

perspective, it is argued that the large number of internal and external interviewees holding postgraduate degrees is positive for analysis.

As for work place, the numbers of internal interviewees in central government, local government I and local government II are five, six and three, respectively, accounting for 35.7%, 42.9% and 21.4%, as shown in [Table 4.3.1]. The number of internal interviewees in local government II is somewhat lower than the number in local government I. However, the difference would not cause serious errors in the process of analysis. On the other hand, all the external interviewees work with civil servants who work in central government.

With respect to levels or positions, the numbers of internal interviewees at junior, middle and senior levels are eight, three and three respectively, as shown in [Table 4.3.1]. The number of interviewees at junior levels is somewhat higher than the number of interviewees at middle and senior levels. There was one external interviewee in each of the junior, middle and senior levels, which is well balanced.

As for types of work, the numbers of internal interviewees working on internal, regulatory and service provision-based work are five, five and three, as shown in [Table 4.3.1]. Relatively speaking, the number of internal interviewees undertaking service provision-based work is lower than the number undertaking internal and regulatory-based work. However, the difference would not cause significant errors in the process of analysis. Among the external interviewees, one works in a research institution and two work in a public agency that performs service provision-based work.

With regard to total work period, the numbers of internal interviewees with over 5 but less than 10 years' service, over 10 but less than 15 years, over 15 but less than 20 years, and over 20 years' service are four, five, one and three, respectively, as shown in [Table 4.3.1]. The number of internal interviewees with between 15 and 20 years' service is lower than the other groups. Meanwhile, given that the number of civil servants in South Korea between 16 and 20 years' service is lower than other groups (as of 2013), according to Statistics Korea (2017), serious problems would not be caused in terms of total work period. Meanwhile, two of the external interviewees had worked with civil servants in the government for between 5 and 9 years, while the other had over 10 years of similar service.

[Table 4.3.1] Overview of interviews

Gender (Internal)		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent
Valid	Male	12	85.7	85.7
	Female	2	14.3	14.3
	Total	14	100.0	100.0
Gender (External)		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent
Valid	Male	1	33.3	33.3
	Female	2	66.7	66.7
	Total	3	100.0	100.0

Age (Internal)		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent
Valid	30–39 years	6	42.9	42.9
	40–49 years	5	35.7	35.7
	Over 50 years	3	21.4	21.4
	Total	14	100.	100.0
Age (External)		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent
Valid	30–39 years	1	33.3	33.3
	40–49 years	1	33.3	33.3
	Over 50 years	1	33.3	33.3
	Total	3	100.0	100.0

Education (Internal)		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent
Valid	Undergraduate	8	57.1	61.5
	Postgraduate	5	35.7	38.5
	Total	13	92.9	100.0
Missing	System	1	7.1	
Total		14	100.0	
Education (External)		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent
Valid	Postgraduate	3	100.0	100.0

Work place (Internal)		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent
Valid	Central Government	5	35.7	35.7
	Local Government I	6	42.9	42.9
	Local Government II	3	21.4	21.4
	Total	14	100.0	100.0

	Levels (Internal)	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent
Valid	Junior	8	57.1	57.1
	Middle	3	21.4	21.4
	Senior	3	21.4	21.4
	Total	14	100.0	100.0
	Levels (External)	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent
Valid	Junior	1	33.3	33.3
	Middle	1	33.3	33.3
	Senior	1	33.3	33.3
	Total	3	100.0	100.0

	Work type (Internal)	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent
Valid	Internal	5	35.7	38.5
	Regulatory	5	35.7	30.8
	Service provision	3	21.4	23.1
	Total	13	92.9	100.0
Missing	System	1	7.1	
Total		14	100.0	

	Total work period (Internal)	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent
Valid	5–10 years	4	28.6	30.8
	10–15 years	5	35.7	38.5
	15–20 years	1	7.1	7.7
	Over 20 years	3	21.4	23.1
	Total	13	92.9	100.0
Missing	System	1	7.1	
Total		14	100.0	
	Total work period (External)	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent
Valid	5–10 years	2	66.7	66.7
	Over 20 years	1	33.3	33.3
	Total	3	100.0	100.0

4.4 Discussion

Both the survey and interviews have been reviewed. In terms of authoritarian organizational culture, it is worthwhile reviewing and analysing the fact that over 40% of civil servants have worked for over 20 years in the South Korean civil service, as shown in [Table 4.4.1].

[Table 4.4.1] Civil servants working for over 20 years

(Unit: Year / 2013 statistics)

Working period (years)	20–22	22–24	24–26	26–28	28–30	30–32	32–34	Over 34
Number	72,153	74,728	53,352	39,701	28,598	33,197	34,481	40,903
%	7.99	8.27	5.91	4.40	3.17	3.68	3.82	4.53
Estimated employed year	1993–1991	1991–1989	1989–1987	1987–1985	1985–1983	1983–1981	1981–1979	Before 1979
Government	Roh Tae-Woo		Chun Doo-Whan					Park Jung-Hee

Sources: Adapted from Statistics Korea.

Before the analysis of civil servants working for over 20 years, it will be helpful to review the modern history of South Korea. After the military coup led by Park Jung-Hee in 1961, he was elected president in 1963 and the military regime was established. The regime under Park Jung-Hee lasted until he was assassinated in 1979. After the assassination, there was another military coup by Chun Doo-Whan in 1979 and his regime lasted until 1988, when it was ended following continuous pro-democracy movements. Roh Tae-Woo was democratically elected president in 1988, but he had been deeply involved in the military coup with Chun Doo-Whan in 1979. Therefore, it is argued that the military regime in fact lasted until the end of his presidential term in 1993. Meanwhile, Heady (1992: 330) argues that even after the 1990s, politicians and scholars with military backgrounds continued to dominate government (Cho and Lee, 2001: 88). Considering the above, it could be argued that an authoritarian style based on the military regime was prevalent from the 1960s to the 1990s in the South Korean civil service.

As over 40% of civil servants have worked for over 20 years in the South Korean civil service, one possible interpretation is that they are used to authoritarianism because they worked under the military dictatorial government. Currently, they are in senior positions, which affects the

organizational culture in the civil service. It is argued that their backgrounds and experiences have strengthened and maintained an authoritarian organizational culture in the civil service.

Another interpretation is that depending on the generation that the civil servant belongs to, they may show anti-authoritarian tendencies. The majority of civil servants working for over 20 years in South Korea were born in the 1960s and the early 1970s. These generations resisted the military dictatorial government in the 1980s and achieved democratization and liberalism. Therefore, it could be argued that these generations show liberal tendencies. Meanwhile, people tend to become more conservative when they become part of the Establishment to protect their invested interests. Therefore, it is debatable whether they are still liberal in the current South Korean society as part of the Establishment.

Considering the two different interpretations, it could be argued that perceptions of authoritarianism can be different depending on position and situation, even within the same generation. In the same generation, the general public resisted the military dictatorial regime and fought for democracy. On the other hand, civil servants might support a strongly centralized regime because their influence might be strong in society. In addition, rapid economic growth was achieved under the strong leadership, averaging 10.3% in the 1970s and 9.8% in the 1980s.

4.5 Conclusion

In this part, this study has analysed data collected by survey and interviews before exploring the research objectives and research questions. In total, 301 questionnaires and 17 interviews have been reviewed based on many variables such as gender, age, level of education, work place, positions, types of work and total work period. The concurrent analysis of both survey and interviews remedies limitations and minimizes any potential errors.

In terms of authoritarian organizational culture, the fact that over 40% of civil servants have worked for over 20 years in the South Korean civil service has been discussed deeply. On the one hand, it is argued that over 40% of civil servants are used to authoritarianism because they worked under the military dictatorial government. Currently, they are in senior positions, which affects the organizational culture in the civil service. On the other hand, another interpretation is that the generation that the civil servant belongs to may show anti-authoritarian and liberal tendencies, given that the longer-serving generation resisted the military dictatorial

government and achieved democratization and liberalism. Therefore, it could be argued that perceptions of authoritarianism could be different depending on positions and situations (such as whether the person is a member of the general public or a civil servant), even in the same generation.

In terms of change of organizational culture, it could be argued that the civil servants who have experience of the military dictatorial regime will gradually retire, which would lead to change of organizational culture towards a less authoritarian style. While they are the majority in the civil service, the existing (or their) culture is maintained, but when their number decreases, that culture will become weak. Eventually a new or changed culture will rise up.

Chapter 5

Authoritarian organizational culture

5.1 Introduction

In this study, there are five research questions, one of which is ‘To what extent is authoritarian organizational culture present in the South Korean civil service?’ In this part, data collected by survey is mainly analysed and interviews support the analysis in terms of the research question. In particular, the degree of authoritarian organizational culture is investigated through the response to direct questions based on a five-point Likert scale. The study then moves on to analyse the response to hypothetical, multiple-choice, scenario-based questions. The two methods are explored together to measure the degree of authoritarian organizational culture in the South Korean civil service.

5.2 The degree of authoritarian organizational culture

In the survey, respondents were asked whether the organizational culture is authoritarian in the South Korean civil service, where a response of ‘1’ indicated they strongly disagree, while on the other hand, a response of ‘5’ indicated they strongly agree.

[Table 5.2.1] Degree of authoritarian organizational culture in the South Korean civil service

Authoritarian Organizational Culture	Frequency	Percent
(1) Strongly disagree	2	0.7
(2) Disagree	22	7.3
(3) Neutral	63	20.9
(4) Agree	155	51.5
(5) Strongly agree	59	19.6
Total	301	100.0

Around 70% of the respondents said that the South Korean civil service is authoritarian, as shown in [Table 5.2.1]. Approximately 20% of the respondents gave neutral answers and less than 10% of the respondents said that it is not authoritarian.

According to the analysis using independent-samples T-test (Appendix), the responses are different depending on possession of a licence related to work, but there are no differences in terms of gender, experience in other departments, degree related to work and experience of military service, as shown in [Table 5.2.2].

As noted above, respondents were asked to respond to whether organizational culture is authoritarian in the South Korean civil service. Responses closer to ‘1’ indicate respondents strongly disagree and responses closer to ‘5’ indicate they strongly agree.

[Table 5.2.2] Independent-samples T-test

Gender	Mean		P
	Male (n=167)	Female (n=134)	
Degree of AOC	3.80	3.85	0.572
Experience of depts	Mean		P
	A department (n=55)	Other departments (n=246)	
Degree of AOC	3.69	3.85	0.252
Related licence	Mean		P
	Related licence (o) (n=93)	Related licence (x) (n=208)	
Degree of AOC	3.67	3.89	0.049
Related degree	Mean		P
	Related degree (o) (n=136)	Related degree (x) (n=165)	
Degree of AOC	3.72	3.90	0.068
Experience of military service	Mean		P
	Military service (o) (n=156)	Military service (x) (n=145)	
Degree of AOC	3.81	3.83	0.784

The mean response of respondents who have a related licence is 3.67 and the mean response of those who do not have a related licence is 3.89, as shown in [Table 5.2.2]. Relatively speaking, respondents who have a related licence said that organizational culture is less authoritarian than respondents who do not have a related licence. The analysis suggests that a

professional organization shows more authoritarian culture than a non-professional organization.

In line with the analysis, interviewees also referred to the relationship between authoritarianism and professionalism. Interviewee M pointed out that there are different types of authority, namely power- or rank-based and professional-based. Interviewee M argued in particular that professional-based authoritarianism is very strong. For instance, in groups of doctors, senior doctors have more professional knowledge and practical experience than junior doctors. Junior doctors might have sufficient professional knowledge, but their practical experience may be lacking. In this situation, it would be difficult for junior doctors to express different opinions and they would be likely just to obey the senior doctors' instructions.

Authority can be classified into two. First, authority based on rank and power. Second, authority based on professionalism ... A professional organization is more authoritarian. For instance, senior doctors who have more experiences of operations have more expertise and junior doctors must learn professional knowledge from the senior doctors unconditionally. (Interviewee M)

Interviewee J also referred to strong authoritarianism in professional and small groups. Interviewee J insisted that a professional group is somewhat vulnerable to outside pressure and threat because the scale of professional groups tends to be small. Therefore, when they or their groups are threatened from the outside, they need to strengthen the cohesion within the group to protect and maintain their own interests. From this point of view, Interviewee J pointed out the necessity of an authoritarian organizational culture in some cases. Based on Interviewee J's responses, it is argued that that the smaller and more professional an organization is, the more authoritarian the organizational culture is.

Let's compare professional and general areas. Professional areas are more authoritarian because they are a minority. To show the interests of a minority, cohesion is needed and eventually it leads to authoritarianism. Hence, I think that authoritarianism is needed in minority professional areas to some extent. (Interviewee J)

Interviewee L also said that ‘it seems that those who know tasks well are more authoritarian’. It is argued that civil servants who are used to their work and know the details are authoritarian, even if they neither belong to professional groups nor have professional licences.

Interviewee E identified flexibility and discretion in terms of professionalism: ‘We have flexibility and discretion under laws and regulations to some extent. In particular, junior levels have it in professional areas.’ Professional civil servants have more discretion than non-professional civil servants. The analysis suggests that externally professionals are flexible, while internally they are authoritarian.

Meanwhile, whether civil servants have a related degree is not influential, even though degrees tend to be in line with professionalism. The mean response of respondents who have a related degree is 3.72 and the mean response of those who do not is 3.90, as shown in [Table 5.2.2]. Relatively speaking, respondents who have a related degree said that organizational culture is less authoritarian than respondents who do not have a related degree. However, statistically, having a related degree does not significantly influence responses to the question of how authoritarian organizational culture is in the civil service.

One possible interpretation is based on the difference between academic and practical professionalism. Degrees tend to be based on academic professionalism while licences tend to be based on practical professionalism. It could be argued that practical professionalism is more important than academic professionalism in the civil service, which leads to this difference. On the other hand, another interpretation is that having a degree is also one of the influential elements, given that the 0.018 difference (P) causes a different interpretation in the independent-samples T-test, as shown in [Table 5.2.2].

Contrary to what might be expected, there are no differences in terms of gender and experience of military service, according to the analysis using the independent-samples T-test. As for gender, it could be argued that female respondents felt that organizational culture is more authoritarian than male respondents. However, the mean response of male and female respondents is similar, 3.80 and 3.85, respectively, as shown in [Table 5.2.2]. In addition, nursing organizations, which mainly consist of female staff, tend to be notably strict in South Korea. This suggests that gender is less influential in terms of authoritarianism.

As for experience of military service, it could be argued that such experience strengthens and maintains authoritarian organizational culture in the South Korean civil service. In South Korea, men must perform military service for a certain number of years, except for special cases. Therefore, they would be used to the strong, top-down military style. However, experience of military service did not affect the response to how authoritarian the organizational culture is in the South Korean civil service, according to the analysis using the independent-samples T-test. The mean response of respondents with and without military experience is extremely similar, 3.81 and 3.83, respectively, as shown in [Table 5.2.2]. The analysis suggests that experience of military service is less influential in terms of how authoritarian the organizational culture is perceived to be. On the other hand, it could be argued that the civil service is more authoritarian than the military. Therefore, the response is similar regardless of experience of military service.

As for experience in other departments, the mean response of respondents who do not have experience in other departments is 3.69 and the mean response of those who have such experience is 3.85, as shown in [Table 5.2.2]. Respondents who have this experience said that organizational culture in the South Korean civil service is more authoritarian than respondents who do not have this experience. However, statistically, experience in other departments does not affect responses to the question of how authoritarian the organizational culture is in the South Korean civil service.

According to the analysis using ANOVA, the responses to the question of the degree of authoritarianism in the South Korean civil service are different depending on age and current work period. However, other elements such as education, work place, position, total work period and type of work are not so influential.

As noted earlier, respondents were asked to respond to whether organizational culture is authoritarian in the South Korean civil service. Responses closer to '1' indicated respondents strongly disagree with the statement. On other hand, responses closer to '5' indicate they strongly agree with it.

As noted above, it is difficult for people under 30 years of age to become civil servants, because of the 4 years of undergraduate school, 2 years' leave of absence, 2 years' preparation for the civil service examination and men's obligatory 2-year military service. It is argued that the respondents under 30 years' old are less important in reflecting the South Korean civil service overall. In the survey, there were few respondents under 30 years of age, as shown in [Table 5.2.3].

[Table 5.2.3] Age

	N	Mean	Sig.	Number	Meaning
Less than 30 years	14	3.71	.034	1	Strongly disagree
30–39 years	108	4.00		2	Disagree
40–49 years	116	3.78		3	Neutral
Over 50 years	63	3.60		4	Agree
Total	301	3.82		5	Strongly Agree

The mean response of respondents in their 30s is 4.00 and the mean response of those in their 40s is 3.78. The mean response of respondents over 50 years of age is 3.60, as shown in [Table 5.2.3]. Younger respondents said that the organizational culture is more authoritarian than older respondents. In particular, a difference between respondents in their 30s and those over 50 was identified according to the analysis using ANOVA.

Interviews are also in line with these findings. Interviewees F and N are both over 50. Interviewee F referred to the lack of authority in the civil service. Interviewee F argued that authority is needed in the civil service but that levels of authority have fallen continuously. Interviewee N also agreed with the assertion of insufficient authority that Interviewee F made and argued that the organizational culture in the private sector is more authoritarian than that in the public sector.

Now authority is too low. Civil servants are worried about it ... I think that the South Korean civil servants are not the most authoritarian in the world.
(Interviewee F)

[One of the interviewees referred to the lack of authority of civil servants] I strongly agree ... the private sector is more authoritarian than the public sector.
(Interviewee N)

On the other hand, eight interviewees in their 30s and 40s said that the civil service tends to be authoritarian and two interviewees in the same age groups referred to the strong, top-down tendency in the South Korean civil service. In particular, in terms of the insufficient authority in the current civil service that Interviewee F referred to and Interviewee N agreed with, Interviewee K argued that it shows that the interviewees (F and N) want to strengthen and maintain an authoritarian organizational culture in the civil service.

[One of interviewees referred to the lack of authority of civil servants] It sounds like they expect or want to be treated better. (Interviewee K)

According to the analysis using ANOVA, both education and work place do not affect the response to how authoritarian organizational culture is in the South Korean civil service. The mean response of respondents whose highest level of education is middle or high school is 3.91 and the mean response of those whose highest level of education is undergraduate is 3.85. The mean response of respondents whose highest level of education is postgraduate studies is 3.71, as shown in [Table 5.2.4].

[Table 5.2.4] Levels of education

	N	Mean	Sig.	Number	Meaning
Middle & high school	11	3.91	.107	1	Strongly disagree
Undergraduate	227	3.85		2	Disagree
Postgraduate	62	3.71		3	Neutral
Other	1	2.00		4	Agree
Total	301	3.82		5	Strongly Agree

In terms of work place, the mean response of respondents working in central government is 3.81 and the mean response of those working in local government I is 3.84. The mean response of respondents working in local government II is 3.83, as shown in [Table 5.2.5].

[Table 5.2.5] Work place

	N	Mean	Sig.	Number	Meaning
Central gov	177	3.81	.951	1	Strongly disagree
Local gov I	95	3.84		2	Disagree
Local gov II	29	3.83		3	Neutral
Total	301	3.82		4	Agree
				5	Strongly Agree

However, in terms of work place, there are differences in the interview findings. Interviewee J referred to the difference between central and local government; the organizational culture in both central and local government is authoritarian, but local government shows more authoritarian culture than central government.

I have worked in central and local government and they are all authoritarian. Meanwhile, local governments are relatively more authoritarian. (Interviewee J)

Interviewees F and I also identified a difference between local governments I and II. As noted earlier, in this study the local government in South Korea is divided into the level of metropolitan city and province (*Si · Do* / local government I) and the level of city, county and district (*Si · Gun · Gu* / local government II). Interviewee F argued that the organizational culture in local government II is more authoritarian than that in local government I. In particular, personal network is highly important in local government II.

The difference is ... we [civil servants in local government I] are less authoritarian than local governments [civil servants in local government II]. In local governments, the human network is very important ... without the line [the network] ... [it is] difficult [to be promoted] ... there is such [a big] difference [between local government I and local government II]. Depending on lines [networks], you can be promoted or not ... The local government shows this characteristic [the relationship between promotion and human network] more strongly than the central government. (Interviewee F)

As for the authoritarian tendency in local government II, Interviewee I also referred to the small scale of local government II. Civil servants in local government II know each other, which leads to authoritarianism. On the other hand, it could be interpreted as a friendly culture.

The [Local government II] organization consists of 300–500 civil servants. It is isolated. It could be described as a familial atmosphere. They know how many spoons there are in colleagues' houses ... even though a senior manager is not a direct superior, the manager can do anything because the manager is older, more authoritarian. (Interviewee I)

Interviewee K referred to the cosy relationship between a few senior civil servants and businessmen in local government II. In local areas, civil servants and people know each other well because the local area is small. In particular, senior civil servants tend to stay for a long time in the small, local area and thus get to know many people. Therefore, some senior civil servants provide convenient service to people, although such convenience could be controversial or troublesome.

There are cosy relations between civil servants and businessmen [in local government II]. Even though practitioners [junior civil servants] conduct inspections, they cannot administer justice because senior civil servants instruct the junior civil servants to inspect only a few issues ... because society is small [people know each other very well in small, local societies]. (Interviewee K)

Considering the responses in the four interviews, it is argued that central government is less authoritarian than local government I and local government I is less authoritarian than local government II. On the other hand, there are different perspectives. Interviewee M insisted that there are no differences between central and local government in terms of authoritarianism. The total number of civil servants in local government is large, while the total number in central government is small. The difference could be interpreted as resulting in a less authoritarian

organizational culture in central government, but local government is not more authoritarian than central government. Meanwhile, Interviewee M argued that a few variables such as certain cultures and the number of younger civil service staff could lead to some differences between central and local governments.

The difference between central and local governments is ... seems to be similar. The number of civil servants in central government is small and the number of civil servants in local governments is large. So, relatively [people] could feel that local governments are more authoritarian. Meanwhile, in local governments, there are local characteristics such as knowing each other well and the 'good thing is good' culture¹ ... in local governments, there are relatively few young staff members while in central government there are a lot. There would be differences between those. (Interviewee M)

Interviewee N asserted that diplomats are more authoritarian than domestic civil servants. People tend to perceive that diplomats are more flexible than civil servants in South Korea. However, contrary to what might be expected, diplomats are in fact more authoritarian, although they work in countries that are more liberal than South Korea. The strong authoritarian characteristics of diplomats could be interpreted in terms of elitism because diplomats tend to be perceived as an elite group in South Korea. In other words, it could be argued that elitism affects authoritarian organizational culture.

Diplomats are more authoritarian than internal civil servants. They do not know situations and changes in our country. In addition, there is a tendency to maintain traditions so they are more authoritarian. You could think that [they are] more liberal because they stay abroad, but no. (Interviewee N)

According to the analysis using ANOVA, position does not affect whether civil servants feel organizational culture in the South Korean civil service is authoritarian, as shown in [Table

¹ In a 'good thing is good' culture, as long as there are no significant problems, mutual compromise on the proper line to adopt is good for everybody.

5.2.6]. The mean response of respondents in junior positions is 3.87 and the mean response of those in middle positions is 3.57. The mean response of senior respondents is 4.00.

[Table 5.2.6] Position

	N	Mean	Sig.	Number	Meaning
Junior	248	3.87	.078	1	Strongly disagree
Middle	49	3.57		2	Disagree
Senior	4	4.00		3	Neutral
Total	301	3.82		4	Agree
				5	Strongly Agree

However, differences between positions were identified in the interviews. Interviewee N is in a senior position while Interviewee F is at the middle level. Interviewee F emphasized insufficient authority in the civil service and suggested necessities of authority.

Now authority is too low. Civil servants are worried about it ... I think that the South Korean civil servants are not the most authoritarian in the world.
(Interviewee F)

Interviewee N agreed with Interviewee F and described cases about the non-authoritarian nature of the civil service. Senior civil servants such as ministers or vice-ministers are asked a lot of favours by politicians or acquaintances, some of which are controversial. In this case, even senior civil servants cannot meet the demands of politicians or acquaintances because it could cause problems.

[One of the interviewees referred to the lack of authority of civil servants] I strongly agree ... Many people such as politicians and acquaintances make requests for enormous special considerations for many issues to high ranking officials such as ministers or vice-ministers. Politicians make these requests for votes. However, even the ministers or vice-ministers cannot do anything

inappropriate ... Superiors need to show leadership and need power but now [they] cannot. [They] mind others and leadership has become weak ... Meanwhile, subordinates could be obedient to their superiors because competitiveness in the civil service has been fierce and no one wants to lag behind. (Interviewee N)

On the other hand, comparatively younger civil servants at the middle level, such as interviewees A and B, said that the civil service tends to show authoritarian tendencies. In addition, 70% of the total respondents said in the survey that the organizational culture is authoritarian and around 80% of the total respondents were in junior positions, as reviewed above. Considering the above, it is argued that civil servants in senior positions perceive the organizational culture as less authoritarian than those in junior positions.

Meanwhile, Interviewee L, in the 30–39 age group and holding a junior position, referred to the necessities of authoritarianism in the civil service, because authoritarianism plays a role in organization management. Without authoritarianism, subordinates could not follow properly even reasonable instructions by superiors. The assertion by Interviewee L somewhat contradicts the above argument that civil servants in senior positions perceive that organizational culture is less authoritarian than those in junior positions.

If authority is too low, subordinates seem to be messed up. Like in the army, if military discipline is relaxed, everything is messed up. So, it is needed to some extent. For instance, a head of team reprovcs a subordinate for a mistake but the subordinate blames the head. In the past, authoritarianism was so strong that anti-authoritarianism was strong inversely but I think that it is needed at a common-sense level to some extent. (Interviewee L)

On the other hand, Interviewee G, in the 40–49 age group and holding a junior position, argued that an authoritarian style is not appropriate in current society. Society today has changed towards diversity and an authoritarian civil service is no longer appropriate.

However, society has become diverse. [We] entered diverse society and there has been progress, but such hierarchical organizations tend to cause significant side effects in a diverse society. Changes of era or environments do not seem to be reflected ... it is difficult for the new generation to present good ideas, thinking, creativity. Looking at the big picture, it is difficult to discuss big policy or national projects. (Interviewee G)

Considering the above analysis, it is argued that civil servants in senior positions tend to perceive the organizational culture as less authoritarian than civil servants in junior positions, while some young civil servants in junior positions tend to acknowledge the necessities of authoritarianism.

According to the analysis using ANOVA, total work period does not affect whether organizational culture is perceived as authoritarian in the South Korean civil service, as shown in [Table 5.2.7]. The mean response of respondents who have less than 5 years' service is 3.91 and the mean of those with over 5 but less than 10 years' service is 4.00. The mean response of respondents who have worked in the civil service for over 10 years but less than 15 years is 3.96 and the mean of those with between 15 and 20 years' service is 3.75. Finally, the mean response of respondents who have worked in the civil service for over 20 years is 3.62.

[Table 5.2.7] Total work period

	N	Mean	Sig.	Number	Meaning
Less than 5 years	57	3.91	.053	1	Strongly disagree
5–10 years	50	4.00		2	Disagree
10–15 years	57	3.96		3	Neutral
15–20 years	36	3.75		4	Agree
Over 20 years	101	3.62		5	Strongly Agree
Total	301	3.82			

Respondents who have worked for a long time in the civil service tend to perceive the organizational culture as less authoritarian than those who have worked there for a shorter time, except for respondents with less than 5 years' service. Respondents who have worked for less

than 5 years said that the organizational culture is less authoritarian than those who have worked for over 5 years but less than 15 years.

The analysis based on total work period also suggests the younger generation have authoritarian characteristics, as does the analysis based on position. In the above, it is argued that civil servants in senior positions tend to perceive the organizational culture as less authoritarian than those in junior positions, while some young civil servants in junior positions tend to acknowledge the necessities of authoritarianism.

It could be argued that organizations that perform regulatory-based work are more authoritarian than those that conduct internal or service provision-based work. However, types of work do not affect whether organizational culture is authoritarian, according to the analysis using ANOVA. The mean response of respondents responsible for internal-based work (human resource management and organization management) is 3.94 and the mean of those who perform regulatory-based work (land management) is 3.68. The mean response of respondents with responsibility for service provision-based work (healthcare and social welfare) is 3.74, as shown in [Table 5.2.8].

[Table 5.2.8] Work type

	N	Mean	Sig.	Number	Meaning
HRM & OM	141	3.94	.058	1	Strongly disagree
LM	75	3.68		2	Disagree
HC & SW	85	3.74		3	Neutral
Total	301	3.82		4	Agree
				5	Strongly Agree

The response in the interviews also tends to be in line with the survey responses. Interviewee A, who performs internal-based work (human resource management and organization management), Interviewee C, who undertakes regulatory-based work (land management), and Interviewee D, who is responsible for service provision-based work (healthcare and social welfare) all said that their work is based on laws and regulation. In addition, Interviewee F insisted that ‘auditors check these [flexibility and discretion]. So, in order not to be blamed by anyone, [civil servants] tend not to use flexibility and discretion.’

One possible interpretation is that types of work are seemingly different but they are the same in terms of law enforcement and the enforcement tends to be strictly audited in terms of the interpretation of law. In addition, in order not to create any negative issues that could be investigated by audit, civil servants interpret and enforce law strictly. Therefore, the responses show similar authoritarian tendencies, regardless of type of work.

On the other hand, their attitudes are somewhat different. In the service provision-oriented area, where Interviewee D works, if regulations or laws do not reflect current situations, civil servants require flexibility or discretion to interpret and enforce laws or regulations. On the other hand, in the regulatory area, where Interviewee L works, whether regulations and laws reflect current situations tends to be less considered. From this point of view, it could be argued that civil servants who perform regulatory-based work are stricter than those with responsibility for service provision-based work.

When unpredictable issues arise, it is difficult [for civil servants] to deal with [the issue] according to regulations ... there is a procedure [to deal with issues according to regulations]. However, it [the procedure] was made in that period [the past] and it does not fit in the current period [and situation]. But we still have to follow it. So, what we are always saying [to the central government] is 'give us more autonomy'. (Interviewee D)

As for clearly illegal things, no. [I] say that I cannot [deal with illegal things]. However, as for very ambiguous things, as far as possible [we] try to deal with them [or help people]. (Interviewee L)

The audit case is worthy of consideration. Based on the responses from interviewees E, F and K, it is argued that audits of legitimacy hinder civil servants from exerting their autonomy. After exerting autonomy, they are investigated by audit and there is the possibility they may be punished depending on the audit result. Therefore, civil servants avoid exerting autonomy in order to protect themselves.

If there are a lot of works [national projects], auditors come, and most audits are legitimacy audits. If a big project begins, it is carried out quickly and rapidly. In this process mistakes or problems could happen. [Mistakes or problems] must happen. (Interviewee E)

Auditors check these [flexibility and discretion]. So, in order not to be blamed by anyone, [civil servants] tend not to use flexibility and discretion. (Interviewee F)

However, later, in the audit they ask us why we did not punish [people or organizations that did not obey the law] by law. It is the practitioners' responsibility. (Interviewee K)

On the other hand, audits are of paramount importance in the government for anti-corruption purposes. In other words, audits minimize the possibilities of exerting autonomy and also prevent corruption. Meanwhile, corruption could occur in an authoritarian organizational culture.

The two interpretations suggest that, conceptually, authoritarian organizational culture might not be the complete opposite of flexible organizational culture, while flexible organizational culture has been reviewed as the opposite concept of authoritarian organizational culture in this study. In other words, organizational cultures can be either both flexible and authoritarian or both non-flexible and non-authoritarian.

It is argued that the organizational culture in the civil service could not change towards flexibility due to the strict audits mentioned by interviewees E, F and K. However, Interviewee K suggested a different perspective, arguing that the organizational culture in the civil service could not change towards flexibility because civil servants themselves do not want to change the culture. From this point of view, it could be argued that audits do not affect autonomy and civil servants are merely deluding themselves.

Even though the top [the government] tries to change the organizational culture, civil servants want to stay in the existing frame because [the civil service] does not need innovation. Sometimes, an official document is sent but it is just received and not actioned. People do not want to change. If something is changed, everyone is tired. Civil servants themselves want to maintain their current status. (Interviewee K)

[Table 5.2.9] Current work period

	N	Mean	Sig.	Number	Meaning
Less than 1 year	102	3.87	.045	1	Strongly disagree
1– 3 years	109	3.87		2	Disagree
3–5 years	43	3.86		3	Neutral
5–10 years	20	3.85		4	Agree
Over 10 years	27	3.33		5	Strongly Agree
Total	301	3.82			

According to the analysis using ANOVA, current work periods affect whether organizational culture is perceived as authoritarian in the South Korean civil service. The mean response of respondents who have worked in their current department for less than 1 year and for over 1 year but less than 3 years is 3.87. The mean of those who have worked in their current department for over 3 but less than 5 years is 3.86 and the mean of those who have worked in their current department for over 5 but less than 10 years is 3.85. The mean response of respondents who have worked in their current department for over 10 years is 3.33, as shown in [Table 5.2.9]. Respondents who have worked for over 10 years in their current department believe that the organizational culture is less authoritarian than those who have worked for less than 10 years in their current department. This difference suggests movement of civil servants between organizations such as teams or departments could affect authoritarian organizational culture.

5.3 The hypothetical scenarios of authoritarian organizational culture

In the above, the survey and interviews have been analysed in terms of the research question ‘To what extent is authoritarian culture present in South Korean civil service?’ In this part, the responses to hypothetical scenarios are explored in terms of the same research question.

Six hypothetical scenarios were designed about authoritarian organizational culture, which are *department dinner*, *meeting time*, *get off work*, *different opinions from bosses*, *budget* and *audit*. Participants were asked to respond to questions from the perspective of superiors, subordinates, or both superiors and subordinates. In the *department dinner* scenario, respondents were asked questions from the perspective of superiors. On the other hand, in the *meeting time*, *get off work* and *audit* scenarios, respondents were asked questions from the perspective of subordinates. In the *different opinions from bosses* and *budget* scenarios, respondents were asked questions from the perspective of both superiors and subordinates.

The scenarios are also classified depending on the seriousness of the issues involved. The *department dinner*, *meeting time* and *get off work* scenarios are somewhat less important. The *different opinions from bosses* and *budget* scenarios reflect more important issues. The *audit* scenario is especially serious in its implications.

Questions pertaining to each scenario can be divided into two perspectives. First of all, respondents were asked ‘what would you do and why?’ in a scenario. Secondly, they were asked ‘what would most of your colleagues do and why?’ in the same scenario. Not only respondents’ thinking but also how respondents believe their colleagues think can thus be reviewed.

5.3.1 The *department dinner* scenario

ooo often organizes department dinners as a head of department. At the dinners, ooo can talk naturally about and issue instructions regarding work that ooo has not talked about or instructed on during official hours because of lack of time and atmosphere. In addition, ooo can listen to complaints about work from and improve their relationship with staff. However, some staff members avoid the dinners because they have associations with work; staff worry they may drink a lot and lose their privacy.

As noted above, the *department dinner* scenario is a less serious case and questions are only based on the perspective of superiors. In this scenario, respondents were asked ‘what would be your preferred behaviour and why?’ as well as ‘what would be the preferred behaviour of most of your colleagues and why?’

[You] If you were the head of department (superior), what would you do?

- (1) Keep organizing the department dinners
- (2) Decrease the number of department dinners
- (3) Ask the opinion of staff and follow what the majority want
- (4) Not organize department dinners any more
- (5) Other

[You] Why would you do this?

- (1) Because the dinners are needed for organizational operation and management
- (2) Because some staff members are reluctant to attend the dinners
- (3) Because it is not advisable for the dinners to be associated with work
- (4) Because the dinners are not needed for organizational operation and management
- (5) Other

[Colleague] If most of your colleagues were the head of department (superior), what would most of your colleagues do?

- (1) Keep organizing the department dinners
- (2) Decrease the number of department dinners
- (3) Ask the opinion of staff and follow what the majority want
- (4) Not organize department dinners any more
- (5) Other

[Colleague] Why would most of your colleagues do this?

- (1) Because the dinners are needed for organizational operation and management
- (2) Because some staff members are reluctant to attend the dinners
- (3) Because it is not advisable for the dinners to be associated with work
- (4) Because the dinners are not needed for organizational operation and management
- (5) Other

[Table 5.3.1] Department dinner

Preferred behaviour

You	Frequency	Percent
(1) Keep organizing the department dinners	.	.
(2) Decrease the number of department dinners	108	35.9
(3) Ask the opinions of staffs and follow what the majority want	134	44.5
(4) Not organize department dinners any more	49	16.3
(5) Other	10	3.3
Total	301	100.

Colleague	Frequency	Percent
(1) Keep organizing the department dinners	8	2.7
(2) Decrease the number of department dinners	122	40.5
(3) Ask the opinions of staffs and follow what the majority want	131	43.5
(4) Not organize department dinners any more	32	10.6
(5) Other	8	2.7
Total	301	100.0

Reason for the preferred behaviour

You	Frequency	Percent
(1) Because the dinners are needed for organizational operation and management	32	10.6
(2) Because some staff members are reluctant to attend the dinners	79	26.2
(3) Because it is not advisable for the dinners to be associated with work	156	51.8
(4) Because the dinners are not needed for organizational operation and management	26	8.6
(5) Other	8	2.7
Total	301	100.0

Colleague	Frequency	Percent
(1) Because the dinners are needed for organizational operation and management	37	12.3
(2) Because some staff members are reluctant to attend the dinners	107	35.5
(3) Because it is not advisable for the dinners to be associated with work	131	43.5
(4) Because the dinners are not needed for organizational operation and management	17	5.6
(5) Other	9	3.0
Total	301	100.0

The most obvious authoritarian response given would be to keep organizing the department dinners because you or they are a head of department. However, the option was not given to respondents. This scenario and questions were located in the first section of the survey. If obvious or clear options about authoritarian organizational culture were suggested even in the

less serious scenarios, respondents may not have answered honestly or they could have been defensive from the beginning of survey. Therefore, the researcher excluded the obvious option. Of the options which are available, the most authoritarian answer would be to keep organizing the department dinners because they are needed for organizational operation and management.

Many respondents said that if they were a head of department, they would ask the opinion of staff and follow what the majority of staff wanted because it is not advisable for the dinners to be associated with work, as shown in [Table 5.3.1]. The response tends to be quite reasonable. On the other hand, no one said that they would keep organizing the department dinners.

In terms of colleagues, the response is similar. There are differences in the detailed figures, but many respondents also said that if most of their colleagues were a head of department, they would ask the opinion of staff and follow what the majority wanted because it is not advisable for the dinners to be associated with work, as shown in [Table 5.3.1].

The response to the scenario tends to be not authoritarian but reasonable, but around 70% of the respondents said that the South Korean civil service is authoritarian, as noted earlier. The analysis suggests that even though the organizational culture in the South Korean civil service currently shows authoritarian tendencies, the respondents and their colleagues may not be authoritarian should they and their colleagues become superiors.

External interviewees A and B have different perspectives, however, even though the interviews were not completely the same as the *department dinner* scenario. Generally, public agencies tend to be perceived as lower organizations than central and local governments. External interviewees A and B work in public agencies and cooperate with civil servants in the government. External Interviewee A argued that civil servants in central government take the obedience of staff in public agencies towards civil servants in central government for granted. External Interviewee B suggested that even junior civil servants in local government also take hospitality for granted. Based on these responses, it is argued that civil servants are authoritarian, regardless of their position and level of governments.

If they [civil servants in central government] have urgent tasks, they call us and ask us to do it now ... ooo [a civil servant in central government] said that Organization A is obedient but [External Interviewee A's organization] is not ... They are authoritarian like an adult treats a child. (External Interviewee A)

When I meet civil servants in local government ... at local events, even civil servants from relatively low levels are used to being treated specially. (External Interviewee B)

Meanwhile, Interviewee L referred to other perspectives. Although in the past civil servants treated staff in public agencies authoritatively, recently they do not treat them this way. However, the staff could perceive that civil servants are authoritarian because the role of civil servants itself is to instruct staff in public agencies. Considering all the above, the response that around 70% of the survey participants said that the South Korean civil service is authoritarian needs to be critically analysed.

There is something like ... in the past, civil servants looked down on public agencies, but recently we try to accommodate [those who work in public agencies] as far as possible because they are old, but we are asking something necessary. However, even though we accommodate [those who work in public agencies], they could think that we are authoritarian. (Interviewee L)

5.3.2 The *meeting time* scenario

ooo is a member of junior staff in a department. A group meeting is organized by the head of department to discuss new department tasks on Monday at 10 a.m.

This scenario is also a little less serious, like the *department dinner* scenario. However, questions are based on the perspective of subordinates. Respondents were asked ‘what would be your preferred behaviour and why?’ as well as ‘what would be the preferred behaviour of most of your colleagues and why?’

[You] If you were the junior staff member (subordinate), what would you do?

- (1) Go to the meeting room early and wait
- (2) Go to the meeting room on time
- (3) Go to the meeting room with team members
- (4) Not care about time and it depends on the situation
- (5) Other

[You] Why would you do this?

- (1) Because you are junior staff
- (2) Because it is what other staff do
- (3) Because you need to prepare for the meeting
- (4) Because superiors indicate displeasure
- (5) Other

[Colleague] If most of your colleagues were the junior staff member (subordinate), what would most of your colleagues do?

- (1) Go to the meeting room early and wait
- (2) Go to the meeting room on time
- (3) Go to the meeting room with team members
- (4) Not care about time and it depends on the situation
- (5) Other

[Colleague] Why would most of your colleagues do this?

- (1) Because they are junior staff
- (2) Because it is what other staff do
- (3) Because they need to prepare for the meeting
- (4) Because superiors indicate displeasure
- (5) Other

[Table 5.3.2] Meeting time

Preferred behaviour

You	Frequency	Percent
(1) Go to the meeting room early and wait	102	33.9
(2) Go to the meeting room on time	53	17.6
(3) Go to the meeting room with team members	134	44.5
(4) Not care about time and it depends on the situation	11	3.7
(5) Other	1	.3
Total	301	100.

Colleague	Frequency	Percent
(1) Go to the meeting room early and wait	75	24.9
(2) Go to the meeting room on time	57	18.9
(3) Go to the meeting room with team members	157	52.2
(4) Not care about time and it depends on the situation	10	3.3
(5) Other	2	.7
Total	301	100.0

Reason for the preferred behaviour

You	Frequency	Percent
(1) Because you are junior staff	39	13.0
(2) Because it is what other staff do	76	25.2
(3) Because you need to prepare for the meeting	146	48.5
(4) Because superiors indicate displeasure	6	2.0
(5) Other	34	11.3
Total	301	100.0

Colleague	Frequency	Percent
(1) Because they are junior staff	34	11.3
(2) Because it is what other staff do	111	36.9
(3) Because they need to prepare for the meeting	117	38.9
(4) Because superiors indicate displeasure	7	2.3
(5) Other	32	10.6
Total	301	100.0

The most authoritarian answer would be to go to the meeting room earlier and wait because superiors indicate displeasure. As for the reason for the preferred behaviour, the first option, ‘because you/colleagues are junior staff’, is similar to the fourth option, ‘because superiors indicate displeasure’. Some respondents may have hesitated to choose the fourth option, ‘because superiors indicate displeasure’, even though they do in fact go to meeting rooms earlier and wait because superiors indicate displeasure. In that situation, they would hesitate less to choose the first option, ‘because you/colleagues are junior staff’, even though the fundamental meaning is quite similar. For this reason, this study suggested these two similar options.

Many respondents said that if they were the junior staff, they would go to the meeting room with team members because they need to prepare for the meeting, as shown in [Table 5.3.2].

As for the reason for the preferred behaviour, only 15% of respondents chose the authoritarian options, ‘because you are junior staff’ and ‘because superiors indicate displeasure’.

The response regarding colleagues is also similar, even though the figures are different. Respondents felt that if most of their colleagues were junior staff, they would go to the meeting room with team members because they need to prepare for the meeting, as shown in [Table 5.3.2]. As for the reason for the preferred behaviour, less than 15% of respondents chose the authoritarian options.

The analysis shows collectivism in the civil service. Respondents said that they and most of their colleagues would go to the meeting room with team members. As noted in the literature review, collectivism has authoritarian characteristics, even though conceptually collectivism is not completely the same as authoritarianism. It is argued that the South Korean civil service meets some conditions of authoritarian organizational culture.

Meanwhile, the response to the *meeting time* scenario also tends to be non-authoritarian; less than 15% of respondents chose the authoritarian options as the reason for the preferred behaviour. This response also contradicts the above result that around 70% of the survey participants said that the South Korean civil service is authoritarian.

5.3.3 The *getting off work* scenario

Official leaving time is 6 p.m. in a department. ooo finishes their work on time, but their superiors are not getting off work yet.

This scenario is a less serious case and questions are based on the perspective of subordinates. Respondents were asked ‘what would be your preferred behaviour and why?’ as well as ‘what would be the preferred behaviour of most of your colleagues and why?’

[You] If you were the staff (subordinate), what would you do?

- (1) Wait for the supervisors to leave work first and then leave too
- (2) Wait for anyone else to leave work first and then leave too
- (3) Ask superiors whether you can get off or not and then get off
- (4) Get off work on your schedule
- (5) Other

[You] Why would you do this?

- (1) Because superiors are still working
- (2) Because you finished your work
- (3) Because it is what other staff do
- (4) Because superiors indicate displeasure
- (5) Others

[Colleague] If most of your colleagues were the staff (subordinate), what would most of your colleagues do?

- (1) Wait for the supervisors to leave work first and then leave too
- (2) Wait for anyone else to leave work first and then leave too
- (3) Ask superiors whether they can get off or not and then get off
- (4) Get off work on their schedule
- (5) Others

[Colleague] Why would most of your colleagues do this?

- (1) Because superiors are still working
- (2) Because they finished their work
- (3) Because it is what other staff do
- (4) Because superiors indicate displeasure
- (5) Others

[Table 5.3.3] Getting off work

Preferred behaviour

You	Frequency	Percent
(1) Wait for the superiors to leave work first and then leave too	58	19.3
(2) Wait for anyone else to leave work first and then leave too	28	9.3
(3) Ask superiors whether you can get off or not and then get off	77	25.6
(4) Get off work on your schedule	132	43.9
(5) Other	6	2.0
Total	301	100.
Colleague	Frequency	Percent
(1) Wait for the superiors to leave work first and then leave too	68	22.6
(2) Wait for anyone else to leave work first and then leave too	51	16.9
(3) Ask superiors whether they can get off or not and then get off	59	19.6
(4) Get off work on their schedule	117	38.9
(5) Other	6	2.0
Total	301	100.0

Reason for the preferred behaviour

You	Frequency	Percent
(1) Because superiors are still working	78	25.9
(2) Because you finished your work	144	47.8
(3) Because it is what other staff do	9	3.0
(4) Because superiors indicate displeasure	58	19.3
(5) Other	12	4.0
Total	301	100.0
Colleague	Frequency	Percent
(1) Because superiors are still working	60	19.9
(2) Because they finished their work	127	42.2
(3) Because it is what other staff do	32	10.6
(4) Because superiors indicate displeasure	73	24.3
(5) Other	9	3.0
Total	301	100.0

The most authoritarian answer would be to wait for superiors to get off work because superiors indicate displeasure. As for the reason for the preferred behaviour, the first option, ‘because superiors are still working’ is similar to the fourth option, ‘because superiors indicate displeasure’. As noted in the *meeting time* scenario, some respondents could hesitate to choose the fourth option, ‘because superiors indicate displeasure’, even though they do wait for superiors to get off work because superiors indicate displeasure. In this situation, they would hesitate less to choose the first option, ‘because superiors are still working’, even though the fundamental meaning is quite similar. For this reason, this study suggested these two similar options in this scenario.

Many respondents said that if they were the staff, they would get off work on their schedule because work is finished, as shown in [Table 5.3.3]. As for their colleagues, respondents also said that if most of their colleagues were the staff, they would get off work on their schedule because work is finished, as shown in [Table 5.3.3]. The response suggests that the organizational culture in the civil service is not authoritarian.

However, over 50% of the respondents chose somewhat authoritarian options for the preferred behaviour, which are ‘Wait for the superiors to leave work first and then leave too’, ‘Wait for anyone else to leave work first and then leave too’ and ‘Ask superiors whether you/they can get off or not and then get off’.

As for the reason for the preferred behaviour, around 50% of the respondents also chose somewhat authoritarian options, which are ‘Because superiors are still working’, ‘Because it is what other staff do’ or ‘Because superiors indicate displeasure’.

This is somewhat contentious. Over 50% of the respondents chose authoritarian options, while less than 50% of them chose non-authoritarian options. Interpretations of authoritarian organizational culture based on these responses could be different depending on perspectives. One interpretation would emphasize that over 50% of the total respondents chose authoritarian options, while another interpretation would focus on the less than 50% who chose non-authoritarian options. However, the response to this scenario still shows a lower degree of authoritarianism than the initial result that around 70% of the respondents overall said that the South Korean civil service is authoritarian.

5.3.4 The *different opinions from boss* scenario

ooo is a head of department and has a meeting about work with his/her subordinates. In the meeting, ooo expresses ideas but his/her subordinates disagree with them.

This scenario is somewhat important and questions are based on perspectives of both superiors and subordinates. Respondents were asked ‘what would be your preferred behaviour and why?’ as well as ‘what would be the preferred behaviour of most of your colleagues and why?’

The below questions were asked from the perspective of superiors.

[You] If you were the head of department (superior), what would you expect the subordinates to do?

- (1) You expect the subordinate to follow your idea, even though he/she has other ideas
- (2) The subordinate should express their personal opinion only if you ask for it
- (3) The subordinate expresses his/her opinion later after the meeting
- (4) The subordinate expresses his/her opinion directly/actively
- (5) Others

[You] Why would you expect the subordinates to do this?

- (1) Because you are in charge of this department

- (2) Because a head can consider more variables than subordinates can consider
- (3) Because this is a proper communication method when subordinates have different ideas from superiors
- (4) Because it is good to share opinions
- (5) Others

[Colleague] If most of your colleagues were the head of department (superior), what would most of your colleagues expect the subordinates to do?

- (1) They expect the subordinate to follow their idea, even though he/she has other ideas
- (2) The subordinate should express their personal opinion only if colleagues are asked for it
- (3) The subordinate expresses his/her opinion later after the meeting
- (4) The subordinate expresses his/her opinion directly/actively
- (5) Others

[Colleague] Why would most of your colleagues expect the subordinates to do this?

- (1) Because they are in charge of this department
- (2) Because a head can consider more variables than subordinates can consider
- (3) Because this is a proper communication method when subordinates have different ideas from superiors
- (4) Because it is good to share opinions
- (5) Others

[Table 5.3.4] Different opinions from bosses I

Preferred behaviour

You	Frequency	Percent
(1) You expect the subordinate to follow your idea, even though he/she has other idea	.	.
(2) The subordinate should express their personal opinion only if you ask for it	29	9.6
(3) The subordinate expresses his/her opinion later after the meeting	48	15.9
(4) The subordinate expresses his/her opinion directly/actively	215	71.4
(5) Other	9	3.0
Total	301	100.

Colleague	Frequency	Percent
(1) They expect the subordinate to follow their idea, even though he/she has other idea	5	1.7
(2) The subordinate should express their personal opinion only if colleagues are asked for it	37	12.3
(3) The subordinate expresses his/her opinion later after the meeting	51	16.9
(4) The subordinate expresses his/her opinion directly/actively	197	65.4
(5) Other	11	3.7
Total	301	100.0

Reason for the preferred behaviour

You	Frequency	Percent
(1) Because you are in charge of this department	6	2.0
(2) Because a head can consider more variables than subordinates can consider	30	10.0
(3) Because this is a proper communication method when subordinates have different ideas from superiors	40	13.3
(4) Because it is good to share opinions	223	74.1
(5) Other	2	.7
Total	301	100.0

Colleague	Frequency	Percent
(1) Because they are in charge of this department	9	3.0
(2) Because a head can consider more variables than subordinates can consider	23	7.6
(3) Because this is a proper communication method when subordinates have different ideas from superiors	63	20.9
(4) Because it is good to share opinions	200	66.4
(5) Other	6	2.0
Total	301	100.0

From the perspective of superiors, the most authoritarian answer would be to expect the subordinates to follow superiors' ideas even though subordinates have their own ideas, because the superior is in charge of the department. Many respondents said that if they were the head, they would expect subordinates to express their opinions directly or actively because it is good to share opinions, as shown in [Table 5.3.4]. No one said that they would expect subordinates to follow the head's idea, even though subordinates have their own ideas.

As for colleagues, the response is similar, even though the figures are somewhat different. Many respondents said that if most of their colleagues were the head, they would expect subordinates to express their opinions directly or actively because it is good to share opinions, as shown in [Table 5.3.4].

The responses to the *different opinions from boss* scenario also show a non-authoritarian culture, which somewhat contradicts the finding that around 70% of the respondents said that the South Korean civil service is authoritarian.

In the *department dinner* scenario, the response suggests that respondents would not be authoritarian if they were a head. However, external interviewees argued that civil servants tend to be authoritarian regardless of position and government level, as noted above. Bearing this in mind, in the *different opinions from boss* scenario, no one chose the first option, 'you

expect the subordinate to follow your idea, even though he/she has other ideas', which is somewhat suspicious in terms of reliability.

Meanwhile, respondents tended to believe that they are more flexible than their colleagues. More respondents said that they expect subordinates to express their opinions directly or actively because it is good to share opinions than they felt their colleagues would.

In the same scenario, the below questions were asked from the perspective of subordinates.

[You] If you were the staff (subordinate), what would you do?

- (1) Even though you have personal opinions, you do not express them and follow the head's opinions
- (2) You express your opinions only if the head asks for them
- (3) You express your opinions later after the meeting
- (4) You express your opinions directly/actively
- (5) Others

[You] Why would you do this?

- (1) Because you are one of the members in the department
- (2) Because a head can consider more variables than you can consider
- (3) Because this is the proper communication method when subordinates have different idea with superiors
- (4) Because it is good to share opinions
- (5) Others

[Colleague] If most of your colleagues were the staff (subordinate), what would most of your colleagues do?

- (1) Even though they have personal opinions, they do not express them and follow the head's opinions
- (2) They express their opinions only if the head asks for them
- (3) They express their opinions later after the meeting
- (4) They express their opinions directly/actively
- (5) Other

[Colleague] Why would most of your colleagues do this?

- (1) Because they are one of the members in the department
- (2) Because a head can consider more variables than they can consider
- (3) Because this is the proper communication method when subordinates have different ideas from superiors
- (4) Because it is good to share opinions
- (5) Other

[Table 5.3.5] Different opinions from bosses II

Preferred behaviour

You	Frequency	Percent
(1) Even though you have personal opinions, you do not express them and follow the head's opinions	15	5.0
(2) You express your opinions only if the head asks for them	84	27.9
(3) You express your opinions later after the meeting	73	24.3
(4) You express your opinions directly/actively	118	39.2
(5) Other	11	3.7
Total	301	100.

Colleague	Frequency	Percent
(1) Even though they have personal opinions, they do not express them and follow the head's opinions	37	12.3
(2) They express their opinions only if the head asks for them	94	31.2
(3) They express their opinions later after the meeting	60	19.9
(4) They express their opinions directly/actively	105	34.9
(5) Other	5	1.7
Total	301	100.0

Reason for the preferred behaviour

You	Frequency	Percent
(1) Because you are one of the members in the department	15	5.0
(2) Because a head can consider more variables than you can consider	62	20.6
(3) Because this is the proper communication method when subordinates have different ideas from superiors	90	29.9
(4) Because it is good to share opinions	128	42.5
(5) Other	6	2.0
Total	301	100.0

Colleague	Frequency	Percent
(1) Because they are one of the members in the department	26	8.6
(2) Because a head can consider more variables than they can consider	50	16.6
(3) Because this is the proper communication method when subordinates have different ideas from superiors	105	34.9
(4) Because it is good to share opinions	113	37.5
(5) Other	7	2.3
Total	301	100.0

From the perspective of subordinates, the most authoritarian answer would be to follow a superior's opinions without expressing personal opinions because you or colleagues are part of the staff in the department.

Many respondents said that if they were subordinates, they would express their opinions directly and actively because it is good to share opinions, as shown in [Table 5.3.5]. Only 5% of the respondents chose the most authoritarian option. Many respondents also said that if most of their colleagues were subordinates, they would express their opinions directly and actively because it is good to share opinions, as shown in [Table 5.3.5].

Many respondents chose the non-authoritarian option in this scenario, which somewhat contradicts the finding that around 70% of the respondents said that the South Korean civil service is authoritarian.

Meanwhile, over 50% of the respondents chose somewhat authoritarian options, which are 'Even though you/they have personal opinions, you/they do not express them and follow the head's opinions', 'You/they express your/their opinions only if the head asks for them' or 'You/they express your/their opinions later after the meeting'. As noted above, interpretations could be somewhat contentious because one could emphasize the fact that over 50% of the respondents chose authoritarian options, while another could highlight the finding that around 40% of the respondents chose flexible options. Meanwhile, given that around 70% of all respondents said that the South Korean civil service is authoritarian, it could be argued that the degree of authoritarianism is not in fact as strong as respondents think. Aside from this, the results also show that respondents tend to believe that they are more flexible or open than their colleagues.

There are differences between the perspectives of superiors and subordinates. Over 65% of respondents said that if they were a superior, they would expect their subordinate to express personal opinions directly and actively because it is good to share opinions. On the other hand, around 40% of the respondents said that if they were subordinates, they would express their opinions directly or actively because it is good to share opinions. The difference of around 25 percentage points suggests that respondents believe that the organizational culture is not as flexible as they are. On the other hand, it could be interpreted that currently junior staff believe that they would be flexible if they were to become senior staff. However, when the junior staff actually become senior staff in the future, they would not be as flexible as they currently believe they would be.

5.3.5 The *budget* scenario

ooo is a Head of Centre. He/she instructs the person in charge of budget to give overtime pay to staff, and collects 20,000 won from each staff member every month in terms of membership fee. The collected money is used to buy gifts or souvenirs for national holidays and they are given to staff in the centre's supervisory agency or members of the city council, which is a higher level. However, some of the staff are not satisfied with this. The person in charge of budget explains this to ooo and suggests stopping it. However, ooo encourages staff to collect money nonetheless because it is for the centre.

This scenario is also somewhat important and questions are based on the perspectives of both superiors and subordinates. In addition, subordinates are divided into two perspectives in this scenario. The first perspective (Subordinate A) is based on the person who the head instructs to give overtime pay to staff, collect money from them again, and use it for the centre. The second perspective (Subordinate B) is based on the staff member who is told to pay 20,000 won.

Respondents were asked 'what would be your preferred behaviour and why?' as well as 'what would be the preferred behaviour of most of your colleagues and why?'

In this scenario, the below questions were asked from the perspective of superiors.

[You] If you were the Head of Centre (superior), what would you do?

- (1) Keep instructing the person in charge of budget and staff to collect money
- (2) Persuade staff to pay money in terms of membership fee
- (3) Ask the opinion of staff and follow what the majority want
- (4) Not collect money
- (5) Other

[You] Why would you do this?

- (1) Because you are in charge of the centre
- (2) Because it is for the centre
- (3) Because the process and method are not appropriate
e.g. overtime pay, collection and execution of fee
- (4) Because some staff complain about it
- (5) Other

[Colleague] If most of your colleagues were the Head of Centre (superior), what would most of your colleagues do?

- (1) Keep instructing the person in charge of budget and staff to collect money
- (2) Persuade staff to pay money in terms of membership fee
- (3) Ask the opinion of staff and follow what the majority want
- (4) Not collect money
- (5) Other

[Colleague] Why would most of your colleagues do this?

- (1) Because they are in charge of the centre
- (2) Because it is for the centre
- (3) Because the process and method are not appropriate
e.g. overtime pay, collection and execution of fee
- (4) Because some staff complain about it
- (5) Other

[Table 5.3.6] Budget I

Preferred behaviour

You	Frequency	Percent
(1) Keep instructing the person in charge of budget and staff to collect money	2	.7
(2) Persuade staff to pay money in terms of membership fee	9	3.0
(3) Ask the opinions of staff and follow what the majority want	61	20.3
(4) Not collect money	226	75.1
(5) Other	3	1.0
Total	301	100.
Colleague	Frequency	Percent
(1) Keep instructing the person in charge of budget and staff to collect money	4	1.3
(2) Persuade staff to pay money in terms of membership fee	12	4.0
(3) Ask the opinion of staff and follow what the majority wants	79	26.2
(4) Not collect money	201	66.8
(5) Other	5	1.7
Total	301	100.0

Reason for the preferred behaviour

You	Frequency	Percent
(1) Because you are in charge of the centre	1	.3
(2) Because it is for the centre	18	6.0
(3) Because the process and method are not appropriate	260	86.4
(4) Because some staff complain about it	15	5.0
(5) Other	7	2.3
Total	301	100.0

Colleague	Frequency	Percent
(1) Because they are in charge of the centre	2	.7
(2) Because it is for the centre	30	10.0
(3) Because the process and method are not appropriate	237	78.7
(4) Because some staff complain about it	25	8.3
(5) Other	7	2.3
Total	301	100.0

From the perspective of superiors, the most authoritarian answer would be to keep instructing staff to pay money because you or your colleagues are in charge of the centre. However, many respondents said that if they were the head, they would not collect money because the process and method are not appropriate, as shown in [Table 5.3.6]. Less than 1% of respondents chose the most authoritarian answer. The response in respect of their colleagues is similar, as shown in [Table 5.3.6]. Respondents felt if most of their colleagues were the head, they would not collect money because the process and method are inappropriate.

Consistently, the responses suggest that if respondents or their colleagues were a head, they would not be authoritarian. However, as referred to in the above, it could be argued that these findings are somewhat suspicious based on the responses from the external interviewees.

In the same scenario, the below questions were asked from the perspective of the person who the head instructs to give overtime pay to staff, collect money from them again and use it for centre (Subordinate A).

[You] If you were the person in charge of budget (subordinate), what would you do?

- (1) Give overtime pay to staff, collect money and use the money for the centre
- (2) Give overtime pay to staff, collect money and use the money for the centre, but you report to the head that it could be troublesome later

- (3) Suggest a reasonable alternative to the head
- (4) Not give overtime pay to staff
- (5) Other

[You] Why would you do this?

- (1) Because the head instructs you to do it
- (2) Because it is for the centre
- (3) Because the process and method are not appropriate
e.g. overtime pay, collection and execution of fee
- (4) Because you could be in charge of the inappropriate process and method later
- (5) Other

[Colleague] If most of your colleagues were the person in charge of budget (subordinate), what would most of your colleagues do?

- (1) Give overtime pay to staff, collect money and use the money for the centre
- (2) Give overtime pay to staff, collect money and use the money for the centre but they report to the head that it could be troublesome later
- (3) Suggest a reasonable alternative to the head
- (4) Not give overtime pay to staff
- (5) Other

[Colleague] Why would most of your colleagues do this?

- (1) Because the head instructs them to do it
- (2) Because it is for the centre
- (3) Because the process and method are not appropriate
e.g. overtime pay, collection and execution of fee
- (4) Because they could be in charge of the inappropriate process and method later
- (5) Other

[Table 5.3.7] Budget II

Preferred behaviour

You	Frequency	Percent
(1) Give overtime pay to staff, collect money and use the money for the centre	.	.
(2) Give overtime pay to staff, collect money and use the money for the centre but you report to the head that it could be troublesome later	95	31.6
(3) Suggest a reasonable alternative to the head	151	50.2
(4) Not give overtime pay to staff	47	15.6
(5) Other	8	2.7
Total	301	100.

Colleague	Frequency	Percent
(1) Give overtime pay to staff, collect money, and use the money for the centre	10	3.3
(2) Give overtime pay to staff, collect money and use the money for the centre but they report to the head that it could be troublesome later	101	33.6
(3) Suggest a reasonable alternative to the head	137	45.5
(4) Not give overtime pay to staff	46	15.3
(5) Other	7	2.3
Total	301	100.0

Reason for the preferred behaviour

You	Frequency	Percent
(1) Because the head instructs you to do it	12	4.0
(2) Because it is for the centre	20	6.6
(3) Because the process and method are not appropriate	196	65.1
(4) Because you could be in charge of the inappropriate process and method later	64	21.3
(5) Other	9	3.0
Total	301	100.0

Colleague	Frequency	Percent
(1) Because the head instructs them to do it	30	10.0
(2) Because it is for the centre	20	6.6
(3) Because the process and method are not appropriate	173	57.5
(4) Because they could be in charge of the inappropriate process and method later	68	22.6
(5) Other	10	3.3
Total	301	100.0

From the perspective of Subordinate A, the most authoritarian answer would be to give overtime pay to staff, collect money and use the money for the centre because the head instructs it. However, over 50% of respondents said that if they were the person in charge of budget, they would suggest a reasonable alternative to the head because the process and method are inappropriate, as shown in [Table 5.3.7].

In fact, no one said that they would give overtime pay to staff, collect money and use the money for the centre and only 4% of respondents gave the reason ‘because the head instructs you to do it’. This response is somewhat suspicious because around 70% of all survey respondents said that the South Korean civil service is authoritarian but almost no one chose the most authoritarian option in this scenario.

As for what they felt colleagues would do, there are no huge differences. Many respondents said that if most of their colleagues were the person in charge of budget, they would suggest a reasonable alternative to the head because the process and method are inappropriate, as shown in [Table 5.3.7].

The response to this scenario is also quite reasonable and consistently contradicts the finding that around 70% of respondents said that the South Korean civil service is authoritarian. This paradox is worthy of deeper analysis.

In the same scenario, the below questions were asked from the perspective of staff who are told to pay 20,000 won (Subordinate B).

[You] If you were one of the staff members in the centre (subordinate), what would you do?

- (1) Pay 20,000 won
- (2) Ask other staff's opinions and follow them
- (3) Raise objections about the practice of collecting money from staff
- (4) Not pay 20,000 won
- (5) Other

[You] Why would you do this?

- (1) Because the head instructs it
- (2) Because it is for the centre
- (3) Because the process and method are not appropriate
e.g. overtime pay, collection and execution of fee
- (4) Because if you act differently, you could be disadvantaged (in)directly later
- (5) Other

[Colleague] If most of your colleagues were staff members in the centre (subordinate), what would most of your colleagues do?

- (1) Pay 20,000 won
- (2) Ask other staff's opinions and follow them
- (3) Raise objections about the practice of collecting money from staff
- (4) Not pay 20,000 won
- (5) Others

[Colleague] Why would most of your colleagues do this?

- (1) Because the head instructs it
- (2) Because it is for the centre
- (3) Because the process and method are not appropriate
e.g. overtime pay, collection and execution of fee

(4) Because if they act differently, they could be disadvantaged (in)directly later
 (5) Others

[Table 5.3.8] Budget III

Preferred behaviour

You	Frequency	Percent
(1) Pay 20,000 won	44	14.6
(2) Ask other staff's opinions and follow them	139	46.2
(3) Raise objections about the practice of collecting money from staff	80	26.6
(4) Not pay 20,000 won	33	11.0
(5) Other	5	1.7
Total	301	100.

Colleague	Frequency	Percent
(1) Pay 20,000 won	50	16.6
(2) Ask other staff's opinions and follow them	143	47.5
(3) Raise objections about the practice of collecting money from staff	72	23.9
(4) Not pay 20,000 won	31	10.3
(5) Other	5	1.7
Total	301	100.0

Reason for the preferred behaviour

You	Frequency	Percent
(1) Because the head instructs it	25	8.3
(2) Because it is for the centre	34	11.3
(3) Because the process and method are not appropriate	153	50.8
(4) Because if you act differently, you could be disadvantaged (in)directly later	84	27.9
(5) Other	5	1.7
Total	301	100.0

Colleague	Frequency	Percent
(1) Because the head instructs it	31	10.3
(2) Because it is for the centre	30	10.0
(3) Because the process and method are not appropriate	138	45.8
(4) Because if they act differently, they could be disadvantaged (in)directly later	95	31.6
(5) Other	7	2.3
Total	301	100.0

From the perspective of Subordinate B, the most authoritarian answer would be to pay 20,000 won because the head instructs it. However, over 45% of respondents said that if they were the staff, they would ask other staff for their opinion and follow them because process and method are inappropriate, as shown in [Table 5.3.8].

The response regarding colleagues is the same. Respondents said that if most of their colleagues were the staff, they would ask for other staff members' opinions and follow them because process and method are inappropriate, as shown in [Table 5.3.8].

One possible interpretation of the above response is collectivism in the civil service because most respondents tend to rely on their colleagues in terms of preferred behaviour. Another interpretation is that there are other elements which are more important than legitimacy. If respondents acknowledge the process is inappropriate, they should not follow it, but they would follow the majority of their colleagues. Interviewee D's response was in line with this suggestion, even though the interview questioning was not completely the same as this scenario.

It [unreasonable instruction] does not come as work ... if there is a CEO, it does not come to practitioners directly ... it comes from the top down, step by step ... the person [who delivers an unreasonable instruction to me] is also instructed [by his/her superior]. I know [it is unreasonable], but what I can do? [Superiors] say 'do it'. So, practitioners do not think why [superiors] have instructed something unreasonable, they think how they can do it without problems ... I feel that it is inevitable [for me or civil servants] to deal with unreasonable instructions. Maybe this is because I am one staff member inside an organization. There is nothing I can do. (Interviewee D)

Generally, respondents consistently showed reasonable tendencies in the above scenarios. However, in the *budget* scenario, the response from the perspective of Subordinate B was somewhat different, and more in line with the finding that around 70% of all respondents said that the South Korean civil service is authoritarian.

5.3.6 The *audit* scenario

ooo works in the audit department. One day, ooo finds faults in a department in the internal audit. However, his superior and the head of the department are close, and his superior indirectly pushes ooo to pretend not to have found the fault.

This scenario is the most serious case among all the scenarios in the survey and questions are based on the perspective of subordinates only. Again, respondents were asked ‘what would be your preferred behaviour and why?’ as well as ‘what would be the preferred behaviour of most of your colleagues and why?’

[You] If you were the staff (subordinate), what would you do?

- (1) Not report the fault
- (2) Not report the fault but leave evidence of the issue for later
- (3) Report the fault
- (4) Report both the fault of the department and the superior’s unreasonable instruction to a higher authority
- (5) Other

[You] Why would you do this?

- (1) Because superiors indirectly instructed you not to report it
- (2) Because if you don’t follow the instruction, you could be disadvantaged (in)directly by a superior later
- (3) Because if you follow the instruction, you could be responsible for problems arising from the non-report later
- (4) Because the superior’s instruction is wrong
- (5) Other

[Colleague] If most of your colleagues were the staff (subordinate), what would most of your colleagues do?

- (1) Not report the fault
- (2) Not report the fault but leave evidence of the issue for later
- (3) Report the fault
- (4) Report both the fault of the department and the superior’s unreasonable instruction to a higher authority
- (5) Other

[Colleague] Why would most of your colleagues do this?

- (1) Because superiors indirectly instructed them not to report it
 (2) Because if they don't follow the instruction, they could be disadvantaged (in)directly by a superior later
 (3) Because if they follow the instruction, they could be responsible for problems arising from the non-report later
 (4) Because the superior's instruction is wrong
 (5) Other

[Table 5.3.9] Audit

Preferred behaviour

You	Frequency	Percent
(1) Not report the fault	21	7.0
(2) Not report the fault but leave evidence of the issue for later	133	44.2
(3) Report the fault	110	36.5
(4) Report both the fault of the department and the superior's unreasonable instruction to a higher authority	20	6.6
(5) Other	17	5.6
Total	301	100.

Colleague	Frequency	Percent
(1) Not report the fault	46	15.3
(2) Not report the fault but leave evidence of the issue for later	131	43.5
(3) Report the fault	100	33.2
(4) Report both the fault of the department and the superior's unreasonable instruction to a higher authority	11	3.7
(5) Other	13	4.3
Total	301	100.0

Reason for the preferred behaviour

You	Frequency	Percent
(1) Because superiors indirectly instructed you not to report it	29	9.6
(2) Because if you don't follow the instruction, you could be disadvantaged (in)directly by a superior later	45	15.0
(3) Because if you follow the instruction, you could be responsible for problems arising from the non-report later	150	49.8
(4) Because the superior's instruction is wrong	65	21.6
(5) Other	12	4.0
Total	301	100.0

Colleague	Frequency	Percent
(1) Because superiors indirectly instructed them not to report it	39	13.0

(2) Because if they don't follow the instruction, they could be disadvantaged (in)directly by a superior later	69	22.9
(3) Because if they follow the instruction, they could be responsible for problems arising from the non-report later	132	43.9
(4) Because the superior's instruction is wrong	49	16.3
(5) Other	12	4.0
Total	301	100.0

The most authoritarian answer would be not to report the fault because superiors have instructed you not to. It could be argued that there are no differences between the first preferred behaviour option, 'Not report the fault', and the second, 'Not report the fault but leave evidence of the issue for later'.

As interviewees B, C and M stated, the second option implies that even though subordinates recognize that the superior's instruction is illegal, inevitably they obey it to avoid (in)direct disadvantages from superiors, such as transfer and forced resignation. In this situation, people could prepare some evidence to prove the circumstance is beyond their control, even though the evidence might not be helpful later. On the other hand, the first option means that subordinates just obey superior's instruction without such process.

[Superiors] don't appreciate proper advice. They think that [subordinates] obstruct their work. Therefore, the subordinates are transferred [to other departments or local governments by superiors]. (Interviewee B)

[When practitioners check an issue] they found problems. However, a superior instructs the practitioners to carry on with work [ignoring the problem] and says to the practitioners [that if problems reoccur in the future because of the ignored problem], 'I will be responsible for the problem'. However, superiors are rarely responsible for the problem. (Interviewee C)

[If subordinates] don't follow instructions, it is insubordination ... internally, it would [result in forced] resignation. (Interviewee M)

Many respondents said that if they were the staff, they would not report the fault but would leave evidence of the issue for later because if they follow the superior's instruction, they could be responsible for problems arising from the non-report later, as shown in [Table 5.3.9]. Less than 10% of respondents said that they would not report the fault because the superior has instructed them indirectly not to report it.

Similarly, respondents also said that if most of their colleagues were the staff, they would not report the fault but would leave evidence of the issue for later because if they follow the superior's instruction, they could be responsible for problems arising from the non-report later, as shown in [Table 5.3.9].

Meanwhile, even though it is clearly wrong and illegal not to report the fault in the *audit* scenario, over 50% of respondents said they would not report it, meaning less than 50% said that they would report it. This is in line with the response that around 70% of all respondents said that the South Korean civil service is authoritarian.

Considering the *budget* and *audit* scenarios from the perspective of subordinates, it is argued that the response is different depending on the seriousness of the issues involved. In the less serious case, the response tends to be reasonable and non-authoritarian, while the response tends to be authoritarian in the serious case.

Taking all the hypothetical scenario-based cases, there are three possible interpretations. One is that the responses were not honest, and were not consistent. In terms of the direct question, around 70% of the total respondents said that the organizational culture in the Korean civil service is authoritarian. However, the responses to most of the hypothetical scenario-based questions were quite reasonable, except for the response to the *audit* scenario.

Another interpretation is that the respondents were deceiving themselves. Around 70% of the total respondents said that the organizational culture is authoritarian and the response to the most serious case was also authoritarian. However, the response to the less serious scenarios was reasonable. It could be argued that while respondents believe that they would be reasonable when facing less serious cases, in reality they would not behave reasonably when faced with such cases.

The other interpretation is that the finding that 70% of all respondents said that the organizational culture is authoritarian is based on the serious scenario. When respondents are asked direct questions about the degree of authoritarian organizational culture in the South

Korean civil service using a Likert scale without suggesting scenarios, they themselves think of and consider serious scenarios such as the *audit* scenario for their choice of answer.

5.4 Discussion

In terms of the degree of authoritarian organizational culture in the South Korean civil service, the response in the hypothetical scenario-based cases was not as authoritarian as the overall finding that around 70% of survey respondents said that the South Korean civil service shows authoritarian tendencies.

Interviewees B, C, D, I, J, K and M, external interviewees A and B, the response to the *audit* scenario and the response to the direct questions based on the Likert scale all suggest there is an authoritarian organizational culture in the South Korean civil service. However, interviewees F and N and the response to the *department dinner*, *meeting time*, *getting off work*, *different opinions from boss* and *budget* scenarios suggest the organizational culture in the civil service is less authoritarian or is reasonable.

In addition, part of the response to the *getting off work* and *different opinions from boss* scenarios could be interpreted as confirming both an authoritarian and non-authoritarian organizational culture because the authoritarian and non-authoritarian responses were somewhat similar.

The analysis is interpreted from two different approaches. One possible interpretation is that authoritarianism has not disappeared fundamentally, but its style or type has changed. In the past, authority tended to be shown in terms of collectivism, through notions such as organizing activities or group meetings. However, recently, such activities have declined but authority is shown in different ways.

This interpretation could be explained by the Schein theory. As reviewed earlier, Schein (2010) divides organizational culture into three levels, which are artefacts, espoused values, and basic assumptions and values. Based on this theory, the artefacts have changed but basic assumptions and values have not in the South Korean civil service. Therefore, the response to less serious scenarios tends to be reasonable but the response to more serious cases tends to be authoritarian, and of course around 70% of all respondents also said that the South Korean civil service is authoritarian.

Another interpretation is that an organization shows authoritarian tendencies when it is threatened or faces serious situations. For instance, imagine there is a department the organizational culture of which is not authoritarian. However, there is a possibility that through a merger with other departments the total number of staff will decrease. In this case, the staff in the department take collective action to protect their rights and interests, and the collective action leads to authoritarianism supported by the staff.

5.5 Conclusion

In this chapter, this study has analysed the survey and interviews in terms of the question of to what extent an authoritarian organizational culture is present in the South Korean civil service. Based on all the analysis, it is argued that the organizational culture in the civil service is not as authoritarian as respondents think. In the survey, around 70% of the total respondents said that the South Korean civil service shows authoritarian tendencies. However, there are elements supporting authoritarianism, while there are other elements that run counter to it.

There are two different interpretations of these findings. The first is that authoritarianism has not disappeared fundamentally, but its style or type has changed. The second is that when an organization is under threat or faces serious situations, it shows authoritarian tendencies.

Aside from the above finding, the analysis suggests elements that affect why an organizational culture may be authoritarian: (1) professionalism; (2) small groups; and (3) movement of staff among departments. Professional groups could show more authoritarian tendencies than non-professional groups. In addition, the organizational culture within small groups can be more authoritarian than that in large groups. In addition, the frequent movement of staff among departments could result in a less authoritarian organizational culture.

Meanwhile, in terms of flexibility, it is argued in the literature review that decentralization is one of the key elements in the public sector. However, the local governments in this study show a more authoritarian organizational culture than the central government. From this point of view, it is argued that the impact of decentralization is somewhat debatable in terms of flexibility.

All the above analysis contributes to interpretations of the effects and operation of authoritarian organizational culture in the following chapters. In particular, the degree of authoritarian

organizational culture found in this study is lower than initially expected, which will be reflected upon in the following part.

Chapter 6

The effect of authoritarian organizational culture

6.1 Introduction

In this chapter, this study focuses on two research questions: ‘What are the effects of authoritarian organizational culture in the South Korean civil service?’ and ‘Has authoritarian organizational culture changed in the South Korean civil service?’ In order to answer these research questions, data collected through both interviews and surveys is analysed.

The perception of authoritarian organizational culture and its positive and negative effects are explored in terms of the first research question. The perception of authoritarian organizational culture is reviewed based on data collected by survey and its positive and negative effects are analysed based on data collected in interviews.

The study then moves on to analyse the perception of change of authoritarian organizational culture and the element of the change of organizational culture in terms of the second research question. The perception of change of authoritarian organizational culture is explored based on data collected by survey and the element of the change of organizational culture is investigated based on data collected in interviews.

6.2 The perception of authoritarian organizational culture

In the survey, respondents were asked to indicate whether they perceive authoritarian organizational culture positively or negatively. The closer the response is to ‘1’, the more negatively respondents perceive authoritarian organizational culture. On the other hand, the closer the response is to ‘5’, the more positively they perceive the culture.

According to the survey, over 80% of the total respondents perceive authoritarian organizational culture negatively, as shown in [Table 6.2.1]. Only 4% of the respondents perceive the culture positively and 13% of the respondents took a neutral stance. Given that

not only authoritarian organizational culture but also other cultures have both advantages and disadvantages, it could be argued that the response to the perception of authoritarian organizational culture is somewhat biased.

[Table 6.2.1] Perception of authoritarian organizational culture

Perception of authoritarian organizational culture	Frequency	Percent
(1) Strongly negative	126	41.9
(2) Negative	124	41.2
(3) Neutral	39	13.0
(4) Positive	10	3.3
(5) Strongly positive	2	.7
Total	301	100.0

[Table 6.2.2] Independent-samples T-test

Gender	Mean		P
	Male (n=167)	Female (n=134)	
Perception of AOC	1.84	1.74	.278
Experience of depts	Mean		P
	A department (n=55)	Other departments (n=246)	
Perception of AOC	1.95	1.76	.147
Related licence	Mean		P
	Related licence (o) (n=93)	Related licence (x) (n=208)	
Perception of AOC	1.91	1.75	.106
Related degree	Mean		P
	Related degree (o) (n=136)	Related degree (x) (n=165)	
Perception of AOC	1.88	1.73	.156
Experience of military service	Mean		P
	Military service (o) (n=156)	Military service (x) (n=145)	
Perception of AOC	1.85	1.74	.295

According to the analysis using the independent-samples T-test (Appendix), respondents perceive authoritarian organizational culture negatively regardless of gender, experience in other departments, related licences and degrees, and experience of military service, as shown in [Table 6.2.2].

As noted above, respondents were asked how they perceive authoritarian organizational culture. Responses closer to '1' indicate respondents perceive authoritarian organizational culture negatively, and responses closer to '5' indicate they perceive the culture positively.

As for gender, some people might assume without any evidence that women perceive authoritarian organizational culture more negatively than men. In the survey, the mean response of male respondents is 1.84 and the mean of female respondents is 1.74, as shown in [Table 6.2.2], so female respondents do tend to perceive authoritarian organizational culture slightly more negatively than male respondents according to the survey. However, statistically, gender does not significantly affect how authoritarian organizational culture is perceived, according to the analysis using the independent-samples T-test.

With respect to experience in other departments, the mean response of those who do not have experience in other departments is 1.95 and the mean of those who do have such experience is 1.76, as shown in [Table 6.2.2]. Respondents who have this experience thus tend to perceive authoritarian organizational culture more negatively than those who do not. However, statistically, experience in other departments does not significantly affect how authoritarian organizational culture is perceived, according to the analysis using the independent-samples T-test.

As for holding a related licence, the mean response of respondents who have a related licence is 1.91 and the mean of those who do not is 1.75, as shown in [Table 6.2.2]. Respondents who have a related licence thus perceive authoritarian organizational culture less negatively than those who do not. However, statistically, holding or not holding a related licence does not significantly affect the perception of authoritarian organizational culture, according to the analysis using the independent-samples T-test.

Meanwhile, in Chapter 5, responses to the question of whether the organizational culture is authoritarian in the South Korean civil service were different depending on whether respondents held related licences. Those who have a related licence said that the organizational culture in the civil service is less authoritarian than those who do not have a related licence, and it is argued that the more professional organizations are, the more authoritarian they are.

The response to the perception of both the degree of authoritarian organizational culture and whether it is positive or negative suggests that the more professional organizations are, the more authoritarian they are, but professionals perceive authoritarian organizational culture as negatively as non-professionals.

One possible interpretation is that while both professionals and non-professionals perceive authoritarian organizational culture negatively, the criteria of authoritarian organizational culture are different. For instance, non-professionals may perceive a case or culture as authoritarian but professionals will think that the same case or culture is not authoritarian. On the other hand, another interpretation is that professionals deceive themselves; they say they perceive authoritarianism negatively, but when they work they show authoritarian tendencies.

As for experience of military service, it could be argued that such experience affects the perception of authoritarian organizational culture. In the survey, the mean response of respondents with military experience is 1.85 and the mean of those who do not is 1.74, as shown in [Table 6.2.2]. Respondents who have military experience thus perceive authoritarian organizational culture less negatively than those who do not. However, statistically, the experience of military service does not significantly affect the response to the perception of authoritarian organizational culture, according to the analysis using the independent-samples T-test.

From Chapter 5, the response has consistently suggested that the experience of military service rarely affects the perception of authoritarian organizational culture, according to the analysis using the independent-samples T-test. One possible interpretation is that this is caused by time gaps between military service and employment. Recently, men tend to serve in the military in their early or mid-20s and the term of military service is less than 2 years. As noted above, it is not common for people to become civil servants in their 20s. From this point of view, there can be a gap of over 5 years between men finishing military service and being employed. During this time, the military influence becomes weakened. Meanwhile, in the past the term of military service was around 3 years and people tended to start working earlier. Therefore, it could be argued that the experience of military service affected organizational culture of the civil service in the past, but that this experience does not affect the organizational culture in the current civil service.

Another interpretation is that the culture in the military has changed to become less authoritarian. In South Korea, many accidents and incidents have occurred in the military and there have been attempts to conceal this, which has led to the necessity of military reform. With such reform, it could be argued that the military culture has changed away from authoritarianism.

According to the analysis using ANOVA, whether respondents perceive authoritarian organizational culture negatively or positively is different depending on total work period and type of work. On the other hand, age, education, work place, position and current work period are not influential. As noted above, responses closer to ‘1’ indicate respondents perceive authoritarian organizational culture negatively, and responses closer to ‘5’ indicate they perceive the culture positively.

[Table 6.2.3] Age

	N	Mean	Sig.	Number	Meaning
Less than 30 years	14	2.14	.053	1	Strongly negative
30–39 years	108	1.67		2	Negative
40–49 years	116	1.78		3	Neutral
Over 50 years	63	1.97		4	Positive
Total	301	1.80		5	Strongly positive

As noted above, it is difficult for a person to become a civil servant in their 20s because of the requirement to spend 4 years in undergraduate school, take a leave of absence for around 2 years, spend around 2 years preparing for the civil service examination and men’s requirement to complete military service for around 2 years. Therefore, it is argued that the response of the ‘Less than 30 years’ group is relatively less important when analysing the organizational culture in the South Korean civil service. In the survey, respondents in the ‘Less than 30 years’ group are also few in number, accounting for 4.65%.

The mean response of respondents in their 30s is 1.67 and the mean of those in their 40s is 1.78. The mean response of respondents in over 50 is 1.97, as shown in [Table 6.2.3]. According to the analysis using ANOVA, statistically, age does not affect the response to how authoritarian organizational culture is perceived. If the sig. is less than 0.05, it is argued that age affects the response according to the analysis using ANOVA. However, in this case the sig. is 0.053; due to the 0.004 (minor) difference, it is argued that age does not affect the response according to the analysis using ANOVA. Therefore, the researcher argues that it is worth analysing and interpreting the response in terms of age. The younger respondents tend to perceive authoritarian organizational culture more negatively than the older respondents, as shown in [Table 6.2.3]. In Chapter 5, the younger respondents said that the organizational culture is more

authoritarian than the older respondents. These two responses suggest that the younger respondents are, the stronger and the more negatively they perceive the authoritarian organizational culture in the civil service. Based on this suggestion, it is argued that the generation gap is one of the crucial elements in perceptions of authoritarian organizational culture.

[Table 6.2.4] Levels of education

	N	Mean	Sig.	Number	Meaning
Middle & high school	11	1.73	.750	1	Strongly negative
Undergraduate	227	1.81		2	Negative
Postgraduate	62	1.76		3	Neutral
Other	1	1.00		4	Positive
Total	301	1.80		5	Strongly positive

According to the analysis using ANOVA, both levels of education and work place do not affect the response to how authoritarian organizational culture is perceived. The mean response of respondents whose highest level of education is middle or high school is 1.73 and the mean of those whose highest level of education is undergraduate study is 1.81. The mean response of respondents whose highest level of education is postgraduate study is 1.76, as shown in [Table 6.2.4].

[Table 6.2.5] Work place

	N	Mean	Sig.	Number	Meaning
Central gov	177	1.75	.216	1	Strongly negative
Local gov I	95	1.82		2	Negative
Local gov II	29	2.03		3	Neutral
Total	301	1.80		4	Positive
				5	Strongly positive

The mean response of respondents in central government is 1.75 and the mean of those in local government I is 1.82. The mean response of respondents in local government II is 2.03, as shown in [Table 6.2.5]. Respondents in central government tend to perceive authoritarian

organizational culture more negatively than respondents in local government I, and those in local government I tend to perceive it more negatively than those in local government II. However, statistically, work place does not significantly affect the response to how authoritarian organizational culture is perceived.

On the other hand, it is worthwhile carefully analysing the finding that respondents in central government tend to perceive authoritarian organizational culture more negatively than those in local government, because in Chapter 5 it was argued that local governments tend to show stronger authoritarian organizational culture than the central government, based on the interviews.

Considering both the responses to whether organizational culture is seen as authoritarian and whether respondents perceive authoritarian organizational culture positively or negatively, it is argued that civil servants in local government perceive authoritarian organizational culture less negatively than those in central government, which leads to a stronger authoritarian organizational culture in local governments than in central government, and conversely a less strong authoritarian organizational culture in central government compared to local governments.

On the other hand, another interpretation is that because authoritarian organizational culture in local governments is stronger than in central government, civil servants in local government view authoritarian organizational culture more positively compared with civil servants in central government in order not to be disparaged. Meanwhile, because authoritarian organizational culture in central government is less strong than in local governments, civil servants in central government respond to authoritarian organizational culture negatively compared with their counterparts in local governments.

It could be argued that position affects how authoritarian organizational culture is perceived. For instance, civil servants in junior positions perceive it more negatively than those in middle positions, and civil servants in middle positions perceive it more negatively than those in senior positions.

However, according to the analysis using ANOVA, position does not affect the response to how authoritarian organizational culture is perceived. In the survey, the mean response of respondents in junior positions is 1.80 and the mean of those in middle positions is 1.73. But the mean response of respondents in senior positions is 2.25, as shown in [Table 6.2.6]. It is worthwhile analysing the fact that respondents in middle positions perceive authoritarian

organizational culture more negatively than those in junior positions. In Chapter 5, it was argued that recently some of the younger generation show authoritarian tendencies. This response to the perception of authoritarian organizational culture also suggests some of the younger generation may show authoritarian characteristics.

[Table 6.2.6] Positions

	N	Mean	Sig.	Number	Meaning
Junior	248	1.80	.486	1	Strongly negative
Middle	49	1.73		2	Negative
Senior	4	2.25		3	Neutral
Total	301	1.80		4	Positive
				5	Strongly positive

According to the analysis using ANOVA, total work period affects the perception of authoritarian organizational culture. The mean response of respondents who have worked for less than 5 years is 1.89 and the mean of those who have worked for over 5 but less than 10 years is 1.62. The mean response of respondents who have worked for over 10 but less than 15 years is 1.77, while the mean of those who have worked for over 15 but less than 20 years is 1.53. The mean response of respondents with over 20 years' service is 1.94, as shown in [Table 6.2.7].

[Table 6.2.7] Total work period

	N	Mean	Sig.	Number	Meaning
Less than 5 years	57	1.89	.044	1	Strongly negative
5–10 years	50	1.62		2	Negative
10–15 years	57	1.77		3	Neutral
15–20 years	36	1.53		4	Positive
Over 20 years	101	1.94		5	Strongly positive
Total	301	1.80			

In particular, respondents who have worked for over 20 years perceive authoritarian organizational culture less negatively than those who have worked for less than 20 years, while

respondents who have worked for between 15 and 20 years perceive authoritarian organizational culture more negatively than those who have worked for over 20 years or less than 15 years. The response shows a zigzag pattern. Respondents working for over 15 but less than 20 years perceive authoritarian organizational culture more negatively than respondents working for over 20 years. Respondents working for over 10 but less than 15 years perceive it less negatively than those working for between 15 and 20 years. Respondents for working over 5 but less than 10 years, meanwhile, perceive it more negatively than those working for over 10 but less than 15 years. Respondents working for less 5 years perceive it less negatively than those in the 5–10 years group.

The result could be interpreted in terms of differences between generations. For instance, if the first generation is authoritarian, recognizing the necessities of authority, the second generation is relatively less authoritarian, denying those necessities due to the authoritarianism of the first generation. Meanwhile, the third generation becomes authoritarian, recognizing the necessities of authority due to the less authoritarian style of the second generation. Eventually, this pattern is repeated.

[Table 6.2.8] Type of work

	N	Mean	Sig.	Number	Meaning
HRM & OM	141	1.71	.047	1	Strongly negative
LM	75	2.00		2	Negative
HC & SW	85	1.76		3	Neutral
Total	301	1.80		4	Positive
				5	Strongly positive

Statistically, type of work also affects how authoritarian organizational culture is perceived, according to the analysis using ANOVA. The mean response of respondents who undertake internal-based work (human resource management and organization management) is 1.71 and the mean of those responsible for service provision-based work (healthcare and social welfare) is 1.76. Meanwhile, the mean response of respondents performing regulatory-based work (land management) is 2.00, as shown in [Table 6.2.8]. Respondents who perform regulatory-based work (land management) perceive authoritarian organizational culture less negatively than those responsible for internal-based work (human resource management and organization

management) and service provision-based work (healthcare and social welfare). It could be argued that authoritarian organizational culture is present of functional in certain areas such as those where regulatory-based work is performed.

On the other hand, it is also worthwhile considering whether regulatory-based work cannot be conducted properly without an authoritarian organizational culture. Whether an organization that performs regulatory-based work should maintain an authoritarian organizational culture or whether it blocks itself from changing to become more flexible needs to be taken into account.

[Table 6.2.9] Current work period

	N	Mean	Sig.	Number	Meaning
Less than 1 year	102	1.75	.211	1	Strongly negative
1–3 years	109	1.83		2	Negative
3–5 years	43	1.65		3	Neutral
5–10 years	20	1.70		4	Positive
Over 10 years	27	2.11		5	Strongly positive
Total	301	1.80			

According to the analysis using ANOVA, current work period does not affect how authoritarian organizational culture is perceived. The mean response of respondents who have worked in their current department for less than 1 year is 1.75 and the mean of those who have 1–3 years’ service in their current department is 1.83. The mean response of respondents who have worked in their current department for over 3 but less than 5 years is 1.65 and the mean of those who have been in their current department for 5–10 years is 1.70. The mean response of respondents who have worked in their current department for more than 10 years is 2.11, as shown in [Table 6.2.9].

The mean response of respondents who have worked for over 10 years in their current department is higher than that of other respondents. This response suggests that respondents with more than 10 years’ service in the same team or department tend to perceive authoritarian organizational culture less negatively than those who have worked in their current department for less than 10 years.

The analysis suggests that civil servants who often move between organizations perceive authoritarian organizational culture more negatively than those who rarely move. From this

point of view, it could be argued that movement of civil servants between organizations is one of the crucial elements in terms of how authoritarian organizational culture is perceived.

Similarly, in Chapter 5, respondents who often move between organizations said that organizational culture is more authoritarian than those who rarely move. Considering these two responses, it is argued that the frequent movement of civil servants between organizations leads to a change of organizational culture away from authoritarianism.

6.3 The positive and negative effect on authoritarian organizational culture

In the survey, over 80% of the respondents perceive authoritarian organizational culture negatively, as reviewed above. On the other hand, the responses in interviews were somewhat different compared with the survey. Interviewees A, C, G, I and K showed more negative tendencies about authoritarian organizational culture than other interviewees, while interviewees B, D, F, J, L and N showed somewhat neutral tendencies, referring to the necessities of authoritarian organizational culture directly or indirectly.

Interviewee A insisted that authoritarian organizational culture affects work efficiency and the morale of staff negatively. In addition, creative ideas are not collected and reflected properly. For instance, even though subordinates report problems to superiors, the reports are rarely reflected or accepted by superiors in an authoritarian organizational culture. However, subordinates need to make reports because it is a part of the formal work process, which decreases the morale of staff. In addition, in the process of decision-making, diverse elements are neither reviewed nor reflected. There could be positive effects in part from the micro perspective, such as rapid response in an emergency or achievement in the short term. However, Interviewee A argued that an authoritarian organizational culture has negative effects from the macro perspective.

Two perspectives. There are problems about work efficiency and morale of staff. From the perspective of work efficiency, the process of decision-making and communication are distorted or it is not easy to say. For instance, there were problems and [subordinates] reported [the problems to superiors]. However, it [the report] was not accepted. [Subordinates] keep reporting [issues or problems] but if reports are not accepted, [subordinates] do not report issues or problems.

[Subordinates] make a report as a mere formality. Therefore, decision-making is delayed and distorted. So, there are limitations to collecting creative ideas. In addition, from the perspective of organizational culture, there are problems with the morale of staff, atmosphere, culture. (Interviewee A)

When asked if there were any positive aspects, Interview A continued:

For performance in the short term or response in an emergency, authoritarian culture or obedient culture is useful ... In the long term, there are more negative influences. (Interviewee A)

Interviewee G's responses were in line with Interviewee A's in terms of creativity. Society has changed towards diversity, but in an authoritarian organizational culture creative or diverse views are not fully reflected in the process of establishing and performing public policy. On the other hand, Interviewee A referred to inefficiency as a negative effect of authoritarian organizational culture, but Interviewee G identified efficiency as a positive effect. The process of decision-making is fast in an authoritarian organizational culture, which improves efficiency. The different responses suggest that the effects of authoritarian organizational culture could be somewhat controversial in terms of (in)efficiency.

Society has become diverse. [We] entered diverse society and there has been progress, but such hierarchical organizations tend to cause significant side effects in a diverse society. Changes of era or environments do not seem to be reflected. Therefore, it is negative ... it is difficult for the new generation to present good ideas, thinking, creativity. Looking at the big picture, it is difficult to discuss big policy or national projects. (Interviewee G)

When asked if there were any positive aspects, Interviewee G continued:

High efficiency. In an authoritarian culture, the process of collecting opinions is often ignored ... the faster you work the more efficient it is. [Through authoritarian culture or style] good achievements have been obtained to some extent. (Interviewee G)

In this response, Interviewee G argued that work or projects can be finished quickly in an authoritarian culture because the process of collecting opinions from stakeholders tends to be ignored under authoritarianism and it is seen as efficient to finish work or projects quickly. The interviewee seems to understand rapidity and efficiency as being equal. However, rapidity and efficiency are not completely the same.

Interviewee I noted that there is no communication in an authoritarian organizational culture, which could be interpreted in terms of inefficiency, as Interviewee A insisted above. Even predictable elements are not reflected fully in the process of policy-making due to inefficient communication between superiors and subordinates. Eventually, problems occur in the process of introducing new systems or policies. Meanwhile, cooperation between departments was referred to as a positive effect. Generally, it is difficult to cooperate between departments but such cooperation is enacted easily in an authoritarian organizational culture.

It seems that authoritarianism means no communication. Therefore, in the authoritarian culture, [an authoritarian head] does not know realistic things [such as related regulations or systems] and it [a realistic thing] is not reflected [by the authoritarian head]. For instance, in the process of policy-making, [an authoritarian head] refers to exemplary policy which does not consider realistic things [such as related regulations or systems]. Eventually, trial and error occur [in the process of policy-making and introducing policy]. (Interviewee I)

When asked if there were any positive aspects, Interviewee I said:

For cooperation among departments, it is good. [Cooperation is not easy but] if a head of organization instructs heads of department to cooperate with each other, cooperation becomes easy. (Interviewee I)

Interviewee C pointed out the strong, top-down style in the South Korean public sector. In this style, all the decisions tend to be made by a leader. If a leader makes the right decision, there are no problems. However, if a leader makes the wrong decision in an authoritarian organizational culture, there would be problems. In addition, the strong, top-down style could be interpreted in terms of the communication that Interviewee I referred to. In the strong, top-down style, it would be difficult for a subordinate to communicate with superiors comfortably. On the other hand, Interviewee I referred to rapidity as a positive effect. People tend to avoid difficult and complicated work, but in an authoritarian organizational culture, the work is completed quickly.

The public sector in South Korea has a top-down style rather than bottom-up style. In this structure, a typical problem is relying on a head giving orders. Of course, if a proper leader becomes a head, it is good. However, there are no guarantees. Therefore, an authoritarian organizational culture significantly relying on one single person should be changed. (Interviewee C)

When asked whether there are any positive aspects, Interviewee C replied:

People tend to delay or avoid difficult tasks ... in an authoritarian organizational culture, the speed of such tasks is easier than with a bottom-up style. (Interviewee C)

Interviewee K suggested that there are high possibilities of causing corruption in an authoritarian organizational culture. In local government II, there are inappropriate relationships between businessmen and a few senior civil servants. For instance, before a junior civil servant makes an inspection of a certain company, a senior civil servant gives an informal

guideline to the junior for the inspection because the senior knows the company personally. It can be argued that the corruption that Interviewee K pointed out is in line with the wrong decisions by leaders that Interviewee C referred to.

There are the cosy relationships between civil servants and businessmen [in local government II]. Even though practitioners conduct inspections, they cannot administer justice. Senior civil servants suggest guidelines to some extent ... However, later, in the audit, they ask us why we did not punish [people or organization that did not obey the law] by law. It is the practitioners' responsibility. (Interviewee K)

When asked whether there any positive aspects, Interviewee K continued:

If I have to find positive aspects, sometimes [when I] take an administrative measure, the private sector files an administrative litigation. However, if superiors instruct [me] not to take administrative measures, work is easy [because I neither need to do the work for the administrative measure nor deal with the administrative litigation from the private sector]. (Interviewee K)

Considering the above interviews, it is argued that the negative effects of authoritarian organizational culture are inefficiency, low morale, lack of creativity and communication, and risk of corruption and improper decision-making. Meanwhile, (in)efficiency is somewhat controversial, given that Interviewee G referred to efficiency as a positive effect of authoritarian organizational culture.

On the other hand, other interviewees showed somewhat neutral tendencies about authoritarian organizational culture, compared with the above interviewees. Interviewee B insisted that there are both positive and negative factors with authoritarian organizational culture, identifying rapidity, efficiency and convenience as positive effects. If a leader makes a decision clearly and rapidly, it helps subordinates to work efficiently. On the other hand, if a leader does not make a decision clearly, it is difficult for subordinates to work. In addition, Interviewee B

referred to the important role of the leader in terms of balance between authoritarianism and flexibility, because an organization and its members can be disorganized in a non-authoritarian organizational culture – in such a culture, subordinates may not follow superiors' instructions properly or it can be difficult for a head to manage the organization and its members properly. In other words, the maintenance of balance between authoritarianism and flexibility is important in terms of organization management. As for negative effects, wrong decision-making and low morale of staff were pointed out.

I think that there are both. A positive thing is that decision-making is fast and efficiency is high. A negative thing is that if decision-making is wrong ... [it is] difficult [for subordinates] to say anything to superiors about the wrong decision-making ... If a head of organization or department has strong leadership and makes decisions clearly, work could become straightforward [and easy because subordinates just follow the clear instructions] or [subordinates] could become lethargic. Based on my experience, if a head of department or organization makes a decision clearly, work becomes straightforward [and easy] because [I can] rely on the clear instruction and carry it out. However, [for instance] I make a report to a superior. [If a head of organization] instructs me to ask practitioners or report it to the head of a bureau again [without clear instructions], [I am] frustrated ... If the organizational culture becomes authoritarian, the organization itself seems to be difficult. Whenever [I] go to the office, [I am] stressed [because of the authoritarian organizational culture] ... However, if everything is just accepted, the organization is disorganized. Harmony is a role of the leader, but there are not a lot of such leaders. (Interviewee B)

Interviewee D's response is in line with Interviewee B's in terms of efficiency, rapidity and convenience. Where there are complicated issues that many stakeholders are involved in, it is difficult to reflect all the stakeholders' opinions or interests. For instance, if the government makes the decision to build a public rental house for vulnerable social groups in a certain area, landlords in that area would oppose it. However, in this situation, if the leader makes a clear decision about the complicated issue, the process is rapid and efficient, which is helpful for

subordinates to work. In terms of the negative factors of an authoritarian organizational culture, there is the possibility a biased decision will be made by a leader who ignores important views.

There are positive and negative perspectives. Both ... So, [authoritarian organizational culture is] efficient. Rapid speed in decision-making and implementation. In the process of policy, if there are many stakeholders, there are resistances and different opinions. If all of them are reflected, it is endless, but if a superior says that this is right, it is easy to work ... there are conflicting stakeholders, but when a certain opinion is reflected we think that it seems to be biased. Sometimes it is biased to those who are close to the mayor ... Rental housing was built in the Park Chung-Hee and Chun Doo-Whan generation [military government]. Now can we? No. [We know that rental housing] is needed but it cannot be built. In this context, authoritarianism is efficient but potential problems are not reflected. (Interviewee D)

Interviewee L also referred to authoritarian organizational culture in terms of organization management, which Interviewee B also pointed out. If superiors have no authority over subordinates, an organization can be disorganized. Interviewee L argued that authoritarian organizational culture was too strong in the civil service under the military government in the past. Therefore, anti-authoritarianism has been highlighted too much, although authoritarianism is needed to some extent.

If authority is too low, subordinates seem to be messed up. Like in the army, if military discipline is relaxed, everything is messed up. So, it is needed to some extent. For instance, a head of team reproves a subordinate for a mistake but the subordinate blames the head. In the past, authoritarianism was so strong that anti-authoritarianism was strong inversely but I think that it is needed at a common-sense level to some extent. (Interviewee L)

Interviewee J claimed that an authoritarian organizational culture is required in professional and small organizations. In order to protect or expand their own interests, collective action and cohesion inside organizations are crucial and authoritarianism plays a role in this in part.

Professional areas are more authoritarian because they are a minority. To show the interests of a minority, cohesion is needed and eventually it leads to authoritarianism. Hence, I think that authoritarianism is needed in minority professional areas to some extent. (Interviewee J)

Interviewee F strongly highlighted the necessity for authority in terms of efficiency, explaining the case of civil complaints. In one example, a civil petitioner periodically demanded many actions. It took long time to meet the demand for the single civil petitioner, which was inefficient. Interviewee F argued that even though it is inefficient for civil servants to meet this type of demand, civil servants cannot reject them, because civil servants do not have sufficient authority.

Authority is too low. [Civil servants] need authority. Other countries seem to be more authoritarian ... There are cases like low efficiency because authority is too low. On the Internet, a person requests something [such as providing a lot of public information]. We have to spend a quarter of a day dealing with it. It is a waste of administrative power and is inefficient. However, civil servants must serve citizens unconditionally. (Interviewee F)

Interviewee N agreed with Interviewee F, referring to authoritarian organizational culture in terms of high morale and efficiency. In the past, a leader authorized subordinates to work based on their professionalism and the leader was responsible for the result of the subordinate's work. Therefore, the morale of civil servants increased and efficiency was also improved. Recently, however, civil servants need to protect themselves individually.

[One of the interviewees referred to the lack of authority of civil servants] I strongly agree with it ... Authoritarianism could be perceived differently depending on perspectives ... Even though civil servants made mistakes in the past, they were protected externally to some extent. Although there were some rebukes internally ... The former president authorized the chief of economy [to carry out work related to the national economy] because he [the former president] did not know economy. The former president was also responsible for the results of the chief of economy. Civil servants were happy about it [the confidence and support from the former president] and worked hard. The economy was good at that time. However, now individuals need to protect themselves. (Interviewee N)

Considering the above interviewees showing somewhat neutral tendencies, it is argued that the positive effects of authoritarian organizational culture are rapidity, efficiency, convenience, organization management and cohesion of professional and small groups, and high morale.

The above interviews and interpretations show there are positive and negative effects of authoritarian organizational culture. Inefficiency, low morale, lack of creativity and communication, and risk of corruption and improper decisions are noted as negative factors. From the positive perspective, rapidity, efficiency, convenience, high morale, organization management and cohesion of professional and small groups have been identified.

Meanwhile, (in)efficiency and (high/low) morale were pointed out as both negative and positive effects of authoritarian organizational culture. As for (in)efficiency, it is argued that the lack of mutually efficient communication under authoritarianism causes inefficiency from the negative perspective. Interviewee A said that the ‘process of decision-making and communication are distorted, or it is not easy to say. For instance, there were problems and [subordinates] reported the problem [to superiors]. However, it [the report] was not accepted. [Subordinates] keep reporting issues but if reports are not accepted, [subordinates] do not report it. [Subordinates] make a report as a mere formality.’

On the other hand, it is argued that authoritarianism improves efficiency from the positive perspective. Interviewee B said that the ‘positive thing is that decision-making is fast and efficiency is high’, while Interviewee D insisted that ‘[authoritarian organizational culture is] efficient. Rapid speed in decision and implementation.’ Interviewee G also claimed that ‘in an authoritarian culture, the process of collecting opinions is often ignored ... the faster you work,

the more efficient it is. [Through authoritarian culture and style] good achievements have been obtained to some extent.'

Efficiency tends to be associated with rapidity in the civil service, based on the responses from interviewees B, D and G. The sooner work is completed, the more efficient it is seen to be. However, even though work is completed quickly, it could be inefficient. For instance, a new public policy or project is completed quickly but the related issues were not reviewed carefully due to lack of communication between superiors and subordinates. Therefore, even after completion, many problems could continue to occur. In this case, additional resources are required to deal with the problems, which results in inefficiency.

As for (high/low) morale, the negative interpretation is based on stress from tension. Interviewee B said that 'if the organizational culture becomes authoritarian, the organization itself seems to be difficult. Whenever [I] go to the office, [I am] stressed [because of the authoritarian organizational culture]'. On the other hand, high morale based on the confidence and support from an authoritarian leader has been noted. Interviewee N noted that 'the former president authorized the chief of economy [to carry out work related to the national economy] because he [the former president] did not know economy. The former president was also responsible for the results of the chief of economy. Civil servants were happy about it [the confidence and support from the former president] and worked hard.'

6.4 The perception of change of authoritarian organizational culture

In the survey, respondents were asked whether the organizational culture in the South Korean civil service has changed to become more flexible. A response of '1' indicated respondents strongly disagree, while a response of '5' indicated they strongly agree.

According to the survey, over 60% of the total respondents said that the organizational culture in the South Korean civil service has changed towards a flexible culture, as shown in [Table 6.4.1]. Meanwhile, approximately 10% of the respondents said that the organizational culture has not changed and around 28% of the respondents showed neutral tendencies.

[Table 6.4.1] Perception of change of organizational culture

Change of organizational culture	Frequency	Percent
(1) Strongly disagree	7	2.3
(2) Disagree	23	7.6
(3) Neutral	86	28.6
(4) Agree	160	53.2
(5) Strongly agree	25	8.3
Total	301	100.0

According to the analysis using the independent-samples T-test (Appendix), respondents said that the organizational culture has changed towards a flexible style in the South Korean civil service regardless of gender, experience in other departments, holding related licences or related degrees, and experience of military service, as shown in [Table 6.4.2].

[Table 6.4.2] Independent-samples T-test

Gender	Mean		P
	Male (n=167)	Female (n=134)	
Change of AOC	3.64	3.49	.128
Experience of depts	Mean		P
	A department (n=55)	Other departments (n=246)	
Change of AOC	3.51	3.59	.522
Related licence	Mean		P
	Related licence (o) (n=93)	Related licence (x) (n=208)	
Change of AOC	3.52	3.60	.419
Related degree	Mean		P
	Related degree (o) (n=136)	Related degree (x) (n=165)	
Change of AOC	3.56	3.59	.766
Experience of military service	Mean		P
	Military service (o) (n=156)	Military service (x) (n=145)	
Change of AOC	3.63	3.51	.200

As noted above, respondents were asked whether the organizational culture in the South Korean civil service has changed to become more flexible and free. Responses closer to ‘1’ indicate respondents feel that the organizational culture has not changed towards a flexible

style, and responses closer to '5' indicate they agree that the style has changed to become more flexible.

In terms of gender, the mean response of male participants is 3.64 and the mean of female respondents is 3.49, as shown in [Table 6.4.2]. Female respondents tend to agree less that the organizational culture has changed towards a flexible style compared with male respondents. However, statistically, gender does not significantly affect the perception of change of organizational culture, according to the analysis using the independent-samples T-test.

Consistently, gender does not affect respondents' opinions regarding the degree, perception and change of authoritarian organizational culture in the civil service, according to the analysis using the independent-samples T-test. The analysis suggests that the gender issue is less important in the South Korean civil service in terms of authoritarian organizational culture. Meanwhile, in different historical and social environments and backgrounds, such analysis and interpretation could be different.

With respect to experience in other departments, the mean response of respondents who do not have such experience is 3.51 and the mean of those who do is 3.59, as shown in [Table 6.4.2]. Respondents who have this experience thus tend to agree that the organizational culture has changed towards a flexible style more than those who do not. However, statistically, experience in other departments does not affect the perception of whether the organizational culture has changed towards a flexible style, according to the analysis using the independent-samples T-test.

As for holding a related licence, the mean response of respondents who have a related licence is 3.52 and the mean of those who do not is 3.60, as shown in [Table 6.4.2]. Respondents who have a related licence thus tend to disagree that the organizational culture has changed towards a flexible style more than respondents who do not hold such a licence. However, statistically, having a related licence does not affect the perception of change of organizational culture towards a flexible style, according to the analysis using the independent-samples T-test.

On the other hand, based on the responses to both the degree and perception of authoritarian organizational culture, it is argued that the more professional organizations are, the more authoritarian organizations are, but professionals perceive authoritarian organizational culture as negatively as non-professionals.

Considering all the response based on related licences in the survey, it is argued that even though professional organizations show authoritarian tendencies, professionals perceive authoritarian organizational culture as negatively as non-professionals. Therefore, the organizational culture in professional organizations has also changed towards a less authoritarian style, as has the organizational culture in non-professional organizations.

In terms of experience of military service, the mean response of respondents who have such experience is 3.63 and the mean of those who do not is 3.51, as shown in [Table 6.4.2]. Respondents who have military experience thus tend to agree that the organizational culture has changed towards a flexible style more than those who do not. However, statistically, military service experience does not affect the perception of change of organizational culture towards a flexible style, according to the analysis using the independent-samples T-test. Taken with the findings in Chapter 5 that show military experience does not statistically affect the perception of the degree of authoritarian organizational culture, all the survey responses suggest that military experience consistently does not affect perceptions of authoritarian organizational culture.

According to the analysis using ANOVA, age, level of education, position, total work period, type of work and current work period do not affect the response to whether organizational culture in the South Korean civil service has changed to become more flexible and free. On the other hand, work place is significant in terms of the perception of cultural change.

As noted above, responses closer to ‘1’ indicate respondents disagree that the organizational culture has changed towards a flexible style, and responses closer to ‘5’ indicate they feel that it has.

[Table 6.4.3] Age

	N	Mean	Sig.	Number	Meaning
Less than 30 years	14	3.79	.760	1	Strongly disagree
30–39 years	108	3.54		2	Disagree
40–49 years	116	3.57		3	Neutral
Over 50 years	63	3.60		4	Agree
Total	301	3.57		5	Strongly agree

As explained earlier, the response of the ‘Less than 30 years’ group is relatively less important to analyse the civil service in South Korea. The mean response of respondents in their 30s is 3.54 and the mean of those in their 40s is 3.57. The mean response of respondents over 50 is 3.60, as shown in [Table 6.4.3]. Statistically, age does not affect the perception of change of organizational culture towards a flexible style, according to the analysis using ANOVA.

On the other hand, the older respondents are, the more they tend to agree that the organizational culture has changed towards a flexible style, discounting the respondents in the ‘Less than 30 years’ group, as shown in [Table 6.4.3]. In addition, the older civil servants tend to have more experience in the civil service than younger civil servants because civil servants tend to work until retirement in South Korea. Therefore, civil servants over 50 consider the current organizational culture as being flexible based on comparisons with the past two or three decades, including the past military dictatorial regime. On the other hand, civil servants in their 30s are considering the current organizational culture based on the past 5 or 10 years. Therefore, it could be argued that the effect of age is inevitable in the South Korean civil service in terms of the perception of change of authoritarian organizational culture.

[Table 6.4.4] Level of education

	N	Mean	Sig.	Number	Meaning
Middle & high school	11	3.82	.221	1	Strongly disagree
Undergraduate	227	3.54		2	Disagree
Postgraduate	62	3.63		3	Neutral
Other	1	5.00		4	Agree
Total	301	3.57		5	Strongly agree

According to the analysis using ANOVA, level of education does not affect perceptions of change of the organizational culture in the civil service towards a flexible style. The mean response of respondents whose highest level of education is middle or high school is 3.83 and the mean of those whose highest level of education is undergraduate study is 3.54. The mean response of respondents whose highest level of education is postgraduate study is 3.63, as shown in the [Table 6.4.4].

Work place affects the perception of change of authoritarian organizational culture, according to the analysis using ANOVA. The mean response of respondents working in central

government is 3.67 and the mean of those working in local government I is 3.45. The mean responses of respondents working in local government II is 3.38, as shown in [Table 6.4.5]. Respondents in central government tend to agree the culture has changed towards a flexible style more than respondents in local government I, while respondents in local government I tend to agree the culture has changed more than respondents in local government II.

[Table 6.4.5] Work place

	N	Mean	Sig.	Number	Meaning
Central gov	177	3.67	.050	1	Strongly disagree
Local gov I	95	3.45		2	Disagree
Local gov II	29	3.38		3	Neutral
Total	301	3.57		4	Agree
				5	Strongly agree

The analysis suggests that changes of organizational culture are performed based on top-down styles or approaches. Interviewee A said that diverse policies have been enacted in the civil service to change the organizational culture towards a flexible style, such as holding a family day, surveys to find the worst and best superior, and multiple evaluations. In this situation, given that respondents in central government tend to agree the culture has changed towards a flexible style more than respondents in local governments, it is argued that attempts to change the organizational culture are based on a top-down style.

On the other hand, another interpretation is that the degree of centralization is becoming weak. Even though the central government has made efforts to change the organizational culture, those efforts affect local governments less.

[Table 6.4.6] Positions

	N	Mean	Sig.	Number	Meaning
Junior	248	3.55	.444	1	Strongly disagree
Middle	49	3.71		2	Disagree
Senior	4	3.50		3	Neutral
Total	301	3.57		4	Agree
				5	Strongly agree

According to the analysis using ANOVA, the position of staff and total work period do not affect the perception of change of the organizational culture towards a flexible style in the civil service, as shown in [Table 6.4.6] and [Table 6.4.7]. As for positions, the mean response of respondents in junior positions is 3.55 and the mean of those in middle positions is 3.71 in the survey. The mean response of respondents in senior positions is 3.50, as shown in [Table 6.4.6].

With respect to total work period, the mean response of respondents who have worked for less than 5 years is 3.61 and the mean of those who have worked for over 5 but less than 10 years is 3.42. The mean response of respondents who have worked for 10–15 years is 3.70 and the mean of those with between 15 and 20 years' service is 3.56. The mean response of respondents who have worked for over 20 years is 3.56, as shown in [Table 6.4.7].

[Table 6.4.7] Total work period

	N	Mean	Sig.	Number	Meaning
Less than 5 years	57	3.61	.534	1	Strongly disagree
5–10 years	50	3.42		2	Disagree
10–15 years	57	3.70		3	Neutral
15–20 years	36	3.56		4	Agree
Over 20 years	101	3.56		5	Strongly agree
Total	301	3.57			

According to the analysis using ANOVA, type of work does not affect the perception of change of the organizational culture in the civil service towards a flexible style. The mean response of respondents who undertake internal-based work (human resource management and organization management) is 3.54 and the mean of those performing regulatory-based work (land management) is 3.60. The mean response of respondents with responsibility for service provision-based work (healthcare and social welfare) is 3.61, as shown in the [Table 6.4.8].

Earlier in this chapter, it was established that type of work affects whether authoritarian organizational culture is perceived positively or negatively, according to the analysis using ANOVA and the analysis suggests that respondents who perform regulatory-based work perceive authoritarian organizational culture less negatively than those who undertake internal-based and service provision-based work.

In the process of the analysis, some issues have arisen such as whether regulatory-based work can be conducted properly without an authoritarian organizational culture, and whether an organization that performs regulatory-based work should maintain an authoritarian organizational culture or whether it blocks itself from changing to become more flexible.

[Table 6.4.8] Type of work

	N	Mean	Sig.	Number	Meaning
HRM & OM	141	3.54	.784	1	Strongly disagree
LM	75	3.60		2	Disagree
HC & SW	85	3.61		3	Neutral
Total	301	3.57		4	Agree
				5	Strongly agree

Given that respondents agree that the organizational culture has changed towards a flexible style regardless of their type of work, as shown in the [Table 6.4.8], it is argued that regulatory-based work is conducted properly even without authoritarianism. If authoritarianism is necessary for regulatory-based work, an authoritarian organizational culture needs to be maintained. However, respondents undertaking regulatory-based work (land management) said that the organizational culture has changed towards flexibility, a similar response to that from respondents who perform internal-based work (human resource management and organization management) and service provision-based work (healthcare and social welfare), as shown in [Table 6.4.8].

[Table 6.4.9] Current work period

	N	Mean	Sig.	Number	Meaning
Less than 1 year	102	3.43	.224	1	Strongly disagree
1–3 years	109	3.71		2	Disagree
3–5 years	43	3.58		3	Neutral
5–10 years	20	3.60		4	Agree
Over 10 years	27	3.56		5	Strongly agree
Total	301	3.57			

According to the analysis using ANOVA, current work period does not affect the perception of change of the organizational culture in the civil service towards a flexible style. The mean response of respondents who have worked in their current department for less than 1 year is 3.43 and the mean of those with over 1 but less than 3 years' service in their current department is 3.71. The mean response of respondents who have worked in their current department for over 3 but less than 5 years is 3.58 and the mean of those who have been in their current department for 5–10 years is 3.60. The mean response of respondents who have over 10 years' service in their current department is 3.56, as shown in the [Table 6.4.9].

6.5 Elements of change of authoritarian organizational culture

During interviews, many elements that could affect change of authoritarian organizational culture were referred to. Interviewee A explained the authoritarian case in the past and attempts to change the organizational culture from an authoritarian to a flexible style. In the past, physical and verbal violence were common between superiors and subordinates, such as throwing piles of documents. However, many systems have been introduced to improve the problems of the authoritarian organizational culture in the civil service. For instance, through the 'best and worst superior' survey, the best and worst superiors are elected and the list is released. In addition, based on the multiple evaluation system, superiors and subordinates evaluate each other. Interviewee A argued that it has contributed to a change of organizational culture towards flexibility.

In the past, extreme case, [superiors] threw books or documents, even though now it is rare. When a superior instructs a subordinate, the superior speaks to the subordinate violently ... There is the worst and best superior survey. In the survey, staff write the best and worst from the first to third ... the list is released ... There is the multiple evaluation system. In the past, a head of bureau or department evaluated [subordinates] but now subordinates evaluate superiors ... such things help the authoritarian organizational culture to change. (Interviewee A)

Interviewee M also referred to the multiple evaluation system but their views were somewhat different. Interviewee M noted that the system is not compulsory in local governments and it rarely affects promotions in local governments that do adopt the system. Those local governments tend to operate the system as a mere formality. The two different views suggest that the effect of systems and its degree can be somewhat different depending on environments or situations.

In the past, the command and discipline culture was of important value in the civil service but now it is different ... In local governments, the multiple evaluation system is carried out as a mere formality ... it is used to justify promotion or failure to be promoted. For instance, two [civil servants] compete [for promotion or one position] and everything [such as their performance or ability] is similar. However, one is rude and impolite. In this case, he/she is not promoted through the evaluation. In local governments, it is not compulsory so there are local governments that do not use it. (Interviewee M)

Interviewees B and G referred to approaches and difficulties in terms of cultural change. Generally, when the government or a head of organization is changed, a change of organizational culture tends to be attempted based on the top-down approach. The bottom-up approach is rare. Especially, when a new head of organization is nominated from the outside, attempts to change the organizational culture are frequent, with initiatives such as the best dresser award or the best department award. However, it is not simple to change an organizational culture. In addition, even though an organizational culture may change towards a flexible style, it will go back to the previous culture later without continuous effort to enact the change.

There are no bottom-up styles or approaches [for change of organizational culture] ... when the government or a head is changed, [change of organizational culture] is given attention but it is not easy ... there's a flash and then it goes back [to the past]. However, it [culture] would be changed [towards a flexible style], even though [we] do not realize or recognize [the change]. Meanwhile,

there are no big changes that we can feel. However, the attempts themselves are not meaningless ... [The new president is elected and if the president refers to necessities of change of organizational culture during their first term in office], it gathers momentum but at the end of the government, it [organizational culture] goes back to the original. (Interviewee B)

Change of organizational culture is not easy. Try when a head of organization is changed. Especially, when an outsider becomes a head, they try to change the organizational culture because of their style ... [introducing initiatives] such as the best dresser award, the best department award as a part of reform ... often when a head is changed and the government is changed. However, the bottom-up [style or approach to change of organizational culture] is not common ... [organizational culture] could become more authoritarian with change of a head but ... without sustained effort, it goes back, which is common. (Interviewee G)

Interviewee C also pointed out approaches in terms of cultural change. Given that the civil service union has attempted to change the organizational culture, it could be argued that there have been attempts at change based on the bottom-up approach. Given the responses of interviewees B, C and G, it is argued that there are attempts to change organizational culture towards flexibility based on both top-down and bottom-up approaches, although the top-down approach is more common. Aside from the approach, Interviewee C claimed that related regulations or laws, such as anti-corruption measures, affect organizational culture to change towards using less authoritarianism.

I don't think that [civil servants] individually have attempted to change organizational culture. Groups such as the anti-corruption and civil rights commission and civil service union have attempted cultural change ... I think that the Improper Solicitation and Graft Act is the most visible effect ... [the act] alerts [civil servants] to the organizational culture in the public sector. (Interviewee C)

Interviewee D said that organizational culture has changed, explaining the past and present case in terms of organizational culture. In the past, physical violence was common in the civil service such as kicking knees and throwing piles of documents, as Interviewee A recounted in the above. However, recently physical violence has become strictly prohibited. For instance, a superior struck a subordinate with their knuckles, an incident which was released online. Eventually, the superior was punished. In particular, Interviewee D suggested the election system, social change and a generation gap in terms of reasons for the cultural change. On the other hand, Interviewee D argued that attempts to change organizational culture by introducing systems are dysfunctional.

As for the election system, generally, the next election is of paramount importance to a current mayor. At election time, even small issues could significantly affect the result of an election. Therefore, a current mayor considering the next election is highly sensitive to any possible issues that may affect it. In particular, the response of a current mayor in terms of social issues that concern many people tends to reflect public opinion, which eventually leads to cultural change.

Another interpretation is that social change fundamentally results in a change of organizational culture in the civil service. With social change and development, the perceptions of people change; the perception of certain issues in the past and present are different. For instance, in the past, one Olympic gold medallist required other athletes to make sacrifices, which was not controversial. However, in the present, this sacrifice is criticized. With social change, organizational culture also naturally changes towards flexibility.

In addition, Interviewee D referred to a generation gap. There is a generation gap in the civil service and the number of young civil servants is increasing, which leads to a change of organizational culture. For instance, civil servants aged over 50 ask civil servants in their 40s to deal with certain issues. Although civil servants in their 40s do not have to deal with these issues, they do so nonetheless. However, if civil servants in their 40s ask civil servants in their 30s to deal with the same issue, the younger civil servants reject the request.

In the past, [a superior] kicked [subordinates in the shin] and threw books or documents. Such things were common ... At this time, a head of department [struck a member of] female staff. It became a very serious issue on [online] bulletin boards and [the head] was released from his position [by the mayor].

Right before an election, [the mayor was] angry. Maybe it was because of the election. [The head] might have struck staff members [from the past to the present]. His behaviour has not changed. [Now] people do not tolerate such behaviour ... People have changed. In the Olympics, for one athlete's gold medal, other athletes' sacrifices were accepted naturally, but not any more. [Social] perception has changed ... the department of organization management carries out policies such as [organizational] reform and gender equality but nothing changed ... I feel that my age [generation] is in the middle [between authoritarian and flexible generations] ... I cannot ask subordinates to do what my superiors ask me to do ... [You] need to think about change of time [generation]. The older generation was born in the early 1970s and the younger generation was born in the 1990s. (Interviewee D)

Interviewee E is in line with Interviewee D in terms of the generation gap and social change. There are differences between generations in the civil service, which results in cultural change. For instance, promotion is highly important to the older generation. However, work-life balance is more important than promotion to the younger generation, especially those born in the 1980s. In addition, socially, authoritarianism tends not to be tolerated any more, while it was accepted in the past.

Change of generation. [The young generation born in the 1980s] does not tolerate the past [inappropriate] culture and considers work-life balance [important]. [The young generation] does not care about reputation or promotion. In addition, socially [authoritarianism] is not tolerated any more. In addition, if [irrational affairs] are released on the Internet or SNS, it could cause big trouble. There are no changes [of organizational culture because of policy or systems] artificially because those with vested rights [the Establishment] do not want to change. (Interviewee E)

Interviewee E referred to the effects of the Internet and SNS in terms of cultural change. If unreasonable or unfair incidents inside the civil service are released on the Internet and SNS and some become socially serious, staff involved in the incidents could be punished.

Interviewee E also insisted that attempts to change organizational culture through policy inside an organization are less influential, as Interviewee D claimed. The Establishment in the civil service want to maintain their vested rights and could affect the policy and system for cultural change in the civil service. However, cultural change could affect their vested rights negatively. Therefore, policy or systems rarely impact change of organizational culture.

Interviewees A and C referred to the positive effects of institutional roles in changing organizational culture, but interviewees D and E suggested that institutional elements such as introducing systems or policies rarely impact change of organizational culture. Given the different responses, it is argued that from the institutional perspective, the introduction of systems for cultural change is not meaningless but it is not enough to change organizational culture.

Now there are a lot of elites in the civil service. So, there are a lot of side effects of the past style ... [subordinates] reject unreasonable instructions ... [In the past, civil servants followed] even unreasonable instructions, as long as a superior said that the instructions came [from the president or the central government]. In the past, we just followed [even unreasonable] instructions. (Interviewee F)

Interviewee F agreed that there has been cultural change towards a flexible style and suggested three elements causing this change of organizational culture: (1) increasing number of elites; (2) continuous anonymous surveys, online bulletin boards and education; and (3) democratization. First, in the past, civil servants followed even unreasonable instructions from superiors. However, the number of well-educated elites has increased in the civil service and they reject unreasonable instructions. The increase of elites leads thus to a change of organizational culture.

On the other hand, it could be argued that there were many well-educated elites even in the past, but unconditional obedience was demanded under the military regime. However, recently,

the social, institutional and political environment and its changes have led to a change of the unconditional obedience culture towards a flexible style.

Second, Interviewee F referred to the introduction of systems for cultural change. Anonymous surveys about organizational culture are carried out continually. Questions include, for instance, 'Have you ever taken unreasonable instructions? What were the details?' The internal online bulletin board also operates based on anonymity and it is monitored. 'There is the Internet monitoring [system] based on anonymity ... there is the online opinion expression system within the civil service. [In the system], if people pay attention to a certain issue [which is somewhat controversial], the issue could become [more] serious' (Interviewee F). In addition, training is conducted in terms of culture.

Last but not least, Interviewee F pointed out democratization. De-authoritarianism has been performed by the new government following the fall of the military government at the end of the 1980s, which has led to a change of organizational culture against authoritarianism in the civil service.

[The civil service was] authoritarian under the military government in the past. However, after democratization ... [and] the civilian government, de-authoritarianism has been highlighted. (Interviewee F)

Based on the responses of Interviewee F, it is argued that organizational culture has changed not by a single element but thanks to multiple elements. The social, institutional and political elements and their changes are in line with de-authoritarianism or flexibility, which has changed the organizational culture in the civil service. Meanwhile, the degree of importance of each element may be somewhat different.

It is also worthwhile reviewing the Internet and SNS in terms of technological development. Based on the responses of interviewees D, E and F, it is argued that in the past, it was rare for details of unreasonable and unfair incidents that occurred inside the civil service to be released to the outside. However, recently, the Internet and SNS have become prevalent and diverse information is shared in the online space. Therefore, the affairs of the civil service are released easily to the outside through the online channels and some have become serious social issues.

From this point of view, it could be argued that technological development changes organizational culture against authoritarianism.

Another interpretation is that technological development has in fact strengthened authoritarianism. For instance, in the past, after staff left the office, they were finished with work. However, recently, mobile devices and the Internet have become prevalent through technological development. Therefore, regardless of time and location, superiors can instruct subordinates to work. From this point of view, it could be argued that technological development has strengthened authoritarian organizational culture. Considering the two different views, the effects of technological development are somewhat controversial in terms of cultural change.

Interviewee H insisted that organizational culture has changed in the civil service, explaining cases in the past such as smoking in the office and sexual harassment within the civil service. Interviewee H argued that the process whereby (1) an accident occurs, (2) social interest is raised by the accident, and (3) social perception changes as a result means that (4) this expansion of the perception results in a less authoritarian organizational culture in the civil service. Interviewee H also referred to the influence of a leader. For instance, a new system is introduced in the civil service to make the culture more flexible. However, if a leader does not use the system, subordinates cannot use it and eventually the system becomes dysfunctional. In addition, if a leader is strongly authoritarian, the organizational culture will be authoritarian.

In the past, [civil servants] smoked inside [the office] and there was sexual harassment. For instance, [civil servants] drank [alcohol] first [at department dinners] and then went to Karaoke. Female staff felt they should go to Karaoke [in the past organizational culture] and there was sexual harassment [while dancing] ... over time problems came to the fore and public opinion became different. Therefore, there is zero tolerance of these problems in the process of audit. In other words, [following] occurrence of accidents, [there is a] change of perception, [then] expansion [of this perception, leading to a less authoritarian organizational culture] ... a head of organization influences [organizational culture]. Macro and Micro. For instance, there is the flexible work place system. If a head uses the system and applies for leave [or vacation], subordinates can [use the system and apply for leave as well] ... If a head has [a bad] temper,

subordinates are uncomfortable [because of the head's bad temper]. (Interviewee H)

Interviewee L argues that social change, anonymous surveys and the increase in the number of young and new civil servants leads to cultural change. In the past, for instance, a junior civil servant had to work overtime at night. However, if a senior civil servant asked the junior civil servant to go for a drink, the junior would have to drink with the senior. If the junior did not agree to the drink, the senior would have indicated displeasure. However, recently, such culture has ceased to exist. Society has changed and the number of new civil servants who do not tolerate authoritarianism has increased. In addition, anonymous surveys about bullying and abuse are conducted continually by the union.

In general, [organizational culture is] authoritarian but ... recently, new civil servants ... say what they want to say [to superiors]. When I started working, for instance, I had to work overtime at night but if [superiors said] 'let's drink', I had to go. If I said that I needed to work, [the superior] would frown. However, recently, no way ... The atmosphere is different, like with #MeToo ... actually, heads of department and teams do not say such things [sexual harassment] and are careful. In addition, the union conducts surveys about unreasonable or unfair behaviour ... In addition, new civil servants don't like authoritarianism. Such atmosphere is expanded and the senior is careful. It seems that there is no change of organizational culture because of change of a head or the senior. (Interviewee L)

Meanwhile, Interviewee L referred to the importance of the balance between flexibility and authoritarianism because the change towards flexibility affects organization management negatively, as reviewed above.

If authority is too low, subordinates seem to be messed up. Like in the army, if military discipline is relaxed, everything is messed up. So, it is needed to some

extent. For instance, a head of team reproves a subordinate for a mistake but the subordinate blames the head. In the past, authoritarianism was so strong that anti-authoritarianism was strong inversely but I think that it is needed at a common-sense level to some extent. (Interviewee L)

Interviewee N agreed there has been a change of organizational culture towards flexibility and argued that the multiple evaluation system, the Internet and SNS have changed organizational culture against authoritarianism. Interviewee N also referred to the stronger authoritarian tendency of diplomats compared with civil servants inside South Korea. Considering that diplomats tend to be perceived as elites and professionals in South Korea, it could be argued that professionalism and elitism strengthen authoritarianism, as reviewed earlier. On the other hand, Interviewee N pointed out the change towards flexibility and its side effects. For instance, superiors need to push ahead with work based on strong leadership but they show passive attitudes because of the cultural change too much towards flexibility.

30 years ago, [the organizational culture was] authoritarian. However, now there is the multiple evaluation system. So, superiors are aware of subordinates. In addition, in the past, [civil servants] acted high-handedly to people but if they do now, there will be big problems online and in SNS. This is a huge change ... Diplomats are more authoritarian than internal civil servants. They do not know situations and change in our country. In addition, there is a tendency to maintain traditions so they are more authoritarian. [People] may think that [they are] more liberal because they stay abroad, but no ... Superiors need to show leadership and need power but now [they] cannot. [They] worry about others [for instance, people blame or criticize the strong leadership of a head] and leadership has become weak. In the past, [the civil service was] authoritarian but efficient. However, [the civil service is now] neither authoritarian nor efficient. (Interviewee N)

Interviewee I had somewhat different views compared with all the above interviewees in terms of cultural change. The above interviewees tended to suggest that organizational culture has changed towards a flexible style. However, Interviewee I argued that there have been attempts

to change organizational culture but that the culture has not changed and social change has not affected cultural change. Meanwhile, the roles of leaders are emphasized in terms of cultural change.

It's different depending on departments and managers. I don't think that organizational culture changes because time passes. With the change of time, [organizational culture] becomes flexible but still follows a top-down style. There were attempts to change organizational culture but [they] did not work. Fundamentally, a leader themselves needs to change [to change the organizational culture] but leaders do not change. (Interviewee I)

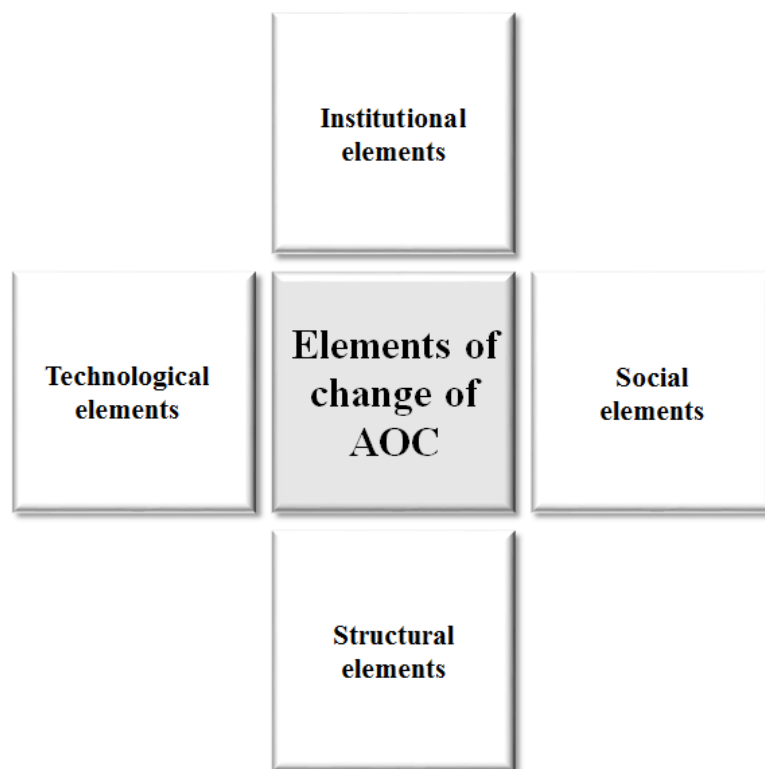
Interviewee K also claimed that there are no huge differences in terms of cultural change because civil servants themselves do not want to change the current culture. Therefore, even though there are attempts to change the organizational culture, organizational culture does not change.

A bit seems to be flexible but there are no differences in general ... Even though the top [the government] tries to change organizational culture, civil servants want to stay in the existing frame because [the civil service] does not need innovation. Sometimes, an official document is sent but it is just received and not actioned. People do not want to change. If something is changed, everyone is tired. Civil servants want to maintain current status. (Interviewee K)

Given the responses of all the above interviewees, the elements that could affect change of authoritarian organizational culture can be classified into four perspectives, as shown in [Figure 6.5.1]. From the institutional perspective, it is argued that the introduction of new policies and regulations for cultural change, such as the multiple evaluation system, survey and education, changes organizational culture against authoritarianism. Meanwhile, how they are influential and the degree of the influence of institutional elements on organizational culture could be somewhat debateable.

From the social perspective, the perception of people has changed with social change and development, which naturally leads to a cultural change within the civil service. In line with social change, the increase in the number of young civil servants having different and new perceptions and values affects cultural change in the civil service from the structural perspective.

In terms of technology, the release of details about unreasonable and unfair incidents inside the civil service to the outside was rare in the past but recently such incidents are easily released because the Internet and SNS are prevalent. Some affairs could be seriously criticized by public opinion. In this process, the organizational culture in the civil service changes towards flexibility. On the other hand, the Internet and SNS could strengthen authoritarian organizational culture, such as when work is instructed to subordinates through the Internet and SNS, regardless of time and location.



[Figure 6.5.1] Elements of change of authoritarian organizational culture

6.6 Discussion

In the survey, over 80% of the total respondents perceive authoritarian organizational culture negatively, while over 60% of the respondents said that organizational culture in the South Korean civil service has changed towards a flexible culture. Many respondents perceive authoritarianism negatively, but the degree of cultural change against authoritarianism does not reach the degree of the negative perception of authoritarian organizational culture.

The difference of around 20 percentage points could be interpreted in terms of the effects and change of authoritarian organizational culture. The difference suggests that authoritarian organizational culture is functional in certain areas. For instance, as reviewed above, when an organization is under threat or there are possibilities of threats, the organization shows collective action and cohesion within the organization is required for it to protect itself, which leads to authoritarianism. In particular, small groups tend to be more easily exposed to threats than large groups because small groups tend to be less powerful than large groups. Therefore, a small organization tends to show more authoritarian tendencies than a large-scale organization. On the other hand, although professional and elite groups tend to be small, professional and elite groups, such as doctors and diplomats, are more powerful and influential than non-professional and non-elite groups. Therefore, in professional and elite groups authoritarianism is shown to strengthen and expand their own vested rights. Therefore, it is difficult to change organizational culture completely towards flexibility in some areas.

The function of authoritarian organizational culture also explains why the organizational culture in the civil service goes back to authoritarianism, even though it had changed from authoritarianism to flexibility, as interviewees B and G insisted. An organizational culture goes back to authoritarianism because authoritarian organizational culture is functional in some areas. From the functional perspective, the positive effects of authoritarian organizational culture could be notions such as rapidity, efficiency, convenience, high morale, organization management and cohesion of professional and small groups.

In the above, it is argued that, generally, organizational culture has changed from authoritarianism to flexibility, but recently the young generation has shown authoritarian tendencies. The analysis could be explained based on the 20 percentage point difference in the responses noted above. In the past, the authoritarian organizational culture based on the military regime was strong but it has changed to a less authoritarian or flexible style in the civil service. However, recently, some young civil servants have recognized the necessity for

authoritarianism, especially in terms of organization management. It is argued that the 20 percentage point difference explains or identifies that some of the younger generation show authoritarian tendencies.

6.7 Conclusion

In this chapter, this study has analysed the effects of authoritarian organizational culture, especially focusing on two research questions: ‘What are the effects of authoritarian organizational culture in the South Korean civil service?’ and ‘Has authoritarian organizational culture changed in the South Korean civil service?’

Over 80% of the total survey respondents perceive authoritarian organizational culture negatively, while authoritarian organizational culture has both positive and negative effects according to the interviews. From the negative perspective, inefficiency, low morale, lack of creativity and communication, and risk of corruption and improper decisions were noted. From the positive perspective, rapidity, efficiency, convenience, high morale, organization management and cohesion of professional and small groups were pointed out. (In)efficiency and (high/low) morale have both positive and negative effects.

In the survey, over 80% of the total respondents perceive authoritarian organizational culture negatively, while over 60% of the respondents said that organizational culture in the South Korean civil service has changed towards a flexible culture. Generally, the organizational culture has changed to a less authoritarian style. However, the degree of perception of change of organizational culture against authoritarianism does not reach the degree of the negative perception of authoritarianism because authoritarian organizational culture is functional in certain areas, and recently some of the younger generation have shown authoritarian tendencies in the civil service. Meanwhile, institutional, social, structural and technological elements affect the process of change of organizational culture.

Chapter 7

The operation of authoritarian organizational culture

7.1 Introduction

This study has analysed the degree, effect and change of authoritarian organizational culture in the South Korean civil service. The analysis has suggested that the authoritarian organizational culture in the civil service is not as strong as civil servants think, but that authoritarianism is shown in certain serious cases.

In this chapter, how authoritarianism works in those certain serious cases is investigated, which is also in line with one of the research questions: ‘How does authoritarian organizational culture operate in the South Korean civil service?’ Elements of the operation of authoritarian organizational culture are analysed. The study then moves on to investigate the process of operation of authoritarian organizational culture. In order to answer the research question, data collected by interviews is mainly analysed.

7.2 Elements of operation of authoritarian organizational culture

Interviewees responded to diverse questions about authoritarian organizational culture. During the interviews, interviewees referred to elements of operation of authoritarian organizational culture directly or indirectly.

Interviewee B said that ‘there is a command and discipline culture’. The command and discipline culture strongly emphasizes the obedience of subordinates to commands or instructions from superiors. It could be argued that the culture is fundamentally similar to authoritarian organizational culture. Interviewee I also pointed out that ‘the difference between local government I and II is the strong command and discipline culture [in local government II]’. The command and discipline culture in local government II is stronger than the culture in local government I. Interviewee M mentioned that ‘in the past, command and discipline were

important values but now it is different'. Based on Interviewee M, it is argued that the command and discipline culture was strong in the past civil service but the culture is less strong in the current civil service. Considering the responses of interviewees B, I and M, it could be argued that a command and discipline culture has been prevalent in the civil service, while the degree of the culture has become somewhat weaker.

Interviewee A insisted that 'there is an organizational culture that perceives whistle-blowing negatively. [Civil servants say that they] cannot work with him [whistle-blower]. [It is] stressful to work with him [whistle-blower].' The negative perception of whistle-blowers is culturally prevalent within the civil service. Interviewee B also said that 'for instance, a whistle-blower is not trustworthy, [civil servants] hesitate to work with whistle-blowers, talk carefully around them, and they [whistle-blowers] are excluded from important or secret tasks'. A culture that perceives whistle-blowers negatively is not completely the same as an authoritarian organizational culture. However, it would be difficult for subordinates to reject unreasonable or unfair instructions from superiors in a culture that perceives whistle-blowers negatively. From this point of view, it is argued that a culture that perceives whistle-blowers negatively could contribute to strengthening and maintaining authoritarian organizational culture in the civil service.

Interviewee A said that 'in the past, [superiors] did it [abusing authority or issuing unreasonable instructions] but there were no problems. So [they think that] this will be fine as well.' Based on Interviewee A's response, although superiors abused their authority in the past, there were no problems and subordinates followed even unreasonable instructions from superiors. On the other hand, in the current civil service, abusing authority and giving unreasonable and unfair instructions to subordinates could cause serious trouble. However, civil servants who are used to the negative customs of the past still abuse their authority and give unreasonable instructions even in the current civil service. In other words, some inappropriate customs have not been eliminated and are still prevalent in the civil service.

Similarly, Interviewee B said 'in the past, it [abusing authority or issuing unreasonable instructions] was severe [but there were no problems], and civil servants [who have worked for a long time] have learned [that abusing authority or issuing unreasonable instructions from the past does not cause problems]' and Interviewee D claimed that 'for a long time, they [civil servants with many years of service] must have seen bad customs. They believe that they do not follow the customs any more but actually they do.' Interviewees B and D suggested that

civil servants who have worked for a long time have seen positive and negative customs, including authoritarianism, within the civil service and they have learned them naturally. In the current civil service, they have become the seniors and acknowledge that negative customs should be avoided. They try to avoid negative customs and believe that they do avoid them. However, they are still used to these negative customs from the perspective of the junior. Although the degree of the negative customs becomes weaker, customs including authoritarianism still affect the current civil service.

Interviewee M said that ‘in local government, in term of local characteristics, [people] know each other well and there is a “good thing is good” culture’. Interviewee A also referred to the concept of ‘good thing is good’. The ‘good thing is good’ culture means that a compromise is good as long as huge problems are not caused, even though everything is not perfect.

The ‘good thing is good’ culture is not completely the same as authoritarian organizational culture. However, it could be argued that the negative perception about whistle-blowers and the inappropriate customs could be maintained under the ‘good thing is good’ culture. For instance, take the case where there are serious problems within an organization, the details of which should be released publicly by the organization’s staff in order to solve them because they cannot be dealt with internally. However, if the problems were released to the outside, they would be investigated by external audit. The problems could be solved, but the staff would suffer from the investigation. In this situation, the ‘good thing is good’ culture encourages the staff not to release the problem.

Considering the responses of interviewees A, B, D, I and M, it is argued that a cultural element is of paramount importance in terms of the operation of an authoritarian organizational culture. In the civil service, there are cultures fundamentally similar to authoritarian organizational culture, such as the command and discipline culture. In addition, other cultures strengthen authoritarian organizational culture, such as the ‘good thing is good’ culture, the negative perception of whistle-blowers and the maintenance of negative customs. It is argued that all these cultures strengthen and maintain the authoritarian organizational culture in the civil service.

On the other hand, another interpretation is that the cultural element has limitations in attempts to explain fully the operation of authoritarian organizational culture in the South Korean civil service. For instance, the ‘good thing is good’ culture and the negative perception of whistle-blowing are not special characteristics that only the South Korean civil service has. The ‘good

thing is good' culture tends to be prevalent in South Korean society. This type of culture might also prevail in other countries, though the term used to describe it could be different. As for the negative perception of whistle-blowing, this perception may be shown in both the public and private sectors, and it might be stronger in the private sector.

The command and discipline culture and the maintenance of customs could be somewhat controversial. One possible interpretation is that the command and discipline culture and the maintenance of customs are not strong in the private sector because the private sector seeks profits. For profit and survival in a competitive market, new and creative ideas are important and the command and discipline culture is less appropriate. Customs are also changeable when trying to ensure more profit and survival. If past or current customs do not fit with the current market and decrease competitiveness, they would be changed in private sector.

Another interpretation is that the command and discipline culture is strong in some global companies. Recently, societies have rapidly changed with technological development and the private sector has to respond to such changes and markets quickly. In this situation, rapid and clear decisions by the head of company are crucial and the company and its staff should work swiftly based on the decision. From this point of view, it could be argued that the command and discipline culture is also important in the private sector. As for the maintenance of customs, it could be argued that a traditional company perceives customs as important. If a company has succeeded in business for a long time with certain customs, those customs would be maintained continually and changing them would be difficult.

Aside from the cultural element, interviewees E and M claimed that 'the only motivation is promotion'. Interviewee B also pointed out that '[a head of organization] has authority over human resources and evaluates performance'. Considering the responses of interviewees B, E and M, promotion is the most important element to civil servants in terms of motivation and superiors affect subordinates' promotion prospects.

Interviewees A and L also suggest how important and sensitive promotion is in the civil service. Interviewee A said that, for instance, when superiors give unreasonable instructions to subordinates, if the subordinates follow the instructions, they would be promoted. Even though problems are caused by following the unreasonable instructions, they are dealt with. On the other hand, if subordinates do not follow the instructions, the perception of them within the organization becomes negative and promotion could be delayed.

Even though the superior's instruction is against the law, follow it. Otherwise, become a whistle-blower. In the first case, it can be resolved smoothly and [you may be] promoted because 'good thing is good'. In the second case, there is an organizational culture that perceives whistle-blowing negatively. (Interviewee A)

Interviewee L insisted that it is somewhat difficult for civil servants in local government II to show personal ability because generally their roles are to provide public service or enforce the law. Therefore, it is difficult to evaluate performance based on personal capacity and promotion often depends more on an individual's personal network in local government II.

[In general] it is difficult for civil servants to show personal ability through [individual or personal] performance [in local government II] except for a few civil servants who have outstanding abilities. Therefore, in local society in the process of human resources affairs, those who are recruited later often are promoted earlier through personal connections. (Interviewee L)

There are somewhat different perspectives in terms of promotion. Interviewee F pointed out that 'subordinates intend to show excessive loyalty but recently superiors do not demand it' and Interviewee N insisted that 'competition becomes severe in a bureaucratic society and [people] do not want to fall behind ... in order not to fall behind, [subordinates] follow [superiors] well'. Interviewee B also referred to self-esteem.

Interviewees B, F and N argued that superiors do not expect subordinates to show loyalty, but that subordinates do tend to show excessive loyalty to superiors nonetheless in order to survive in the severe competition within the civil service. However, in the researcher's opinion they do not have to compete for survival because civil servants are generally not dismissed except for in extreme cases. In this respect, they work hard in order not to fall behind the competition because of their self-esteem, and excessive loyalty to superiors is shown in this process.

Self-esteem could be interpreted in terms of job prestige. As reviewed above, Cho and Lee (2001) argue that managers in the public sector are more satisfied than managers in the private sector in terms of job prestige. From this perspective, it could be argued that civil servants

believe that they belong to elite groups because they work in the public sector. Therefore, there would be an obsession with not falling behind the competition within the elite group. Eventually, this obsession leads to unconditional loyalty towards superiors. On the other hand, another interpretation is that the excessive loyalty of subordinates to their supervisor in the severe competition within the civil service is misunderstood as a case of authoritarianism.

Based on the responses of interviewees A, B, E, L and M, it could be argued that an institutional element is crucial in terms of the operation of authoritarian organizational culture. Especially, promotion is so important in the civil service and superiors are involved in the promotion of subordinates. Therefore, it could be argued that superiors use this to strengthen and maintain their authority. However, promotion also has limitations in trying to explain fully the operation of authoritarian organizational culture. Based on the responses of interviewees B, F and N, it could be argued that the severe competition within the civil service, the self-esteem of civil servants and elitism result in excessive loyalty of subordinates towards superiors, although superiors do not require the loyalty of their subordinates.

In addition, promotion is common in any organization, but not all organizations show authoritarian tendencies. From this point of view, it could be argued that the promotion system is an issue rather than promotion itself. For instance, in the process of promotion, the movement of civil servants between local governments is rare in the South Korean civil service, while it is common in the UK. Therefore, there are fewer possibilities for promotion to be used as a tool to strengthen and maintain authoritarianism in the UK compared with South Korea.

Aside from the cultural and institutional elements, the hierarchical structure and bureaucracy in the civil service are identified in terms of elements of the operation of authoritarian organizational culture. Interviewee E said that ‘because the civil service is a hierarchy, basically the authoritarian tendency is strong ... [civil servants] tend to obey [instructions] without making trouble ... bureaucrat culture [impacts authoritarian tendencies in the civil service]’. Interviewee E suggested that authoritarianism is inherent in bureaucracy and hierarchy. Interviewee G pointed out that ‘ranks are clear [within the civil service] hierarchy, [and in a] pyramid form of administrative structure [authoritarianism is] inevitable ... structurally, [the civil service] has no choice but to show authoritarianism’. Based on Interviewee G’s responses, it is argued that authoritarianism is inevitable in a hierarchical structure like the civil service. Interviewee M also mentioned that ‘someone said that the civil

service is the last to be changed because of bureaucracy ... the civil service is a pyramid and based on hierarchy’.

Along similar lines, Interviewee B insisted that ‘public sector society is closed ... [the closed structure] is significantly strong in government organizations’. It could be argued that the closed structure creates and maintains the environment for an authoritarian organizational culture, based on Interviewee B’s responses. Interviewee I also said that ‘[local government II] is more closed and stiff’, while Interviewee J claimed that ‘[changes of organizational culture in the civil service are difficult] because the civil service is isolated’. Based on the responses of interviewees B, I and J, it is argued that the closed and isolated structure of the civil service results in an authoritarian organizational culture, especially in local government II.

It is argued that a structural element is also important for the operation of authoritarian organizational culture, based on the responses of interviewees B, E, G, I, J and M. Fundamentally, hierarchical and closed structures create and maintain authoritarian environments within organizations and the civil service has this structure. Therefore, an authoritarian organizational culture is inevitably shown within the civil service.

On the other hand, another interpretation is that the hierarchical and closed structure is not a special characteristic that only the civil service has. In terms of structure, a hierarchy is quite common but not all organizations based on a hierarchical structure show authoritarian organizational culture.

In addition, interviewees argued that the civil service is based on a closed structure but it could be argued that closed structures are more common in the private sector. For instance, much information in the public sector is released to the public according to related laws, but information is rarely released in the private sector for reasons of security. However, not all enterprises show authoritarian organizational culture. Therefore, the structural approach has limitations in attempting to explain the operation of an authoritarian organizational culture in the civil service.

Aside from cultural, institutional and structural elements, political elements were identified. Interviewees E and K referred to elections in terms of the operation of authoritarian organizational culture. Interviewee E said that ‘the mayor is elected by vote and needs to show something. Hence, the amount of works increases, while [the mayor] ironically advocates decreasing working hours ... there is tacit pressure to keep working ... it is hard to refuse.’ If a current mayor is thinking about the next election, outstanding performance should be shown.

Therefore, the mayor expects his or her subordinates to give more outstanding performance, although the limited resources are insufficient. In this situation, senior civil servants also expect junior civil servants to work more, and it would be difficult for the juniors to reject the expectation and instructions from their seniors, which results in an authoritarian organizational culture in the civil service.

Interviewee K also insisted that ‘in the past, mayors [in local government II] were nominated by the government, but now they are elected ... to be promoted, you need to follow the party of the mayor. Local events, drinking parties, etc. are more important than performance.’ Since mayors in local government II are elected by vote, civil servants could be promoted or promotion could be delayed depending on the political party of the mayor. For instance, if civil servants belong to the same political party that the mayor belongs to, there are high possibilities for them to be promoted rather than those who belong to different political parties. Ironically, social democracy is achieved through the election system, but the same system leads to authoritarianism and favouritism inside the civil service.

Interviewee B referred to the nomination of politicians as senior civil servants. During an election, politicians need support and ask people to help with the election. After the election, an elected politician/mayor compensates the people who supported them during the election. For instance, an elected politician/mayor may nominate them for temporary senior positions in the civil service. They are nominated as temporary senior civil servants because of their political activities, such as supporting an elected politician/mayor during an election. Therefore, they would make some decisions politically while in the position, although not all decisions would be made politically. For instance, they need to make decisions regarding politically controversial issues as the senior civil servant in the central or local government. In such a situation, they would consider political interests and follow the opinions of the political party that the elected politician/mayor they support or they themselves belong to. If junior civil servants do not follow political instructions, they could suffer disadvantages. In this situation, the authoritarian organizational culture in the civil service becomes prevalent.

Temporary civil servants were politicians ... they need to take care of their people ... they make political decisions and consider [public] interest, political interest, and interest groups. They often give [political] instructions [to subordinates] ... temporary civil servants tend to be appointed as senior or boss

... politicians are nominated as ministers and they don't appreciate proper advice
... they transfer [subordinates] to others. (Interviewee B)

Interviewee F tends to be in line with Interviewee B in terms of nominations to senior positions, saying that 'a mayor worked in 000 ... people who worked there work here now ... well, they are more authoritarian'. Before this mayor was elected, they worked in a certain organization. Some colleagues who worked with that mayor in the organization in the past now work as temporary civil servants. Interviewee B argued that they are more authoritarian than general civil servants who are employed after passing the exam.

Interviewee I referred to differences between general and political civil servants, saying that 'we never break laws ... civil servants do not break the law because our position and retirement are guaranteed'. Positions and retirement are guaranteed to general civil servants, regardless of political elements. On the other hand, political civil servants work temporarily in senior positions without the guarantee of position and retirement. If the mayor changes, they would no longer work in that position. Therefore, political civil servants consider their next positions and political activities.

Interviewee G also discussed political influences in the civil service, saying that '[a superior instructs subordinates to do something unreasonable because] maybe someone who can influence the superior such as a superior of the superior, parliament, or interest groups instructs the superior [to do something unreasonable]'. Seemingly, superiors give unreasonable and unfair instructions to subordinates directly within the civil service, but the instructions come from beyond the civil service from entities such as politicians or certain groups that affect politics.

It is argued that the political element is highly influential in terms of the operation of authoritarian organizational culture based on the responses from interviewees B, E, G and K. The cultural, institutional and structural elements tend to be approached from the internal perspective, while the political element tends to be approached from the external perspective.

Political elements could affect the private sector but the degree would be somewhat lower than the political effects on the public sector. Therefore, it could be argued that the political element is more influential than the cultural, institutional and structural elements in explaining the operation of authoritarian organizational culture in the civil service.

Interviewees G and H referred to personal characteristics in terms of the operation of authoritarian organizational culture. Interviewee G said that 'it [change of organizational culture] often comes from his [the head of organization's] characteristics', while Interviewee H claimed that 'it seems to be different depending on the head of department'. They argued that an authoritarian organizational culture depends on the characteristics of its leader. If a leader is authoritarian, the organizational culture becomes authoritarian, while conversely if a leader is flexible, the organizational culture becomes flexible.

Meanwhile, Interviewee B had somewhat different views on personal characteristics, saying that 'it depends on people but ... for instance, a head in Organization A is gentle and another head in Organization B has strong leadership. The two of them have different styles but the staff in organizations A and B tend just to follow their head ... A head tries to listen to opinions and make staff comfortable, but when you talk to a head, the atmosphere is not comfortable.' Even though a leader may be flexible and creates comfortable environments, the atmosphere itself is not comfortable when subordinates talk to the head of an organization. From this point of view, it is argued that personal elements have limitations in fully explaining the operation of authoritarian organizational culture.

Given the responses of interviewees G and H, the personal element could be identified as one of the important elements of the operation of authoritarian organizational culture. However, it is argued that its effects are weaker than the cultural, institutional, structural and political elements in explaining the operation, based on the thoughts of Interviewee B.

Interviewees B, D and G claimed that an authoritarian organizational culture improves efficiency and rapidity in the civil service. For instance, there are issues that many stakeholders are involved in. Regardless of what decisions civil servants make, some stakeholders will raise objections to those decisions. In this situation, if a strong leader makes a decision clearly, subordinates can deal with the issue rapidly and efficiently. On the other hand, if a leader does not make a decision clearly, the process of dealing with issues would be delayed and it is difficult for subordinates to work under these conditions.

Positively, decision-making is rapid and efficiency is high. Negatively, if the decision is wrong... (Interviewee B)

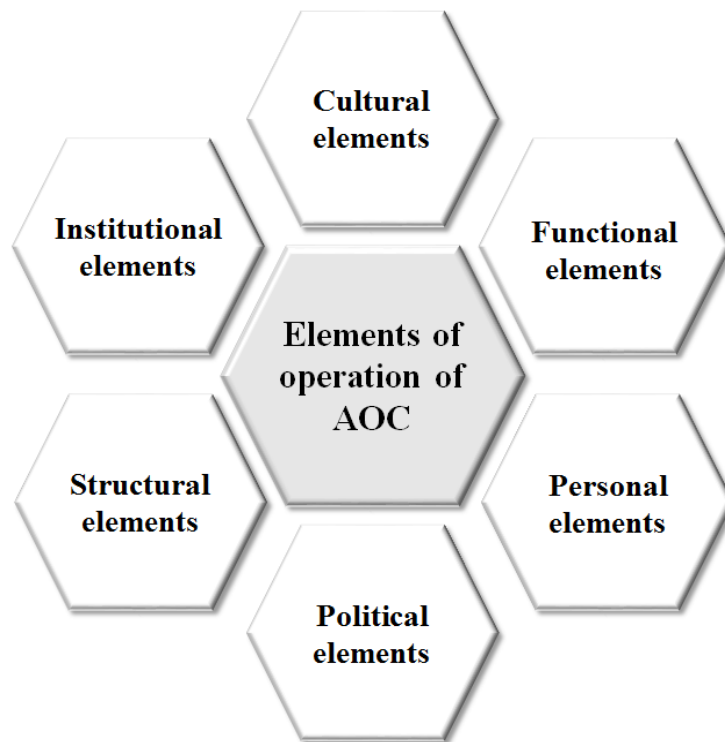
Efficient. Rapid speed in decision and implementation. In the process of policy, if there are many stakeholders, there are resistances and different opinions. If all of them are reflected, it is endless, but if a superior says that this is right, it is easy to work. (Interviewee D)

In authoritarian culture, they are not accepted a lot, ignored ... the faster [people work] the more efficient, and there are achievements to some extent. (Interviewee G)

Interviewee A is also in line with interviewees B, D and G from the functional perspective. Authoritarian organizational culture contributes to achieving required outcomes in a short time. In addition, in case of emergencies, rapid responses are required and authoritarian organizational culture is helpful in such situations. On the other hand, it could in fact be argued that authoritarian organizational culture does not improve rapid response in emergencies. For instance, when unexpected incidents occur, rapid response is required but subordinates in an authoritarian organizational culture could wait for instructions from superiors before taking action.

From a positive perspective, for performance in the short term or response in an emergency, an authoritarian culture or obedient culture is useful. (Interviewee A)

It is argued that the functional element is important for the operation of an authoritarian organizational culture, especially in terms of efficiency and rapidity, based on the thoughts of interviewees A, B, D and G. On the other hand, rapid decision-making without fully considering related issues and stakeholders could cause problems, which eventually results in inefficiency. In addition, many enterprises maintain and improve efficiency and rapidity without having an authoritarian organizational culture. Therefore, the functional factor also has limitations in fully explaining the operation of authoritarian organizational culture.



[Figure 7.2.1] Elements of operation of authoritarian organizational culture

Considering the above, there are cultural, institutional, structural, political, personal and functional elements in terms of operation of authoritarian organizational culture, as shown in [Figure 7.2.1]. It is argued that among the six elements, the political are more influential than the other factors, while personal elements are less influential than others.

In Chapter 5, three elements were pointed out in terms of why organizational culture is authoritarian: (1) professionalism; (2) small groups; and (3) movement of staff among departments. The elements could be interpreted in terms of the six elements of the operation of authoritarian organizational culture, as shown in [Figure 7.1]. Professionalism belongs to the functional elements and small groups are understood from the structural and functional perspectives. Movement of staff among departments, meanwhile, belongs to institutional elements.

7.3 Process of operation of authoritarian organizational culture

Interviewees also referred to the process of operation of authoritarian organizational culture directly or indirectly during interviews. Interviewee A explained the process from the institutional perspective, focusing on promotion. As referred to above, even obedience to unreasonable or unfair instructions is rewarded with promotion and if problems occur due to the instruction, they are solved. On the other hand, if subordinates reject such instructions, they are perceived negatively within the organization and promotion would be delayed. In this context, it could be argued that the process of the operation of authoritarian organizational culture consists of unconditional obedience and rewards for it such as promotion.

Even though the superior's instruction is against the law, follow it. Otherwise, become a whistle-blower. In the first case, it can be resolved smoothly and [you may be] promoted because 'good thing is good'. In the second case, there is an organizational culture that perceives whistle-blowing negatively. [Civil servants say that they] cannot work with him [whistle-blower]. (Interviewee A)

Interviewee F referred to personal network and promotion in local government II in terms of the process of operation of authoritarian organizational culture. Personal network affects promotion significantly in local government II. Without a personal network, promotion could be delayed.

In local governments [local government II], the human network is so important ... without the line [the network] ... [it is] difficult [to be promoted] ... there is such [a big] difference [between local government I and local government II]. Depending on lines [networks], [you] can be promoted or not ... The local government shows this characteristic [the relationship between promotion and human network] more strongly than the central government. (Interviewee F)

Considering the views of interviewees A and F, the process of the operation of authoritarian organizational culture consists of unconditional obedience and promotion, while the process consists of personal network and promotion especially in local government II.

Meanwhile, personal network could also affect promotion in central government and local government I, although its effects may be less influential than those in local government II. From this point of view, it is argued that the process of the operation of authoritarian organizational culture consists of unconditional obedience within informal hierarchical groups and the reward for such obedience is promotion.

Interviewee M also referred to how important promotions are in the civil service from the perspective of superiors. For instance, a superior recommends her or his subordinate for promotion. However, the subordinate is not promoted, but another subordinate from a different organization is. In this case, the superior perceives that he or she has lost authority because promotion is the most important element to civil servants in terms of motivation.

The only motivation is promotion in the civil service ... for instance, a superior gives high marks to a subordinate but the subordinate is not promoted. In this case, the authority of the superior falls. (Interviewee M)

It is argued that a promotion-oriented approach is the main process of the operation of authoritarian organizational culture, considering the responses of interviewees A, F and M. However, reasonable instructions by supervisors, obedience by subordinates and rewards for the obedience such as promotion are neither problematic nor authoritarian. Unreasonable instructions, absolute obedience to them and rewards arising are problematic, which is reviewed as the process of the operation of authoritarian organizational culture. The analysis suggests that the promotion-oriented approach is not a fundamental process. It is worthwhile considering the elements that cause unreasonable instructions.

In the past, mayors were nominated by the government but now they are elected ... there is a side effect. Favouritism ... For instance, to be promoted you need

to follow the party of the mayor. Local events, drinking parties, etc. are more important than performance. (Interviewee K)

Interviewee K referred not only to promotion but also political elements. The process of promotion is somewhat less transparent and political elements are involved in it. If subordinates follow the mayor's political orientation, there would be more possibility of being promoted. Considering the thoughts of interviewees A, F, K and M, it could be argued that the process of the operation of authoritarian organizational culture consists of unconditional obedience within political informal hierarchical groups and such obedience may be rewarded with promotion.

Interviewee B also pointed out political elements and human resource affairs. The president and heads in local governments, such as governors and mayors, are elected by vote. On the other hand, ministers, heads of public agency and a few senior managers are nominated by the president or heads in local governments. In the process of nomination, political elements are deeply involved. Therefore, some decision-making by ministers, heads and senior managers could be political, although not all decisions would be made politically, as noted above. In this situation, if civil servants do not obey the political decision, they will be disadvantaged in terms of human resource affairs. Based on the views of Interviewee B, it could be argued that the process of the operation of authoritarian organizational culture consists of the politicization of the civil service, disobedience and disadvantages. In the above, on the other hand, Interviewee K also identified obedience and the reward for it being promotion.

Temporary civil servants were politicians ... they need to take care of their people ... they make political decisions and consider [public] interest, political interest, and interest groups. They often give [political] instructions [to subordinates] ... temporary civil servants tend to be appointed as senior or boss ... politicians are nominated as ministers and they don't appreciate proper advice. They think that [subordinates] obstruct their work. Therefore, the subordinates are transferred [to other departments or local governments by superiors]. (Interviewee B)

Considering the views of interviewees G and D together, the process of the operation of authoritarian organizational culture is also interpreted from the political perspective. Political pressure for certain requirements is imposed on heads of organization or senior civil servants from the outside. The requirements are then imposed on civil servants at the middle and junior levels and eventually they fulfil the requirements. Civil servants at the middle and junior levels know that the requirements could be either troublesome or controversial but they feel that there is nothing they can do except meet them because they know that they have come from the top of the organization or even beyond the organization. In addition, if they reject the requirement, they would suffer disadvantages directly or indirectly because of their rejection. Based on the responses of interviewees G and D, it could be argued that the process of the operation of authoritarian organizational culture consists of political pressure regarding certain requirements, disobedience and disadvantage, which is similar the above argument supported by Interviewee B.

In general, I think that superiors are also victims of authoritarian culture ... in general, it seems that someone who can influence the superior such as a superior of the superior, parliament, or interest groups instructs the superior [to do something unreasonable]. (Interviewee G)

It [unreasonable instruction] does not come as work ... if there is a CEO, it does not come to practitioners directly... it comes from the top down, step by step ... the person [who delivers an unreasonable instruction to me] is also instructed [by his/her superior]. I know [it is unreasonable], but what I can do? [Superiors] say 'do it'. So, practitioners do not think why [superiors] have instructed something unreasonable, they think how they can do it without problems ... I feel that it is inevitable [for me or civil servants] to deal with unreasonable instructions. Maybe this is because I am one staff member inside an organization. There is nothing I can do. (Interviewee D)

It is argued that a politics-oriented approach is the key process of the operation of authoritarian organizational culture and a promotion-oriented approach supports the politics-oriented approach based on all the above interviews.

Aside from the promotion- and politics-oriented process of the operation of authoritarian organizational culture, Interviewee N offered somewhat different views on the process in terms of paternalism. In the past, even though junior civil servants made mistakes, senior civil servants protected them from outside pressure or threats. This protection led to the voluntarily unconditional obedience of the junior civil servants to the senior civil servants because the juniors could expect the seniors to protect them from the outside continually. In this situation, it would be difficult for junior civil servants to reject even unreasonable instructions from the senior civil servants. If a junior civil servant rejected any instruction from a senior, they would not be protected any more or could suffer disadvantages in terms of human resource affairs. In addition, they could be branded as traitors. Interviewee N insisted that civil servants were no longer protected from the outside in the present, but there are possibilities that protection and obedience still work.

Even though civil servants made mistakes in the past, they were protected externally to some extent. Although they were rebuked a bit internally ...
However, now individuals need to protect themselves. (Interviewee N)

7.4 Discussion

In terms of the operation of authoritarian organizational culture, the above analysis has emphasized political and institutional elements. In particular, elections have been referred to from the political perspective and promotion has been pointed out in terms of institutional elements. It is worthwhile analysing and interpreting elections and promotion more deeply in terms of the operation of authoritarian organizational culture.

It is argued that elections are a fundamental element for the operation of the authoritarian organizational culture in the South Korean civil service, and promotion systems reinforce its operation because of how elections affect people. Elections are of paramount importance to politicians, while certain interest groups could affect elections significantly. In the relationship between politicians and interest groups, politicians ask for the support of interest groups during

an election period. After the election, the group demands protection and expansion of their own interests from the (elected) politicians, and the (elected) politicians instruct civil servants to meet these demands from the groups. In the civil service, compliance with instructions from the top level is highly important because it affects not only current but also future human resource affairs directly or indirectly, such as promotion, disciplinary measures and transfers. In order to be promoted or not to suffer disadvantages, civil servants follow even political or controversial instructions, which eventually strengthens and maintains an authoritarian organizational culture in the civil service.

In particular, it could be argued that there are more possibilities for authoritarian organizational culture to work through promotion and political elements at the senior level than the junior level. There are few possibilities for politics and promotion to be used to maintain and reinforce authoritarianism at the junior level because there are many positions at junior levels and junior civil servants can be promoted without political elements. On the other hand, there are comparatively more possibilities for politics and promotion to be used to maintain and reinforce authoritarianism at the senior level. The senior has more authority and power than the junior, while senior positions are few. Therefore, political elements could be deeply involved in promotion to senior positions, although not all promotions at the senior levels are closely related with political elements. In addition, some civil servants could prepare for or consider political activities, such as running for election for a certain political party.

7.5 Conclusion

In this chapter, interviews have been analysed to answer the research question ‘How does authoritarian organizational culture operate in the South Korean civil service?’ In terms of elements of the operation of authoritarian organizational culture, six have been reviewed from the cultural, institutional, structural, political, personal and functional perspectives. It is argued that among the six types, political elements are more influential than other factors, while personal elements are less influential than other factors.

As for the process of the operation, mainly the promotion- and politics-oriented approaches have been noted and analysed. In particular, it is argued that a politics-oriented approach is the key process of the operation of authoritarian organizational culture and a promotion-oriented approach supports the politics-oriented approach. From this point of view, authoritarian organizational culture in the South Korean civil service operates by the following process: (1)

the importance of elections to politicians and the influence of interest groups in an election; (2) support of the interest group to politicians during an election; (3) demands by the interest group to the (elected) politician after an election; (4) instructions from the (elected) politician to civil servants to meet the demand; and (5) promotion following obedience or disadvantages as a result of disobedience. In particular, there are more possibilities for authoritarian organizational culture to work through promotion and political elements at the senior level than the junior level.

Chapter 8

Conclusion

In earlier work by the author, human resource management in the South Korean public sector was analysed in terms of professionalism, sustainability, transparency, motivation and support systems (Park, 2015). One finding was that when the central government establishes and introduces a new system in the public sector, even though the new system has limitations and the majority of staff know the limitations they rarely report them to their seniors or the central government for solution. The earlier study suggested that the finding may originate from an organizational culture based on military style.

Many civil servants have also pointed out the necessity of escape from an administrative culture based on authoritarianism for advanced administration, but the administrative culture has not been improved, according to surveys conducted between 2007 and 2016 (Kim, 2016). As for authoritarian organizational culture, this study also has referred to experience of military service, the past military regime, Confucianism, the East Asian model and Asian values. From this point of view, this study has reviewed authoritarian organizational culture conceptually and analysed the nature and effects of organizational culture in the South Korean civil service in terms of authoritarianism.

For this study, there are five research questions: (1) What is the nature of authoritarian organizational culture?; (2) To what extent is authoritarian organizational culture present in the South Korean civil service?; (3) What are the effects of authoritarian organizational culture in the South Korean civil service?; (4) Has authoritarian organizational culture changed in the South Korean civil service?; and (5) How does authoritarian organizational culture operate in the South Korean civil service?

8.1 What is the nature of authoritarian organizational culture?

Authoritarian organizational culture has been conceptualized in terms of collectivism, Confucianism, paternalism and bureaucracy in this study. Based on the conceptual approach,

the key element of authoritarian organizational culture is hierarchy and conformity. In particular, the top-down approach is strong, while the bottom-up approach is weak in the hierarchical structure. Aside from the two key elements, other elements are also involved in authoritarian organizational culture such as loyalty, respect, group orientation, expertise, and power and resource inequality.

Meanwhile, authoritarian organizational culture could be interpreted differently depending on perspectives. For instance, both hierarchy and conformity are emphasized in terms of authoritarian organizational culture in this study but other elements could be highlighted from the different perspectives. In addition, as referred to in the above, authoritarian organizational culture has been conceptualized in terms of collectivism, Confucianism, paternalism and bureaucracy in this study. However, if the concept of authoritarian organizational culture were to be approached based on different concepts or theories, analysis and interpretation of authoritarian organizational culture could be different.

8.2 To what extent is authoritarian organizational culture present in the South Korean civil service?

When beginning this study, finding a strong authoritarian organizational culture in the South Korean civil service was expected. According to the findings, however, the organizational culture in the South Korean civil service is not as authoritarian as civil servants think, although the civil service does have some residual authoritarian characteristics.

Around 70% of the respondents said that the South Korean civil service shows authoritarian tendencies, when asked directly. However, the response in most general scenarios showed flexible and reasonable tendencies. On the other hand, the response in more serious scenarios, such as the *audit* scenario, did show authoritarian tendencies.

The response could be interpreted based on Schein's theory. As noted in the literature review, Schein (2010) divides organizational culture into artefacts, espoused values, and basic assumptions and values. As for authoritarian organizational culture in the South Korean civil service, it could be argued that the artefacts have changed, while basic assumptions and values have not changed. In other words, the authoritarian organizational culture in the South Korean civil service has not disappeared fundamentally, but its style or type has changed.

Another interpretation is based on the coexistence of authoritarian and flexible organizational cultures. The literature review relating to flexible organizational culture suggested possibilities for this coexistence, such as authoritarian characteristics within flexible organizational cultures or flexible characteristics within authoritarian organizational cultures. From the theoretical perspective, it could be argued that the organizational culture in the South Korean civil service is interpreted as residual authoritarianism within flexibility.

Given the response, generally, the civil service shows flexible characteristics, but authoritarian characteristics are reinforced in certain more serious scenarios, for instance controversial issues which could affect the organization negatively. In the process of dealing with such affairs, authoritarian characteristics are shown in the organization.

8.3 What are the effects of authoritarian organizational culture in the South Korean civil service?

In the initial stage of this study, the effects of authoritarian organizational culture were mainly expected to be negative. Matching this expectation, over 80% of the survey respondents perceived authoritarian organizational culture negatively. Inefficiency, low morale, lack of creativity and communication, and risk of corruption and improper decision-making were referred to as negative effects.

On the other hand, positive effects were also pointed out, such as rapidity, efficiency, convenience, high morale, organization management and cohesion of professional or small groups. Efficiency and morale were referred to from both negative and positive perspectives.

Although over 80% of the respondents perceived authoritarian organizational culture negatively, authoritarian organizational culture has positive and negative effects in the South Korean civil service.

8.4 Has authoritarian organizational culture changed in the South Korean civil service?

In the literature, it is argued that change of organizational culture is inevitable, based on Cameron and Quinn (1999) and Devaraja and Venugopal (2012). In line with this argument, over 60% of the survey respondents in this study said that the organizational culture in the South Korean civil service has changed towards a flexible culture.

On the other hand, one finding suggested that recently the younger generation has shown authoritarian tendencies, while the organizational culture has changed from an authoritarian to a flexible style. In the literature on flexible organizational culture, the relationship among bureaucracy, new public management and the neo-Weberian state suggests that the public sector changed towards flexibility and then it changed from a flexible style to a less flexible style. The change based on the relationship among bureaucracy, new public management and the neo-Weberian state are somewhat in line with the findings in this study.

Given the two perspectives, it could be argued that organizational culture has changed from an authoritarian to a flexible organizational culture but the change does not mean that younger staff are less authoritarian than older staff. It might be believed that the younger generation prefers flexibility, autonomy and work–life balance. However, contrary to what might be expected, some of the younger respondents expressed a desire for more authoritarianism. Considering the above, it could be argued that the organizational culture in the South Korean civil service may not continuously change towards a flexible style.

8.5 How does authoritarian organizational culture operate in the South Korean civil service?

In the literature review on the organizational culture in the public sector, it was argued that promotion is involved in the operation of authoritarian organizational culture. Promotion plays the role of a tool to maintain and reinforce authoritarian organizational culture, although not all promotions are used for this maintenance and reinforcement.

According to this study, not only promotion but also political elements are deeply related with the operation of authoritarian organizational culture. For instance, elections are of paramount importance to politicians and certain interest groups are highly influential in elections. In the relationship between politicians and interest groups, politicians ask for the support of interest groups during an election period. After the elections, the group demands protection and expansion of their interests from the (elected) politicians, and the elected politicians, with the support of the interest group, instruct civil servants to meet these demands directly and indirectly. In the civil service, compliance with instructions from the top level is highly important because it affects not only current but also future human resource affairs directly or indirectly, such as promotion, disciplinary measures and transfer. In order to be promoted or not to suffer disadvantages, civil servants follow even political or controversial instructions,

which eventually strengthens and maintains the authoritarian organizational culture in the civil service.

In particular, there are more possibilities for authoritarian organizational culture to work through promotion and political elements at the senior level than the junior level. There are few possibilities for politics and promotion to be used to maintain and reinforce authoritarianism at the junior level because there are many positions at junior levels and junior civil servants can be promoted without political elements. On the other hand, there are comparatively more possibilities for politics and promotion to be used to maintain and reinforce authoritarianism at the senior level. The senior has more authority and power than the junior, while senior positions are few. Therefore, political elements could be deeply involved in promotion to senior positions, although not all promotions at the senior levels are closely related with political elements. In addition, some civil servants could prepare for or consider political activities, such as running for election for a certain political party.

In the literature, elements that could affect the change of organizational culture are classified into endogenous and exogenous elements. Based on the classification, it is argued that promotion is the most influential endogenous element and political elements are the most influential exogenous elements in the South Korean civil service.

8.6 Conclusion

When beginning this study, it was expected that a strong authoritarian culture would be found in the South Korean civil service. However, this was not the case, although the civil service does have some residual authoritarian characteristics. In other words, the organizational culture in the South Korean civil service is not as authoritarian as civil servants think, even though authoritarianism is shown within the organization in certain more serious scenarios. It is worthwhile studying certain more serious cases showing strong authoritarian organizational culture further.

The finding suggests that the authoritarian organizational culture in the civil service is functional or necessary in certain cases, although it tends to be perceived negatively. The suggestion could be approached based on the change of organizational culture and the perception of authoritarian organizational culture in the South Korean civil service. Over 80% of the survey respondents in this study perceived authoritarian organizational culture negatively,

while over 60% of the respondents said that the organizational culture in the South Korean civil service has changed towards a flexible culture. The difference of around 20 percentage points suggests or identifies functions and necessities of authoritarian organizational culture in certain cases.

For the future research, in terms of methodology it would be helpful to examine sufficient external views. In this study, external views have been investigated and reviewed but it seems that they were somewhat insufficient. Diverse views would contribute to deeper understanding and critical analysis. In addition, the certain case showing authoritarian organizational culture is worthy of examination. The authoritarian organizational culture is not as strong as civil servants think but authoritarian characteristics are shown in the certain case. In the case, how and why authoritarian characteristics are shown need to be analysed deeply in the future research.

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Appendix I (The degree of AOC)

[Independent-samples T-test]

Gender	Mean		Std. Deviation		T	P
	Male (n=167)	Female (n=134)	Male	Female		
Degree of AOC	3.80	3.85	.954	.710	-.566	.572
Experience of depts	Mean		Std. Deviation		T	P
	A Dep (n=55)	Other Depts (n=246)	A Dep	Other Depts		
Degree of AOC	3.69	3.85	.940	.832	-1.155	.252
Related licence	Mean		Std. Deviation		T	P
	Licence(o) (n=93)	Licence(x) (n=208)	Licence(o)	Licence(x)		
Degree of AOC	3.67	3.89	.936	.806	-1.988	.049
Related degree	Mean		Std. Deviation		T	P
	Degree (o) (n=136)	Degree (x) (n=165)	Degree (o)	Degree (x)		
Degree of AOC	3.72	3.90	.908	.798	-1.831	.068
Experience of military	Mean		Std. Deviation		T	P
	Military (o) (n=156)	Military (x) (n=145)	Military (o)	Military (x)		
Degree of AOC	3.81	3.83	.951	0.736	-.274	.784

[Age]

Descriptives

Degree of authoritarian organizational culture

	N	Mean	Std.Deviation	Std.Error	95% Confidence interval for Mean		Minimum	Maximum
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound		
Less than 30 years	14	3.71	.726	.194	3.29	4.13	2	5
30–39 years	108	4.00	.773	.074	3.85	4.15	1	5
40–49 years	116	3.78	.863	.080	3.63	3.94	2	5
Over 50 years	63	3.60	.943	.119	3.37	3.84	1	5
Total	301	3.82	.853	.049	3.72	3.92	1	5

Test of Homogeneity of Variances

Degree of authoritarian organizational culture

Levene Statistic	df1	df2	Sig.
3.914	3	297	.009

Robust Tests of Equality of Means

Degree of authoritarian organizational culture

	Statistic ^a	df1	df2	Sig.
Welch	3.096	3	58.246	.034

a. Asymptotically F distributed.

ANOVA

Degree of authoritarian organizational culture

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	6.764	3	2.255	3.165	0.025
Within Groups	211.549	297	.712		
Total	218.312	300			

Multiple Comparisons

Dependent Variable: Degree of authoritarian organizational culture
Games-Howell

(I) Age	(J) Age	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.	95% Confidence interval	
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Less than 30 years	30-39 years	-.286	.208	.531	-.88	.30
	40-49 years	-.070	.210	.987	-.66	.52
	Over 50 years	.111	.228	.961	-.52	.74
30-39 years	Less than 30 years	.286	.208	.531	-.30	.88
	40-49 years	.216	.109	.202	-.07	.50
	Over 50 years	.397*	.140	.028	.03	.76
40-49 years	Less than 30 years	.070	.210	.987	-.52	.66
	30-39 years	-.216	.109	.202	-.50	.07
	Over 50 years	.181	.143	.586	-.19	.55
Over 50 years	Less than 30 years	-.111	.228	.961	-.74	.52
	30-39 years	-.397*	.140	.028	-.76	-.03
	40-49 years	-.181	.143	.586	-.55	.19

*. The mean difference is significant at the 0.05 level.

[Education]

Descriptives

Degree of authoritarian organizational culture

	N	Mean	Std.Deviation	Std.Error	95% Confidence interval for Mean		Minimum	Maximum
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound		
Middle & high school	11	3.91	.944	.285	3.27	4.54	2	5
Undergraduate	227	3.85	.826	.055	3.75	3.96	1	5
Postgraduate	62	3.71	.912	.116	3.48	3.94	2	5
Other	1	2.00	2	2
Total	301	3.82	.853	.049	3.72	3.92	1	5

Test of Homogeneity of Variances

Degree of authoritarian organizational culture

Levene Statistic	df1	df2	Sig.
1.392 ^a	2	297	.250

a. Groups with only one case are ignored in computing the test of homogeneity of variance for perception of authoritarian organizational culture

ANOVA

Degree of authoritarian organizational culture

	Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	4.426	3	1.475	2.049	.107
Within Groups	213.886	297	.720		
Total	218.312	300			

[Work place]

Descriptives

Degree of authoritarian organizational culture

	N	Mean	Std.Deviation	Std.Error	95% Confidence interval for Mean		Minimum	Maximum
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound		
Central gov	177	3.81	.831	.062	3.68	3.93	1	5
Local gov I	95	3.84	.879	.090	3.66	4.02	2	5
Local gov II	29	3.83	.928	.172	3.47	4.18	1	5
Total	301	3.82	.853	.049	3.72	3.92	1	5

Test of Homogeneity of Variances

Degree of authoritarian organizational culture

Levene Statistic	df1	df2	Sig.
.122	2	298	.885

ANOVA

Degree of authoritarian organizational culture

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	.074	2	.037	.050	.951
Within Groups	218.238	298	.732		
Total	218.312	300			

[Position]

Descriptives

Degree of authoritarian organizational culture

	N	Mean	Std.Deviation	Std.Error	95% Confidence interval for Mean		Minimum	Maximum
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound		
Junior	248	3.87	.821	.052	3.76	3.97	1	5
Middle	49	3.57	.979	.140	3.29	3.85	1	5
Senior	4	4.00	.816	.408	2.70	5.30	3	5
Total	301	3.82	.853	.049	3.72	3.92	1	5

Test of Homogeneity of Variances

Degree of authoritarian organizational culture

Levene Statistic	df1	df2	Sig.
2.957	2	298	.054

ANOVA

Degree of authoritarian organizational culture

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	3.703	2	1.852	2.571	.078
Within Groups	214.609	298	.720		
Total	218.312	300			

[Total work period]

Descriptives

Degree of authoritarian organizational culture

	N	Mean	Std.Deviation	Std.Error	95% Confidence interval for Mean		Minimum	Maximum
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound		
Less than 5 years	57	3.91	.689	.091	3.73	4.10	2	5
5-9 years	50	4.00	.881	.125	3.75	4.25	1	5
10-14 years	57	3.96	.731	.097	3.77	4.16	2	5
15-19 years	36	3.75	.937	.156	3.43	4.07	2	5
More than 20 years	101	3.62	.926	.092	3.44	3.81	1	5
Total	301	3.82	.853	.049	3.72	3.92	1	5

Test of Homogeneity of Variances

Degree of authoritarian organizational culture

Levene Statistic	df1	df2	Sig.
4.125	4	296	.003

Robust Tests of Equality of Means

Degree of authoritarian organizational culture

	Statistic ^a	df1	df2	Sig.
Welch	2.402	4	124.944	.053

a. Asymptotically F distributed.

[Work type]

Descriptives

Degree of authoritarian organizational culture

	N	Mean	Std.Deviation	Std.Error	95% Confidence interval for Mean		Minimum	Maximum
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound		
HRM & OM	141	3.94	.843	.071	3.80	4.08	1	5
LM	75	3.68	.947	.109	3.46	3.90	1	5
HC & SW	85	3.74	.758	.082	3.58	3.90	2	5
Total	301	3.82	.853	.049	3.72	3.92	1	5

Test of Homogeneity of Variances

Degree of authoritarian organizational culture

Levene Statistic	df1	df2	Sig.
2.669	2	298	.071

ANOVA

Degree of authoritarian organizational culture

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	4.140	2	2.070	2.880	.058
Within Groups	214.172	298	.719		
Total	218.312	300			

[Current work period]

Descriptives

Degree of authoritarian organizational culture

	N	Mean	Std.Deviation	Std.Error	95% Confidence interval for Mean		Minimum	Maximum
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound		
Less than 1 year	102	3.87	.829	.082	3.71	4.04	1	5
1-2 years	109	3.87	.806	.077	3.72	4.02	1	5
3-4 years	43	3.86	.833	.127	3.60	4.12	2	5
5-9 years	20	3.85	.933	.209	3.41	4.29	2	5
Over 10 years	27	3.33	1.000	.192	2.94	3.73	2	5
Total	301	3.82	.853	.049	3.72	3.92	1	5

Test of Homogeneity of Variances

Degree of authoritarian organizational culture

Levene Statistic	df1	df2	Sig.
1.949	4	296	.102

ANOVA

Degree of authoritarian organizational culture

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	7.055	4	1.764	2.471	.045
Within Groups	211.258	296	.714		
Total	218.312	300			

Multiple Comparisons

Dependent Variable: Degree of authoritarian organizational culture
Scheffé

(I) Current work period	(J) Current work period	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.	95% Confidence interval	
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Less than 1 year	1-2 years	.001	.116	1.000	-.36	.36
	3-4 years	.012	.154	1.000	-.46	.49
	5-9 years	.023	.207	1.000	-.62	.66
	Over 10 years	.539	.183	.072	-.03	1.11
1-2 years	Less than 1 year	-.001	.116	1.000	-.36	.36
	3-4 years	.011	.152	1.000	-.46	.48
	5-9 years	.022	.206	1.000	-.62	.66
	Over 10 years	.538	.182	.069	-.02	1.10
3-4 years	Less than 1 year	-.012	.154	1.000	-.49	.46
	1-2 years	-.011	.152	1.000	-.48	.46
	5-9 years	.010	.229	1.000	-.70	.72
	Over 10 years	.527	.207	.171	-.12	1.17
5-9 years	Less than 1 year	-.023	.207	1.000	-.66	.62
	1-2 years	-.022	.206	1.000	-.66	.62
	3-4 years	-.010	.229	1.000	-.72	.70
	Over 10 years	.517	.249	.369	-.26	1.29
Over 10 years	Less than 1 year	-.539	.183	.072	-1.11	.03
	1-2 years	-.538	.182	.069	-1.10	.02
	3-4 years	-.527	.207	.171	-1.17	.12
	5-9 years	-.517	.249	.369	-1.29	.26

Appendix II (The perception of AOC)

[Independent-samples T-test]

Gender	Mean		Std. Deviation		T	P
	Male (n=167)	Female (n=134)	Male	Female		
Perception of AOC	1.84	1.74	.829	.849	1.086	.278
Experience of depts	Mean		Std. Deviation		T	P
	A Dep (n=55)	Other Depts (n=246)	A Dep	Other Depts		
Perception of AOC	1.95	1.76	.951	.809	1.453	.147
Related licence	Mean		Std. Deviation		T	P
	Licence(o) (n=93)	Licence(x) (n=208)	Licence(o)	Licence(x)		
Perception of AOC	1.91	1.75	.952	.779	1.619	.106
Related degree	Mean		Std. Deviation		T	P
	Degree (o) (n=136)	Degree (x) (n=165)	Degree (o)	Degree (x)		
Perception of AOC	1.88	1.73	.962	.717	1.423	.156
Experience of military	Mean		Std. Deviation		T	P
	Military (o) (n=156)	Military (x) (n=145)	Military (o)	Military (x)		
Perception of AOC	1.85	1.74	.844	.831	1.048	.295

[Age]

Descriptives

Perception of authoritarian organizational culture

	N	Mean	Std.Deviation	Std.Error	95% Confidence interval for Mean		Minimum	Maximum
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound		
Less than 30 years	14	2.14	.864	.231	1.64	2.64	1	4
30–39 years	108	1.67	.736	.071	1.53	1.81	1	4
40–49 years	116	1.78	.811	.075	1.64	1.93	1	5
Over 50 years	63	1.97	.999	.126	1.72	2.22	1	5
Total	301	1.80	.838	.048	1.70	1.89	1	5

Test of Homogeneity of Variances

Perception of authoritarian organizational culture

Levene Statistic	df1	df2	Sig.
.677	3	297	.566

ANOVA

Perception of authoritarian organizational culture

	Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	5.375	3	1.792	2.592	.053
Within Groups	205.263	297	.691		
Total	210.638	300			

[Education]

Descriptives

Perception of authoritarian organizational culture

	N	Mean	Std.Deviation	Std.Error	95% Confidence interval for Mean		Minimum	Maximum
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound		
Middle & high school	11	1.73	.905	.273	1.12	2.33	1	3
Undergraduate	227	1.81	.837	.056	1.71	1.92	1	5
Postgraduate	62	1.76	.843	.107	1.54	1.97	1	4
Other	1	1.00	1	1
Total	301	1.80	.838	.048	1.70	1.89	1	5

Test of Homogeneity of Variances

Perception of authoritarian organizational culture

Levene Statistic	df1	df2	Sig.
.362 ^a	2	297	.697

a. Groups with only one case are ignored in computing the test of homogeneity of variance for Feeling AC (authoritarian organizational culture)

ANOVA

Perception of authoritarian organizational culture

	Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	.856	3	.285	.404	.750
Within Groups	209.782	297	.706		
Total	210.638	300			

[Work place]

Descriptives

Perception of authoritarian organizational culture

	N	Mean	Std.Deviation	Std.Error	95% Confidence interval for Mean		Minimum	Maximum
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound		
Central gov	177	1.75	.858	.064	1.62	1.87	1	5
Local gov I	95	1.82	.799	.082	1.66	1.98	1	5
Local gov II	29	2.03	.823	.153	1.72	2.35	1	4
Total	301	1.80	.838	.048	1.70	1.89	1	5

Test of Homogeneity of Variances

Perception of authoritarian organizational culture

Levene Statistic	df1	df2	Sig.
1.286	2	298	.278

ANOVA

Perception of authoritarian organizational culture

	Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	2.155	2	1.078	1.540	.216
Within Groups	208.483	298	.700		
Total	210.638	300			

[Position]

Descriptives

Perception of authoritarian organizational culture

	N	Mean	Std.Deviation	Std.Error	95% Confidence interval for Mean		Minimum	Maximum
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound		
Junior	248	1.80	.852	.054	1.70	1.91	1	5
Middle	49	1.73	.758	.108	1.52	1.95	1	4
Senior	4	2.25	.957	.479	.73	3.77	1	3
Total	301	1.80	.838	.048	1.70	1.89	1	5

Test of Homogeneity of Variances

Perception of authoritarian organizational culture

Levene Statistic	df1	df2	Sig.
.206	2	298	.814

ANOVA

Perception of authoritarian organizational culture

	Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	1.018	2	.509	.724	.486
Within Groups	209.620	298	.703		
Total	210.638	300			

[Total work period]

Descriptives

Perception of authoritarian organizational culture

	N	Mean	Std.Deviation	Std.Error	95% Confidence interval for Mean		Minimum	Maximum
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound		
Less than 5 years	57	1.89	.880	.117	1.66	2.13	1	4
5-9 years	50	1.62	.667	.094	1.43	1.81	1	3
10-14 years	57	1.77	.756	.100	1.57	1.97	1	4
15-19 years	36	1.53	.696	.116	1.29	1.76	1	3
More than 20 years	101	1.94	.947	.094	1.75	2.13	1	5
Total	301	1.80	.838	.048	1.70	1.89	1	5

Test of Homogeneity of Variances

Perception of authoritarian organizational culture

Levene Statistic	df1	df2	Sig.
.372	4	296	.828

ANOVA

Perception of authoritarian organizational culture

	Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	6.839	4	1.710	2.483	.044
Within Groups	203.799	296	.689		
Total	210.638	300			

Multiple Comparisons

Dependent Variable: Perception of authoritarian organizational culture
Scheffee

(I) Total work period	(J) Total work period	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.	95% Confidence interval	
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Less than 5 years	5-9 years	.275	.161	.572	-.22	.77
	10-14 years	.123	.155	.960	-.36	.60
	15-19 years	.367	.177	.367	-.18	.91
	Over 20 years	-.046	.137	.998	-.47	.38
5-9 years	Less than 5 years	-.275	.161	.572	-.77	.22
	10-14 years	-.152	.161	.925	-.65	.35
	15-19 years	.092	.181	.992	-.47	.65
	Over 20 years	-.321	.143	.291	-.77	.12
10-14 years	Less than 5 years	-.123	.155	.960	-.60	.36
	5-9 years	.152	.161	.925	-.35	.65
	15-19 years	.244	.177	.752	-.30	.79
	Over 20 years	-.169	.137	.825	-.59	.26
15-19 years	Less than 5 years	-.367	.177	.367	-.91	.18
	5-9 years	-.092	.181	.992	-.65	.47
	10-14 years	-.244	.177	.752	-.79	.30
	Over 20 years	-.413	.161	.164	-.91	.09
Over 20 years	Less than 5 years	.046	.137	.998	-.38	.47
	5-9 years	.321	.143	.291	-.12	.77
	10-14 years	.169	.137	.825	-.26	.59
	15-19 years	.413	.161	.164	-.09	.91

[Work type]

Descriptives

Perception of authoritarian organizational culture

	N	Mean	Std.Deviation	Std.Error	95% Confidence interval for Mean		Minimum	Maximum
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound		
HRM & OM	141	1.71	.780	.066	1.58	1.84	1	5
LM	75	2.00	.930	.107	1.79	2.21	1	4
HC & SW	85	1.76	.826	.090	1.59	1.94	1	5
Total	301	1.80	.838	.048	1.70	1.89	1	5

Test of Homogeneity of Variances

Perception of authoritarian organizational culture

Levene Statistic	df1	df2	Sig.
.752	2	298	.472

ANOVA

Perception of authoritarian organizational culture

	Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	4.266	2	2.133	3.080	.047
Within Groups	206.372	298	.693		
Total	210.638	300			

Multiple Comparisons

Dependent Variable: Perception of authoritarian organizational culture
Scheffé

(I) Work type	(J) Work type	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.	95% Confidence interval	
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound
HRM & OM	LM & REM	-.291	.119	.052	-.58	.00
	HC & SW	-.055	.114	.889	-.34	.23
LM	HRM & OM	.291	.119	.052	.00	.58
	HC & SW	.235	.132	.205	-.09	.56
HC & SW	HRM & OM	.055	.114	.889	-.23	.34
	LM & REM	-.235	.132	.205	-.56	.09

[Current work period]

Descriptives

Perception of authoritarian organizational culture

	N	Mean	Std.Deviation	Std.Error	95% Confidence interval for Mean		Minimum	Maximum
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound		
Less than 1 year	102	1.75	.861	.085	1.59	1.92	1	5
1-2 years	109	1.83	.845	.081	1.67	2.00	1	5
3-4 years	43	1.65	.650	.099	1.45	1.85	1	3
5-9 years	20	1.70	.801	.179	1.32	2.08	1	3
Over 10 years	27	2.11	.974	.187	1.73	2.50	1	4
Total	301	1.80	.838	.048	1.70	1.89	1	5

Test of Homogeneity of Variances

Perception of authoritarian organizational culture

Levene Statistic	df1	df2	Sig.
.600	4	296	.663

ANOVA

Perception of authoritarian organizational culture

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	4.104	4	1.026	1.470	.211
Within Groups	206.534	296	.698		
Total	210.638	400			

Appendix III (The change of AOC)

[Independent-samples T-test]

Gender	Mean		Std. Deviation		T	P
	Male (n=167)	Female (n=134)	Male	Female		
Change of AOC	3.64	3.49	.838	.838	1.525	.128
Experience of depts	Mean		Std. Deviation		T	P
	A Dep (n=55)	Other Depts (n=246)	A Dep	Other Depts		
Change of AOC	3.51	3.59	.791	.851	-.641	.522
Related licence	Mean		Std. Deviation		T	P
	Licence(o) (n=93)	Licence(x) (n=208)	Licence(o)	Licence(x)		
Change of AOC	3.52	3.60	.855	.834	-.809	.419
Related degree	Mean		Std. Deviation		T	P
	Degree (o) (n=136)	Degree (x) (n=165)	Degree (o)	Degree (x)		
Change of AOC	3.56	3.59	.814	.862	-.298	.766
Experience of military	Mean		Std. Deviation		T	P
	Military (o) (n=156)	Military (x) (n=145)	Military (o)	Military (x)		
Change of AOC	3.63	3.51	.828	.851	1.284	.200

[Age]

Descriptives

Change of authoritarian organizational culture

	N	Mean	Std.Deviation	Std.Error	95% Confidence interval for Mean		Minimum	Maximum
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound		
Less than 30 years	14	3.79	.579	.155	3.45	4.12	3	5
30–39 years	108	3.54	.814	.078	3.38	3.69	1	5
40–49 years	116	3.57	.771	.072	3.43	3.71	1	5
Over 50 years	63	3.60	1.040	.131	3.34	3.87	1	5
Total	301	3.57	.840	.048	3.48	3.67	1	5

Test of Homogeneity of Variances

Change of authoritarian organizational culture

Levene Statistic	df1	df2	Sig.
3.103	3	297	.027

Robust Tests of Equality of Means

Change of authoritarian organizational culture

	Statistic ^a	df1	df2	Sig.
Welch	.692	3	60.559	.560

a. Asymptotically F distributed.

ANOVA

Change of authoritarian organizational culture

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	.831	3	.277	.391	.760
Within Groups	210.737	297	.710		
Total	211.568	300			

[Education]

Descriptives

Change of authoritarian organizational culture

	N	Mean	Std.Deviation	Std.Error	95% Confidence interval for Mean		Minimum	Maximum
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound		
Middle & high school	11	3.82	.874	.263	3.23	4.41	2	5
Undergraduate	227	3.54	.837	.056	3.43	3.65	1	5
Postgraduate	62	3.63	.834	.106	3.42	3.84	1	5
Other	1	5.00	5	5
Total	301	3.57	.840	.048	3.48	3.67	1	5

Test of Homogeneity of Variances

Change of authoritarian organizational culture

Levene Statistic	df1	df2	Sig.
.111 ^a	2	297	.895

a. Groups with only one case are ignored in computing the test of homogeneity of variance for perception of authoritarian organizational culture

ANOVA

Change of authoritarian organizational culture

	Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	3.112	3	1.037	1.478	.221
Within Groups	208.457	297	.702		
Total	211.568	300			

[Work place]

Descriptives

Change of authoritarian organizational culture

	N	Mean	Std.Deviation	Std.Error	95% Confidence interval for Mean		Minimum	Maximum
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound		
Central gov	177	3.67	.815	.061	3.55	3.79	1	5
Local gov I	95	3.45	.835	.086	3.28	3.62	1	5
Local gov II	29	3.38	.942	.175	3.02	3.74	1	5
Total	301	3.57	.840	.048	3.48	3.67	1	5

Test of Homogeneity of Variances

Change of authoritarian organizational culture

Levene Statistic	df1	df2	Sig.
.898	2	298	.408

ANOVA

Change of authoritarian organizational culture

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	4.209	2	2.105	3.025	.050
Within Groups	207.359	297	.696		
Total	211.568	300			

[Position]

Descriptives

Change of authoritarian organizational culture

	N	Mean	Std.Deviation	Std.Error	95% Confidence interval for Mean		Minimum	Maximum
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound		
Junior	248	3.55	.818	.052	3.45	3.65	1	5
Middle	49	3.71	.935	.134	3.45	3.98	1	5
Senior	4	3.50	1.000	.500	1.91	5.09	2	4
Total	301	3.57	.840	.048	3.48	3.67	1	5

Test of Homogeneity of Variances

Change of authoritarian organizational culture

Levene Statistic	df1	df2	Sig.
.125	2	298	.883

ANOVA

Change of authoritarian organizational culture

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	1.149	2	.574	.813	.444
Within Groups	210.419	298	.706		
Total	211.568	300			

[Total work period]

Descriptives

Change of authoritarian organizational culture

	N	Mean	Std.Deviation	Std.Error	95% Confidence interval for Mean		Minimum	Maximum
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound		
Less than 5 years	57	3.61	.750	.099	3.42	3.81	2	5
5-9 years	50	3.42	.906	.128	3.16	3.68	1	5
10-14 years	57	3.70	.626	.083	3.54	3.87	2	5
15-19 years	36	3.56	.806	.135	3.28	3.83	2	5
More than 20 years	101	3.56	.963	.096	3.37	3.75	1	5
Total	301	3.57	.840	.048	3.48	3.67	1	5

Test of Homogeneity of Variances

Change of authoritarian organizational culture

Levene Statistic	df1	df2	Sig.
3.268	4	296	.012

Robust Tests of Equality of Means

Change of authoritarian organizational culture

	Statistic ^a	df1	df2	Sig.
Welch	.922	4	126.522	.453

a. Asymptotically F distributed.

ANOVA

Change of authoritarian organizational culture

	Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	2.229	4	.557	.788	.534
Within Groups	209.339	296	.707		
Total	211.568	300			

[Work type]

Descriptives

Change of authoritarian organizational culture

	N	Mean	Std.Deviation	Std.Error	95% Confidence interval for Mean		Minimum	Maximum
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound		
HRM & OM	141	3.54	.833	.070	3.40	3.68	1	5
LM	75	3.60	.885	.102	3.40	3.80	1	5
HC & SW	85	3.61	.818	.089	3.44	3.79	1	5
Total	301	3.57	.840	.048	3.48	3.67	1	5

Test of Homogeneity of Variances

Change of authoritarian organizational culture

Levene Statistic	df1	df2	Sig.
.478	2	298	.621

ANOVA

Change of authoritarian organizational culture

	Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	.344	2	.172	.243	.784
Within Groups	211.224	298	.709		
Total	211.568	300			

[Current work period]

Descriptives

Change of authoritarian organizational culture

	N	Mean	Std.Deviation	Std.Error	95% Confidence interval for Mean		Minimum	Maximum
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound		
Less than 1 year	102	3.43	.970	.096	3.24	3.62	1	5
1-2 years	109	3.71	.785	.075	3.56	3.86	1	5
3-4 years	43	3.58	.731	.112	3.36	3.81	1	5
5-9 years	20	3.60	.681	.152	3.28	3.92	2	5
Over 10 years	27	3.56	.751	.145	3.26	3.85	2	5
Total	301	3.57	.840	.048	3.48	3.67	1	5

Test of Homogeneity of Variances

Change of authoritarian organizational culture

Levene Statistic	df1	df2	Sig.
2.808	4	296	.026

Robust Tests of Equality of Means

Change of authoritarian organizational culture

	Statistic ^a	df1	df2	Sig.
Welch	1.265	4	80.510	.291

a. Asymptotically F distributed.

ANOVA

Change of authoritarian organizational culture

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	4.011	4	1.003	1.430	.224
Within Groups	207.557	296	.701		
Total	211.568	300			

Appendix IV (Survey)

Section 1

Example 1) *Hypothetically, ooo is a head of department and has a meeting about work with his/her subordinates. In the meeting, ooo expresses ideas but his/her subordinates disagree with them.*

1.1.1 If you were the head of department (superior), what would you expect the subordinates to do?

- (1) You expect the subordinate to follow your idea, even though he/she has other ideas
- (2) The subordinate should express their personal opinion only if you ask for it
- (3) The subordinate expresses his/her opinion later after the meeting
- (4) The subordinate expresses his/her opinion directly/actively
- (5) Other ()

1.1.2 Why would you expect the subordinates to do this?

- (1) Because you are in charge of this department
- (2) Because a head can consider more variables than subordinates can consider
- (3) Because this is a proper communication method when subordinates have different ideas from superiors
- (4) Because it is good to share opinions
- (5) Other ()

1.1.3 If most of your colleagues were the head of department (superior), what would most of your colleagues expect the subordinates to do?

- (1) They expect the subordinate to follow their idea, even though he/she has other ideas
- (2) The subordinate should express their personal opinion only if they ask for it
- (3) The subordinate expresses his/her opinion later after the meeting
- (4) The subordinate expresses his/her opinion directly/actively
- (5) Other ()

1.1.4 Why would most of your colleagues expect the subordinates to do this?

- (1) Because they are in charge of this department
- (2) Because a head can consider more variables than subordinates can consider
- (3) Because this is a proper communication method when subordinates have different ideas from superiors
- (4) Because it is good to share opinions
- (5) Other ()

Example 3) *Hypothetically, ooo is a Head of Centre. He/she instructs the person in charge of budget to give overtime pay to staff, and collects 20,000 won from each staff member every month in terms of membership fee. The collected money is used to buy gifts or souvenirs for national holidays and they are given to staff in the centre's supervisory agency or members of the city council, which is a higher level. However, some of staff are not satisfied with this. The person in charge of budget explains this to ooo and suggests stopping it. However, even ooo encourages staff to collect money because it is for the centre.*

1.3.1 If you were the Head of Centre (superior), what would you do?

- (1) Keep instructing the person in charge of budget and staff to collect money
- (2) Persuade staff to pay money in terms of membership fee
- (3) Ask the opinion of staff and follow what the majority want
- (4) Not collect money
- (5) Other ()

1.3.2 Why would you do this?

- (1) Because you are in charge of the centre
- (2) Because it is for the centre
- (3) Because the process and method are not appropriate e.g. overtime pay, collection and execution of fee
- (4) Because some staff complain about it
- (5) Other ()

1.3.3 If most of your colleagues were the Head of Centre (superior), what would most of your colleagues do?

- (1) Keep instructing the person in charge of budget and staff to collect money
- (2) Persuade staff to pay money in terms of membership fee
- (3) Ask the opinion of staff and follow what the majority want
- (4) Not collect money
- (5) Other ()

1.3.4 Why would most of your colleagues do this?

- (1) Because they are in charge of the centre
- (2) Because it is for the centre
- (3) Because the process and method are not appropriate e.g. overtime pay, collection and execution of fee
- (4) Because some staff complain about it
- (5) Other ()

Section 2

Example 1) *Hypothetically, ooo is a member of junior staff in a department. A group meeting is organized by the head of department to discuss new department tasks on Monday at 10 a.m.*

2.1.1 If you were the junior staff member (subordinate), what would you do?

- (1) Go to the meeting room early and wait
- (2) Go to the meeting room on time
- (3) Go to the meeting room with team members
- (4) Not care about time and it depends on the situation
- (5) Other ()

2.1.2 Why would you do this?

- (1) Because you are junior staff
- (2) Because it is what other staff do
- (3) Because you need to prepare for the meeting
- (4) Because superiors indicate displeasure
- (5) Other ()

2.1.3 If most of your colleagues were the junior staff member (subordinate), what would most of your colleagues do?

- (1) Go to the meeting room early and wait
- (2) Go to the meeting room on time
- (3) Go to the meeting room with team members
- (4) Not care about time and it depends on the situation
- (5) Other ()

2.1.4 Why would most of your colleagues do this?

- (1) Because they are junior staff
- (2) Because it is what other staff do
- (3) Because they need to prepare for the meeting
- (4) Because superiors indicate displeasure
- (5) Other ()

Example 2) *Hypothetically, ooo is a head of department and has a meeting about work with his/her subordinates. In the meeting, ooo expresses ideas but his/her subordinates disagree with them.*

2.2.1 If you were the staff (subordinate), what would you do?

- (1) Even though you have personal opinions, you do not express them and follow the head's opinions
- (2) You express your opinions only if the head asks for them
- (3) You express your opinion later after the meeting
- (4) You express your opinion directly/actively
- (5) Others ()

2.2.2 Why would you do this?

- (1) Because you are one of the members in the department
- (2) Because a head can consider more variables than you can consider
- (3) Because this is the proper communication method when subordinates have different idea with superiors
- (4) Because it is good to share opinions
- (5) Others ()

2.2.3 If most of your colleagues were the staff (subordinate), what would most of your colleagues do?

- (1) Even though they have personal opinions, they do not express the opinion and follow the head's opinions
- (2) They express their opinions only if the head asks for them
- (3) They express their opinion later after the meeting
- (4) They express their opinion directly/actively
- (5) Others ()

2.2.4 Why would most of your colleagues do this?

- (1) Because they are one of the members in the department
- (2) Because a head can consider more variables than they can consider
- (3) Because this is the proper communication method when subordinates have different idea with superiors
- (4) Because it is good to share opinions
- (5) Others ()

Example 3) *Hypothetically, official leaving time is 6 p.m. in a department. ooo finishes their work on time, but their superiors are not getting off work yet.*

2.3.1 If you were the staff (subordinate), what would you do?

- (1) Wait for the supervisors to get off work and then leave too
- (2) Wait for someone else to leave work first before you do
- (3) Ask superiors whether you can get off or not and then get off
- (4) Get off work on your schedule
- (5) Other ()

2.3.2 Why would you do this?

- (1) Because superiors are still working
- (2) Because you finished your work
- (3) Because it is what other staff have done
- (4) Because superiors indicate displeasure
- (5) Others ()

2.3.3 If most of your colleagues were the staff (subordinate), what would most of your colleagues do?

- (1) Wait for the supervisors to get off work and then leave too
- (2) Wait for someone else to leave work first before they do
- (3) Ask superiors whether they can get off or not and then get off
- (4) Get off work on their schedule
- (5) Other ()

2.3.4 Why would most of your colleagues do this?

- (1) Because superiors are still working
- (2) Because they finished their work
- (3) Because it is what other staff have done
- (4) Because superiors indicate displeasure
- (5) Others ()

Section 3

Example 1) *Hypothetically, ooo works in the audit department. One day, ooo finds faults in a department in the internal audit. However, his superior and the head of the department are close, and his superior indirectly pushes ooo to pretend not to have found the fault.*

3.1.1 If you were the staff (subordinate), what would you do?

- (1) Not report the fault
- (2) Not report the fault but leave evidence of the issue for later
- (3) Report the fault
- (4) Report both the fault of the department and the superior's unreasonable instruction to a higher authority
- (5) Other ()

3.1.2 Why would you do this?

- (1) Because superiors indirectly instructed you not to report it
- (2) Because if you don't follow the instruction, you could be disadvantaged (in)directly by a superior later
- (3) Because if you follow the instruction, you could be responsible for problems arising from the non-report later
- (4) Because the superior's instruction is wrong
- (5) Others ()

3.1.3 If most of your colleagues were the staff (subordinate), what would most of your colleagues do?

- (1) Not report the fault
- (2) Not report the fault but leave evidence of the issue for later
- (3) Report the fault
- (4) Report both the fault of the department and the superior's unreasonable instruction to a higher authority
- (5) Other ()

3.1.4 Why would most of your colleagues do this?

- (1) Because superiors indirectly instructed them not to report it
- (2) Because if they don't follow the instruction, they could be disadvantaged (in)directly by a superior later
- (3) Because if they follow the instruction, they could be responsible for problems arising from the non-report later
- (4) Because the superior's instruction is wrong
- (5) Others ()

Example 2) *Hypothetically, ooo is a Head of Centre. He/she instructs the person in charge of budget to give overtime pay to staff, and collects 20,000 won from each staff member every month in terms of membership fee. The collected money is used to buy gifts or souvenirs for national holidays and they are given to staff in the centre's supervisory agency or members of the city council, which is a higher level. However, some of staff are not satisfied with this. The person in charge of budget explains this to ooo and suggests stopping it. However, even ooo encourages staff to collect money because it is for the centre.*

3.2.1 If you were the person in charge of budget (subordinate), what would you do?

- (1) Give overtime pay to staff, collect money and use the money for the centre
- (2) Give overtime pay to staff, collect money and use the money for the centre, but you report to the head that it could be troublesome later
- (3) Suggest a reasonable alternative to the head
- (4) Not give overtime pay to staff
- (5) Other ()

3.2.2 Why would you do this?

- (1) Because the head instructs you to do it
- (2) Because it is for the centre
- (3) Because the process and method are not appropriate e.g. overtime pay, collection and execution of fee
- (4) Because you could be in charge of the inappropriate process and method later
- (5) Other ()

3.2.3 If most of your colleagues were the person in charge of budget (subordinate), what would most of your colleagues do?

- (1) Give overtime pay to staff, collect money and use the money for the centre
- (2) Give overtime pay to staff, collect money and use the money for the centre, but they report to the head that it could be troublesome later
- (3) Suggest a reasonable alternative to the head
- (4) Not give overtime pay to staff
- (5) Other ()

3.2.4 Why would most of your colleagues do this?

- (1) Because the head instructs them to do it
- (2) Because it is for the centre
- (3) Because the process and method are not appropriate e.g. overtime pay, collection and execution of fee
- (4) Because they could be in charge of the inappropriate process and method later
- (5) Other ()

3.2.5 If you were one of the staff in the centre (subordinate), what would you do?

- (1) Pay 20,000 won
- (2) Ask other staff's opinions and follow them
- (3) Raise objections about the practice of collecting money from staff
- (4) Not pay 20,000 won
- (5) Other ()

3.2.6 Why would you do this?

- (1) Because the head instructs it
- (2) Because it is for the centre
- (3) Because the process and method are not appropriate e.g. overtime pay, collection and execution of fee
- (4) Because if you act differently, you could be disadvantaged (in)directly later
- (5) Other ()

3.2.7 If most of your colleagues were staff in the centre (subordinate), what would most of your colleagues do?

- (1) Pay 20,000 won
- (2) Ask other staff's opinions and follow them
- (3) Raise objections about the practice of collecting money from staff
- (4) Not pay 20,000 won
- (5) Other ()

3.2.8 Why would most of your colleagues do this?

- (1) Because the head instructs it
- (2) Because it is for the centre
- (3) Because the process and method are not appropriate e.g. overtime pay, collection and execution of fee
- (4) Because if they act differently, they could be disadvantaged (in)directly later
- (5) Other ()

Section 4

Precondition

The key elements of authoritarian organizational culture	: Hierarchy, Conformity
The key elements of flexible organizational culture	: Autonomy(discretion), Indirect control, Decentralization

4.1 How do you think about flexible organizational culture?

Strongly negative (1) (2) (3) (4) (5) *Strongly positive*

4.2 How do you think about authoritarian organizational culture?

Strongly negative (1) (2) (3) (4) (5) *Strongly positive*

4.3 I think that the authoritarian organizational culture improves effectiveness in the process of performing tasks in the South Korean public service.

Strongly disagree (1) (2) (3) (4) (5) *Strongly agree*

4.4 I think that the authoritarian organizational culture under the military regime improved to effectiveness in the process of performing tasks in the South Korean public service in the past.

Strongly disagree (1) (2) (3) (4) (5) *Strongly agree*

4.5 I think that the authoritarian organizational culture could cause abuse in the South Korean public service.

Strongly disagree (1) (2) (3) (4) (5) *Strongly agree*

4.6 I think that the flexible organizational culture contributes to effectiveness in the process of performing tasks in the South Korean public service.

Strongly disagree (1) (2) (3) (4) (5) *Strongly agree*

4.7 I think that the flexible organizational culture could cause abuse in the South Korean public service.

Strongly disagree (1) (2) (3) (4) (5) *Strongly agree*

4.8 I think that organizational culture in the South Korean public service is authoritarian.

Strongly disagree (1) (2) (3) (4) (5) *Strongly agree*

4.9 I think that organizational culture in the South Korean public service has changed more flexible and freely.

Strongly disagree (1) (2) (3) (4) (5) *Strongly agree*

Section 5

5.1 What is your gender?

- (1) Male
- (2) Female

5.2 Into which age category do you fit?

- (1) Less than 30 years
- (2) 30-40 years
- (3) 40-50 years
- (4) Over 50 years

5.3 What is the highest level of (formalized) education you have attained?

- (1) Middle & high school degree
- (2) Undergraduate
- (3) Postgraduate
- (4) ETC ()

5.4 Where do you work?

- (1) Central government
- (2) Local government I (Si · Do)
- (3) Local government II (Si · Gun · Gu)

5.5.1 Current level? (Central government)

- (1) Bellow level 5
- (2) Level 4
- (3) Over level 3

5.5.2 Current level? (Local government I)

- (1) Bellow level 6
- (2) Level 5
- (3) Over level 4

5.5.3 Current level? (Local government II)

- (1) Bellow level 7
- (2) Level 6
- (3) Over level 5

5.6 How long have you worked as a civil servant?

- (1) Less than 5 years
- (2) 5-10 years
- (3) 10-15 years
- (4) 15-20 years
- (5) Over 20 years

5.7 What is your current work?

- (1) Human Resource Management & Organizational Management
- (2) Land Management
- (3) Healthcare & Social Welfare
- (4) ETC ()

5.8 How long have you worked in the current work?

- (1) Less than 1 year
- (2) 1-2 years
- (3) 3-4 years
- (4) 5-9 years
- (5) Over 10 years

5.9 Have you worked in other departments?

(1) No

(2) Yes (E.X. audit / A department / 2years)

5.10 Is your degree related with the current work?

(1) Yes

(2) No

5.11 Do you have licences which are related with current work?

(1) Yes

(2) No

5.12 Did you serve in the military?

(1) Yes

(2) No

(3) Not Applicable

Thank You

Appendix V (Interviews)

Section 1

In the media, authoritarianism in the South Korean public sector tends to be perceived and interpreted negatively. For example, authoritarian culture should change or civil servant should be out of authoritarian culture. In addition, the majority of civil servants in the South Korean public service considers authoritarian organizational culture negative, according to the survey of this research. However, in the questionnaire, I pointed out that the key elements of authoritarian organizational culture are hierarchy and conformity. Hierarchy and conformity do not seem to be negative. In addition, Singaporean does not seem to be unsatisfied with authoritarian or top-down style at least.

1.1 How do you think about authoritarian organizational culture in the South Korean public sector?

Strongly positive (1) (2) (3) (4) (5) *Strongly negative*

1.2 If authoritarian organizational culture is positive / negative in the South Korean public sector, why do you think so?

1.3 Where and how does authoritarian organizational culture operate appropriately / inappropriately? Any experience or example?

Section 2

In the media, we often see corruption in the public sector such as corruption of employment in the public sector or illegal comments on the Internet during an election. It seems that the corruption and illegal comment cannot be performed by one civil servant. At least more than two civil servants should be involved in it, which could suggest that superiors abuse power or do not obey the rules and subordinates obey the superiors' instruction.

2.1 Why does a superior abuse power, break rules, and makes an unreasonable instruction?

2.2 Why do subordinates obey the instruction?

Section 3

Kim, Sangjo, a new head of Fair Trade Commission, highlights professionalism and flexibility of civil servants in his inaugural address.

3.1 Do you believe that more flexibility / discretion is needed in the South Korean public service?

Strongly agree (1) (2) (3) (4) (5) *Strongly disagree*

3.2 Why do you think so and how? Any experience or example?

3.3 Where and how is it needed? Any experience or example?

3.4 Expansion of flexibility / discretion might cause abuse. What do you think?

Section 4

4.1 How does authoritarian organizational culture influence effectiveness in the South Korean public service?

Strongly positive (1) (2) (3) (4) (5) *Strongly negative*

4.2 Why do you think so and how? Any experience or example?

4.3 Where and how is it positive / negative? Any experience or example?

Section 5

5.1 Have organizational culture changed to a more or less flexible culture in your organization?

5.2 If yes, did anyone actively try to change the culture?

5.2.1 If yes, what happened?

5.2.2 If no, why not?

5.3 If no, why not?

Section 6

Is there anything else to talk in terms of (authoritarian) organizational culture?