

**The University of Sheffield**

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**The Relationship between Cultural Value Orientations,  
Human Resource Management Preferences, Person-  
Organisation Fit and Job Involvement in Kenya**

**Doctor of Philosophy**

**May 2000**

**The Relationship between Cultural Value Orientations,  
Human Resource Management Preferences, Person-  
Organisation Fit and Job Involvement in Kenya**

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**A thesis submitted for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy  
Division of Human Resources Management and Organisational Behaviour  
The University of Sheffield Management School**

**May 2000**



*This work is dedicated to my parents, my wife Theresa, and children  
Beverly and Ian.*

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## DECLARATION

I hereby declare that the work referred to in this thesis is original and no portion has been submitted in support of an application for another degree or qualification of this or any other university.

The following papers have been published as results of the study:

Nyambegera, S.M., Sparrow, P., & Daniels, K. (2000). The Impact of Individual Cultural Value Orientations on Human Resources Management Preferences in Developing Countries: Lessons from Kenyan Organisations. International Journal of Human Resource Management, 11(4), 639-663.

Nyambegera, S.M., Daniels, K., & Sparrow, P. (in press). Why Fit Doesn't Always Matter: The Impact of HRM and Cultural Fit on Job Involvement of Kenyan Employees. Applied Psychology: An International Review.

Results of this research have also been presented in the following conferences:

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## SUMMARY

The main purpose of the research was to establish existing cultural value orientations and the extent of their influence on HRM preferences in the Kenyan context. The study undertook analyses of value orientations at the individual level to enable a better understanding of the role of cultural values in predicting HRM preferences. Essentially, the study determined how much variance in individual preference for HR system design can be attributed to the influence of value orientations and examined which values influence which work-related preferences in Kenya. Further, the study explored the extent to which fit between HRM preferences and actual policy practice impact levels of job involvement in a developing country context. The study also focused on the fit of individual values with organisational culture, as represented by the value orientations of others in the organisation.

A survey was administered to 500 employees in eight Kenyan organisations. The analyses are based on 274 responses. The questionnaire assessed: a) cultural values using the Cultural Perspectives Questionnaire (CPQ4) based on the conceptualisation of value orientations by Kluckhohn and Strodtbeck (1961); b) HRM policy practice preferences and organisation actual policy practice based on items proposed by Schuler and Jackson (1987); and c) job involvement based on the scale developed by Kanungo (1982).

I found evidence that on average, the sample held the following cultural value orientations: activity thinking and doing values characterising Kenyans as rational and goal oriented; relationship values emphasised both collateral and individual values and also to some extent hierarchical values. For HRM preferences Kenyans prefer high involvement/participation, high predictable rewards, performance HRM practices, and high empowerment. Three of these preferences were linked to cultural values. By identifying which HRM preferences are value-free or value-linked, researchers can gain insights into both the efficiency of a local HRM process and the transferability of the process. Ethnicity was also seen to play a role in cultural values as the sample reported significant differences between values such as subjugation and human nature good-evil.



The pervasive value-linked nature of the HRM process was also evident. This study shows one way in which employee preferences for HRM policies and practices could be predicted from cultural value orientations. Further, the study has shown that focusing on individual cultural value orientations can enable more subtle understanding of national cultural values and variance within national cultures.

There is a link between job involvement and cultural values and fit. HRM preference-policy fit in this sample has a partial impact on job involvement. Also, the interaction between individual values and the values of others in an organisation (person-culture fit) may impact levels of job involvement.

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## **CHAPTER ONE**

### **INTRODUCTION TO THE RESEARCH**

#### **1.0 INTRODUCTION**

This thesis assesses the impact of cultural value orientations on individual Human Resource Management (HRM) preferences in Kenya and the role of fit in influencing employees' job involvement. The study focuses on two forms of fit. The first form is fit between individual HRM preferences and organisational actual policy practice (Preference-Policy fit). The second form of fit is between individual cultural value orientations and those of others in the organisation (Person-Culture fit). The thesis aims to contribute understanding to comparative HRM (CHRM) in a developing African country context. This chapter provides an outline of the thesis. The chapter is organised into five parts. In part one the chapter serves as an introductory base to the research and provides the purpose and rationale of the study. Also elaborated are research issues. Part two describes the structure of the thesis. Covered in part three is the country context in which the study is carried out. Part four presents the various ethnic groups in Kenya involved in the study. Finally, part five provides company profiles in the industrialised sector that were involved in this research.

#### **PART ONE**

##### **1.1 JUSTIFICATION AND OBJECTIVES OF THE RESEARCH**

Research in the field of comparative human resource management (CHRM) has attracted a great deal of interest. However, the majority of research has concentrated on differences across countries within the European Union (EU) (see for example Brewster, 1995; Brewster & Hegewisch, 1994; Foster & Whipp, 1995; Hiltrop, 1993; Sparrow & Hiltrop, 1994) or between developed countries and newly commercialising regions such as China (see for example Easterby-Smith, Malina, & Yuan, 1995; Yeung & Wong, 1990). The circumstances confronting developing countries, especially Sub-Saharan Africa, have generally been ignored. A substantial literature has emerged asserting that

culturally, employees in developing countries hold values different from those in developed countries (e.g., Austin, 1990; Jaeger & Kanungo, 1990; Kanungo, 1990; Onyemelukwe, 1973; Saunders & Kanungo, 1995). One would expect to find less difficulty in applying theories derived in developed countries to other developed countries. However, European scholars have argued that it is necessary to modify US HRM paradigms to suit their own context (e.g., Hendry & Pettigrew, 1986; Hendry, Pettigrew, & Sparrow, 1988; Sparrow & Hiltrop, 1994). We might then find these paradigms to be less relevant to developing countries, whose context is markedly divergent from the developed world (e.g., Amante, 1993; Cichon & Gillion, 1993; Jaeger & Kanungo, 1990; Shenkar, 1985). The question of transferability of these theories or practices becomes evident.

### **1.1.0 Contextualised HRM**

Researchers and commentators have stressed the need to adjust Western management policies to the context in question, more especially HRM policies. This, they argue will lead to organisation success, in for example, developing countries (e.g., Blunt, 1991; Jaeger, 1990). Much of the literature reports on the problems apparent in managing organisations within developing economies and issues related to the inapplicability of Western management in these countries (e.g., Kiggundu, Jørgensen, & Hafsi, 1983; Jaeger, 1990). Available literature asserts that environments in developing countries are widely divergent from those in developed economies-politically, socially and economically (Austin 1990; Kanungo & Jaeger, 1990). These countries have very high levels of unemployment and a very young industrial base faced with excess cheap unskilled labour and low technological levels. The political environment is seen to be unstable with rapidly growing populations. Culturally, developing countries have been characterised as divergent and very different from developed countries (e.g., Austin, 1990; Hofstede, 1980; Onyemelukwe, 1973). However, as indicated not many studies have focused attention here in order to unearth the exact nature of these contexts and the influence that they have on behaviour and preferences. There is need for a country to country or region to region understanding of contextual elements and how they play around human behaviour and HRM preferences. Further, moderators if any, need to be examined and ways of purposively manipulating them investigated.



To develop the area of comparative HRM, it is necessary to also understand HRM in an African context. This is important theoretically, but also because multinational companies (MNCs) have not spared Sub-Saharan Africa in the search for markets and investment. Organisational phenomena are characterised by an interplay of relationships among three elements the individual, organisation and the environment. In spite of the fact that context is very important in organisational functioning, very few traditional researchers have integrated contextual elements in traditional HRM. Adler & Boyacigillar (1995) recommend that there should be a shift of emphasis from traditional HRM to a system that does not decontextualise the field. Major differentiating factors between developing and developed countries are contextual, and there is growing support for country based elements having a significant impact on international HRM (see for example, Jaeger, 1990). Management policies and practices can align a multinational company's norms, values, goals and objectives within host country dynamics. Faced with fierce competition in business in the 1980s, Porter (1985) argued that organisations could obtain competitive advantage by adopting HRM. Porter asserted that HRM could help reduce costs or increase sources of product differentiation. Many researchers have since joined to give credence to Porter's views regarding competitiveness through human resources (see for example, Pfeffer, 1994; Sparrow, Schuler, & Jackson, 1994). As early as the 1960s numerous approaches to HRM were developed that viewed labour as an asset rather than a cost; like human asset accounting (Likert, 1967); human capital theory (Schultz, 1978); and human resource indexing (e.g., Schuster, 1986). Popular studies in America carried out (see for example, Peters & Waterman, 1982; Schuster, 1986), found out that the economic success of a company was influenced by its HRM practice. Organisations, local or international, need to practice HRM policy that is in line with their contexts. This will help in devising policies and practices that can lead to several desirable outcomes such as commitment, satisfaction, job involvement and productivity. Since there is little research in developing African countries, such studies would be a distinct and significant part in the development of international and comparative HRM. Therefore, the first objective of the research is to investigate HRM from Sub-Saharan Africa's context, specifically in Kenya.



### 1.1.1 The Role of Culture

In organisational phenomena, the individual takes a central place. It has been argued that management theories are culture bound, especially those that touch on human behaviour (Adler & Mariann, 1986; Hofstede, 1980, 1991, 1993; Laurent, 1993). An individual's socialisation builds the values that he or she carries even to work organisations. This is because family conventions, religious traditions and forms of education play a major role in socialisation and every adult is a product of these features with the attendant values, imperatives and the beliefs that shape expectations. Among the major contextual elements that influence organisational phenomenon, culture has generated the most interest (Brewster & Hegewisch, 1994; Dowling & Schuler, 1990; Grønhaug & Nordhaug, 1992; Pieper, 1990; Schuler, Dowling, & de Cieri, 1993). Moreover, it is virtually impossible to conduct serious research in this area without having culture or its conceptual equivalent to hand. Researchers agree that national cultures play an important role in the face of corporate cultures as workers maintain specific ways of doing things even within the same MNC (Adler, 1983; Laurent, 1983; Schneider, 1989). However, cultural values are aggregated at a national or societal level. How do such values operate at the individual level?

One difficulty faced by researchers is the charge that most current scales of cultural values do not give a comprehensive coverage of all facets of national culture. Psychometric approaches to the measurement of cultural values have been accused of using scales that do not reveal relevant cultural value dimensions (e.g., Cray & Mallory, 1998; Smith, Dugan, & Trompenaars, 1996; Sparrow & Wu, 1998). This accusation is largely levelled because the scales tap only work contexts. The most widely used scales are those developed by Hofstede (1980). One major problem with Hofstede's approach is methodological. The use of aggregated national data can be misleading when applying societal characteristics to individual behaviour because there could be considerable variance in the degree to which individuals adhere to any set of values (Cray & Mallory, 1998). Hofstede aggregated work preferences across several psychological variables. Though widely used, the scales have been heavily criticised in terms of validity and usefulness of the four dimensions at the individual level of analysis (Dorfman & Howell, 1988; Goodstein, 1981; Hunt 1981; Robinson, 1983; Sondergaard, 1994). One element in the second objective is to examine for change and

stability in cultural values. This objective could not be achieved with the static nature apparent in most traditional scales necessitating employing cultural value items that tap a wider domain of life that might also capture the dynamic nature of values at the individual level. Maznevski and DiStefano (1994, 1995) base the value scale used on the conceptualisation of value orientations by Kluckhohn and Strodtbeck (1961), subsequently operationalised. These value orientations are used to examine underlying value orientations of a sample of Kenyan employees. The second objective then, is to examine cultural value orientations of Kenyan employees.

### 1.1.2 HRM Preferences

A third objective of this study is to examine for a link between these values and employees' preferences for particular HRM policies and practices. The existing literature under the label of 'work related preferences' has attempted to glean relevant messages for the field of international HRM from the study of national differences in the socio-cultural characteristics of individual employees (McGaughey, Iverson, & de Cieri, 1997). However, frequent use of convenience samples such as students, captive groups of managers on education courses selected by MNCs, or employees from single organisations within a country (e.g., McGaughey, 1994) raises questions over the validity of the resulting description of these work related preferences. This study is an attempt to overcome such shortcomings by taking a more representative sample of multinational companies and other firms with a wider sampling framework. In addition, studies have concentrated on the *structure* of items within global work-related preference measures across national samples (for example, Manso-Pinto, Gonzalez & Gonzalez, 1993). This has helped generate more consistent measures, but still leaves some important questions unanswered. For example, what brings about these preferences? Which among the preferences are more salient? To what extent do these preferences impact on employee attitudes and behaviour, for this study job involvement?

### 1.1.3 Work-related attitudes (Job Involvement)

This study focuses on the work-related attitude of job involvement because it has been linked to individual outcomes such as performance (e.g., Brown & Leigh, 1996), absenteeism (e.g., Blau & Boal, 1987), and turnover intention (e.g., Blau & Boal, 1989). Rabinowitz (1981) stressed the importance of the interaction or fit of a person with the work environment in predicting job involvement. However, there have been few studies that have examined fit's relationships to job involvement (e.g., Blau, 1987). Furthermore, research on both P-E fit and job involvement has been carried out in environments of developed economies, whose contexts as seen are divergent from those of developing economies. As already pointed out a number of writers and commentators have questioned the applicability of US or Western European psychological assumptions to, for example, the African context (e.g., Kanungo & Mendonca, 1994; Nsamenang & Dawes, 1998). Clearly, understanding the causes of work-related attitudes such as job involvement in developing contexts can help our understanding of fit, and help in the design of policies and practices to enhance performance and other desirable organisational outcomes in developing country organisations.

What determines job involvement has up to recently received much research attention (e.g., Thompson & Blau, 1993). The main question has been whether job involvement can be attributed to the individual, the work environment or both. Researchers have reported varying results of what causes job involvement (see for example, Mckelvey & Sekaran, 1977; Sekaran & Mowday, 1981; Gorn & Kanungo, 1980; Newton & Keenan, 1983). Rabinowitz and Hall (1977) reviewed the current psychological literature on job involvement and concluded that, among other things, job involved employees believe strongly in the protestant work ethic, have strong growth or intrinsic needs and have stimulating jobs that give them a high degree of autonomy and control. Brown (1996) conducted a meta-analysis and review of organisational research on job involvement and concurred that both personality and situational variables influence job involvement.

Since work involvement and job involvement are related, though conceptually distinct (Elloy & Terpening, 1992; Kanungo, 1979), people socialised to believe that work is important possess values predisposing them to job involvement. Personal values might



then play a role in influencing levels of job involvement. Research findings indicate that individuals in different cultures exhibit different salient needs and general attitudes towards any work role due to their socialisation and situations (e.g., Hines, 1968; Kanungo, 1990; Misra & Kalro, 1981; Rosenberg, 1957). The key question then, is are we culturally predisposed to be more or less job involved? Therefore, the fourth objective of this research is to answer this question by looking for the link between our cultural values and our job involvement.

#### **1.1.4 The Concept of fit (Congruence)**

This study's fifth objective is to investigate whether firms 'match' or 'fit' their HRM policies and practices or not to employee preferences in developing countries and to what extent this impacts on job attitudes such as job involvement. I argue that the contextual variables in developing countries are varied and complex to the extent that the idea of fitting given employee preferences with organisational policy practice might not always be practical. If this is the case, what then makes Kenya's employees involved in their jobs? The explanation might be traced to people's cultural values, which pre-dispose individuals toward job involvement. Fit is used as an independent variable to examine whether it explains job involvement.

Given this scenario it is then questionable whether theories like person-environment (P-E) fit in general occupy managers' organisation strategies in Kenyan organisations, especially with the larger population of the labour force. There are several forms of P-E fit. Some aspects of which might be universal for example, Person-Job (P-J) fit which is a well-studied type of fit (e.g., Edwards, 1991). In this type of fit, organisations try to find employees that are compatible with specific jobs. Another type of fit documented is Person-Organisation (P-O) fit with organisation culture. This is the similarity between an individual's personality and values with an organisation's cultural context (e.g., O'Reilly, Chatman & Caldwell, 1991; Kilmann, Saxton, & Serpa, 1986; Schein, 1985). These types of fit are relevant to most organisations that want to survive and gain competitive advantage, especially with 'core' human resources possessing rare skills. However, fit that is operationalised to reflect a needs-supplies perspective, whereby the organisation tends to fit individual preferences or needs and organisation systems might not predict behavioural outcomes like job involvement of employees in

developing countries, which is part of the focus of this study. This is assumed to be the case because organisations in developing countries are faced with a very complex and unstable environment. The environment has become even unstable as many organisations are faced with issues of downsizing due to liberalisation, a structural adjustment requirement imposed by international donors. Consequently, matching employee needs with organisation supplies in terms of resources (financial, psychological) and opportunities (task-related, interpersonal) in order to increase job involvement might be true in developed economies, but not so in developing countries. The research question this part of the study is trying to address is whether fit matters in developing countries or whether attitudes and not fit with the environment determine job involvement. This will lead me to find out what kind of fit matters for developing countries and whether it is the kind HR managers can do something about-for example, through matching preferences to policies, or whether it is something more fundamental about the work environment such as fit with an organisation's culture.

Several decades ago it was found out that the desire to fit with others is a powerful social pressure (Asch, 1951). Such desire may come from the need to be liked (Insko, 1985), or because people are attracted to those that are similar to themselves (Moreland, 1985). Schneider, (1987) argues that organisations acquire their 'unique' culture from the individuals who make up the organisation and only those who fit can stay. These argument is that people are the one's that make a place. Arguably, when individuals come into organisations they carry with them their cultural values meeting others with either the same or different cultural values. Some of the values might fit with those of others in the organisation while others might not. The newcomer in the process of socialisation might adjust his/her values to fit with those already existing or quit. Those who remain, their values might then, influence work behaviour and attitudes such as job involvement. This study investigates this aspect of fit by examining the fit between individual values and those of others in the organisation. This is the sixth objective of the study reflecting the second form of fit.

### **1.1.5 Demographics**

Finally, this study aims to examine for variations in the main areas covered in this study across demographic factors such as gender, age, occupation, tenure, organisational

affiliation and ethnicity. The international HRM literature indicates that, there is neglect of considerations of 'messy' social and demographic phenomena like ethnicity and gender (e.g., Russeveldt, 1994). Ethnicity in particular is seen to impact most behaviours in multi-ethnic societies (Bhopal, 1999; Blunt, 1980). However, Jesudason (1989) argues that ethnically homogenous nations are an exception, and in as many as 30% of all countries the largest ethnic group does not even constitute the majority of the population. In Kenya the largest ethnic group comprises only 21 percent of the total population. This ethnic context has been recognised to impact employment relations. For example, in Japan ethnic homogeneity is seen as a major force to their success (see for example Taplin, 1995). Blunt (1980) reported that Kenyan organisations encourage ethnic homogeneity. On the same issue Kamoche (1992) reported that due to the parthenalistic nature of the Kenyan society, those in authority are expected to provide jobs to their kith and kin ending up with organisations comprised of one or two ethnic groups. Therefore, this study examines the role of ethnicity and other demographic factors in value and preference formation.

Table 1.0. Summary of Research Objectives

Objectives
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• To investigate HRM from a developing country perspective</li> <li>• To examine cultural value orientations of Kenyan employees</li> <li>• To examine for a link between cultural value orientations and employee preferences for particular HRM policies and practices</li> <li>• To investigate whether Kenyans are culturally predisposed toward job involvement</li> <li>• To investigate whether organisations 'fit' HRM policies and practices to employee preferences in a developing country context and the extent fit or lack of fit impacts job involvement</li> <li>• To examine fit between individual values and those of others in the organisation and such fit's impact on job involvement.</li> </ul>



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## **PART TWO**

### **1.2 STRUCTURE OF THE THESIS**

Having provided the justification of the study, the structure of the thesis is now presented before proceeding to other aspects in this introductory chapter. This thesis is organised into eight chapters as follows:

This first chapter provides an outline of the thesis. It serves as an introductory base for the research by providing the purpose and the rationale. The chapter also provides the profile of firms participating and the various ethnic groups represented in the study. Subsequent chapters are organised as follows.

Chapter Two takes an analytical look at the concept of Human Resource Management (HRM). The chapter begins by examining the origins and development of Human Resource Management (HRM). Conceptual clarity of HRM as presented so far is assessed followed by a review of the literature on International or Comparative Human Resource Management (CHRM). The chapter then, contends that traditional HRM has decontextualised the subject and recommends the need for context based HRM policies and practices. This is seen as more urgent in developing countries, most especially Sub-Saharan Africa, which has not been well represented in the literature.

Chapter Three forms the theoretical framework of the study. The chapter looks analytically at the literature on culture and value orientations, HRM preferences and policy practices, job involvement and the issue of Person-Environment (P-E) fit. Culture is presented as an explanatory variable in most human behaviours, actions and attitudes. The literature on cultural value orientations and the search for value dimensions is presented concluding that almost all of them converge at Kluckhohn and Strodtbeck's (1961) variations of culture used in this study. Examination of Kluckhohn and Strodtbeck's variations of culture are presented and possible reflection in Kenyan's value orientations. Also analysed are Hofstede's (1980) value dimensions that brought a major breakthrough in international management research in the area of culture.

The chapter also takes a look at HRM preferences and the possible influence that culture has on them. The main functional areas of HRM investigated (adopted from Schuler & Jackson, 1987) for this study are analysed and the possible linkage to cultural value orientations using Kluckhohn and Strodtbeck's classification is presented.

A review of the conceptual confusion about job involvement and the proliferation in terms of theorising about the construct and the critical features of the Western explanatory models are then presented. Job involvement is investigated as one of the work attitudes that can be attributed to two forms of congruence or fit: HRM preferences and actual organisational policy practice and individual cultural values and those of others in the organisation. Again, it is argued that this particular attitude can be heavily influenced by an individual's cultural value orientation. Therefore, the anticipated reflection of Kluckhohn and Strodtbeck's value orientations on an individual's job involvement attitude is presented.

Chapter Four covers the research method, sampling and psychometric properties of key measures. The use of the Cultural Perspectives Questionnaire (CPQ4) operationalised by Maznveski and colleagues (1993, 1994, 1995) based on the conceptualisation of Kluckhohn and Strodtbeck (1961) and its usefulness over earlier measures of cultural values is examined. Also presented is the development of the HRM preference measure by the researcher based on the conceptualisation of Schuler and Jackson (1987). The approach adopted to measure organisational actual HRM policy and practice is also described. The chapter outlines the range of job involvement measures and the choice of Kanungo's, (1982) scale. Also provided are choice of sample, administration procedures and response rates. The chapter also presents the analytic strategy. The choice of different analytic techniques is justified. Limitations of the present study are also indicated.

Chapter Five reports results of culture's impact on HRM preferences. First, the chapter presents background features of the sample. This is followed by principal component analysis (PCA) with oblique rotation of the cultural and HRM preference scales in the study to ascertain the independence of the measures. The technique is also used to test for construct validity of the scales. The resulting factors from the HRM scale are interpreted and shown. Cattell's scree plot is also used in deciding the number of



factors in a measure. The decision criteria for rejected scales; alphas of cultural value orientation scale and HRM preference scale are presented. Analysis of variance (ANOVA) and *F* ratios of the values and preferences measures data across basic demographics such as gender, age, occupation, length of service, organisation, ethnic affiliation are presented. Also, the rationale for using ANOVA is explained rather than more complex multivariate techniques for analysing variance. Kenya being a multi-ethnic society as already detailed out earlier, it is thought that ethnicity plays a more complex role in values and preferences consequently, this issue is also analysed and detailed in the discussion chapter. The correlational links of value orientations to preferences, regression results and the variance suggested by individual HRM preference predicted by cultural value orientations are also shown. A brief discussion follows these results interpreting each of the values-HRM preference link and giving support from broader literature on HRM and organisational behaviour in developing and other countries.

Chapter Six comprises analysis on job involvement and its relationship to cultural values and HRM fit. The job involvement scale is unidimensional (Kanungo, 1982). Nevertheless, I analyse the scale using PCA with oblique rotation and Cattell's scree plot to check whether the scale is replicated in the Kenyan context. Variations of job involvement in the Kenyan sample are investigated across demographic variables such as gender, age, tenure, etc. The role of ethnicity in this job related attitude is also examined. Next in the chapter, I examine two forms of fit. First, fit results between individual preferences and actual organisational HRM policy practices (Preference-policy fit) drawing from the Person-Environment (P-E) fit literature. Second, fit between individual values and the values of others in the organisation (Person-Culture fit) drawing from the organisational culture literature. The results of these two types of fit's influence on job involvement are also presented. A brief discussion follows these fit results. Some key messages are discussed briefly.

Chapter Seven covers the discussion of research findings, initially outlining the discussion at the level of data and examining implications of the results for the comparative HRM literature and the role of culture as an explanatory variable. The argument is that different countries present different contexts, more so, in developing countries hence, universal HRM prescriptions might not necessarily work-especially at

the behavioural level. The notion that 'fit' always matters is questioned, especially in determining levels of job involvement in developing countries. Some key messages in terms of method in international HRM in measuring culture at the societal and individual level and analysing fit using simple difference scores are indicated.

Chapter Eight draws conclusions accordingly against the research assumptions and objectives. In addition, the chapter provides a summary of main findings and its implications for theory and practice. A quick summary and directions for future research are also offered.

## **PART THREE**

### **1.3 THE CONTEXT OF KENYA**

Concepts such as value orientations, HRM preferences and job involvement will be developed more fully later in the thesis. However, Kenya, like many other developing countries widely differs from developed countries. Kanungo and Jaeger (1990) noted that the main dimensions of difference are related to the external and internal environments. I now briefly present some elements that touch on the Kenyan context outlining important aspects of geography, government, economy and ethnicity. This context is relevant to cultural value orientations and HRM policies and practices, preferences, and job involvement.

#### **1.3.1 Geography**

Kenya is a developing country situated in the eastern region of Africa. Kenya rises from a low coastal plain on the Indian Ocean in a series of mountain ridges and plateau's which stand above 3,000 meters (9,000 ft.) in the centre of the country. The Rift Valley bisects the country above Nairobi opening up to a broad arid plain in the north. Mountain plains cover the south before descending to the shores of Lake Victoria in the west. The climate varies from tropical South, West, and Central regions to arid and semi-arid in the North and the Northeast. It has a land area of 582,646 square miles and the Equator cuts across the country. Almost two thirds of it is arid, or semi-arid

resulting in a limited area of arable land (5%) concentrated in the coastal region and the highlands in the south-western quarter of Kenya.

### **1.3.2 Government**

Kenya is a Republic. The country gained independence from Britain on 12 December 1963. It is said to be a 'democracy' because it holds elections every five years, and several political parties have been represented in parliament as from 1992. In total there are 26 registered political parties (March 1998). The unicameral assembly consists of 210 members elected to a term of up to five years, plus 12 members appointed by the president. The president appoints the vice president and cabinet ministers from among those elected to the assembly. The attorney general and the speaker are ex-officio members of the National Assembly. The judiciary is headed by a High Court, consisting of a chief justice and at least 30 High Court judges of Kenya's Court of Appeal, all appointed by the president. Local administration is divided among 63 rural districts, each headed by a presidential appointed commissioner. The districts are joined to form seven rural provinces. The Nairobi area has a special status and is not included in any district or province. The government supervises administration of the districts and provinces.

### **1.3.3 Economy**

The economy is mainly dependent on tourism and agriculture. However, only 5% of the land are arable. According to the 1994 welfare monitoring survey, it was established that about 47% of the rural and 29% of the urban households live in absolute poverty. Further, the analysis revealed that 67.6% of the rural population was poor compared to 8.7% in urban areas. The Kenyan Economy performed poorly for five years in a row since 1993, when it recorded a real GDP growth of 0.2%. GDP per capita has decreased to less than \$330 per annum in 1997 (Economic Survey, 1998). The domestic debt stood at Kshs. 143 billion or 24% of GDP in 1998. The year 1998 was characterised by a further slowdown in economic activities and stagnation in investment. Real economic growth in agriculture rose marginally by 0.5% between 1997 and 1998, while manufacturing declined by 0.5% from 1.9 to 1.4 percent during the same period. Per capita incomes dropped by 1.6 percentage points. The same reasons of budgetary cuts,



poor infrastructure, high interest rates, reduced donor funding and excess capacity are cited as causes of this state of affairs (Economic survey, 1999). For example, poor performance of the economy has been blamed on donor communities linking aid to major economic reforms from the beginning of the 1990s (Republic of Kenya, Ministry of Finance, 1992). However, the international community is not to blame as the Kenyan Government was/is too slow in implementing required structural adjustment conditions, which frustrated donors leading to the suspension of support in November 1991, pending substantial progress (Holmquist & Ford, 1992). The underlying objective of structural adjustment is to put in place conditions for growth and improve the basis for long term social and economic development and to allocate resources efficiently. It is perceived, that the attainment of this objective involves reshaping macroeconomic imbalances and microeconomic distortions that pervade the economy largely due to government intervention (World Development Report, 1991). Overall, the industrialised sector (manufacturing) that is the focus of the study presented the following picture as reported by the Kenya's Central Bureau of Statistics (1999) for the year ending December 1998.

The performance of the manufacturing sector remained subdued in 1998 as a result of the sector's inability to compete with low priced and subsidised imports into the local market, depressed local market demand as a result of sluggish aggregate demand and a combination of infrastructural constraints including the reasons given earlier. Consequently, the overall manufacturing real output growth slowed further to 1.4 percent in 1998 from 1.9 percent and 3.9 percent in 1996 and 1997 respectively. As a result total wage employment expanded more slowly in 1998 than in 1997. Total wage employment was 216,887 persons, that is 1.1 percent up from 214,491 persons in 1997. The profile of the companies in this sector participating in this study is provided in part five of this chapter.

#### **1.3.4 People**

Kenya has a very diverse population that includes most major languages of Africa. Kenya's population is among the fastest growing in the world standing at 29 million (provisional) in 1997 (Economic Survey, 1998). Cushitic-speaking people from northern Africa moved into the area around what is now Kenya, beginning around 2000

BC. The country has a total of 43 ethnic groups commonly known as ethnic groups. Originally Kenya's African people came from the Aboriginal, Hamitic, Negroid and Nilotic races (Grundy, 1968). Consequently, one finds similarities amongst ethnic groups in different regions in terms of language and culture. The major ethnic groups (Government of Kenya 1994-1996 Seventh National Development Plan) are as follows: Kikuyu 21%, Luhya 14%, Luo 13%, Kalenjin 11%, Akamba 11%, Kisii 6%, Meru 5%, Other 19%. Alongside African Kenyans, are Arabs, Indians and Europeans. English is the official language and Swahili the national language, with more than 40 local ethnic languages. The religious composition is as follows: Indigenous beliefs 10%; Protestant 40%; Roman Catholic 30%, Muslim 20%. With the many ethnic groups and cultures we can conclude that the Kenyan culture is not homogeneous, although an overall national pattern may be discernible.

## **PART FOUR**

### **1.4 PROFILE OF THE ETHNIC GROUPS IN THE RESEARCH**

People dress differently eats different foods and celebrates different holidays around the world. As pointed out earlier, Jesudson (1989) argues that ethnically homogenous states are the exception, because 30% of all countries the largest ethnic group constitutes the minority in the total population. There is every possibility that these ethnic groups have different practices that inculcate in people values that guide them later in life and it would be erroneous to assume that ethnic groups have similar practices otherwise there is no point seeing them as different. Culture does not necessarily mean national culture or country. It is among other things a set of likely reactions of citizens with a common mental programming (Hofstede, 1980). It is possible that in Kenya people practice different albeit similar cultural practices that programme them to exhibit similar cultural values due to their origins, but people might have been exposed to different circumstances that might have brought change to their values. Globalisation and urbanisation are some of the factors that might be responsible for the dynamism that impinges on people's cultural values. Therefore, since this study is concerned with cultural values it is important to go into some detail about ethnic practices that may point to similarities and differences in the apparent diversity in Kenya' ethnic composition.



Kenya is interesting from a racial point of view. Within its borders live four distinct groups of people: Africans, Arabs, Indians and Europeans. Traditional pastoralists, rural farmers, Muslims, and urban residents of Nairobi and other cities contribute to the cosmopolitan culture. Most city workers retain links with their rural, extended families and leave the city periodically to visit or help work on the family farm. About 75% of the work force are engaged in agriculture, mainly as subsistence farmers. The urban sector employs 0.9 million people. Africans differ in physical characteristics, language and customs. They come from four main stocks: Aboriginal, Hamitic, Negroid and Nilotic. There has been substantial intermarriage between the Hamitic and the Negroid peoples whose descendants are the Bantu that now forms more than three-quarters of Kenya's population. The most important ethnic groups of this group are the Kikuyu, Akamba, Luhya, Kisii, and Meru. They occupy most of the arable land in Kenya and are in all sectors of the Kenyan economy. The Nilotes who speak Nilotic languages are darker and taller than the Bantu is. The most important ethnic groups of this group are the Kalenjins and the Luo. Those that make up my sample are briefly described in the next section. In doing so, it is important to signal the subtle interplay between ethnicity and the more empirical aspects of my study such as value orientations. People's behaviours in organisations vary across cultures meaning they may even differ among ethnic groups. Management researchers have found differences in people's values. Their beliefs and values too affect managers. For example, theorists like McGregor (1960) indicated that managerial styles differ in the way managers perceive their employees resulting to two types of management styles 'Theory X and Theory Y'. Laurent (1983) reported distinct patterns of managers in nine countries from Western Europe, United States, and Asia. When managers from different parts of the world work in other countries such different beliefs explain some potential problems.

#### **1.4.1 The Kikuyu**

This is the largest ethnic group in Kenya making 21% of the total population. The Kikuyu is one of the Bantu-speaking peoples. They traditionally trace their origin to a woman Muumbi and Gikuyu. The offspring of Muumbi and Gikuyu are regarded as the founders of the ten Kikuyu clans. The Kikuyu live in three districts: Muranga, Nyeri and Kiambu to the south of Chania River towards Ngong Hills and the present site of Nairobi city. They occupy Central Province and can be found all over the country doing

business or settled to farm through buying land. After independence most of the land formerly occupied by European settlers was either dished out to Kikuyus or bought by them cheaply. Most Kikuyus now control a very sizeable part of the Kenyan economy because they were privileged institutionally in receiving loans and other benefits as the first Kenyan President was Kikuyu (Marris & Somerset, 1971).

A look into some of the earlier traditional aspects of the Kikuyu will be in order. According to Muriuki (1978) a huge forest originally covered much of the land now inhabited by the Kikuyu. Hunting and gathering peoples known as Gumba of Aborigine origin and the Athi initially inhabited it. The Gumba lived in caves or tunnels. The Athi were also hunters and gatherers who neither cultivated crops nor possessed livestock. The Athi traded with the Kikuyu, selling ivory, hides and skins in exchange for meat and livestock. Many Kikuyu *mbari* (sub-clans) are descendants of the Athi, while others have intermarried with them.

The Kikuyu family consists of a man, his wife or wives, and their children. When the children grew up, they married. Traditionally, the men remained on their fathers' land, and the women moved to join their husbands. They had children of their own, and as time passed there was formed an extended family group, all of whose members could trace their origin back to a common male ancestor. These groups become a *mbari* (sub-clan), and it may have numbered to several thousands. All the *mbari* traced their ancestry to the original ten clans, *Mihiga*, which are named after the legendary ten daughters of Gikuyu and Mumbi, the ancestors of the Kikuyu people. In the family group, the father was the most important person, and his position in the community depended on the way in which he was able to organise his family group. So it was very important that when a man married, he should have male children to carry on the line, and to increase the number of people in his house; for if a man died without a male child, his family came to an end. This was a major motivator for man in many African ethnic groups to marry many wives that assured him of many male children and continuity after death.

A Kikuyu child remained a child until he was circumcised, that is, until he was about 18 years old. When a youth had been circumcised, he became a junior 'warrior' and was allowed to go with the other men of his village to fight or perform other duties delegated

to him by the elders. After serving for a time as junior warriors, the young initiates were ready to take over the heavy duties, such as clearing virgin land, cutting poles for building houses, planting yams, bananas and sugar cane, and defending the homesteads. Becoming a senior warrior and marriage admitted a man to the next stage in his life-the council of elders (*Kiama*).

The Kikuyu, and most ethnic groups in Kenya, have *changed much* with the coming of the Europeans and subsequent modern life styles and urbanisation. They have been educated, are running businesses and are involved in all aspects of industrialised society. This has changed the modern Kikuyu from his grandparents. Such changes would be expected to be evident in the measured value orientations.

#### 1.4.2 The Luhya

The Luyha are among the largest groups of the Bantu and comprise seventeen sub-ethnic groups living in Kenya. The Luhya form 14% of the total population in Kenya. Each sub-ethnic group is divided into several clans. They occupy most of Western Province. Relationships between clans can be traced in several ways. The easiest is through taboos and totems. Another way is to see whether they intermarry and the type of initiation practices. The Kisii, Suba and the Kuria are believed to be close relatives of the Luhya.

According to Osogo (1966), many Baluhya clans believe that they came from Egypt (*Misri*). A few believe that they came from West Africa. However, we can just say they came from the north along with many other ethnic groups now settled in Kenya. When they first arrived they first stayed in Bunyoro before proceeding to their present location. Like many Bantu people the Luhya practice circumcision by removing the foreskin of a boy child as a form of initiation to adulthood and group identity. This is what allows one to join adulthood and then get married.

#### 1.4.3 The Luo

The Luo ethnic groups are members of the Nilotic peoples. They are the third largest ethnic group in Kenya making up 13% of the total population. The country into which



the Nilotic Luo began to arrive towards the end of the 15<sup>th</sup> century looked somewhat different from the place today called Nyanza Province. The Luo are said to have come from Southern Sudan. For many centuries bands of hunters and gatherers had roamed the patches of tall grass, and searched for honey in the tropical forests. Linguistics and archaeologists indicate that a people like the Khoikhoi akin to the Bushmen of South Africa were scattered in the plains and higher parts of Nyanza. The area is part of the home of the largest fresh water lake in the world, Lake Victoria.

Ochieng' (1979) reports that the Luo of Kenya can be divided into four large groups namely: The Joka-Jok, Joka-Owiny, Joka-Omolo and Luo-Suba. The first Luo group to arrive in Nyanza was the Joka-Jok meaning 'the people of Jok'. They arrived here in about 1490, under their leader Jok. The People who lived here when the Luo came are the Bantu groups like the Kisii, Yimbo, and Samia. The Luo fought away the Kisii and moved towards the south. However, some Bantu groups like Samia stayed and intermarried and soon they even forgot their language as they got assimilated into the Luo culture.

Luo society is patrilineal, meaning that inheritance of property, children, wives, power and so on comes from the male side, from father to son. The smallest social unit is the family. The family is made up of a man, his wife or wives, his sons and daughters, and if the sons are married, his sons' wives and his grandchildren. Sometimes the idea of a family, among the Luo, may be extended to include a man's brothers and sisters, his brothers' wives and children, as well as his and his brothers' grandchildren. Traditionally, grandparents, nephews and aunts and servants also sometimes swelled the size of a Luo family. A rich man would get relatives bringing in their children to stay with him. A rich man was also expected to marry many wives to give more sons to protect his property. Like most ethnic groups, Luos paid 'bridewealth' to the parents of the bride before she becomes his wife.

When a child was born, the mother stayed indoors for four days if the child was a son, and three days for a daughter. At the age of ten or twelve years six teeth from the lower jaw were taken out as a sign of initiation to adulthood. However, this custom has stopped in many parts of Luoland.

#### 1.4.4 The Akamba

The Akamba are another ethnic group of the Bantu group in Kenya. They make up 11% of Kenya's total population. The Akamba came from the south and passed by Mount Kilimanjaro as they trekked to the north. They occupy Eastern Province and cover districts like Kitui, Machakos, Mbooni, Kangundo, Mwingi, and Kibwezi. Akamba are comprised of three groups namely Evaau, Akilungu and Athaisu. The Akamba travelled extensively to trade and some people settled in places like Mariakani, Kikambala, and Kwa Jomvu near Mombasa. The seven clans of the Akamba people specialised in different activities and skills and each clan was known for its speciality. The Akamba are well known in Kenya for their skill in weaving baskets and woodcarvings.

According to Nzioki (1982), a few days after a child was born, the family's friends came to celebrate the occasion. It was during this celebration that they gave the child a name. The child was named after one of its grandparents or an event that occurred during the period the child was born. As children grew up they learned most of the social things from their parents more especially from their grandparents. This is a common practice among the Bantu people. Childhood ended at the circumcision ceremony, which was performed at about the age of twelve. The boy child was the one to undergo the initiation. This initiation practice is practised widely by the Bantu group in Kenya. After the rituals all the initiates became members of the same age group. Adolescence was ended by another special ceremony where both boys and girls were taught all aspects of family life, after which there was no objection to marriage. Usually marriage was between different clans and not close relatives. Marriage was looked on as joining two entire families.

#### 1.4.5 The Kalenjin

The Kalenjin make up 11 percent of the total Kenyan population. They belong to the Nilotic group of Kenya. The word Kalenjin is relatively new in usage as hardly no one spoke of a people called the Kalenjin before the late 1950's (Kipkorir, 1978). Kalenjin was an invention by a group of educated youth among the *Nandi-speaking* ethnic groups who decided that they should have a more acceptable collective name. Before the 1950's the Kalenjin were officially *Nandi-speaking* people. Scholars now recognise the

'Kalenjin' Language spoken by Kalenjin people, but it has many dialects. The best known of these dialects is the Kipsigis, Nandi and Pokot. There are also others, such as those of the Baringo, Elgeyo and Marakwet Districts, those of the Mount Elgon region, and those of Western province of Kenya. There are broadly, eight different Kalenjin groups of languages. These are Keiyo, Kipsigis, Marakwet, Nandi, Pokot, Sabaot, Terik and Tugen.

The Kalenjin migrated from the north, may be Egypt, and settled west of Lake Turkana area. As the land became drier they moved southwards to their present locations. They occupy the Rift Valley Province and part of Western Kenya. They are bound together by their culture and traditions. Like many other ethnic groups in Kenya they have a form of initiation to pass people through life's stages. Initiation is always carried out after circumcision (and for the case of girls, clitoridectomy). The initiation is supposed to prepare a youth to be a full adult member of the society, able to adhere to the rules of behaviour and conduct. Every one of the Kalenjin groups practised initiation, though the actual rites differed slightly from group to group. Indeed the way the operation was conducted differed, but the main elements were the same throughout Kalenjin lands.

The Kalenjin were originally cattle raising people. Some of them lost their cattle and turned to agriculture. Traditionally a Kalenjin belonged first to his family, then to his clan, then to his political section. A man was the son of another. His mother might be one of several wives of his father, in which case he regarded himself as belonging to such and such a house in the family of so and so. He regarded all his father's daughters and sons as his sisters and brothers in the fullest sense, whether they are the children of his own mother or not. At the same time he belonged to a clan which traced descent along the male line.

#### 1.4.6 The Kisii (Gusii)

The Kisii are another ethnic group of the Bantu group. They make up 6 percent of the total Kenyan population. They live in Nyanza province and occupy the area between Luoland and Kipsigis, one ethnic group of the Kalenjins. The Kisiis belong to four clans with several sub-clans but speak the same language *Ekegusii*. The different clans are *Abagetutu*, *Abanyaribari*, *Abagirango*, and *Abaanchari*. The physical features of



their land are mainly hilly, commonly known as the Kisii highlands. Their main occupation is agriculture.

The Kisii came to settle at their present location after being displaced by the Luo from their earlier homesteads in the north. They are distant relatives of the Luhya and several other Bantu people like the Kuria (see for example, Maxon, 1989). The Kisii practice circumcision (removal of the foreskin and for girls, clitoridectomy) as a form of initiation to adulthood and group identity. Like many other ethnic groups the Kisii used to marry many wives as a sign of status and security and recognised extended families. All the brothers and sisters plus their children are part of the family.

The above were the main ethnic groups in this study. However, there were others from smaller ethnic groups or pastoral groups who do not feature so much in salaried employment. A few formed part of my sample and I will now in general, look at the people from the Coast (location of one of the companies in the sample) and a very well known ethnic group outside Kenya, the Maasai.

#### **1.4.7 People of the Coast (Swahili)**

According to Salim (1978) for the past 2000 years, the coast of Kenya has been visited by people from across the seas for trading purposes. These brought about the people now known as Swahili. These Swahili-speaking people are a mixture of Arabs, Persians, Balunchis, Somalis and Bantu due to intermarriages. Their common language unites these people and they are influenced by Islam.

The home of the Swahili-speaking people is the coastal strip stretching from the coast of Somalia in the north, to the Tanzanian boarder in the south, as well as the adjacent islands of Manda, Pate, Lamu, Mombasa and Wasini. These group also occupy the coast of Tanzania, Islands of Pemba, Zanzibar, Mafia and Kilwa, and even as far as Comoro Islands. They do not claim one ancestor like most groups in Kenya.

We may divide the Swahili people into several smaller groups. Each group is in some ways different from others because it developed and lived in one area of the coast, and its members came to posses certain features in their way of living, earning a living, or

even speaking Swahili with a distinct dialect. The main Swahili groups are: The Bajun, The Amu, The Siyu, The Pate, The Shela, The Ozi, The Mombasa, and The Vumba. The Swahili traditionally lived in towns and so family life has been affected by urban conditions. The Swahili, in common with Arabs, believe that a woman's place is in the home, so you hardly find their women in salaried employment. Just recently things have started to change and they have started to send their girl children to school, the majority of whom never go beyond primary level as they get married early as marriages are often family arranged. They actually marry mainly from among themselves, for example, it is common to find cousins and nephews marrying. This practice is a taboo among most other ethnic groups in Kenya. Swahili women do not travel much as they are restricted to go, as far as the shop or to visit a neighbour mostly when housework is complete. On the other hand the men folk are quite busy earning a living and his day gets interrupted by times of prayer, for meals, and very likely by afternoon rest.

#### **1.4.8 The Maasai**

Sharman (1979) notes that the Maasai are perhaps the best known of all Kenyan groups to outsiders. The Maasai people identify themselves as those who speak the language Ol-maa. They belong to the Hamitic group. There is a wide variety of dialects of this language, and different branches of Maasai peoples are known by different names, though they are basically the same people. They occupy much of central Kenya and northern Tanzania along the path of the Rift valley. Most of the land they occupy is dry and they have to move in search of water during the dry seasons. Their main occupation is cattle raising and they live a semi-nomadic life. They too practice circumcision and are the only people who have kept their identity by their traditional way of dressing.

The Maasai children lived with their mother in a house built of mud and wattle, in a large enclosure, and their father's other wives and young children live in nearby in houses of their own. Nearer them, in the same enclosure, there may be other families, grouped together in a collection of mud and wattle houses. All round these houses is a thorn fence for protection. However, these are not permanent homes as the Maasai often moved about when grazing becomes poor and seasonal rivers dry up. A Maasai's food used to be almost entirely comprised of milk and blood and meat, supplemented by vegetables obtained from their Bantu neighbours. However, warriors or morans never

eat any vegetables as their diet was made up of milk, blood and meat. Boy children became morans after circumcision. This is the age when a moran was expected to kill at least one lion, which was a sign of his ability to defend the homestead. At about four years old, both boys and girls had their two lower teeth removed. This was taken as a precaution in case of diseases like tetanus, which causes a person to clench his teeth so hard that he is unable to open his mouth. The gap created by removing the teeth was then used to feed the sick person. At the same age holes were pierced in the tops and lobes of their ears, and sharp objects pushed through the holes to widen them. With time these holes were made even bigger by using bigger sticks. Later in life the ear lobes became long enough to hold to big ornaments.

In Kenya the Maasai are divided up into sections, as follows: Iloodokilani-Iloitokitok, Ilkeekonyokie-Ilkankere, Ilmatapato-Ilkaputiei; Ipurko-Iloitai, Ildamat, Isiria, Ilwuasin-Kishu, Ilmoitanik. All these groups belong to one of these clans: Ilaiser, Ilmolelian, Iltarrosero, and Ilukumae. These clans own different brands of cattle, but a clan can own more than one brand. The majority of the Maasai people still prefer and live in their traditional ways which has earned them a place in Kenya's tourism industry, but some are now educated and have started to shed some of the beliefs.

Other than the Maasai, most of these Kenyan groups have changed so much from their original ancestors due to urbanisation and globalisation. Most are well educated and have travelled to the extent that many aspects of their culture have changed.

The other people who formed a small part of my sample are the Kenyan Asians and some Europeans hence, a word on them follows.

#### **1.4.9 The Asians (Indians)**

Indians were among the first to invade the East African coast, which is shared by Kenya and Tanzania many centuries before Christ. However, Indian immigration was a direct result of the European colonisation of East Africa (Kenya, Uganda and Tanzania). Many came in to construct the Kenya-Uganda Railway that started from Mombasa. The reasons, then, for the immigration of Asians to East Africa, followed by their settlement there, were mainly commercial. They included trade and the search for better living



standards than those in their native regions did. The reinforcement of British Indian troops in East Africa during the 1890s helped to strengthen the growing Asian presence in the East African interior, and contributed to future immigration. The large number of Indian troops and their arrays of camp followers boosted the enterprises of some Asian traders who had established *dukas* (small shops). Nanjira (1976) notes that the years from 1886 to 1945 were crucial for the process of transforming the scattered Asian commercial population along the coast into a major settlement in the interior of East Africa. Today Asians form a big proportion of Kenya's industrial base in medium and small-scale businesses. A very small proportion engages in other trades like teaching and practising medicine and law. Others work for the government of Kenya in various capacities.

Culturally, Indians have kept their original customs and religions even within Kenya. They have their own temples and like living in communities comprising of people mainly from India. One can conclude that they are a very 'collectivist society as they live in communities and like to aid their kith and kin to stand on their own in business or some other way. Indians unlike Arabs don't mix a lot and have not intermarried with the local people, hence they have managed to keep their identity and culture intact.

#### **1.4.10 The Europeans ( White Race)**

European arrivals and settlements in East Africa took place both before and after the colonisation of East Africa, mainly during the 19th century. Such forces as commerce, national strategy, imperial expansion, humanitarianism, and Christianity caused European emigration to the region. A remarkable missionary invasion occurred between 1844 and 1850 when German missionaries Johann Ludwig Krapf and Rebmann became the first Europeans to explore equatorial East Africa some distance into the interior land away from the coast. Britain was the European country to colonise Kenya. The main interest of the British interest in Kenya was political. The British officials therefore believed their ultimate task was to promote and spread British rule. Many Europeans found Kenya very fertile for agriculture and settled to do large-scale farming especially on the highlands, which they called the 'white highlands'. Big commercial operations like those of Unilever followed and started manufacturing activities. The British colonial administrators who encouraged tribalism and corruption introduced a

system of 'native reserves'. The policy of 'native reserves' called for the protection of the Africans in their own area and gave them the same security there as Europeans were given in the white highland. The divide-and-rule policy impoverished the African, divided Africans, and made them not only hate but also envy and compete with one another (Nanjira, 1976). The Europeans were generally seen as individualistic and competitive especially as they tried to replace other Europeans from France and German.

## **PART FIVE**

### **1.5 PROFILE OF PARTICIPATING ORGANISATIONS.**

Eight manufacturing/processing companies that participated in the study comprised of Multinational, Government-owned and Private Companies. According to the Kenya 1995-96 Kenya Fact book, Kenya has an estimated 600 large and medium firms, 1,000 Small-Scale units and 3,500 informal sector workshops within the industrial sector. This study focuses on this sector because development of industry, and in particular manufacturing industries, is important for several reasons too many to enumerate. But these include; adding of value to Agricultural output most of which is currently exported or going to waste because of limited processing facilities; provision of tradeable goods which brings in badly needed foreign exchange; creation of employment; general improvement of standards of living and so forth. The indirect linkages the manufacturing industry has to other sectors of the economy also makes the sector to be of paramount importance in the development of the economy. These firms include about 200 multinationals mostly from Britain, USA, Germany, France, Japan, Italy, Switzerland and India. About half of this multinationals have Kenyan Partners. Details of sampling, approaches of study and techniques of analysis will be dealt with later in chapter four. The following section presents a brief profile of the organisations involved in the study:

#### **1.5.1 The Raymond Woollen Mills (K) limited**

The Raymond Woollen Mills (Kenya) Limited started operating in 1969 with 69 employees. The mill is situated in Eldoret town in the Western part of Kenya. Today

the company employs about 2500 workers. The first product of the company was hand knitting yarn.

Raymond's first Kenya-made products faced tough competition from imports. It seemed inconceivable that local textiles could match and even outclass them in quality and price, but this is exactly what Raymond achieved in the coming years.

In 1970-71, a knitwear department was established. In 1973, Sulzer weaving machines for the manufacture of high quality suiting fabrics were installed along with Circular knitting machines that use electric technology for the design and manufacture of knitted dress materials. Simultaneously, a complete range of processing machinery for dyeing and finishing of the woven and knitted fabrics was also installed. Having realised that a substantial amount of foreign exchange was being funnelled into the purchase of yarn, in 1975 the mill started its own spinning unit to produce yarn for suiting fabrics.

In 1977, due to rapid increase in the demand for textiles, a three-fold expansion was implemented in the weaving department along with spinning and dyeing facilities. A year later, the company set up its own yarn production unit for making blankets. In 1980, computerised machines for knitwear were installed. The final process of turning textile into garments was also set up. At the beginning of the eighties, Raymond Mills started manufacturing high quality suits, trousers, jackets and safari suits for both local and export market.

In 1984, a Wool combining division was started. This is the first plant of its kind in Africa (other than South Africa) and allows the company to process Kenyan wool. This has given added value to Kenyan wool which, otherwise was exported in raw form.

In 1986-87 and also in 1990, a major expansion was undertaken which brought on the latest technology in the field of spinning, weaving knitting, dyeing and finishing from countries like Germany, Switzerland, Italy, Japan and Belgium.

Apart from the local market, the company exports its products to neighbouring African countries and Europe. Some of the countries exported to are Rwanda, Zimbabwe, Uganda, Somalia, Ethiopia, Djibouti, Sudan, Mauritius, India, Netherlands, Canada and



the UK. These exports have earned a substantial amount of the much-needed foreign exchange for the improvement of the Kenyan economy. In 1994 alone, exports amounted to Kshs 310.6 Millions.

Looking at the rapid growth of the company's operations, it was necessary to have a well-organised human resource development programme. It devised various training schemes most of which are approved by the Directorate of Industrial Training. Machine operators are recruited and trained for three years before they are employed. Craftsmen are trained for three years, during which period they are sponsored to attend industrial training centres. Technicians are trained for four years either at the Raymond Management Training Centre or sponsored to attend National polytechnics depending on their trades. Across the years supervisors and senior managers attend seminars conducted by local and foreign management consultant firms.

### **1.5.2 Equator Bottlers Limited**

Equator Bottlers Ltd is situated in Kisumu, the third largest Kenyan town after Nairobi and Mombasa respectively. The town, which straddles the Equator, is also along the shores of Lake Victoria.

The company has since its inception on 8<sup>th</sup> December, 1966 evolved from humble beginnings into a highly modern and successful Coca-Cola Bottling Plant. Indigenous Kenyans of Asian origin own it. It has reflected the dynamic changes that have taken place in the country since colonial days to this post independence era. Today, the company has an installed bottling capacity of 36,000 bottles per hour and has a work force of about 400 employees led by a team of highly qualified executive personnel.

Since its inception, the company's hallmark has been the provision of effective services to not only the residents of Kisumu but also in the outlying areas of Kakamega, Busia, Siaya, Kericho and up to recently Kisii districts (now Kisii has a bottling company situated there). This success can be attributed to the company's policy of reaching all consumers of Coca-Cola products at affordable prices. The company has also through the years won several trophies for excellence in the production of Coca-Cola products. The company embraces a policy of continuous improvement on quality through the

maintenance of constant checks on standards. This is attested by the high level of consumer confidence in the products of the company.

The range of Coca-Cola products is available at each and every market outlet within the region courtesy of an excellent distribution network. The company also provides a wide range of market support equipment as follows: Electric Coolers, Ice Coolers, Kerosene Coolers, Vending Trolleys, Display Racks and attractive signage in all its distribution and retail outlets.

The company's location is advantageous as Kisumu is the Nyanza provincial headquarters and home to a host of other companies like Kenya Breweries; Swan industries; Foamat; Fishnet industries; Sea food Industries among others. The town serves as a major communications link to countries like Tanzania, Uganda and Burundi.

The company enjoyed steady sales growth during the late seventies up to the late eighties, but due to stiff competition from alternative imported canned soft drinks and a bleak economic scenario, its performance has not been impressive.

### **1.5.3 Bamburi Portland Cement Company Limited**

This plant, the property of East African Portland Cement Company, established in 1936, and had as shareholders the Associated Portland Cement Manufacturers (UK), Tunnel Cement Ltd. (UK) and three trading companies who distributed the cement in Kenya, two of which had UK parents.

In 1950 Dr. Mandl, the Company's former Chairman, of Cementia Holding A.G., Zurich, visited Kenya to study the possibility of cement manufacture. He was a representative of Amalgamated Limestone Company (UK) who was interested in becoming partners in the venture. Today the company employees around 2000 employees.

Cementia Holding had a number of plants in what was once the Austro-Hungarian Empire and many of these plants were seized during the Second World War. Dr. Mandl decided that it was necessary to replace the lost factories with others overseas and



considered Ireland, Australia and Kenya, in that order. Dividend restrictions in Ireland, and the remoteness of Australia, for effective control of what had initially to be a small factory supervised from Europe, led to the selection of Kenya.

Development conditions were favourable. Dr. Mandl, despite other opinions to the contrary, was convinced that good cement could be made from the extensive coral deposits on the Kenyan coast, and using the coal fired Kiln process which was relatively low in capital cost. Good anthracite coal was available at a low price from South Africa.

Kenya's infrastructure was sound, the country appeared to be stable and prospects seemed good for rapid economic development of the country. The market was already adequate to support a factory and the per capita consumption was very low with obvious growth potential.

Today, Bamburi Cement Limited manufactures cement at its plant situated 12 kilometres north of Mombasa. The facility has a capacity of 1.3 million tons per annum and is the second largest factory in Sub-Saharan Africa. The company is one of the largest manufacturing export earners in Kenya and exported 35% of its production in 1997. The company is mainly foreign owned and is indirectly controlled by Lafarge of France and Blue Circle PLC of the UK. The former, which is the second largest cement group in the world, provides technical and management assistance to the company in association with its subsidiary, Cement Holding AG of Zurich.

Bamburi has invested in various locally incorporated companies whose activities are indirectly related to its own. Baobab Farm limited whose main activity is the rehabilitation of bamburi's used quarries, is a wholly owned subsidiary of the company. Baobab also manages a nature park and conducts various farming activities including forestry and aquaculture, in the rehabilitated quarries. In 1996, the company acquired 100% of the equity in Whistling Pine limited, which operates a restaurant in the nature park. Simbarite Limited, which is also a wholly owned subsidiary, manufactures various fibre cement products, particularly roofing sheets. Diani Estate Limited is a non-trading wholly owned subsidiary of the company, which owns valuable coral land approximately 10 kilometres south of Mombasa. Kenya Cement Marketing Limited, in

which the company owns 50% of the equity, was engaged in the marketing of cement up to the last quarter of 1994.

#### **1.5.4 Firestone East Africa (1969) limited**

The name Firestone has been known and respected in Kenya since the 1930's when imported Firestone tyres first became available from the United States. They were manufactured by The Firestone Tire and Rubber Company Inc., Ohio, USA ("Firestone Inc.") which was founded by Harvey S. Firestone. In 1969 Firestone Inc. was the second largest Tyre Company in the United States and with its international rubber plantations, manufacturing and sales subsidiaries had become a major force in tyre sales worldwide.

In Kenya the company is engaged in the businesses of manufacturing vehicle tyres and tubes and in the sales of its products in Kenya and the neighbouring countries of Uganda, Tanzania, Rwanda and Burundi. It operates as a licensee of Bridgestone/Firestone and through this arrangement takes advantage of technology made available by Bridgestone/Firestone, which has research centres in Italy, Japan and the United States. The company's subsidiary, Sameer Industrial Park (SIP), has developed and now operates Kenya's first EPZ in which investors manufacture products for sale throughout the world.

The first locally manufactured Firestone tyre rolled off the production line in 1971. This followed the incorporation of Firestone East Africa (1969) Limited on 3rd November, 1969 as a subsidiary of Firestone Inc. in a joint venture with Industrial Commercial Development Corporation (ICDC) and the Development Finance Company of Kenya (DFCK).

In 1985, Firestone Inc., sold 51% of the company to Sameer. Firestone, Inc. retained 19% interest in the company and continue to provide management and technical support under various agreements. Subsequently Sameer purchased all the shares that were owned by DFCK and ICDC. Currently Sameer owns 81 percent of the shares of the company while Bridgestone/Firestone owns the remaining 19 percent. In 1988, Bridgestone Corporation, a Japanese company, acquired the entire shareholding of

Firestone Inc., which subsequently changed its name to Bridgestone/Firestone in August 1989. The company joined the Nairobi Stock Exchange in 1994, becoming publicly quoted. This was to enable the company utilise the Nairobi Stock Exchange as a means of raising capital for future development. This also gave the public an opportunity to participate in the success of the company.

In 1971 Firestone's newly constructed factory began production with an initial capacity of 156,000 tyres a year. The factory site on the Mombasa Road, Nairobi then employed 278 people. The company has achieved consistent growth through expansion programmes over the years and can now produce over 500,000 tyres and employs a staff of 684, of who only four are non-Kenyans.

The company sells its products through a network of over 150 appointed distributors throughout Kenya, and also directly to motor vehicle manufacturers and selected large fleet operators. Exports, which presently account for about 9 percent of total sales, are sold in the neighbouring countries of Uganda, Tanzania, Rwanda and Burundi. From producing a limited range of tyres in 1971, the company now manufactures 61 different sizes and types, incorporating the latest appropriate technology licensed to it. The range of tyres are meant for all types of vehicles such as passenger cars, light trucks, minibuses, heavy duty trucks, buses, tractors and graders. The company is the sole manufacturer of new tyres in Kenya and makes products specifically suited to the rigorous operating conditions in its developing country markets.

### **1.5.5 Kenya Vehicle Manufacturers Limited (KVM)**

KVM was incorporated in Kenya as Leyland Limited on 2<sup>nd</sup> July, 1974. Through a special resolution of the shareholders the company changed its name on 16<sup>th</sup> May 1989 to 'Kenya Vehicle Manufacturers limited'. The company's shareholders are: Kenya Government 35.0%; Cooper Motors Corporation (CMC) 32.5%; and D T Dobie & Company (K) Ltd 32.5%.

It was the first vehicle assembly plant to be incorporated in Kenya. KVM started production in 1976 with the first vehicle rolling off the line in August, 1976. The plant is located in Thika town covering an area of 40 acres of land of which 18 are reserved



for future development. The plant was originally designed to produce light and heavy commercial vehicles including Land Rovers, Range Rovers, Volks Wagen Microbuses, Leyland Trucks and Buses. The vehicle model range produced at KVM has increased considerably over the years and now stands at 48. It employs 410 employees, mostly Kenyans. Installed capacity stands at 6,600 vehicles per annum, single shift. Current production is approximately 2,700 vehicles per annum. The company also undertakes contract assembly, i.e., the customer (distributor) buys, imports and transports kits to the plant at Thika; or customer buys all special jigs and tools and provides all local content except paint, fuel, oil and consumables.

Other activities of the firm are as follows:

*Vehicle Rehabilitation projects:* Started with the reconditioning of old Land Rovers in 1985. The service now covers a whole range of vehicle types. These are fully stripped, cleaned and rebuilt to original specification. The client catalogue includes the Kenya Government, Kenya commercial bank, Kenya Posts and Telecommunications, UNDP Drought Recovery Programme, Kenya Wildlife Services and the Kenya Broadcasting Corporation. Most of these are Government corporations and 1400 vehicles had been reconditioned by the time of this study.

*Body Building:* KVM builds vehicle bodies. A range of body types up to 7 tons has been developed in the Body Section of the company. Fitting can be done for a range of vehicle makes.

*Tents:* The 'Portadome', is another product designed, developed and produced by KVM. It is a large, spacious, modular lightweight tent constructed for purposes of withstanding extreme weather conditions. 'Megadome' has been added to the range. It is 2.6 times the size of Portadome. The company hires out these units as well as selling them.

*"My Products":* KVM has embarked on a programme of scrap reclamation using scrap wood and metal to produce a variety of items popularly called 'My Products'. These include prefabricated houses, kiosks, chairs, dog kennels, sentry boxes and wendy houses.



*Coke Icons*: The company makes 400-mm discs with the Coke Logo on the front for Coca-Cola Africa. These products are targeted for markets in Africa and orders come from Nigeria, Ghana, Tanzania, Uganda, Mauritius, Djibouti, Reunion, Madagascar and Zanzibar. Production volume for the products is around 3000 units per week.

### 1.5.6 Rift Valley Textile Mills (Rivatex)

Rivatex started production in 1977. Its original owners and their respective distribution of shares was as follows: Seditex of West Germany 29%; Industrial and commercial Development Corporation (ICDC) 36%; IFC of USA 18%; DEG of West Germany 15% and Silda of Switzerland 2%. Today the company is owned by the following shareholders: ICDC, Industrial development Bank (IDB) and The Development bank of Kenya. This is the only remaining government Textile Company. The other state-owned textile companies that have gone under in recent years include Kisumu Cotton Mills, Mount Kenya Textile Company in Nanyuki and the Kenya Textile mills that used to operate from Thika town. Rivatex's top management are the chairman and several Directors who are the main policy makers. Most of these policy makers are Government appointees. The company employs a labour force of 1400 workers. The main products of the company are cloths for clothes; furnishing materials like curtains and cushions; *Kitenge*, *Kangas* and Uniform lines.

At the time of this research the company was facing serious financial problems like most state corporations. Almost immediately after the study was completed, the company was placed under receivership by the government in order to save it from closure. With this move all the employees at the factory were to be re-hired under new terms. Earlier, the managing Director, without accepting that the company was facing a financial crises, said that the problems facing local textile companies could be traced to insufficient markets for the finished products and the flooding of the local market with sub-standard imported goods. The Director complained that farmers had reduced their cotton acreage due to low prices and insufficient supply of chemicals. This he pointed out had reduced the company's production to 40 percent. The Director also blamed the company's woes on old machinery bought 21 years ago whose efficiency is low and uncompetitive. Employees interviewed complained that many of the tenders from the Government had been diverted to other private companies in Eldoret and named Ken

Knit and Raymond Woollen Mills as some of the beneficiaries for a tender to knit army uniforms. However, even textile mills in the private sector have not been spared by the flooding of the local market with second hand clothes and other textile goods whose imports do not pay the necessary duty hence, making them cheaper compared to local goods. This was evident from among the reasons put forward by Raymond Mills' management during interviews.

### **1.5.7 Farmer's Choice (K) Limited**

The company was incorporated in 1965 as a family business then owned by Block Hotels. Its initial name was East Africa Meat Products, changing to Farmer's Choice in 1976. The company's headquarters are in Britain. Presently Farmer's Choice is owned by Lonrho Africa formerly known as Lonrho. The organisation employs a work force of 970 employees. The company owns a branch office in Mombasa and several distribution points in other countries namely: Uganda, Tanzania and United Arab Emirates

The organisation is a meat products processing company with sausages as its main product. The company was compelled to go into feed manufacturing to support its farmers, but now many more pig producers are benefiting as a result. Farmer's Choice Ltd is a leader in pork processing products. The company slaughters 80,000 pigs a year, 50,000 from contracted farmers and the rest from internal production units. It has continued to serve the marketing needs of the 122 farmers contracted to it despite depressed market conditions. The market was low during the time of this study due to a decrease in tourists visiting Kenya resulting in the closure of 16 Hotels in Mombasa alone. During this period Farmer's Choice gave preference to third party contracted producers over internal pig units. At present, six processors serve the industry, with Farmer's Choice serving the largest segment of the market.

### **1.5.8 Timsales Limited**

The Company was established in 1932 as a tree felling and timber-processing firm. It is now a public company with interested parties holding debentures in the company. The company owns sawmills in all major towns in Kenya especially in the Rift Valley,

Central and Western Kenya areas that are the main sources of timber. It has a work force of 600 employees within its Nairobi unit.

The main products of the company are timber, Hardwood, Wallboard, Plywood, Soft board, Cellcured timber. These products are both for the local market and for export.

The reader is advised to note that more information on this organisation was not made available as the CEO who authorised the study was changed almost immediately after the data collection process before he could give me details about the company. When I went back to meet the new CEO he refused to provide such contextual data.



## **CHAPTER TWO**

### **HUMAN RESOURCE MANAGEMENT: THE NEED FOR CONTEXT BASED HRM POLICIES AND PRACTICES**

#### **2.0 INTRODUCTION**

Having outlined the overall nature of the research and the Kenyan context in the previous chapter, this chapter now takes an analytical look at the concept of Human Resource Management (HRM). Initially I explore the concept from an international and comparative perspective starting with a review of the literature on the origins and development of HRM. Conceptual clarity as presented so far is assessed. It is also pointed out that comparative human resource management (CHRM) has concentrated on differences in developed economies and newly commercialising regions ignoring developing economies especially, Sub-Saharan Africa. The contention that traditional HRM has decontextualized the field is covered. An attempt is made to look critically at the applicability of these models to a developing country context and the need for contextual based HRM policies and practices.

#### **2.1 THE ORIGIN AND MEANING OF HRM**

Writers have suggested that interest in 'human resources' as an asset goes far back to the 1950's, from when Drucker identified 'human resources' as an important organisational asset (Hendry & Pettigrew, 1990). Some authors trace the start of HRM as far back as the 1890's when some organisations established their first personnel office (Springer & Springer, 1990). However, the humanistic image of employees propagated by normative management researchers (Maslow, 1954; Argyris, 1957; McGregor, 1960) is said to have started in the i.e. 50's. The term is associated with writers like McGregor (1960) with his theory Y of management pointing to the importance of human resources for organisation growth. Herzberg (1968) also supported the idea of motivating people in order to contribute to organisation growth. However, the term human resource management (HRM) took a more radical approach during the 1980s in the US. The field was then embroiled in a heated debate in both academic and business circles.

There seemed to be a major shift in the management of employee relations. Adding to the importance HRM was the publicity it received from authors like Peters and Waterman (1982). The book written by these authors "In Search of Excellence" attributed the success of some of the most successful US firms to their style of employment management. Blunt (1990) attributed the surge of interest in HRM to the 'excellence movement' and the threat from Japan's success as a force in the international business arena.

The growth of HRM moved to other parts of the world such as the UK during the same period. Economic and business climates were some of the reasons that pushed the UK to look to the US for best practice (Guest, 1990). Guest is not alone in acknowledging that the arrival of HRM in the UK was basically economics and business driven (Hendry & Pettigrew, 1990; Keenoy, 1990). It is apparent that the growth of HRM was due to economic forces and the idea of utilising human resources for competitive advantage. Staehle (1990: 32) identifies two main roots of HRM as:

- 1) a behavioural one (employees seen as a reservoir of many diverse potential skills, and it is the manager's responsibility to find out how best to bring out, promote, and develop these abilities);
- 2) an economic one (the personnel is no longer regarded only as a cost factor but primarily as an investment to be protected and increased both micro-economically and macro-economically);
- 3) the systematic synthesis (integration) of recruitment and employee development measures that had been handled separately until now;
- 4) their inclusion in decisions affecting strategies and structures; and
- 5) the fact that HR are now viewed from a general management perspective rather than from the perspective of a functional area (like personnel administration) and that management now shares responsibility for HR.

However, for a long time scholars did not reach consensus as to whether there is any visible difference between personnel management and the new concept, HRM. Available literature indicates that for some it was a re-titling of personnel departments whereas, for others it possessed some form of uniqueness. It is held that some authors on personnel management just changed the titles of their texts to suit the new term, without commensurate changes to its practice (See for example, critiques offered by Legge, 1989; Armstrong, 1987; Sisson, 1989; Guest, 1990; Tyson, 1995). Storey (1992) points out that the term became controversial due to ideological, empirical and philosophical reasons. Storey, (1992) lists several meanings the term HRM carries. First, it is used as a synonym of personnel management and a substitution for other terms like people management, employee relations. Second, it is used to refer to a more integrated way of using personnel techniques as espoused by writers like, Fombrun Tichy and Devanna (1984) and Guest (1989). Third, emphasis was on the 'resource' concept. This means labour was equated to other resources of production like capital, technology and material. Employees in organisations are given a more business like orientation fully integrated with the organisation's strategy (Beer, Spector, Lawrence, Mills, & Walton, 1985; Schuler & Jackson, 1987; Guest, 1991; Storey, 1995). Dowling and Schuler (1990) refer to HRM as those functions undertaken by an organisation to effectively utilise its human resources. They include human resource planning; staffing; performance appraisal; training and development; compensation and labour relations. The fourth meaning attached to HRM is that its aims are different in terms of the interventions required. This controversy has led to the concept being defined differently.

Legge (1989) reports main distinctions between HRM and conventional personnel management after reviewing the definitions of several authors. First, HRM's main focus is on the development of the management team whereby personnel management focuses on the management of non-managers. Second, line managers play a proactive role by integrating their unit's resources under HRM while, personnel management focuses influence away from line managers. Finally, HRM recognises senior manager's role for managing organisational culture. On the other hand, personnel management is not involved in organisational development and shaping organisational values. Some have classified HRM as *unitarist* and left it at that whereas, others have seen it as individualistic placing emphasis on individual employees' influence and not the



pluralist and collective approach of industrial relations (Guest, 1989). HRM is geared more towards strategic management than personnel management. It includes a management philosophy and the integration of personnel management into strategic management. The debate is not yet over but it is now possible to grasp some major distinctions that make HRM unique from conventional personnel management.

The literature indicates that the concept has gradually emerged in order to try and integrate diverse areas of policy to bring about competitive advantage. The search for strategy that fosters competitive advantage has been at the centre of trying to cope with mounting competition in industry. Interest in strategy has been sought in many areas including information technology (e.g., Porter & Millar, 1985); and culture (Barney, 1986). The search for competitive advantage in the area of human resources has been wide spread (for example Pfeffer, 1994; Wright, McMahan, & McWilliam, 1994; Tichy, Fombrun, & Devanna, 1982). Researchers and consultants have advocated a link between business strategy and management of human resources (HR) (e.g., Schuler & Macmillan, 1984; Porter, 1985; Guest, 1990, 1991). Hendry and Pettigrew (1990) pointed out that HRM carries with it ambivalence between 'utilitarian-instrumentalism' and 'developmental-humanism'. Utilitarian-instrumentalism depicted HRM as putting emphasis on the *resource-side* of human resource utilisation while developmental-humanism put emphasis on the human side of *human resource* development. This distinction also reflects the two variants of HRM of 'hard' and 'soft', whereby the hard variant emphasises the 'quantitative', calculative and business like aspects of managing HR in a 'rational' way like any other factor of production like capital and material (Storey, 1989). The 'soft' variation of HRM originated from the human-relations school emphasising communications, motivation and leadership. With the soft manifestation of HRM, there is an assumption that 'employees give of their best when they are treated as responsible adults' (Fowler, 1987: 3). These variations of HRM indicate that HRM is not a unified, internally coherent set of practices. There are doubts about its meaning and practice as Storey (1992: 23) puts it 'the very idea of HRM is controversial'. The main reasons for this controversy are conceptual and practical.

In essence, as we have seen traditional HRM is primarily a US concept implicitly masquerading as a universal field of management. In the following discussion, I will try

to make it clear from available literature that original HRM models lack of context and because of its roots in US values, render HRM conceptually inadequate in its present form, to address international issues especially, human systems in developing countries.

## 2.2 EARLY MODELS OF HUMAN RESOURCE MANAGEMENT

Original HRM took two approaches namely the 'Matching' Models of HRM and the Harvard Model of HRM. The Matching Models were popularised by academics at the Michigan Business School like Fombrun, (1983); Fombrun and Tichy, (1983); Fombrun, Tichy and Devanna, (1984). The Harvard Models were popularised by academics at the Harvard Business School like Beer and his colleagues namely, Beer, Spector, Lawrence, Mills and Walton, (1984); Walton and Lawrence, (1985). These two approaches represented the two schools of thought presented above as '*hard*' and '*soft*' respectively. The Matching models put emphasis on fitting HRM into the strategic management literature, while the Harvard model emphasised employee influences (Hendry & Pettigrew, 1990).

The 'Matching Model' of Fombrun et al., (1984) was aimed at determining how human resource functions can best contribute to all levels of the organisation. Emphasis was on matching HR systems with the right formal structure to fit business strategy. The model proposed that people in organisations should be treated as a 'resource' pointing out that they be obtained cheaply, used sparingly, developed cheaply and utilised to the maximum. The approach recommends that in this way organisational goals can be met and the approach calls for employee commitment. Furthermore, it recommends reactivity to corporate strategy and a need to integrate several key components namely '*managerial tasks, formal structure, organisational processes and people*'. This would then enable the organisation to manipulate the above key HRM components through *selection, appraisal, rewarding and development*. The most important element in this approach is suggesting that organisational effectiveness depend on a 'tight fit' between human resource strategy and business strategy. The proponents of this model argue that like any other management function, HRM must fit a suitable strategy (e.g., Hendry & Pettigrew, 1986; Schuler, 1989). This idea of 'matching' has not been received favourably despite its wide use in academic research and contribution to the development of another branch of HRM called strategic HRM which is seen as a



'bridge' between strategy and the management of human resources (Lengnick-Hall & Lengnick-Hall, 1988; Boxall, 1992).

Earlier on Tichy et al attempting to explain the concept of strategic HRM, identified its main dimensions namely:

1. Devising an organisation-wide selection and promotion system that supports the organisation's business strategy,
2. Creating internal flows of people that match the business strategy, and
3. Matching key executives to the business strategy.

Since then, several contributions have been added to the idea of strategic HRM (for example' Miles & Snow, 1984; Ferris, Schallenberg, and Zammunto, 1985; Lengnick-Hall et al., 1988; Schuler & Jackson, 1987; Ulrich, 1991; Lawler & Ledford, 1992; Wright et al., 1994), linking business strategy and the management of human resources.

Schuler and colleagues' contribution (Schuler & MacMillan, 1984; Schuler & Jackson, 1987; Schuler & Walker, 1990; Schuler, 1992) in this area is of particular interest because the items used in this study were based on their 1987 conceptualisation. Schuler and Macmillan (1984) argued that the main HR functions of planning, staffing, appraising, compensation, union relationships, training and development can enable a firm achieve competitive advantage. In the following years, Schuler (1987, 1989) and Schuler and Jackson (1987) argued that an organisations' HR practices are affected by life cycle stages. They point out that identifying needed employee characteristics or needed role behaviours successfully do this. The main contention is that key HR functions (planning, staffing, appraising, compensation, and training and development) are better seen as a *Menu of strategic choices* executives can use to promote intended 'role behaviours' to suit organisational objectives. As the organisation changes strategy there is need for commensurate HRM practices. Furthermore, there arises need to change current employee task-based skills, knowledge, and abilities (SKAs).

Wright, McMahan, & McWilliams, (1994) differ with the view of emphasising HRM practices. They argue that sustainable competitive advantage lies with the employees and not the organisation's HRM practices. Some commentators (e.g., Lawler & Ledford, 1992) argue for the development of employees' SKAs because strategic HRM



is not an issue for most organisations. They recommend that firms should develop employee skills on an *ad hoc* basis depending on what is needed at the time. The only impediment to such an approach is high cost of investment.

In spite of its wide spread use, the matching model has suffered criticism from scholars with a different view. The idea of 'tight fit' while taking business strategy as the independent variable, while ignoring employee interest, labour relations, and important motivational variables is inappropriate (Boxall, 1990). The model requires that employees adjust their attitudes towards strategic change, which is not simple. However, Schuler and Jackson (1987) pointed out that many employees can and have adjusted to such changes. The tendency to portray HRM as reactive and not proactive to strategy was not acceptable. Hendry and Pettigrew (1990) contend that the idea of 'tight fit' is an overly rationalistic concept of strategy formulation. The theory does not take into account the existing reciprocal relationship between HR strategy and business strategy (Bulter, 1988; Lengenick-Hall & Lengenick-Hall, 1988). Brewster and Hegewisch (1994) also argue that the theory underestimates HRM's contribution to corporate strategy. However, there is doubt as to whether HRM has really been incorporated into strategic processes. Earlier evidence suggested that HR and employee relations issues are often disregarded in the corporate strategy literature unless they are directly affected by the strategic decision (see for example, Poole & Mansfield, 1992; Purcell & Ahlstrand, 1989). Lawler and Ledford (1992) have argued that strategic HRM is impractical and out of reach of most organisations. It is not an easy approach to adopt with its long list of HR practices accompanied by needs of strategy. It is a problem integrating a full range of HRM policies into the choices of the strategic goal (Guest, 1990).

Further, criticism levelled against the matching model is how to identify and measure 'fit' or fit to what (Guest, 1991). Sparrow and Hiltrop (1994) note that the four constituent elements of the matching model of selection, appraisal, rewards and development are too narrow and tend to undermine some other important areas that in countries outside the US that still play a role, such as work systems and union-management relationships. Furthermore, the strategy contingent perspective is too unitarist (Boxall, 1990) and highly culture-bound as it does not give attention to other contextual factors that influence the organisation (Sparrow & Hiltrop, 1994).

The second perspective of HRM is the 'soft' approach developed at the Harvard Business School, whose theoretical stand stresses the significance of employee influence and commitment. The model appreciates the great value of people in organisational success, stimulated by growing awareness that scarce skills need special handling, especially in otherwise contracting organisations operating under intense competitive conditions. The model was introduced to cover the HRM syllabus for the MBA programme at the Harvard Business School (Guest, 1991). Later textbooks were written and case studies developed with selected readings to guide the future development of the concept. The model's central idea is that general management develops a win-win situation to improve relations between all the stakeholders of the organisation. It focuses on four policy areas of the HR function, namely, *employee influence, human resource flow, reward systems and work systems*. These four policy areas are intended to achieve particular short-term objectives, namely, *commitment, competence, congruence, and cost effectiveness* and in the long-term, they contribute to *organisational effectiveness and well being of individual employees and society*. Therefore, the model tends to recognise the need for 'fit' between the organisation and its environments both internal and external.

The Harvard model too has been criticised. First, the approach is seen as rhetoric idealism. Keenoy (1990) has indicated that the model's problem of keeping the balance of mutual influences and expectations between interested parties (employers and employees) is not possible in real practice. Second, HRM normative models stress internal consistency which is difficult to operate at different levels of commitment (Legge, 1989), like family, career, job, team, union, and organisation (Guest, 1987). Again, there are issues with the ability of the employee to adapt to an appropriate corporate culture (Legge, 1989; Keenoy, 1990). Keenoy (1990) further observes that conflicts arising from dual responsibilities of the executive like HR specialists, line and the board do not auger well with the propositions of the model. Another criticism levelled against the normative models is the reference to a unitary frame of reference. The model's recognition of interest groups fails to address likely conflict of pluralistic implications of unequal power-relations of people management and undermines the influence of union and sociocultural factors on human behaviour (Storey, 1989; Keenoy, 1990). Legge (1989) contends that the model triggers employees' calculative



orientation, on the basis of their bargaining power influenced by internal or external labour market.

The above concepts played a major role in the development of HRM. Their contributions have seen a steep rise in interest in this field of management. Over a short span, the topic of HRM has become the most documented in managerial literature (Boxall, 1993; Brewster, 1995). The number of scientific articles and textbooks on the subject being published has rapidly increased. In the 1990s alone two main journals, the International Journal of Human Resource Management (IJHRM) and Human Resource Management Journal (HRMJ) were founded to spearhead discussions in response to the increase in interest and importance of the subject. Business Schools around the world have introduced a HRM course to teach the new concept. Since then researchers have argued for the implications of, and the impact of, contextual variables on HRM in future research. This came about because as we have seen, early studies main focus on a single firm in isolation from its environment was misleading. Adler & Boyacigiller (1995) argue that decontextualisation of the discipline has been dysfunctional for the development of the field. Adler et al contend that it is traditional HRM's lack of context that has rendered it conceptually incapable of addressing international issues in general, and situations in developing countries in particular. They give the main reasons for this state of affairs as follows:

“The first characteristic promoting traditional HRM's decontextualization, and thus inhibiting its internationalization, has been the unit of analysis. HRM had traditionally focused on individual and group level phenomena...By focusing on behaviour within the organisations, traditional HRM has implicitly ignored the external environment -the context- in which the organisational phenomena it studies are embedded. The second characteristic tending to decontextualize traditional HRM has been its over-reliance on a natural science approach to inquiry.... Thus has developed primarily acontextual paradigms and models. The natural science 'presents scientific knowledge and truth as though they were transcendent and hence independent of any particular society of historical period' (Sampson, 1978, p.1332). The third characteristic exacerbating the decontextualization of traditional HRM has been its domination by American scholars and research. The United States, explicitly recognised by anthropologist Edward T. Hall (1981) as a low context culture, has habitually under emphasised contextual factors.... To some extent the stability of the United States' external environment rendered it strongly invisible” (Adler & Boyacigiller, 1995, p.3-4).



This implicitly assumed absence of contextual relevance in traditional HRM encouraged researchers to investigate HRM via prescriptive or analytical routes. For example, Guest (1987) treats HRM as a specific strategy in managing the employment relationships. Guest argues that it is not proper to include all the contextual variables in HRM models but develop a theory of HRM from the literature under specific dimensions. On the other hand, those who investigate HRM analytically used the Harvard model to identify contextual variables thought to influence HRM functions. Some chose to consider the general external environment factors like sociocultural, economic, political-legal and technological factors (for example, Brewster & Larsen, 1992; Hendry & Pettigrew, 1990; Moore & Jennings, 1995; Schuler et al., 1993; Sparrow & Hiltrop, 1994; Welch, 1994). Others studied specific aspects of internal environment, such as culture, structure, technology, size and differential power relations (for example, Milkovich & Boudreau, 1991; Sparrow & Pettigrew, 1987).

Globalisation and internationalisation of business, the growth of new markets and economic trading blocs has prompted interest in the field of international HRM (IHRM) and comparative HRM (CHRM) (Boxall, 1995). The former focuses on worldwide management of people in the multinational corporation whereas, the later focuses on the nature of people management and differences or similarities in different cultural and national circumstances. International HRM scholars have also recognised the global interdependence of world economies and developed frameworks to guide research. Among the researchers in international HRM who have modified their earlier frameworks or developed new ones in response to increase in interest in this area are Schuler, (1992); Dowling and Schuler, (1990); Schuler et al., (1993); De Cieri and Dowling, (1997). Many of these scholars have concentrated effort in strategic international human resource management (SIHRM). This focus is influenced by the need to address factors that are internal and external to the organisation.

There are similarities and differences in management techniques and strategies in different countries due to cultural and national circumstances. Poole (1986) suggested that it is important to understand the differences in managing HRM issues in different countries, which can enable other countries to learn some lessons from successful countries. In the first editorial introduction of IJHRM, Poole (1990) indicated that the Harvard model would be suitable as an intergrating approach that can be provide a

foundation for international or comparative analysis of HRM. Researchers in Europe were not comfortable with uncritical transfer of US based HRM models, as they reflected that country's values. For example, there were recommendations to examine such models in a UK context (e.g., Guest, 1990; Brewster & Bournois, 1991; Sparrow & Hiltrop, 1994; Sparrow & Hiltrop, 1997). Researchers in the area of CHRM believe that people are at the core of organisations and their behaviour is influenced by cultures specific to a particular country (Hofstede, 1980; Laurent, 1986; Tayeb, 1987, 1995; Sparrow & Wu, 1998). They argue that managers need to know how employee relations are managed in different parts of the world and what factors and variables determine HRM policies and practices in specific settings. Therefore, researchers in the field have a duty to examine and report the different forms the concept takes in different countries in terms of policies and practices.

### **2.3 LESSONS FOR THE PRESENT RESEARCH**

The introductory chapter indicated that in spite of the increase in comparative HRM, the majority of the studies concentration has been on differences across countries within the European Union or between developed countries and newly commercialising regions such as China. The circumstances confronting developing countries, especially Sub-Saharan Africa, have generally been ignored. One of the reasons for this state of affairs is that most of the experts in the field of comparative HRM and other organisational sciences are from developed nations. For example, Lawrence (1987) observes that, out of the 30 cited key contributions in the development of organisational science, only 5 were by non-Americans and all five of the non-US researchers were European. Second, research in developing countries is seen as costly and priority is given to immediate issues. It is common to read about or hear scholars in these regions blaming a lack of research on insufficient funds or lack of support from financing institutions. This has been compounded by requirements from donor countries for Governments in developing countries to cut support to public institutions (Republic of Kenya, Ministry of Finance, 1992). Third, many third world countries in the African region are preoccupied with survival of their people. Hence, implementing complex human resource management models is not an obvious issue. Fourth, a proper industrial structure, professional network and institutional environment within which HRM can be practised is largely non-existent. Perhaps this is why even the few studies that are done in developing



countries are focused to the Asia-Pacific countries (Fisher & Yuan, 1998; Sinha & Tripathi, 1994; Sparrow & Wu, 1998), which have been acclaimed to be examples of power houses of global economic growth, or in deregulating economies such as India (Budhwar & Sparrow, 1997; Sparrow & Budhwar, 1996), largely neglecting Sub-Saharan Africa (Kanungo & Wright 1983; Jaeger 1986; Mendonca & Kanungo, 1990).

Pieper (1990) commenting on why Third world countries were excluded from a major conference held to discuss issues on comparative HRM points out that 'Third World countries have been left out of this comparison because they face very specific problems that cannot be compared to those of the industrialised nations. Their major problem is not gaining a competitive edge in international economic competition through the sophisticated application of HRM concepts, but simple survival' (p. 5). It has become a widely held premise that people provide organisations with an important source of competitive advantage especially when well managed (Pfeffer, 1994; Poole & Jenkins, 1996; Wright, McMahan, & McWilliam, 1994). Organisational performance is seen to depend more on effective utilisation of human capital rather than physical capital (e.g., Reich, 1991). This is because technological and other material resources in spite of being critical are also generated by the industrious and creative efforts of people, and it is their ingenuity that also ensures that these resources are effectively deployed. For example, Pieper (1990: 4) also argues that 'since HRM is seen as a strategic factor strongly influencing the economic success of a single company, one can argue that it is also a strategic factor for the success of an entire nation'. This argument that there is a direct association between strategic HRM and economic success has been made by many researchers and authors (e.g., Porter, 1985; Schuler & Jackson, 1987). Schuler and Macmillan (1984: 242) also make a similar argument that, 'effectively managing human resources gives benefits which include greater productivity'. Clearly, if these arguments are true, then, developing countries of Africa need to invest in their human resources for the success of their organisations and consequently, their economies.

To develop the area of comparative HRM, it is necessary to also understand HRM in an African context. This is important not only in theory, but also practically because multinational companies (MNCs) have not spared Sub-Saharan Africa in the search for markets and investment. The review above indicates that early models have decontextualised the field of HRM, although we are made to understand that the process



of HRM functions is highly contingent upon factors and variables both internal and external to the organisation. Also, we understand that international companies must be sensitive to local characteristics in their practice of HRM (Hendry, 1991). Therefore, for CHRM researchers to avoid misinterpreting the situation, they must be clear on both the specific HR issues within a country as well as the overall HRM practices pursued by local managers. HRM policies and practices in any country are influenced by contextual factors such as, institutional environment, business systems, economic conditions and national culture (e.g., Hofstede, 1993; Sparrow & Hiltrop, 1994). This calls for researchers to contribute to HRM theory from other areas, more so from developing countries of Sub-Saharan Africa. This study hopes to make such contribution based on empirical data from Kenyan manufacturing organisations.

The research builds upon the work of Schuler and Jackson (1987) and the understanding from other researchers (e.g., Sparrow & Hiltrop, 1994) that contextual factors are very important and they influence HRM policy and practice. The Harvard model does recognise congruence as one of the desirable outcomes that human resource policy and practice need to achieve. I will test the congruence issue by investigating whether 'fit' exists between organisational policy with employee preferences and its relationship to levels of job involvement in a developing country. It is clear that even researchers in Europe questioned the relevance of US based models and recommended frameworks that reflect circumstances in Europe. Forster and Whipp (1995) argued for the adoption of contingent approaches that can highlight cultural, sectoral and regional differences in European organisations. One is left to wonder on the relevance of Anglo-Saxon HRM models to developing economies in Africa, having been questioned even in other developed countries.

Major differences between the developing and developed countries are contextual. Kanungo and Jeagar (1990) have summarised the economic, political, sociocultural and internal work cultures between developing and developed countries (see Table 2.0). This categorisation has been made bearing in mind that environments around the world differ even within developed countries and within developing countries.

The economic-technological and political-legal environments of developing nations are characterised as unpredictable and there is difficulty in obtaining resources (Kanungo &

Jaeger, 1990; Austin, 1990). Very unpredictable environments are very hard to manage and policies and practices have to be devised that can deal with such unpredictability. The political-legal environment in many developing countries of Africa is perceived to be relatively unstable. None of the Sub-Saharan countries has been spared from some form of internal or external political turmoil. Countries in Africa are seen as moving from one crisis into another. Kanungo and Jaeger note that very often developing countries possess characteristics of 'loose' societies without properly developed norms where lawless corrupt practices are more of a rule than an exception. In most African countries, one finds growing levels of poverty, characterised by mass unemployment, lawlessness, high levels of rural-urban migration and high populations. Also, in some, social and moral structures that once welded people together have collapsed and a deep sense of helplessness occasioned by individualism has become the order of the day.

Table 2.0

## Dimensions on which Organisations in Developed and Developing Countries Differ

<i>Dimensions</i>	<i>Developed countries</i>	<i>Developing countries</i>
<i>A Characterisation of economic and political environment</i>		
Predictability of events	Relatively high	Relatively low
Difficulty of obtaining resources from environment	Relatively easy	Relatively difficult
<i>B Characterisation of socio-cultural environment</i>		
Uncertainty avoidance	Relatively low	Relatively high
Individualism-collectivism	Relatively high individualism	Relatively low individualism
Power distance	Relatively low	Relatively high
Masculinity-femininity	Relatively high masculinity	Relatively low masculinity
Abstractive-associative	Relatively high abstractive/low associative thinking	Relatively low abstractive/high associative thinking
<i>C Characterisation of internal work culture (management values and climate of beliefs and assumptions)</i>		
<i>Descriptive assumptions about human nature</i>		
Causality and control of outcomes	Internal	External
Creative potential	Unlimited	Limited
Malleability	Malleable	Fixed
Time perspective	Future oriented	Past & present oriented
Time units for action	Long term	Short term
<i>Prescriptive assumptions about guiding principles of behaviour within organisations</i>		
Task orientation	Proactive	Passive/reactive
Success orientation	Pragmatism	Moralism
People orientation	Collegial/participative	Authoritarian/partenaristic
Environment orientation	Context independent	Context dependent

Adapted from Kanungo and Jaeger, (1990), p.8

Note: *Uncertainty avoidance* means the way societies socialise members into accepting the uncertain future and taking each day as it comes;

*Individualism-collectivism* involves the individual and his or her relationship to other individuals: ties are loose for individualistic people while they are tight for collectivists;

*Power distance* refer to how a society deals with the fact that its members are unequal;

*Masculinity-femininity* is based on the way gender roles are divided how distinguishable they are (for detailed explanation see chapter three's section on cultural value orientations).

The sociocultural environment also differs between developed and developing nations. Kanungo and Jaeger (1990) used cultural dimensions developed by Hofstede (1980), dimensions from Glenn and Glenn (1981) and those suggested by Kedia and Bhagat (1988) to distinguish cultures of developing and developed countries' people.

Work culture within organisations is seen to be influenced by people's specific environments. The environment shapes peoples' assumptions, beliefs and values that



then guide their modal pattern of behaviour in organisations. Kanungo and Jaeger (1990) point out that work cultures of organisations differ between developing and developed countries with respect to assumptions regarding the nature of causation and control over outcomes (pleasant and unpleasant) which one experiences in life. For example, people in developing countries might believe that some super natural force controls outcomes in their lives while those from developed countries believe that they are in control of their actions and outcomes in their lives. They also argue that human potential of people in developing country organisations is fixed hence no need for training opportunities. On the other hand capabilities of developing country people are viewed to be unlimited hence the tendency to invest in more training opportunities. The unpredictable nature of environments in developing countries have created a perspective that excludes future orientation and long-term planning (Triandis, 1984). Kanungo and Jaeger (1990) argue that the unpredictable environment has encouraged individuals to be passive with regard to tasks. The culture of collectivism and feminism have encouraged people to focus on the group for moral guidance and an individual's success is judged by whether or not he uses his or her wealth to help the group. Again, the characterisation of people in developing countries' organisations as authoritarian and paternalistic is indicative of high power distance. Finally, the behaviour orientation in developing country organisations indicates that people here are more context dependent. Kanungo and Jaeger observe that this is more in tune with associative thinking.

How do such environments impact on HRM policy and practice in developing countries? Pieper (1990) argues that even in industrialised nations of the West, there is no single universal model of HRM given the differences between these countries. Pieper makes mention of specific cultures, economic and legal environments, stressing that the degree of *state interference* is a major factor.

There are several questions that arise from the above analyses on the impact of environmental factors on HRM. For example, what emerges from the discussion is that HRM should include a management philosophy and the integration of personnel management into strategic management: Is it possible for organisations in volatile developing country environments to afford the luxury of such elements of HRM in their people management approaches? To what extent have factors like political interference and survival concerns of developing countries influenced the kind of HRM approaches

applied in organisations? Which form of personnel strategy do firms here adopt in their HRM approaches? Is it the one that results from corporate strategy or the one where personnel are adapted to strategy or an integrative development strategy and personnel? The first type is where structure follows strategy; meaning personnel are adapted to strategy (Chandler, 1962). The second is where a strategy is developed and personnel are procured to implement the strategy. The third, is where initial strategic plans are adapted to fit existing strategy, meaning every investment is analysed early in time to see its impact on all aspects of the firm including personnel. Taking into account traditions and culture of the people some writers have suggested approaches that they think can be effective in developing countries for example, the community concept (Onyemelukwe, 1973) for business in Africa; the nurturant task leader (Sinha, 1980) for Indian managers.

In this study then, I assert that the conditions are diverse and unique to every developing nation hence, suggesting a universal model of HRM is not practical especially at the micro level. It is possible that even organisations within particular developing countries face unique managerial problems. This state of affairs calls for contributions from specific countries to help us know their distinct patterns of HRM in a bid to contribute to CHRM theory. Beer et al recognises that HRM policy and practices across countries offer useful alternatives. They point out that, 'looking at what managers in other countries do can also suggest alternative models for integrating people and organisations', (Beer et al., 1984: 35).

Among these factors that have been studied and understood to be important contextual influences from the environment, culture has generated more interest in the field of comparative HRM because of the belief that culture is significant for behaviours. Therefore, it has become necessary to see culture as an important factor in comparative research. This has put culture at the centre of the debate as a major variable influencing HRM ( Pieper, 1990; Dowling & Schuler, 1990; Grønhaug & Nordhaug, 1992; Dowling & De Cieri, 1993; Brewster & Hegewisch, 1994). Researchers believe that important aspects of cross-cultural understanding exist outside organisational structure. This is well expressed by Axelsson et al., (1991):

“Human preferences and decisions which are shaped by the values within society are refracted through the individual personalities. Therefore, the

organisation and the behaviour of those associated with it must reflect the characteristics of the surrounding culture. There may be structural regularities across national cultures, but they are relatively unimportant in the face of the substantial differences in ways that individuals interact and in the views they hold of the organisation's place in its environment" (p. 68).

Several studies have reported culture's influence on national patterns of HRM (for example, Kirkbride, Tang, & Chaw, 1989; Yeh, 1991; Tayeb, 1991; Storey, 1992; Strauss, 1992; Sparrow & Hiltrop, 1994). How important is culture *per se* as a predictor of HRM policy and practice preferences in developing countries of Sub-Saharan Africa? Therefore, the first task of this study is to examine cultural value orientations of Kenyan employees as a starting point in understanding contextual factors' impact on HRM preference patterns in Kenya.

## 2.4 SUMMARY AND CONCLUSION

The review has demonstrated the strong interest HRM as a concept has generated both in theory and in practice. During the early years of HRM theory formulation, the approaches that were popular then (utilitarian-instrumentalism) are to some extent inadequate in providing enough insight into the concept. The other approaches (developmental-humanism) have been widely used in theory development by building and testing models but still they have been criticised as naive and idealistic.

In the present research I am not building a new model, but trying to contribute to comparative HRM by providing the case of an African developing economy. Researchers have recommended that HRM be context based especially when applied in developing countries (Jaeger, 1990). Of the contextual factors, cultural value orientations' influence on employee preferences for HRM policies and practice will be investigated (see Chapter Three for detail). To do so, the five areas of HRM policy and practice choices (planning, staffing, appraisal, compensating, and training and development) as conceptualised by Schuler and Jackson (1987) are utilised (see Table 2.1).



Table 2.1  
Human Resources Management Practices Menu

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<i>Planning Choices</i>	
Informal.....	Formal
Loose.....	Tight
Short-term.....	Long-term
Explicit analysis.....	Implicit analysis
Narrow jobs.....	Broad jobs
Segmental design.....	Integrative Design
Low employee involvement.....	High employee involvement
<i>Staffing Choices</i>	
Internal sourcing.....	External sourcing
Narrow paths.....	Broad paths
Single ladder.....	Multiple ladders
Explicit criteria .....	Implicit criteria
Limited socialisation.....	Extensive socialisation
Closed procedures .....	Open procedures
<i>Appraising Choices</i>	
Loose, incomplete integration.....	Tight, complete integration
Behavioural criteria.....	Results criteria
Low employee participation.....	High employee participation
Short-term criteria.....	Long-term criteria
Individual criteria.....	Group criteria
<i>Compensating Choices</i>	
Low base salaries.....	High base salaries
Internal equity.....	External equity
Few perks.....	Many perks
Standard, fixed package.....	Flexible package
Low participation.....	High participation
No incentives.....	Many incentives
Short-term incentive.....	Long-term incentive
No employment security.....	High employment security
Hierarchical.....	Egalitarian
<i>Training and Development</i>	
Short-term.....	Long-term
Narrow application.....	Broad application
Spontaneous, unplanned.....	Planned, systematic
Individual orientation.....	Group orientation
Low participation.....	High participation
Extensive organisational Structure.....	Minimal organisation

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Adapted from Schuler and Jackson (1987).

It is apparent that later studies have tried to improve on earlier ones and Schuler's work does reflect the developmental school of HRM, which has inspired further research. International HRM has shown the importance of contextual variables in understanding HRM. It is also evident that most studies in this area focus on specific areas of HRM due to the complexity of addressing comprehensive interactions of actual organisational

phenomena, which can only be possible by the use of longitudinal, socio-cultural and historical approaches.

In general, the debate, which has existed for sometime whether HRM is anything different from conventional personnel management, is as good as over in spite of spots of disagreement. It is also clear that HRM is an important concept both in theory and practice not only for developed economies but for all economies as a company's human resource can improve its productivity which broadly speaking can improve the productivity of a nation (Pieper, 1990). In the expansion of the debate to international and comparative HRM, culture has become a significant factor for many researchers (Dowling & Schuler, 1990), in spite of the fact that there are disagreements on its exact influence on HRM policies and practices.

In the next chapter I present the theoretical framework of this research. Available literature in the three key components of the study (Cultural Value Orientations, Human Resource Management, and Job Involvement) is examined and possible assumptions and research questions for investigation suggested. Further, the role of two forms of fit: between organisational HRM policy and employee preferences and between individual cultural values and those of others in the organisation are examined and suggestions for possible influence are presented for examination in the study.

## **CHAPTER THREE**

### **THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK OF THE RESEARCH**

#### **3.0 INTRODUCTION**

This chapter aims to review literature related to culture and to identify ways in which cultural value orientations have been used to explain issues in international and comparative management. Cultural value orientations adopted for this research are presented with potential implications for HRM policy practice and levels of job involvement. Further, literature related to Person-Environment is presented in relation to the impact of 'fit' or congruence on job involvement between employee preferences for HRM practice and actual organisational HRM policy.

#### **3.1 CULTURE AS AN EXPLANATORY VARIABLE**

From the analyses in the first two chapters, it is apparent that comparative HRM models present culture as an important variable. Researchers have used culture as a 'background information factor' to explain the patterns of management practices across countries (e.g., Pieper, 1990; Brewster & Hegewisch, 1994; Kirkbride, 1994). Other researchers have used cultural values as a 'cultural map' to enable comparison of value patterns (Chinese Culture Connection, 1987; Hall & Hall, 1990; Maznevski & DiStefano, 1995; Schwartz, 1994); work related values across cultures (e.g., Chew & Putti, 1995; Haire, Ghiselli & Porter, 1966; Kanungo & Wright, 1983; Schwartz, 1992, 1994); or the implications of cultural differences (e.g., Hofstede, 1980; Kim et. al., 1994). Recently, other researchers have examined the impact of cultural values on economic development of nations (e.g., Easterby-Smith et al., 1995; Sparrow & Hiltrop, 1997; Tayeb, 1995).

Culture is seen as a factor behind the success or failure of international management techniques in different countries especially at the level of human behaviour (see for example, Trompenaars, 1993; Fatehi, 1996; Lane, DiStefano, & Maznevski, 1997). As one author of anthropology rightly pointed out years ago, 'the concept of culture is one of the principal instruments for the study of human behaviour. Its far-reaching significance has only begun to be grasped, but what we already know of its potentialities



make it certain that it will stand as one of the great scientific contributions of our time' (Herskovits, 1955: 35). Clearly, the effects of culture are at the heart of the international and comparative HRM literature. This points to why it is important for international practitioners to understand differences amongst cultures. First, multinationals need to consider the integration or co-ordination of heterogeneous work forces. Second, they need to consider which HR technique is transferable and adaptable worldwide. Third, culture is important for organisations attempting to transfer or adopt foreign HR techniques into a local context. As seen from studies already conducted, the importance of culture is not new, but empirical work, more especially from Sub-Saharan Africa countries, is still scarce.

I argue that culture should not just be viewed as a residual explanatory variable, but instead should be analysed to see how it exerts a significant influence on management and employee behaviour in organisations. A few conceptual models have tried to define the linkage between cultural value orientations and HRM. Sparrow and Wu (1998) attempted to examine the linkage between national culture, HRM preferences and commitment and job satisfaction in Taiwan. Erez and Earley's (1993) model identified important issues to be addressed when linking culture, managerial practices and work behaviour. These authors of cultural self-representation theory indicated that the self is an important unit of analysis serving as the 'interpreter' between culture and the individual's work behaviour. The first part of this study examines the influence of cultural value orientations on employee preferences for HRM policies and practices. Underlying patterns of African culture value orientations are examined, as well as the extent to which they explain employee work preferences at the individual level. An attempt is made to find out which socio-cultural values influence work-related preferences in Kenya.

Conducting this sort of research is important. Cross-cultural researchers have tended to concentrate effort in comparing cultures of different countries, especially by examining managerial values (Blunt, 1986; Hofstede, 1995; Manso-Pinto, et al., 1993). Researchers agree that national cultures play an important role in the face of corporate cultures as workers maintain specific ways of doing things even within the same MNC (Adler, 1983; Laurent, 1983; Schneider, 1989). However, these values are often aggregated at a national or societal level. How do such values operate at the individual

level? Smith (1992) argues that there is a linkage between cultural values and several organisational behaviours such as norms of acceptable behaviour, types of conflict and preferred leadership styles. Recently, Ferris, Hochwarter, Buckley, Harrell-Cook, and Frink (1999: 391) in their paper providing some directions for HRM researchers, recognised that one area that remains relatively uninvestigated is whether environmental and contextual factors constrain the availability or suitability of HRM system content, and how the effects of these constraints play out at the individual and organisational level. In this study analyses at the individual level are undertaken to enable a better understanding of cultural values' role in predicting HRM preferences.

One difficulty faced by researchers is the charge that most current scales of cultural values do not give a comprehensive coverage of all facets of national culture. Psychometric approaches to the measurement of cultural values have been accused of using scales that do not reveal relevant cultural value dimensions (e.g. Cray & Mallory, 1998; Smith, Dugan, & Trompenaars, 1996; Sparrow & Wu, 1998). This accusation is largely levelled because the scales tap only work contexts. The most widely used scales are those developed by Hofstede (1980). One major problem with Hofstede's approach is methodological. The use of aggregated national data can be misleading because it is possible that within any grouping as large as a society there will be considerable variance in the degree to which individuals adhere to any set of values. He aggregated work preferences across several psychological variables. Though widely used, the scales have been heavily criticised in terms of the validity and usefulness of the four dimensions at the individual level of analysis (Dorfman & Howell 1988; Goodstein, 1981; Hunt, 1981; Robinson, 1983; Sondergaard, 1994). Detailed analyses on Hofstede's dimensions and the criticisms levelled against them are presented in later sections of this chapter.

The present study is an attempt to overcome such shortcomings by employing cultural value items that tap a wider domain of life. These are based on the conceptualisation of value orientations by Kluckhohn and Strodtbeck (1961), subsequently operationalised by Maznevski, et al., (1993, 1995). The items are used to examine underlying value orientations of a sample of Kenyan employees. These value orientations are defined as *assumptions or sets of principles used to evaluate beliefs, feelings and intentions*. The study differentiates between such elements, and other elements of an individual's



psychological structure. Distinguishing values from other work-related attitudes and psychological outcomes is fundamentally important in understanding the constraints to international management. Tapping into the influence of cultural values on HRM policy practice can carry out a more meaningful examination of psychological work-related preferences. The value orientation items of Maznevski and colleagues are taken to be the most comprehensive and valid framework for representing national culture dimensions for this African sample because of their basis in the anthropological literature. They have also been used in a study of Taiwanese workers, in which significant predictive relationships were found between cultural value orientations and HRM policy and practice preferences (Sparrow & Wu, 1998).

The first part of the study presents an analysis of cultural values and examines the linkage between these values and employees' preferences for particular HRM policies and practices. The existing literature under the label of 'work related preferences' has attempted to glean relevant messages for the field of international HRM from the study of national differences in the socio-cultural characteristics of individual employees (McGaughey, Iverson & de Cieri, 1997). However, the frequent use of convenience samples such as students, captive groups of managers on education courses selected by MNCs, or employees from single organisations within a country (e.g., McGaughey, 1994) raises questions over the validity of the resulting description of these work related preferences. This study is an attempt to overcome such shortcomings by taking a more representative sample of multinational companies and other firms with a wider, more representative sampling frame. In addition, studies have concentrated on the *structure* of items within global work-related preference measures across national samples (e.g., Manso-Pinto, Gonzalez & Gonzalez, 1993). This has helped generate more consistent measures, but still leaves some important questions unanswered. What brings about these preferences? Which among the preferences are more salient? To what extent do these preferences impact on employee behaviour? Understanding the extent to which cultural values influence employee preferences is a step towards helping international managers adjust HRM policies to fit employee expectations.



### 3.1.1 Conceptualisations of Culture

There is agreement that values are very important for culture despite, (Schwartz, 1992) numerous conceptualisations on the construct in the literature. Kroeber and Kluckhohn (1963) reviewed more than 160 definitions of culture and offered a more comprehensive definition, which is generally accepted (Adler, 1997). Kluckhohn (1951) defined culture as follows:

‘Culture consists of patterns ways of thinking, feeling, reacting acquired and transmitted mainly by symbols, constituting the distinctive achievement of human groups, including their embodiments in artefacts; the essential core of culture consists of traditional (i.e., historically derived and selected) ideas and especially their attached values’ (p. 86).

According to Williams (1970), cultural values represent the implicitly or explicitly shared abstract ideas about what is good, right, and desirable in society. Cultural values are the bases for the specific norms that tell people what is appropriate in various situations (Schwartz, 1999). Societal functioning expresses cultural values. Adler (1997) concludes that culture includes three main features: (a) something that is shared by all or almost all members of some social group; (b) something that the older members of a group try to pass on to the younger members; and (c) something (as in the case of morals, laws and customs) that shapes behaviour or structures one’s perception of the world. I shall adopt the meaning of *culture* as represented by researchers (Kluckhohn & Strodtbeck, 1961; Maznevski & DiStefano, 1995; Maznevski & Peterson, 1997) meaning ‘*a set of assumptions and deep-level values concerning relationships among humans, between humans and their environment, shared by an identifiable group of people*’. Schwartz (1999) defines values as ‘conceptions of the desirable that guide the way social actors (e.g. organisational leaders, policy-makers, individual persons) select actions, evaluate people and events, and explain their actions and evaluations’ p.24. These deep-level values persist because they are embedded in one’s childhood and manifested throughout daily life by an interrelated social network.

Other researchers too understand culture as being formulated by humans in their environment (for example, Herskovit, 1955). Hofstede (1980) defined culture as a set of mental programmes that control one’s response in a given context. More recently, Erez and Earley (1993) summarised culture as the set of characteristics common to a

particular group of people, arguing that culture consists of both objective, quantitative attributes (e.g., symbols, artefacts produced by humans) and subjective, qualitative ones (e.g., categories of social stimuli, associations, beliefs, attitudes, norms and values, and roles) that individuals share.

### 3.1.2 Classifications of Cultural Differences

In the past few years efforts have been exerted in the field of cross-cultural psychology to identify dimensions of cultural variations (e.g., Leung & Bond, 1989; Schwartz, 1994). Smith, Dugan and Trompenaars (1996: 232) assert that 'this is an important goal because it opens the way to more adequate operationalisation of the concept of culture. The identification of reliable dimensions of cultural variations should help create a nomological framework that is both capable of integrating diverse attitudinal and behavioural empirical phenomena and of providing a basis for hypothesis generation'. There is evidence of pioneering projects involved in this area. Most classifications of national culture illustrate cultural differences through values. One approach is to examine '*general human values*' indicative of different perspectives adopted by people in the way they relate to other interdependent systems, like their own life, members of a group, society, environment and the world. Eight classifications of the key categories of values are as follows:

1. Parsons and Shils (1951) proposed five categories of societies under a specific context to include: affective vs. affective neutrality; self-orientation vs. collectivity-orientation; universalism vs. particularism; ascription vs. achievement; specificity vs. diffuseness;
2. Kluckhohn and Strodtbeck (1961) asked respondents to rank a set of answers they preferred in a series of questions regarding problem solving processes in daily life and a five category value orientation emerged namely, human nature; man-nature; time; activity; and relational;
3. Rokeach (1973) found two hierarchical patterns of values, which consist 18 value statements in each checklist that, require participants to rank their preferences

against each other. The two sets are 'instrumental' (i.e. helpful, independent, etc.) and 'terminal' (i.e. a comfortable life, freedom, etc.);

4. The Chinese Culture Connection (1987) examined individual preferences among forty indigenous Chinese values and came up with four cultural perspectives namely, human heartedness, integration, moral discipline and Confucian dynamism;
5. Schwartz and Bilsky (1987) proposed three value domains of goals, interests and motivations representing ten value types at the individual level namely power, achievement, hedonism, simulation, self-direction, universalism, benevolence, tradition, conformity and security;
6. Schwartz (1992, 1994) came up with seven types of values at the cultural level; conservatism, hierarchy, mastery, affective autonomy, intellectual autonomy, egalitarian commitment and harmony;
7. Trompenaars (1993) presented three cultural orientations consisting of relationships among people through a set of daily life events. The orientations are presented as universalism vs. particularism, individualism vs. collectivism, neutral vs. emotional, specific vs. diffuse, and achievement vs. ascription;
8. Hall's (Hall, 1959, 1976; Hall & Hall, 1987, 1990) dimensions of culture include relational, language of agreements and time with sub-categories of past vs. future, monochronic vs. polychronic;
9. Triandis and colleagues (Triandis, 1972; Triandis, Botempo, Vilareal, Masaaki, & Lucca, 1988; Triandis, 1994) explored in detail the categories of individualism vs. collectivism.

Another classification of national culture has been concerned with '*specific work values*' across different countries classifying desired patterns across a range of work goals or attitudes toward peers, supervisors, jobs and organisations amongst employees. Four main systems have become well known in this stream of research:



1. preferred work goals were ranked differently across nations (Ronen & Shenkar, 1985; Harparz, 1990; Elizur, Borg, Hurt & Beck, 1991);
2. managerial values and attitudes in different aspects of job vary significantly from one culture to another (Haire, Ghiselli, & Porter, 1966; Kanungo & Wright, 1983);
3. various work behaviours can be linked to the extent of work values attributed to the centrality of work, to the societal norms in light of the rights and duties attached to work, and to individual's work goals England, (1995); and
4. a widely accepted cultural frame work developed by Hofstede's (1980) using a series of work goals and attitudes, identifies four dimensions of culture: power distance, uncertainty avoidance, individualism vs. collectivism, and masculinity vs. femininity.

These value classifications are well documented and are deemed to be universal and have some core themes in common. Some have been used to compare culture at the societal level, whilst others have been used to measure differences in individual value dimensions. As indicated earlier, I will measure and examine individual value orientations using measures based on the classification of Kluckhohn and Strodtbeck (1961), instead of the popularly used bipolar dichotomies. For example, the work of Hofstede (1980) has been widely used but its obvious influence on the field has in a number of ways limited the field of comparative research (Cray & Mallory, 1998). There is a lack of a dynamic element in Hofstede's basic conceptualisation of culture. He regards values as relatively unchanging. Culture has a dynamic manifestation of contradictory social and economic currents (Alvesson, 1993) that are more pronounced in developing countries. In the following sections, Kluckhohn and Strodtbeck's (1961) framework is briefly reviewed. Hofstede's (1980, 1985, 1991, 1993) studies are also evaluated in more detail eliciting some generic principles.

### **3.1.3 Variations in Value Orientations (Kluckhohn and Strodtbeck, 1961)**

After examining hundreds of ethnographic studies and other related work in the field of sociology, Kluckhohn and Strodtbeck (1961) identified five Value Orientations (VOs)

and tested their theory in four distinct cultures among five communities (Rimrock Navahos - Navaho Indians, Zunis - Pueblo Indians, Spanish Americans, Mormons - English speaking groups, and Texans - English speaking groups) in the Southwest of the United States. Significant within-culture regularities and differences between communities or regional culture were found across these value orientations. They then defined value orientations as:

“Complex but definitely patterned (rank-ordered) principles, resulting from the transactional interplay of three analytically distinguishable elements of the evaluative process - the cognitive, the affective, and the directive elements-which give order and direction to the ever-flowing stream of human acts and thoughts as these relate to the solution of ‘common human’ problems.” (Kluckhohn & Strodtbeck, 1961: 4).

These assumptions or sets of principles are used to evaluate beliefs, feelings and intentions. They argue that value orientations do guide behaviour because they give order and direction to human acts and there is a relation to solutions of common day to day problems. This is so because individuals express culture and its normative qualities through the values that they hold. The basic premise underlying the VOs perspective is that there are common themes in the problems that societies have faced throughout the ages. The issues with which societies can be compared to from value orientations are as follows:

1. Perception of human nature as good, a mixture of good and evil, or evil;
2. Societies can relate to nature by dominating it or living in harmony with it, while others become subjugated by it;
3. Relationships among people are perceived as individualistic, laterally extended groups, or hierarchical groups; and
4. Activity in daily living may concentrate on striving for goals and keeping busy (doing) or reflecting and living rationally (thinking) whereas, some may be living for the moment and exhibiting spontaneity (being).

Lane and DiStefano (1992) argue that these categories can be used to measure the cultural values of individuals in different groups or sub-groups. Maznevski and others

(Maznevski et al., 1994; Maznevski & DiStefano 1995) operationalised these value orientations which are used to measure cultural value orientations. Comparisons within or between countries are possible according to a definable rank ordered pattern across the value orientations. I now briefly present the VOs classification:

- ◆ Human nature: the sub-categories under this category are evil, good, good-and-evil;
- ◆ Man-nature: the sub-categories here are subjugation to nature, harmony with nature, and mastery over nature;
- ◆ Time: has three sub-categories namely past, present, and future;
- ◆ Activity: contains three sub-categories being, being-in becoming (thinking), and doing;
- ◆ Relational: also having three sub-categories linearity, collaterality, and individualism.

Human nature: “*People’s relationship to nature orientation*” reflects how people in a particular society ought to orient themselves to the world around them and to the supernatural. There are three variations of this category of human experience. The first is subjugation to nature, whereby people see themselves as dominated by forces beyond their control or being subject to a supreme being. Consequently, everything is seen as predetermined, or things happening by fate. The second variation is harmony with nature where people tend to maintain a balance with the physical environment. The third orientation is mastery over nature, whereby people strive to master the environment and rule over it. It is reflected in the belief that given enough resources, everything is possible.

Man nature: “*Basic nature of human beings*” reflects one’s belief about the inherent character of the human species. The belief that the fundamental nature of people is changeable or unchangeable and whether human nature is primarily good or evil. Those societies in which there is belief that human nature is changeable, for example, might tend to invest more money in adult training and development (Stewart, 1972).



**Time:** “*Time orientation*” classification refers to the processes of human decision making with regard to events in the past or traditions; events in the present, for example by emphasising the importance of enjoying and grasping the moment while ignoring the past and the future; and events in the future for example in societies that are optimistic about the changes or uncertainties in the future and usually dream of a better situation.

**Activity:** “*Human activity orientation*” refers to the desirable focus of activity. This category affects how people view work and leisure, how preoccupied they are with work and the extent to which work related concerns pervade their lives. The ‘being’ orientation is characterised by spontaneity, that is people’s actions are carried out based on feelings. The ‘doing’ orientation is where one relentlessly tries to achieve and accomplish something. People with a ‘thinking’ orientation think rationally and carefully without engaging in activities whose implications they have not considered.

**Relational:** “*Relationships among people orientation*” is concerned with the responsibility one has to and for others. One sub-category here is that of taking care of oneself called individualism (individual oriented) and the other is collectivism (group oriented). Individual oriented groups’ value individual welfare over the group’s welfare and use personal characteristics and achievements to define them. In contrast, group oriented societies see themselves as members of clans or tribes, and considers common goals and the group’s welfare to be most important. There is a further variation of this category called hierarchical. In this sub-category, society defines the proper relation to others in the group. Hierarchical cultures emphasise both vertical and horizontal differentiation in terms of structures, communication and influence patterns.

The underlying assumption in the above classification is that *there is an ordered variation in value orientation systems*. The other assumptions are: *First, there are a limited number of common human problems for which all people at all times must find some solution; second, while there is variability in solutions of all the problems, it is neither limitless nor random but this is definitely variable within a range of possible solutions; and more importantly, third, all alternatives of all solutions are present in all times but are differentially preferred* (Kluckhohn & Strodtbeck, 1961: 10). Kluckhohn and Strodtbeck’s value orientations used in this study are presented in Table 3.0 indicating specific features.

Table 3.0

## Cultural Value Orientations and Examples of Specific Features

<b>ISSUE</b>	<b>VARIATION 1</b>	<b>VARIATION 2</b>	<b>VARIATION 3</b>
<b>Relationship to nature</b> <i>Specific Features</i>	<b>Subjugation</b> Dominated by external forces, subject to a supreme being, everything predetermined	<b>Harmony</b> Maintaining balance with physical environment, peaceful, maintaining status quo	<b>Mastery</b> Controlling, believes everything is possible, values work and work outcomes
<b>Basic human nature</b> <i>Specific Features</i>	<b>Changeable</b> Limited or unlimited creative potential, malleable or fixed	<b>Good</b> Honest, trustworthy	<b>Evil</b> Corrupt, not to be trusted with anything
<b>Human activity</b> <i>Specific Features</i>	<b>Doing</b> Pragmatism, relentless to achieve/accomplish goals	<b>Thinking</b> Rational and careful	<b>Being</b> Spontaneity, feeling based actions
<b>Relationships among people</b> <i>Specific Features</i>	<b>Collectivist</b> Takes care of group, values group welfare, depends on group for moral standards	<b>Hierarchical</b> Emphasises vertical and horizontal structures and influence patterns, values status	<b>Individualistic</b> Takes care of self, values individual welfare, depends on oneself for moral guidance

Adapted from Kluckhohn and Strodtbeck (1961).

Kluckhohn and Strodtbeck argue that this classification is valid for several reasons. First, variations in a given society in a general context could be arranged according to people's specific rank orders in each of the five value orientations. This rank-ordered position could be more similar within a culture. For example, with regard to 'human activity', a society may prefer doing to (thinking) over being (meaning this community scores high in activity: doing, followed by activity: thinking and least in their score card is activity: being), while other communities may prefer a totally different rank order. Second, any desired solutions within a value are different from, and exclude, the desired solutions associated with different value orientations. For example, a society with a harmony orientation may be in favour of collateral solutions to an issue instead of individual or hierarchical solutions. Third, two cultures that possess the same rank ordered values in a particular orientation might not necessarily have similar patterns in other value orientations. For instance, the British and the Americans may prefer individualistic values, but it doesn't mean that they will also have similar patterns in doing values. Fourth, it is possible for societies who have indicated a mastery orientation (man-nature orientation) as their first order choice, to differ from each other in their choices between another sub-category under the same value orientation. Fifth, *the ordering relationships in some or all orientations may not be sustained or clear-cut*



*and should be viewed as a temporal focus in societies under change.* Lately, sociologists have started to view culture as a dynamic manifestation of contradictory social and economic currents (Alvesson, 1993). They argue that basic cultural values in a society interact with changing economic and political conditions to produce altered expectations with regard to attitudes and behaviour. Such events may even, in time, change the values themselves. Lastly, the ranked ordering principle within each value orientation is a three-tier classification rather than the polar-type categorisations generally used in sociological and anthropological cultural theory derived from traditional societies. It is important to recognise the invariable complexity within the value orientations and need to view them independently from each other because any combination of the different sub-categories may occur across different cultures. However, members of each cultural group share many value-relevant experiences and they are socialised to accept shared social values. In spite of individual variations within a grouping, the average priorities attributed to different values by societal members reflect the central thrust of their shared enculturation. Hence, average priorities point to the underlying, common cultural values (Schwartz, 1999, p.26).

#### **3.1.4 Hofstede's Four (now Five) Cultural Dimensions**

Hofstede's (1980) study is the one that defined the place of culture in management research. Hofstede's framework has had such an impact on the field of comparative research in management that few studies omit a reference to his work (Sondergaard, 1994). The approach has provoked praise and, of course, criticism. Hofstede's original study was conducted in over 40 countries. Data was generated from 116,000 questionnaires from IBM employees. It was easy for Hofstede to control most of the factors because the samples were all sales and service employees within one company.

Factor analysis of the data about practices and attitudes questions revealed four underlying dimensions of culture namely: 1) large or small Power Distance; 2) strong or weak Uncertainty Avoidance; 3) Individualism vs. Collectivism; and 4) Masculinity vs. Femininity. Hofstede (1983) described these dimensions as follows:

*Power Distance.* How a society deals with the fact that its people are unequal. People begin with unequal physical and intellectual abilities. However, in some societies, these



inequalities grow into power and wealth, often through heredity. Other societies attempt to assuage these differences. In organisations, this is related to the extent to which authority is expected to be centralised and leadership is autocratic.

*Uncertainty Avoidance.* Because the future is unknown, some societies socialise their members into accepting this uncertainty and taking each day as it comes. This is manifested in a tolerance of behaviours and opinions other than their own. People in these 'Weak Uncertainty Avoidance' societies feel relatively secure. Other societies are socialised into attacking the future. Their members are more anxious and aggressive. Societies with 'Strong Uncertainty Avoidance' try to create security through such means as technology, law, rules and institutions to insure predictability. Such societies tend toward dogma, including political ideology, religion and science. On an individual basis, uncertainty avoidance is said to imply aggressiveness and the quest for truth.

*Individualism versus Collectivism.* This involves the individual and his or her relationship to other individuals. At one end of the scale the ties between individuals are loose. At the other end, the ties can be tight. With close ties, individuals are expected to look after the interests of their group before themselves.

*Masculinity versus Femininity.* This dimension is based on the way gender roles are divided. Some societies minimise the distinctions between them, while others maximise the distinctions. In societies where gender roles do not overlap much, men take more assertive and dominant roles. These are labelled 'Masculine' societies and are optimised by such actions as performing, achieving, making money, 'showing off' and a belief that big is beautiful. Where the roles are blurred, dominant values include modesty, putting people before money, seeking quality in life, helping others and believing that small is beautiful.

Hofstede later added a fifth dimension related to *time* (Hofstede & Bond, 1988; Hofstede, 1991, 1993). The time dimension includes long-term versus short-term orientation. This dimension was added into the cultural map after a study was carried out on University students' value preferences across 22 cultures. The long-term side places high scores on values about the future whereas; the short-term side places high scores on values about the past and the present.

Hofstede's work has been a significant contribution to the study of organisations and has been used in various cultural studies (Sondergaard, 1994). However, his work has been widely criticised. Some of the criticisms have been indicated in chapter one and earlier in this chapter. Others criticisms are as follows. First, Dorfman and Howell (1988) documented some of the doubts expressed by researchers about the validity and utility of the four dimensions at the individual level of analysis. They indicate that analysis at the societal level does not reflect the same findings at the level of individual behaviour. Researchers have also criticised the domain of items that measure the individual dimensions, and the labelling of them. Robinson (1983) refers to the scale as a 'hodgepodge' of items few of which relate to the intended constructs" pp. 130. The fact that Hofstede concentrated his study on one multinational has also been questioned. Hunt (1981) wonders whether he was 'studying the culture of the Japanese or the French or the British or Malaysian executive or the culture of a multinational firm' pp. 62. Tayeb (1988) argues that it is not possible to discuss the impact of cultures on organisation structures if all the data originates from the same company. Cray and Mallory (1998) contend that 'in its orientation toward theory the dimensional approach has been static if not retrograde. The static nature of Hofstede's version stems not just from the basic concept of culture but from the set of research problems that this poses for researchers who embrace it' p. 142.

These reasons have implications for my research and justify why I am not employing these widely known dimensions. I will be revisiting these issues possible implications to my research in relevant sections as the thesis unfolds.

### **3.1.5 Similarities in Cultural Classifications**

Some similarities have been found between Kluckhohn and Strodtbeck's value orientations and Hofstede's cultural dimensions. Maznevski and DiStefano (1995) report similarities between Kluckhohn and Strodtbeck's 'activity' orientation and Hofstede's 'masculinity' pole, Bond's (1988) human heartedness dimension and Hall's (1976) monochronic versus polychronic perspectives. In a 'doing' or 'masculine' society, people are likely to view work and work related activities as core to their existence, they tend to emphasise personal accomplishment, achievement and a strong sense of admiration of such virtues. People in such societies will spend more time



earning money and doing related activities. On the other hand, 'being' or 'feminine' cultures act on feelings experienced and they like enjoying the present. These authors also link Kluckhohn and Strodtbeck's "relational category" to Hofstede's "authority distance" dimension and "individualism/collectivism" poles, and with Schwartz's (1994) conservatism and autonomy dimensions. In high authority distance societies, one finds preference for hierarchical solutions and collective relationships, where respect for authority is paramount. The opposite is the case with low authority distance societies, as they assume individualistic relationships and those in authority are seen as colleagues.

Several other similarities have been suggested for example, Schwartz (1994) uses both the Rokeach value survey (Hofstede & Bond, 1984) and the Chinese value survey (Chinese culture connection, 1987), then compares results with Hofstede's dimensions. Schwartz found that Hofstede's individualism and power distance constructs significantly correlate with his conservatism and autonomy values. Further, Maznevski and DiStefano (1995) indicated similarities between value classifications presented by researchers. There are similarities between Hofstede's uncertainty avoidance with Hall's (1976) low and high context dimensions, Schwartz's (1994) mastery orientation and Trompenaars's (1993) attitudes to the environment values.

Clearly, the above discussion indicates that researchers have been in pains to search and classify cultural values and the similarities apparent show that the theorists agree in some aspects of these values. The discussion further shows that some variations appear to converge in some areas and can be reflected and explained under Kluckhohn and Strodtbeck's (1961) trichotomous classification. This has also been demonstrated by some researchers (e.g., Maznevski & DiStefano, 1995). Investigating African culture in Kenya will certainly be well represented by these value orientations unlike other rigid dichotomies with bipolar scales that lack a dynamic element. Culture varies from group to group and from one period of time to another within any single group. From this follows a principle of fundamental scientific importance and, as regards the people of Africa, of equal practical significance: what has been learned can be modified through further learning; habits, customs, beliefs, social structures, and institutions can change (Bascom & Herskovits, 1959). Therefore, because culture changes and is dynamic, Kluckhohn and Strodtbeck's value orientations theory seems to enable the investigation



of the dynamism that African culture have shown since their contact with Europeans and Americans, rather than other static dichotomies. The earlier available anthropological literature observed that African culture is marked both with change and continuity (Bascom & Herskovits, 1959). Despite the fact that European contact affected African culture in some way, none gave way entirely. Elements from Europeans, Americans, and people from the Far East were modified and adapted to pre-established patterns of African culture, and there is no evidence to indicate that African elements will completely disappear from their way of life. This study will explore patterns of African culture in Kenya and to some extent enable an examination of the extent of change due to forces like education and the need for salaried jobs.

### **3.2 VALUE ORIENTATIONS IN THE CONTEXT OF KENYA**

The discussion so far indicates that researchers have been concerned about cultural value orientations for some time. However, they have excluded Sub-Saharan Africa especially in as far as these values influence their preferences and work-related attitudes. It is notable that the African person of those years when anthropologists were interested in the 'dark continent' has changed due to influences from the Western World, albeit not completely.

In summary, cultural value orientations of Kenyan employees will be examined to determine whether these values influence preferences for HRM policy and practice, and the extent to which they shape work attitudes, in this case job involvement. Therefore, the research questions to be answered concerning value orientations are:

Research Question 1: Which cultural value orientations are held by this Kenyan sample?

Will they be similar to those of traditional Kenyans or have they changed with time?

Research Question 2: Do these values vary across demographics like age, gender, education, ethnic group, length of service, and organisation affiliation?

These questions will be answered in later chapters. The next section provides a theoretical context that proposes the expected pattern of Kenyan culture, which can enable future examination of change and stability in African culture within Kenya. Kenyan culture is somewhat heterogeneous as the discussion of ethnic diversity in chapter one suggested, but similarities might occur due to similar backgrounds of the

people that inhabit modern Kenya. I will use Kluckhohn and Strodtbeck's taxonomy in discussing the influence on Kenya's people of earlier customs and traditions on value orientations as presented by historical and anthropological writings on Kenya and Africa in general (see for example, Bascom & Herskovits, 1959; Muriuki, 1978; Ochieng', 1979; Nzioki, 1982; Kipkorir, 1978). The value orientations used for this study are presented below as they appeared in old Africa and the apparent change that has been influenced by contact with other peoples and the present internationalisation of business and other aspects of Kenyan life.

### **3.2.1 Human Nature Orientation**

Old Africa lived in a world that was filled with both good and evil. Good was a manifestation of a powerful god, who is the supernatural being whereas evil was seen as originating from evil spirits that brought about sickness, drought and other misfortunes (Balandier, 1969). For a people reared in a spirit-filled world it would not seem to be too big a step from belief in hierarchies of power to belief in a power or a high god that is above all others. The spiritual forces, both good and evil, aboard in the world could be tapped by the veneration of ancestors. This was possible by giving of gifts to nature gods and the worship of a Supreme Being through the instrumentality of supernatural, occult agencies. On this basis, traditional Africa believed that even human beings can be evil or good and there were penalties of being evil like misfortunes befalling one and blessings by being good. Stories and legends were used to educate children about the benefits of being good and the results of being evil. Africans as a group-based society took the issues of discipline and educating children as a societal responsibility (Ochieng' 1979). This is because lack of discipline was seen as the route source of evil elements within society. The belief in hierarchies thought them to respect age and authority that were assigned the power to discipline children (Turaki, 1991a). Discipline was not the responsibility of the parents alone but by elders and those older than the child. This was meant to build good character in the child to be a useful member of the society. It was common for a bad person to be seen as one with an evil spirit which could be removed by libations and even sacrifices (e.g., Ciekawy, 1998). The environment was seen as a potential influence for one to become evil if not given proper moral education. Even for those who grew up with proper morals, the present materialistic environment has turned some to be evil, for example through corruption



because of the love for money and the perceived material benefits that money brings (Atemi, 1998; Ngunyi, 2000). This also reflects the changeability of human nature. It is possible for human nature to change from good to bad or from bad to good due to social and economic circumstances. So, from this discussion it is clear that in traditional Africa, basic human nature was viewed as good. However, one could be evil due to lack of discipline or by evil spirits (for example through witchcraft) turning a good person into an evil one (e.g., Fadiman & Galaty, 1999). For this value orientation (*human nature*), I expect Kenyans to report a higher precedence to the 'good' side and changeable too.

### 3.2.2 Relation to Nature Orientation

An African's attitude towards nature is guided by a complex system of beliefs about the universe. Traditionally, Kenyans' believed in a high god and creator who is the paternal guardian and disciplinarian and who manifests himself in the sun, stars, rain, thunder and other natural phenomena (see for example Kibicho, 1968; Mbiti, 1980). For example, an African believed that when it thundered, god was clearing his throat. They believe that the spiritual world includes, amongst others: things with magical power, ancestors, various divinities as well as the ultimate deity who is the creator, but who does not really involve himself with the world, cannot be directly approached or served and who also does not demand direct accountability (Van der Walt, 1991). Prayers were addressed to this deity or to his manifestations for aid in times of sickness, drought and other misfortunes. The ancestors played a very significant part in communicating with god. Many of the values that are held by most Kenyans have been passed from generation to generation basically by elders. Traditionally, Kenyans are fatalists, taking misfortune as it comes, pleading with their god and the supernatural forces to help them in times of need but never assured that they will do so (Van der Walt, 1991). However, they do believe that man has to protect himself against all sorts of spiritual forces through the use, for example, of potions. African Kenyans also believes that everything is an integrated unity and this cosmic balance or harmony should be protected/restored (Ogutu & Khayesi, 1995; Hughes, 1999). Most Africans link history to the origin which is manifested in legends, myths, ceremonies and rites to make the past live again, to bring back the powerful, perfect period to the present, so that man in the present can be made strong and healthy (Balandier, 1969). I can then hypothesise that Kenyans hold



primarily values of *harmony*, *subjugation*, but also to some degree *mastery* as they try to control imagined and real threats in their lives and what they see can make them live better: Maquet (1971) argues that power over nature 'is the capacity to produce desired effects. Attributed to a purposive being, this capacity can be exercised over nature. With techniques of production... man (read Kenyan) shows his power or mastery over his environment' p.30.

### 3.2.3 Activity Orientation

Most of traditional Africa depended on farming, hunting or fishing depending on the location of a particular community (see for example, Muriuki, 1978; Osogo, 1966; Ochieng', 1979; Kipkorir, 1978). Some used to depend solely on cattle raising like most Nilotics of Kenya, while the Bantu depended on agriculture. There was a well-developed system of internal exchange and some element of an external exchange economy. Internal exchange here referring to exchange of goods within the same community while external refers to exchange of goods between communities. This is so because some communities specialised in particular crafts-or like the Maasai of Kenya who depended on raising cattle, they at times could exchange meat or their milk for farm food with their neighbours (Sharman, 1979). Things have changed though with the introduction of money and a market system that requires money instead of the barter trade of those days.

Responsibility for the support of the household was divided between husband and wife. The husband was supposed to do work such as building houses, clearing the farm and hunting or fishing depending on the community (e.g., Francis, 1998; Ochieng', 1979). The wife cultivated the farm and prepared meals for the family. The family was not to sit and wait for food from somewhere remote; which reflects a *doing* orientation. Men were supposed to protect the household from any calamity.

Like most African countries, Kenya has a new elite, which is extremely mixed. Some of their numbers are scions of 'chiefly' families of venerable antiquity; others are people of lowly birth. Some have come from the rural areas now opened to commerce, while others come from the towns that have had dealings with the outside world for years. The elite that is running modern Kenya is a product of schools with a colonial heritage,

either mission-run or state-run (Otiende, Wamahiu, Karugu, & Munene, 1994; Bogonko, 1991). A great number of Kenyans have been to college or university (Eisemon, 1992; Otiende et al., 1994). This influence from education and the rise in the need to get salaried jobs in order to take care of their family members have acculturated many to other value orientations, like thinking rationally before acting. Thus, for the activity value orientation I suggest that Kenyans will rank both *doing* and *thinking* quite highly, depending on levels of education and to some extent their age.

#### 3.2.4 Relational Orientation

In Kenya, as indeed throughout Sub-Saharan Africa, an individual's social horizon extends beyond the immediate family (see for example, Maxon, 1989; Nzioki, 1982). This horizon extends even to everyone with whom continuous relationships are maintained especially co-operation. Frequently a family will consist of several households in which live the head of the family, his wife or wives, their unmarried sons and daughters and the husbands and children of their married daughters. The family is one unit of a clan where kinship ties are very strong and a member is assured rights and privileges of that relationship. Relationships are ordered and children are thought to respect those bigger than them (cf. Turaki, 1991a). Age is respected and the aged are cared for at home because the older one is, the nearer one is to the original time and thus wiser. Authority is therefore given and is not acquired (Van der Walt, 1991). Relations are hierarchically maintained and integrated into daily life. Members are required to conform, be obedient and respectful for authority. These kinds of relationships reflect the elements of a collectivist culture rooted in the family and kinship system. Members of such societies put the welfare of others before theirs, and appreciate the value of harmony. This has some shortcomings like the dependency syndrome that usually leads to relatives and weak or lazy friends counting on their economically or politically powerful personalities to "pipeline" means of livelihood in their direction while they sit and do nothing. Therefore, for the relationship orientation, Kenyans would be said to prefer both *hierarchy* and *collectivism*. Apparently since culture is not static, the significant influence with Western ideologies and the process of globalisation and the dislike by some of the dependency syndrome, there is likelihood that some sense of individualism is present, especially with the educated elite, many of whom have been educated overseas (e.g., Eisemon, 1992; Sichernan, 1995).

In conclusion, this section has indicated that culture influences human behaviour and people's values may change due to social and economic currents. It is clear that researchers should move into using more theoretically based approaches to understanding the effects of culture on individuals, groups and organisations. For this sample it is expected that differences in cultural values between ethnic groups or even between individuals within the same group might be observed due to the fact that some ethnic groups or individuals have been more exposed to social-political and economic changes that have taken place in Kenya and the advent of a market economy and the need for education (e.g., Turaki, 1991b). There is consensus among anthropologists (see for example, Pauw, 1973; Mayer, 1971) that even a group like the black people in South Africa can be divided into fairly distinct subgroups, depending on whether the members hold mainly 'modern' or Western ideas or whether they still accept mainly 'traditional' ideas. Orpen (1978) observed that black employees in South Africa 'prescribed' to different work values depending on their orientation toward 'western' or 'traditional' cultural values.

In the next section, an evaluation is made of cultural values' influence on individual HRM policy practice preferences. Again, Kluckhohn and Strodtbeck's value orientations are used to describe culture's possible effect on HRM preferences of Kenyan employees.

### **3.3 CULTURAL VALUES AND HRM POLICY PRACTICE PREFERENCES**

It has been argued that management theories are culture bound, especially those that touch on human behaviour (Adler & Mariann, 1986; Hofstede 1980, 1991, 1993; Laurent, 1993) and that HRM theories are influenced by the cultural values of the scholars who have developed them (Hofstede 1980, 1991). This is because family conventions, religious traditions and forms of education differ markedly between countries and every adult is partly a product of these features with the attendant values, imperatives and the beliefs that shape behaviour and expectation. This argument is supported by the realisation that US derived theories of HRM do reflect American values like individualism and freewill (Boyacigiller & Adler, 1991; Guest, 1990; Hofstede 1980; Laurent, 1983; Stewart & Bennet, 1991). Cultural differences have received wide attention in cross-national management research (Brewster & Hegewisch,



1994; Dowling & Schuler, 1990; Grønhaug & Nordhaug, 1992; Pieper, 1990; Schuler et al., 1993). Sparrow and Hiltrop (1994) argue that four contextual elements are behind the variations of HRM patterns in countries namely: business systems and structures; institutional influences on employment relationships; competence and role of HRM professionals; and the influence of national culture.

In this part of the study, concentration is on the cultural element, to examine culture's influence on HRM policy preferences. Organisation phenomena are characterised by an interplay of relationships among three elements the individual, organisation and the environment. In spite of the fact that context is important in organisational functioning, very few traditional HRM researchers have integrated these three elements in traditional HRM. As pointed out earlier, Adler and Boyacigiller (1995) recommend that there should be a shift of emphasis from traditional HRM to a system which does not decontextualize the field. Major differentiating factors between developed and developing countries are contextual, and there is growing support for country based elements having a significant impact on international HRM. Such factors include; economic, political legal and historical environments (Begin, 1992; Sundaram et al., 1992), employee demographics and labour market characteristics (Teargarden et al., 1992), socio-cultural characteristics of the work force and society (Laurent, 1983; Torrington 1994). Among these elements, culture has generated more interest in the field of comparative HRM because of the belief that cultures are at the base of peoples' behaviours. Therefore, it will be virtually impossible to conduct serious comparative research without having culture or its conceptual equivalent to hand. The argument from a European context was that there was need for the concept of HRM to take 'root' rather than being 'grafted' on to management thinking (Sparrow & Hiltrop, 1994). For example, Brewster (1993) proposed a European model that explicitly recognises the institutional differences in employee relations between Europe and the US.

### **3.4 INDIVIDUAL CULTURAL VALUES' EFFECT ON HRM PREFERENCES**

For many decades researchers have understood what cultural values are and recognised their role in shaping human behaviour. For instance, many other cultural researchers recognise cultural values' impact on work-related attitudes and organisational structures

and systems (Tayeb, 1988). Sparrow and Wu (1998) point out that the literature indicates that cultural value orientations have implications for HRM through at least six processes summarised below:

1. the attitudes and definitions of what makes an effective manager and the implications of this for the qualities recruited, trained and developed;
2. the giving of face-to-face feedback, levels of power and decision-making development, and the implications of these behaviours on face-to-face procedures such as the recruitment interview, communication, negotiation and participation processes;
3. cognitive conceptions of the internal career, and the resultant readiness to accept international assignments and expectations of what gets people promoted;
4. expectations of the manager-subordinate relationships and resultant implications for behaviours associated with performance management and motivation;
5. the design of pay systems and the practice of differential concepts of distributive justice, socially healthy pay and individualisation of reward; and
6. the mind-sets used to think about organisational structuring or strategic dynamics, and the resultant preference for forms of co-ordination and control.

Research has documented evidence that national cultural values are different and that they impact on human behaviour. There are implicit or explicit implications of fit (congruence) or not between cultural values and HRM that has led to increasing concerns about the universality and success of specific HRM practices. Erez and Earley (1993) indicate that culture-managerial practice fit is an important one. In their study they found that specific practices succeeded only if there was fit with cultural value orientations. For example, in individualistic cultures, individualistic HRM practices are well received, whilst the converse is true in collective cultures. However, some HRM practices that may be classified as 'hard' (such as planning staffing and training) have been easily transferred without a need to match with specific cultural orientations as

compared to those classifiable as 'soft' practices (such as performance management, pay and reward systems) (see for example, Grønhaug & Nordhaug, 1992). Therefore, it is important that international HR managers consider matching their HR practices with cultural values, especially those that touch on human behaviour. Such fit, if practised, could affect several useful organisational outcomes like job involvement and commitment. This study will try to examine whether fit of HRM preferences with policy practice matters for the level of job involvement of this Kenyan sample as explained in the next chapter. This discussion leads to two main research questions:

Research Question 3: What is the overall pattern of HRM policy and practice preferences exhibited by this Kenyan sample?

Research Question 4: Which cultural value orientations influence HRM policy and practice preferences and to what extent?

In the following section, to help focus my research questions or hypotheses, the implications of cultural value orientations for HRM policy practice preferences will be discussed. This discussion is based on some previous research assumptions (e.g., Maznevski & Peterson, 1997; Erez & Earley, 1993; Lane & DiStefano, 1992; Hofstede, 1980). As indicated in earlier sections Kluckhohn and Strodtbeck's (1961) cultural framework will be used to draw a link with the menu of HRM policy and practice choices outlined by Schuler and Jackson (1987, see Chapter Two) and examine individual employee preferences for this sample. However, it is important to note that there are very few studies specifically linking Kluckhohn and Strodtbeck's cultural values to HRM or to management strategy. Therefore, most of the arguments I provide linking these value orientations to HRM might be to some extent speculative in spite of the fact that some theoretical support is found in the works of Lane, DiStefano and Maznevski, 1997; Maznevski and Peterson, 1997; and some empirical support from the work of Sparrow and Wu, 1998. I refer to the line of reasoning as 'the cultural hypothesis' and will therefore endeavour to provide support from other related studies where available. The proposed links are not intended to be prescriptive, but serve rather to convince the reader that a value orientation to HR preference link is plausible and could well operate in the manner described. The existence or not of the proposed links will of course be tested empirically.



### 3.4.1 Man-nature orientation

Cultures in developing and developed countries differ with respect to assumptions regarding the nature of causation and control of outcomes that one experience in life. Hofstede's study revealed that some societies are high or low in 'uncertainty avoidance,' which relates to how members of a society feel threatened and insecure by the uncertainty resulting from the environment. The equivalents in Kluckhohn and Strodtbeck's framework are variations in the value orientations of 'mastery' or being 'subjugated' to the environment (Maznevski & Peterson, 1997). Mastery-oriented societies, assumed to be found predominantly in the West, feel they can dominate or control the unpredictable environment and they believe in the search for the truth. The cultural hypothesis argues that they prefer structured situations with rules clearly laid down. In contrast, 'subjugated' societies emphasises external forces and tends to think that things in life are predetermined. They believe in some external force and things are determined mostly by fate. People in such societies (subjugated or high uncertainty avoidance) are not willing to take risks and are unwilling to meet challenges, which eventually leads to fatalism. Such people are more passive, with a tendency to have more tolerance in ambiguous situations. A society with 'harmony' oriented value individuals emphasises compromise in controlling things. In this culture, people assume that humans are only one element of a much larger, interconnected system, and that it is humans' duty to work within and help maintain the balance of that system. They will have medium to neutral attitudes towards uncertainty avoidance rather than the two extremes already seen. This value orientation is therefore likely to influence individual HRM preferences related schema to a number of processes. The postulated implications of this value orientation and HRM preferences in developing countries are shown in Table 3.1.



Table 3.1

Man-Nature Orientations' Effect on HRM Preferences (After Lane & DiStefano, 1992 and Lane, DiStefano, & Maznevski, 1997)

HRM Policies and practice preferences	Variations in Value Orientations		
	Mastery Values	Subjugation Values	Harmony Values
Planning/Appraisal/ Training	Formal and tight controls, consultative	Informal/loose short-term focus	No strong consistent preference
Compensation/Rewards	Standard depending on job, performance and qualifications	Flexible and predictable	Balanced and fair
Recruitment/Selection	Explicit and clear written rules	No strong consistent preference	Contingent on organisation and environment
Job and Employment Security	Predictable/high	Flexible/low	Calculative and flexible

The relationships summarised in Table 3.1 suggest that a mastery-oriented individual would most likely prefer formal rules into planning, tight control practices for appraisals and career succession, as she/he doesn't feel comfortable with uncertain and unstructured situations (Mendonca & Kanungo, 1990). She/he may probably prefer clear rules that are written down, or imposed by tradition. Such tight and formal procedures in planning, appraising and even training help such people to explicitly figure out the future. A training policy that is formal is also able to help mastery individuals map out their career path. They may prefer to be involved or participate in organisational decisions. Subjugated individuals are assumed to be more easy-going and might therefore prefer informal rules, short-term plans and loose control systems in HRM practices (e.g., Lane, DiStefano, & Maznevki, 1997). Lane and DiStefano (1992) argue that goal setting for such individuals who are subjugated to nature, would tend to be qualified, hesitant, and vague. Such members may prefer training that takes a shorter time, as too far into the future might lead to disruptions they cannot control. They don't strive to control the environment as that would be tantamount to trying to change the status quo. Members from a harmony-oriented culture may prefer planning policy practices that project a mixture of short-term, mid-term and long-term forecasts. This would enable them to plan their monitoring and to make quick responses to environmental changes. Harmony oriented individuals may not prefer too formal rules as they may not be in harmony with the environment.



Regarding compensation, the cultural hypothesis argues that individuals from a mastery-oriented society are more likely to prefer standardised compensation rewards especially for people that do the same job and possess the same qualifications. They may also prefer that compensation/reward be based on performance and qualifications. On the other hand, an individual from a subjugated society may prefer flexibility depending on the context. In developing countries, the environment is not very certain both economically and politically, promoting subjugation values in individuals (Kanungo & Jaeger, 1990). This kind of environment promotes preference for compensation choices with some sense of speculative benefits. Harmony individuals are assumed to balance elements of the environment, including self and they approach issues in a holistic way. Therefore, regarding compensation rewards they may prefer a balance between individual and organisation needs in the hope of restoring and maintaining harmony and balance. Compensation or reward that is forced on the organisation by militant unionism may not be strongly preferred by harmony oriented individuals.

Another area of HRM that may be affected by these cultural value orientations is staffing and recruitment. A mastery-oriented individual may prefer a selection and recruitment policy that is clear and not secretive because in that way she/he can be assured of tight controls during recruitment and selection. Furthermore, she/he is assured of what is required to move up the career ladder. She/he can then be satisfied because of assured fairness for all those working in the organisation. On the other hand, subjugated individuals are most likely to settle for whatever policy practices the company chooses to use. Because they feel subjugated it is up to the company, not them, to choose whatever approach is deemed suitable. For this case such individuals see the organisation as the powerful force that can determine or shape their future. A harmony-oriented person will prefer that justice be done in recruitment issues so that the organisation gets the best people and the best people get the job. However, as they like balance with the environment they may not prefer a policy that is going to destabilise the harmonious organisational set-up. For example, a policy that encourages recruiting people with opposing values may cause imbalances in group's composition.

Regarding employment security or job security, a mastery-oriented person would prefer a secure job as he or she gets a sense of control for the future (cf. Rothbaum, Weisz, & Snyder, 1982). This means a preference for more predictability in the job. In contrast,



subjugated members may be more flexible as they think external forces will always prevail (see for example, Parnell & Hatem, 1999) if they had to lose their jobs. A harmony oriented individual will tend to be more calculative as he/she tries to balance his chances of staying in the job or losing it and the imbalance such a result would bring to all those in the environment that depend on him. Harmonious individuals are likely to move to other organisations without causing unnecessary friction with the present employer. However, people with such values would prefer to stay if the organisation they work for assures them job security and are likely to be loyal to the organisation.

### **3.4.2 Human-nature value orientation**

This orientation underpins the basic nature of human beings, essentially one's belief about the inherent character of people. Religion plays a major role in shaping peoples' views about the basic nature of people in a society. Cultural researchers argue that this orientation is associated to organisational issues like control systems, organisational climate and leadership styles (Lane & DiStefano, 1992; Lane, DiStefano, & Maznevski, 1997). Societies where people are viewed as mostly evil (or manipulative) will find that their systems are concerned with how people deal with others. The level of trust is usually very low or non-existent, as everyone is suspicious of other peoples' intentions. For example, Stephens and Greer (1997) point out that since U.S. firms do not trust Mexicans they tend to rely heavily on extensive and well-negotiated contracts with Mexican partners. On the other, Mexicans trust American partners sometimes blindly just because they are from the U.S. In an organisational setting preference may be for tight controls so as to deter the evil minded employees or managers who are seen as being manipulative and therefore trustworthy. Societies with low trust would install all possible procedural checks, electronic gadgets or other available security systems to help check on theft and or other malpractice. Societies dominated by a neutral or mixed value (good and evil) are likely to be comfortable with moderately tight controls.



Table 3.2

Human-Nature Orientations' Effects on HRM Preferences (After Lane & DiStefano, 1992 and Lane, DiStefano, & Maznevski, 1997)

HRM policies and practice preferences	Variations in Value Orientations		
	Evil	Good	Neutral
Planning and appraisals (control systems)	Tight planning controls and frequent appraisals	Loose planning controls and infrequent appraisals	Moderate planning controls & frequent appraisals
Staffing/selection basis	Internal basis but clear, thorough selection procedures	Internal or external (best available people), flexible selection procedures	Internal or external moderately tight/flexible procedures
Performance appraisal criteria	Behavioural or process focus, frequent	End results or outcome focus, infrequent	Would depend on manager's experiences
Training & Development	Tight controls & clear training need, utilise on-the job methods	Flexible controls, <i>ad hoc</i> training needs, utilise both off the job & on the job training methods	Moderate controls, formal training, utilise on the job methods, off the job depending on need

Table 3.2 shows that the cultural hypothesis assumes that there is preference for tight control methods when human nature is viewed as essentially evil. This would serve as a deterrent to violations of codes of conduct within the organisation. The use of frequent appraisals would counter the tendency to cheat on a day's work including the quality. People's 'goodness' will be attributed to the existence of the control system, not their innate goodness. On the other hand in societies where human nature is viewed as good, there might be a preference for control systems based on the need for information, rather than surveillance and constant evaluations (Maznevski & Peterson, 1997). In the case of cultures that view people as neutral or mixed there is likelihood for preference for moderately tight controls, with modifications based on managers' experiences with the people involved.

People from societies that see human nature, as inherently evil may prefer to rely on internal sources of staffing vacancies in the organisation. Such societies would prefer more thorough selection procedures to enable proper screening of applicants as manipulative people may find their way into the organisation with loose selection procedures. Preference for internal sources would be expected because it is not easy to trust people one is not familiar with like 'outsiders' in such a culture. Moreover,



'insiders' who have been with the organisation are already well acquainted with the organisation and its people. However, this will also depend on the type of job and whether a suitable person is available from within the organisation. On the other hand, if people in a society believe in the inherent goodness of people, it might not matter so much whether you have to recruit from outside or from within. Preference would simply be given to the person the best suited for the job. Managers viewed as evil might tend to use autocratic and corrupt practices which in turn may influence employees to prefer clear staffing policies that cannot be easily manipulated by those in authority. Reliance on a flexible selection policy might be preferred in a culture that views human nature as inherently good. The normal procedure of publishing a vacancy is followed and only those who genuinely feel they have the qualifications and can perform the job are likely to apply. Therefore, the use of sophisticated selection tests may not be in use. A simple interview or recommendation by present employee may be enough. From the employees' perspective preference for flexible, simple procedures is likely as they trust that the management is not going to manipulate the selection process and the right applicant is the one who gets the job. Where human nature is seen as neutral or a mixture of both good and evil, the selection basis may be internal because they know current employees and heavy dependency on recommendations from current trusted employees. There may be a need to use thorough screening procedures that enable selectors find the good people.

Regarding performance appraisal criteria, the cultural hypothesis would argue that individuals from a community that sees human nature as inherently evil may prefer behaviourally based criteria that focus on job processes rather than final results. This is because waiting for the final result might cost the company a lot of money, requiring continuous monitoring. Managers or supervisors are suspicious of employee' performances hence, have greater cautiousness. In contrast, individuals from communities that see human nature as inherently good may prefer performance criteria based on results as they are less likely to be suspicious of others' job processes. They know that everyone minds about meeting organisation objectives without necessarily cutting corners. The performance appraisals are expected to be frequent in a society that views human nature as evil, while infrequent appraisals may be in use in societies that were human nature is viewed as good. In other words, in an evil oriented society people



tend to be seen to be more manipulative in their jobs and the whole process of doing work is always under scrutiny unlike in good oriented society where achievement of objectives is seen to be more important than the means of achieving those objectives. In societies whose perspective of human nature is neutral, people are likely to change their preference depending on the experience one has with the people he/she is dealing with. For example, if experience shows that people are good then dealings might mimic the human nature: good while the opposite is the case when experience shows people are more evil orientated.

Finally, there are possible effects of these orientations toward preferences for training and development. Cultural orientations dominated by evil values are likely to prefer tight controls because employees might receive training and then immediately change organisations without the organisations that trained them benefiting. This calls for proper controls such as signing contracts that bond the employee for a certain number of years of continuous service before changing organisations. Alternatively, they may refund the training costs plus interest and loose all provident fund benefits. The organisation may tend to rely on on-the-job training methods, as they are cheaper. Employees may prefer tight and formal training programs, as managers with evil value orientations do not easily manipulate them. Value orientations regarding people as good are likely to prefer flexible controls and training on an *ad hoc* basis as the need for training arises. They may utilise both on-the-job and off-the-job training methods, as they are likely to provide their enhanced skills to the organisation that trains. Employees may not be suspicious of any manipulations in training opportunities when they perceive managers as good. The company may have a formal procedure for information and forecasting purposes. A combination of preferences in both evil and good orientation values may be preferred in a neutral society regarding training and development of employees. Again preference would depend on the experiences of both the employees and the management.

### **3.4.3 Activity value orientation**

The activity orientation refers to the desirable focus of activity affecting how people approach work and leisure. A 'being' orientated society is one in which members are characterised by spontaneity. They like to enjoy the present and act according to the



feelings they experience. In contrast, a 'doing' society emphasises individual accomplishment and working hard. They work relentlessly to achieve goals. There is also a 'thinking' orientation. This is a more balanced cultural value orientation whereby people holding such values tend to think things through in order to achieve a logical solution to issues they face (see Table 3.3).

Table 3.3

Activity Value Orientations' Effect on HRM Preferences (After Lane & DiStefano, 1992 and Lane, DiStefano, & Maznevski, 1997)

HRM policies and practice preferences	Variations in Value Orientations		
	Doing	Being	Thinking
Reward criteria	Involvement, Merit and results-based	Feelings-based, current context	Considering specific skills, consultative
Selection and Promotion criteria	Skills/qualifications based, complex	Simple, seniority and age-based	Moderated, Context-based
Career path and Training	Well planned, competitive and comprehensive	ad hoc, current needs-based	Balanced and well focused

The cultural hypothesis argues that societies with a 'doing' value orientation may prefer HRM reward criteria that emphasise competency and skills. Here, people might tend to require that they are involved in decisions that affect their reward packages and they might prefer pragmatic decisions. People with this value orientation may not attach so much importance to seniority based rewards as even those who are lazy within the unit might be rewarded for the simple fact that they have been there longer at the expense of new hard working individuals. They expect to be rewarded according to the results they have achieved. People with a 'thinking' value orientation may prefer almost the same as the 'doing' dominated value orientation, but always considering rationally and logically what is on offer and on what basis. People with a 'being' oriented value system, on the other hand, might not be overly concerned with reward criteria so long as what they are given feels good at that moment. A reward that may be preferred is one that satisfies current salient needs.

Another area that an activity value orientation may affect considerably is preferences for selection and promotion criteria. Most people with a 'doing' value orientation expect to work hard and achieve what they aim to. This may imply that they prefer selection criteria based on skills and qualifications. Vacancies should not be filled on the basis of



age and seniority, but on clear laid down skills and qualifications-basically on merit. 'Being' oriented, individuals on the other hand, may prefer selection and promotion criteria that are simple and based on seniority instead of merit. The fact that their actions are feeling-based is a reflection of a spontaneous nature to HRM activities, which is likely to orient them toward a selection policy that allows easy promotion. Again, they may prefer a promotion policy linked to their loyalty to the organisation rather than competitive skills. Lastly, people from a 'thinking' dominated value orientation may think rationally in evaluating the criteria used, preferring logical decisions tailored to the current context. Overall, they may prefer moderation in the policies pursued by the company to select and promote people.

When people join organisations, many are also concerned about their career progression. 'Doing' value oriented people have a desire to pursue paths that will assist them in achieving their work goals. They may prefer HRM policies that would help them acquire the necessary skills and qualifications to tackle the next job in their career progression. This requires that proper and clear training policies be put in place by their employing organisations. A 'thinking' value oriented individual would rather think through the HRM policy regarding career and training issues. The individual may prefer a more moderate career policy that considers all possible circumstances and prepares one for future challenges. In contrast, we may find that a 'being' value oriented individual doesn't really care much about the HRM career path if the *status quo* is acceptable to him or her. She/he may prefer a simple career policy that fits into his/her present state of feelings.

#### **3.4.4 Relational value orientation**

The concept underlying this orientation concerns relationships among people and whether people have any responsibilities for one another. In individualistic societies, people prefer to look after themselves and their immediate families. A person's identity is based on the individual and his/her accomplishments. The employer-employee relationship is one based on mutual advantage, and employment decisions are based on individual competence (Jackson, 1993). Similarly, managers are more concerned with the individual and not relationships. On the other hand, in collectivist communities, people are born into a family and protected by their extended families. In such



societies, one's identity is based on belonging to a social group or network. Employers' relationships to the employee are based on moralism. Moreover, group relationships are very important.

A further variation of the relational value orientation is hierarchical or lineal. In a hierarchical society, individuals recognise status and relationships are usually group based. Obedience to those high in the hierarchy is practised and inequalities between the "higher-ups" and the "lower-downs" is acceptable, and subordinates expect to be told what to do by those more senior than them. The variations indicated in the relational value orientation might affect HRM preferences as discussed below and summarised in Table 3.4.

Table 3.4

Relational Value Orientation's effect on HRM Preferences (After Lane & DiStefano, 1992 and Lane, DiStefano, & Maznevski, 1997)

HRM policies and practice preferences	Variations in Value Orientations		
	Individualistic	Hierarchical	Collectivist
Job or Work design	Autonomy and growth opportunities, flat structures	Defined roles and procedures, status needs, tall structures, formal work	Broader social environment, interacting individuals, group based structures like committees
Staffing procedures	Open and formal	Closed and informal	Partially open, flexible
Rewards and Appraisal criteria	Individual and performance-based	Status or seniority based	Group and process based
Training needs	Individual needs more salient	Superior organisation dependent	Group or organisations needs more salient

The cultural hypothesis argues that job design preferences may be influenced by the relational value orientation, for example, a society dominated by individuals with individualistic values may prefer jobs that provide them with more autonomy and growth opportunities. They may not be concerned with working in groups or jobs that emphasise group relationships. On the other hand, societies dominated by individuals with collectivist values may show preference for jobs that are embedded in a broader social environment and providing security. Again, they may prefer work units that are made up of interacting individuals. Hierarchical societies' individuals may show preference for clearly defined roles and work procedures reflecting the status differences



apparent in the structure. Similarly, they may show preference for teamwork that is regulated and formal. Related to this value orientation is the type of structure to be designed. Individualistic societies may prefer flat structures whereas collectivists are more egalitarian and may prefer structures run by committees or commissions. It is evident that people with collective values prefer decisions made in groups like commissions or committees where equal opportunity can be assured. For example, Smith, Peterson and Gilani (1995) note that in 'feminine' societies greater reliance on consultation with colleagues and subordinates in managing the employee selection process would be expected. Again, in such structures people tend to share responsibility and obligations. Hierarchical societies may prefer tall structures with well-defined levels of authority because many people prefer status-based relationships.

Selection procedures may also be affected by the cultural values of individuals. Individualistic value systems may engender preference for openness because many believe in achievements and competitive actions. Here, people are very conscious of their careers and would prefer to see clearly a policy that lays down the needed requirements. Hierarchical societies' respect for authority is well pronounced and there is a possibility that selection procedures are left to those in authority. The individual does not feel compelled to know which rules were used to fill positions. Individuals may prefer selection procedures to be informal as in that way they can bring in their kin and kith by talking with the superiors. It would be virtually impossible to sneak in a friend or relative when selection procedures are very formal. In collectivist societies, people are caught in between the demands of the group and their own. Many may prefer selection procedures that are not formal in case they are pressurised to provide jobs for friends or relatives because the rules will be very clear (see for example, Smith, Peterson, & Gilani, 1995). In case the relative or friend in need does not meet the criteria, it will be impossible to sneak him or her in. Grønhaug and Nordhaug (1992: 6) point out that since research has indicated that recruitment through networks has increased in some Western countries, there is reason to believe that extended labour markets are far more widespread in cultures where the significance of tribal origin or kinship relations is considerable, as is the case in many African countries. Therefore, many in Kenya may prefer flexible procedures that can be adhered to and bent when circumstances demand to accommodate kinship obligations.

Regarding policies on reward and appraisal criteria, researchers have observed that reward systems could be based on individuals, groups or status (Lane & DiStefano, 1992; Lane et al., 1997). Individuals with individualistic values would prefer individual based reward systems, whereas, in collectivist oriented societies, individuals may prefer group-based rewards depending on the context (Erez & Earley, 1993). Hierarchical societies tend to be associated with group values but are more concerned with status hence, here people would prefer status based reward systems. The type of cultural value orientation held by a group of people may also influence performance appraisal policies. Individualistic value dominated people would prefer appraisals that recognise their individual contribution. This reflects what motivates such people as they are motivated by individual achievement. Again, individual rather than group identity is more important. Collectively oriented individuals are more likely to prefer group based performance appraisals. Hierarchical societies would on the other hand, show preference for appraisals by superiors, rather than subordinates or peers do appraisals.

Training needs within an individualistic society would reflect preference for training policies that take into account individual rather than company needs. On the other hand, collectivist value oriented individuals may prefer training needs that take into account the group and company needs or the individual and organisation needs. Individualists may also prefer that the company doesn't emphasise the cost of training, whereas, collective oriented groups may prefer that the company considers the cost of training. Hierarchical value dominated people, may prefer training needs to be identified by their superiors and appropriate procedures taken for such training programmes. It is also up to the superiors to consider training costs.

The overall picture, which has been presented by the foregoing analysis, indicates that cultural values may have implications for many individual preferences for HRM policy and practice. There is agreement regarding this fact by those who have studied cultural values in organisations of developed countries. Moreover, as the preceding sections have shown, any one HR preference might be influenced by one or more value orientations. Thus, this highlights the need for cultural fit in the HRM policies and practices implemented in developing country environments to be studied.



In the next section, I analytically review literature related to Person-Organisation (P-O) fit and job involvement. The section is intended to guide assessment of the impact of HRM and cultural fit on job involvement of Kenyan employees.

### **3.5 VALUES AND PREFERENCE-POLICY FIT ON JOB INVOLVEMENT**

For several decades researchers have attempted to predict attitudes and actions of individuals by examining fit with the organisations they work for (e.g., Chatman, 1989; O'Reilly et al., 1991; Schneider, 1987). A large amount of this research is on antecedents during organisational entry (e.g., Behling & Tolliver, 1972; Cable & Judge, 1994; Judge & Bretz, 1992); socialisation of the individual (e.g., Chatman, 1991) and consequences or outcomes (Chesney & Rosenman, 1980; Downey, Hellriegel, & Slocum, 1975; Vancouver et al., 1994; Witt & Silver, 1995). One aspect of Person-Environment (P-E) fit, is Person-Organisation (P-O) fit, or congruence. This aspect of fit has been presented as very important if an organisation is to influence employee behavioural outcomes like turnover (Schneider, 1987); work attitudes (e.g., Dawis & Lofquist, 1984); job involvement and organisational commitment (e.g., Blau, 1987). This study investigates fit's influence on job involvement. Here, I treat job involvement as a specific belief regarding workers' identification with their current job (Kanungo, 1979, 1982), and differentiate job involvement from related constructs such as work involvement which relates to workers' view of work as it should be (Kanungo, 1982; Lawler & Hall, 1970).

#### **3.5.1 Defining Job Involvement and Operationalising P-O Components**

Until recently, the difference between the phenomena of job involvement and its near equivalent work involvement has not been clear (e.g., Kanungo, 1979, 1981, 1982; Rabinowitz & Hall, 1977; Morrow, 1983, 1993). These authors have criticised the lack of conceptual clarity in the job involvement research stream resulting in different approaches to its measurement. Lawler and Hall (1970) were among the first to advocate a distinction between the meaning of job involvement and other related constructs. Warr, Cook and Wall (1979) also support the notion that job involvement should be seen as narrower than work involvement. More recently Elloy and Terpening (1992) have provided more evidence of the distinction between job involvement and

work involvement. Kanungo (1982) argues that the position taken by both sociologists and psychologists is the main reason for conflicting findings regarding the concept. Kanungo (1982) points out that job and work involvement differ in two ways: First, job involvement refers to a specific belief regarding the present job, whereas, work involvement refers to a general belief. Second, the beliefs operate at different levels. Job involvement belief operates at a descriptive level describing a worker's job identification as they are whereas; work involvement belief operates at the normative level, describing a worker's views of his or her relationship with work, as it should be. Job involvement is more as a result of a person's job situation especially whether the job satisfies his or her salient needs (Gorn & Kanungo, 1980). Job involvement reflects the extent to which a person's salient needs are satisfied (Elloy & Terpening, 1992; Gorn & Kanungo, 1980; Lefkowitz, et al., 1984). Since, generally a job represents a specific category of work (Kanungo, 1979), it is possible there is association between job and work involvement. However, since the two are conceptually distinct, the relationship may not generally be strong. For instance, a person who is work involved might not necessarily be job involved if his or her salient needs are not met (Elloy & Terpening, 1992).

The most commonly used measurement scale (Lodahl & Kejner, 1965) incorporates multiple conceptual dimensions of involvement. Kanungo (1979, 1981, and 1982) argued that the conceptual meaning of results generated using the Lodahl and Kejner scale is uncertain because of its confounding of conceptual meanings. In an attempt to eliminate the conceptual meaning confusion inherent in Lodahl and Kejner's scale, researchers (Farrel & Rusbult, 1981; Jans, 1982; Kanungo, 1982; Saal, 1978; Saleh & Hosek, 1976; Wollack, Goodale, Witjing, & Smith, 1971) have developed scales to measure job involvement. Brown (1996) observes that 'the confusion has been exacerbated by the fact that researchers have frequently used reduced versions of the Lodahl and Kejner scale, often with scant regard to the conceptual meaning that particular items were intended to tap' (pp. 236). Kanungo's scale is based on the conceptualisation of involvement as a cognitive or belief state of psychological identification. Kanungo argues that existing scales fall short of adequately measuring this conceptualisation of job involvement. The scale advanced by Kanungo (1982) is now seen as the clearest and most precise conceptualisation of the job involvement



construct (e.g., Brown, 1996). This study then, adopts Kanungo's conceptualisation of job involvement as it clearly identifies the core meaning of the construct and is not contaminated by items tapping concepts outside of this core meaning.

Studying job involvement in the Kenyan context is important for several reasons. Job involvement has been considered as a fundamental basis for establishing competitive advantage in business markets (Lawler, 1992; Pfeffer, 1994). Studies have reported that job involvement is negatively related to the desire to leave, suggesting that efforts to invest in job involvement might reduce job turnover (Blau & Boal, 1989). Others have considered job involvement in relation to central life interests (e.g., Baba, 1989); as moderator of life events and stress or illness (e.g., Innes & Clarke, 1985); performance (e.g., Brown & Leigh, 1996; Keller, 1997; Rabinowitz, 1985); well being (e.g., Riipinen, 1997); and found that job involvement is an important work-related attitude. Brown (1996) argued that 'increasing job involvement can enhance organisational effectiveness and productivity by engaging employees more completely in their work and making work more meaningful and a fulfilling experience. Job involvement is an important factor in the lives of most people. Work activities consume a large proportion of the time and constitute a fundamentally important aspect of life for most people. People may be stimulated by and drawn deeply into their work or alienated from it mentally and emotionally. The quality of one's entire life experience can be greatly affected by one's degree of involvement in or alienation from work' (p. 253). However, studies in this area have been carried out in environments of developed economies like the US, that do not experience relatively high levels of unemployment on a global scale. A number of writers have questioned the applicability of US or Western psychological assumptions to, for example, the African context (see for example, Kanungo & Jaeger, 1990; Kanungo & Mendonca, 1994; Kiggundu, Jørgensen, & Hafsi, 1983; Nsamenang & Dawes, 1998;). It is not clear then whether attitudes like job involvement can predict P-O fit in developing contexts such as found in Africa. Clearly, it is then high time researchers turned attention there, both for understanding the causes of attitudes such as job involvement in these contexts to help our understanding of P-O fit, and help in the design of practices to enhance performance in developing countries.

The aim of this part of the study is to investigate the extent to which P-O fit can explain job involvement in the Kenyan context. The focus is on two forms of fit. First, I focus

on the fit of human resource management policies and individual preferences for HRM policies. This is because some researchers have stressed the need to adjust Western HRM policies to developing country environments. This they argue will lead to organisational success in developing countries (e.g., Jaeger, 1990). Arguably then Western ideas of matching HRM policies with individual preferences might be associated with attitudes such as job involvement. Much, for example, of the psychological contracting literature has focused on the importance of a reciprocal match between organisational expectations, obligations and perceived promises as evidenced through HRM policies and practices (Herriot, Manning, & Kidd, 1997). HRM policies send signals about organisational expectations that can shape the individual's perceptions of legitimate levels of involvement (Rousseau, 1995). In developed economies, this type of fit is felt to be relevant to organisations that want to survive and gain competitive advantage through building a committed and involved work force, especially those organisations with 'core' human resources possessing rare skills (Pfeffer, 1994; Schuler & MacMillan, 1984). As noted earlier in chapter two section 2.3, it has been argued that adapting Western HRM practices to developing countries might enhance organisational success (Jaeger, 1990; Mendonca & Kanungo, 1994). Then, we might expect that organisations that match the preferences of local work forces might benefit from enhanced job involvement and other related attitudes.

Second, I examine the congruence of individual values with the organisational culture, as represented by the value orientations of others in the organisation (e.g., Goodman & Svyantek, 1999; Kilmann, Saxton, & Serpa, 1986; Schein, 1985). Whilst the cultural context in Kenya and other developing contexts is most certainly different from that in developed economies (Austin, 1990; Blunt & Jones, 1996; Hofstede, 1980; Onyemelukwe, 1973), person-culture fit is one form of P-O fit that has been linked consistently with work related attitudes and behaviours in developed contexts (e.g., Chatman, 1989; O'Reilly, Chatman, & Caldwell, 1991; Kilmann et al., 1986; Schein, 1985; Schneider, 1987). In the US, person-culture fit has been shown to be associated with enhanced job satisfaction, commitment and reduced turnover (O'Reilly et al., 1991). The desire to 'fit' with others is a powerful social pressure (Asch, 1951), which may stem partly from a desire to be liked (Insko, 1985). As we are attracted to those similar to ourselves (Brewer, 1979; Moreland, 1985), working in organisations where



others' values are similar to one's own may help fulfil this need to be liked and also contribute to a feeling of attraction and attachment to the organisation (cf. Schneider, 1987). Therefore, it appears an important aspect of P-O fit includes the fit of personal values and attitudes with those of others in the organisation. This kind of fit is likely to foster job involvement, related attitudes and behaviours. We might even expect strong pressures to adapt one's own value orientations to others in the organisation in order to conform to organisational norms and hence maintain one's employability (e.g., O'Reilly & Caldwell, 1979), especially given harsh employment conditions in a Kenyan context. Arguably then, individual congruence with organisational culture is important for job involvement in developing contexts such as Kenya too. Here, I also compare both types of P-O fit to an alternative explanation of job involvement – based on individual differences. Research indicates that individual differences may play an important role in the development of job involvement (McKelvey & Sekaran, 1977; Sekaran & Mowday, 1981). I focus on cultural value orientations as a source of individual differences.

### **3.6 JOB INVOLVEMENT AND INDIVIDUAL CULTURAL VALUE ORIENTATIONS**

The determinants of job involvement have until recently received much research attention (e.g., Aryee, 1994; Thompson & Blau, 1993; O'Driscoll & Randall, 1999; Elloy & Flynn, 1998). The main question has been whether job involvement can be attributed to the individual, the work environment or both. Researchers have reported varying results of what causes job involvement. Some authors have reported that personal attributes (personality variables) are the ones responsible for an employee's levels of job involvement (e.g., Brief & Aldag, 1977; McKelvey & Sekaran, 1977; Morrow & McElroy, 1986) whereas others indicate the importance of work environmental variables (e.g., Lawler, 1992 ; Pfeffer, 1994; Sekaran & Mowday, 1981). Still, others have taken an interactional perspective which holds that both stable personal and environmental variables affect job involvement (e.g., Blau, 1987). Newton and Keenan (1983) attribute these differences to the nature of the questions asked in research. They argue that both environmental and individual variables are responsible for involvement, but environmental variables have a bigger impact compared to personal attributes. Brown (1996) conducted a meta-analysis and review of organisational research on job involvement and concurred that both personality and

situational variables influence job involvement. Job involvement was strongly related to job and work attitudes but not to role perceptions, behavioural work outcomes or demographic variables.

Social psychological theories illustrate that as adults we are much a product and reflection of our childhood experiences (e.g., Kluckhohn, 1962). This is because family conventions, religious traditions and forms of education play a role and every adult is partly a product of these features with the attendant values, imperatives and beliefs that shape behaviour and expectations. Since work involvement and job involvement are related, though conceptually distinct (Elloy & Terpening, 1992), people socialised to believe that work is important possess values predisposing them to job involvement. Personal values might then play an important role in influencing levels of job involvement. Research findings indicate that individuals in different cultures exhibit different salient needs due to their socialisation and situations (Misra & Kalro, 1981; Kanungo, 1990). Kanungo, Gorn, and Dauderis (1976) reported differences in need salience patterns between the French-and English-speaking Canadian managers. The key question then, is are we culturally predisposed to be more or less job involved?

One way to answer this is to look at the link between our cultural values and our job involvement. Sekaran and Mowday (1981) asserted that the study of job involvement has been approached from the perspective of individual differences whereby, individual employees are viewed as possessing certain needs or values which predispose them to become more or less job involved in their job and as a reaction to specific characteristics of the work situation. Findings in their study were consistent with previous research, which found job involvement to be related to both characteristics of individual employee and situational factors surrounding their work. However, differences were observed between their US and Indian sample in some of the components influencing job involvement. It was evident that a much greater percentage of variance in job involvement was explained by demographic and job characteristics for US than for the Indian employees.

The first theoretical approach points to the fact that an individual's values are a product of culture (e.g., Kluckhohn, 1951; Laurent, 1983). Rabinowitz and Hall (1977) also found out in a review of job involvement literature that characteristics of individual



employees determine job involvement. During the same period Rabinowitz, Hall and Goodale (1977) observed that individual difference characteristics were as important in determining job involvement and didn't interact with job characteristics to influence the construct as predicted by Lawler and Hall (1970). Kanungo (1990) argued that the causes of employee work alienation and its opposite employee work involvement in Asian countries like India cannot be sufficiently explained by Western models because of these models' cultural bias. The contention Kanungo makes is that culture is an important variable in influencing work involvement or job involvement. However, the reasons put forward to explain job involvement in a developed country context (e.g., Rabinowitz & Hall, 1977) are different from those that explain the same construct in a developing country context (for example, Kanungo, 1990; Gorn & Kanungo, 1980). Kanungo concludes that the saliency of individual needs and differences in people's self-concept are explained by a society's socialisation process, which render Western theories inadequate in explaining organisation phenomenon in developing countries.

Despite, the general view by some researchers (e.g., Reitz & Jewell, 1979) that characteristics of individual employees and the work situation both appear to be important influences on job involvement for employees in different countries, others suggest that the relationship may differ across cultures (e.g., Sekaran & Mowday, 1981). This calls for more research to study job involvement cross-culturally to validate the theoretical assumptions that the potential for salient psychological needs mediates between situational characteristics and job involvement (Brown, 1996; Kanungo, 1979). Therefore, it is necessary to investigate whether this sample is culturally predisposed to be more or less job involved? As already explained, cultural value orientations as conceptualised by Kluckhohn and Strodtbeck (1961) and operationalised by Maznevski, et al., (1994, 1995) will be used to investigate personal values held by Kenyan employees. I briefly present possible direct influence these cultural values might have on job involvement. To do this I will recapitulate the meanings attached to each dimension.

### **3.6.1 Man-nature orientation**

This orientation reflects how people in a particular society ought to orient themselves to the world around them and to nature. There are three sub-dimensions of this orientation

of human experience. First is 'subjugation' to nature, a society with people of this orientation see themselves as dominated by forces beyond their control or being subject to a supreme being. Therefore, everything is seen as predetermined, or things happening by fate. Consequently, if people understand that everything is predestined, they for example, can become job involved because that is the job they were predestined to do. A job can be seen as an assignment planned by a Supreme Being or by fate, which has to be done and done well no matter how stressful. Their challenge is to work with this greater plan in order to achieve the 'will' of the plan. Furthermore, people from such cultural value orientations tend to place more emphasis on extrinsic aspects of a job. The second sub-dimension is 'harmony' with nature, whereby people in such a society tend to maintain a balance with the physical environment with beliefs that allow them to live at peace with the environment. People with such values tend to harmonise with management and the belief that they are part of the organisation. They are peaceful and believe that everything has a purpose so they should not disturb the status quo but do the right thing, their jobs. Such people would try to protect themselves within 'sound' and 'safe' conditions offered by their organisation's job security and other extrinsic aspects of the job, thus, affecting their attitudes towards job involvement. The third sub-dimension is 'mastery' over nature, people with such orientations strive to master the environment and even control it. It is reflected in the belief that given enough resources everything is possible. A mastery oriented person values work and the good things that work bring. For such individuals changing their present situations is of great importance and this can be achieved through their jobs. Therefore, if their jobs satisfy their salient needs, then there is likelihood that they will become involved in their jobs.

### **3.6.2 Human-nature orientation**

The basic nature of human beings reflects one's belief about the inherent character of human beings. There are two sub-dimensions of this orientation namely: believing that the fundamental nature of people is 'changeable' or 'unchangeable'; and whether human nature is primarily 'good' or 'evil'. Employees who believe they can change may become job involved for example, after feedback that they are not working hard enough. Again, if alienation is due to the individual not fitting in the job because of lack of training, a person may change by undertaking training. The other variation of people



being good or evil can explain employee job involvement for example, believing that people are good may make one feel that he/she is being given his/her job's worth (rewarded equitably) and vice versa. Again, believing that people are evil may lead to job involvement because one is not sure of the repercussions of evil intentioned individuals. They may even accuse an employee of not doing his/her job well in order to sack him and make a replacement with someone who has may be paid a bribe to get the job. Therefore, in order not to give such people a leeway to make accusations of not working hard, one tries to do his or her best. Alternatively, the very nature of 'good' people is honesty, which can be reflected in not short charging the employer by putting in less hours than required whereas, an 'evil' person can see it is a benefit to himself or herself to put in less hours than required in the job calling for strict controls to guard against such lies.

### **3.6.3 Activity orientation**

A third orientation for this study is "human activity" which refers to the desired focus of activity. This orientation has similarities with Hofstede's 'Masculinity'-Femininity index. This variation affects how people view work and leisure, how preoccupied they are with work and the extent to which work related concerns pervades their lives (Lane & DiStefano, 1992). People with a 'thinking' orientation should become job involved, as it is central to their very existence. They think rationally and carefully without engaging in activities whose implications they have not considered. Therefore, if they are in a job they must have thought through it and long-term implications to their career path that may predispose them to exert high effort. However, the inherent feature of rationalising everything may lead to alienation for example if they experience inequity in their compensation packages when compared to those in the same industry doing the same jobs.

The 'being' orientation is characterised by spontaneity, that is people's actions are carried out based on feelings. This has some similarities with Hofstede's feminine dimension. Individuals with such values might not be consistent with their levels of job involvement because they would get involved when they feel like it and less involved when they don't. They live and work for the moment and love to indulge in present desires. It may be possible for such employees' levels of job involvement to go down

when they get a pay rise because they have enough money to indulge in present desires. For example, indulging in drinking sprees that leave them with ‘king size hangovers’ that may affect levels of job involvement during the next working day.

The ‘doing’ orientation is where one relentlessly tries to achieve and accomplish something. The ‘doing’ or ‘masculine’ orientation is related to an emphasis on personal accomplishment, achievement and a strong sense of self-actualisation and self-esteem. This orientation is also supposed to influence job involvement because individuals tend to work hard. Their life gains meaning from doing work and earning money. These are the employees who will maximise their time at work in order to achieve specified goals. If an organisation’s benefits like promotion bonuses and salary increases are based on high performance, then, one would expect employees with a ‘doing’ orientation to be job involved if earning more money is the main goal.

#### **3.6.4 Relational orientation**

The last orientation dimension for this study is “relationships among people,” which is concerned with the responsibility one has to and for others. One sub-category here is ‘individualism’ (individual oriented), whereby individuals take care of themselves and the other is ‘collectivism’ (group oriented). Individual oriented people value individual welfare over the groups and use personal characteristics and achievements to define themselves. They may get job involved when doing jobs that meet their own needs. They prefer jobs that recognise and reward their individual achievements. This indicates that jobs satisfying such needs will get them job involved. In contrast, group oriented societies see themselves as members of clans or tribes and considers common goals and the group’s welfare to be most important. People with this value orientation might get job involved if jobs recognise that they are not individuals but part of a larger society. Jobs with policies that reward them for immediate needs that touch on their kith and kin may get them more job involved. Jobs that provide the needed security for the employee and those that dependent on him are likely to elicit high levels of job involvement. Again, jobs designed not to work in isolation but in a team or activities done as a team may be more involving than those done individually. There is a further variation of this category, which is a ‘hierarchical’ value orientation. In this sub-category, society defines the proper relation to others in the group. Hierarchical cultures



emphasise both vertical and horizontal differentiation in terms of structures, communication and influence patterns. People in such society, heavily rely on or follow their superiors to make decisions and take responsibilities for them implying strict and tight rules for interpersonal relationships, paternalism, and welfarism. Status is well recognised and respected. Jobs that recognise these differentiations may be more likely to make people in such cultures become job involved.

The preceding discussion illustrates that it is possible that cultural value orientations influence job involvement. Therefore, the following research question is addressed in this study:

Research Question 5: In a developing country environment, are individual values related to job involvement?

Table 3.5 presents Kluckhohn and Strodtbeck's value orientations and possible effects on job involvement as suggested in the foregone analysis (for specific features refer to Table 3.0). The table is after Kluckhohn and Strodtbeck (1961).

Table 3.5

## Cultural Value Orientations' Effect on Levels of Job Involvement

ISSUE & EFFECT	VARIATION 1	VARIATION 2	VARIATION 3
<b>Relationship to nature</b>	Subjugation	Harmony	Mastery
<i>Effect on Job Involvement</i>	Job is predetermined, assignment from the supreme being, to be done to achieve 'will' of the plan hence, high job involvement	Job has a purpose, they are part of the organisation and must do their part for the organisation leading to high job involvement	Jobs are an avenue to achieve goals and change their present state for the better hence, high levels of job involvement
<b>Basic human nature</b>	Changeable	Good	Evil
<i>Effect on Job Involvement</i>	Possibility of doing better after feedback reporting alienation or after training or job redesign	Must do their job assignments without cheating, not to be paid for shoddy jobs hence involvement	Possibility of cheating in number of hours put in a job hence, needs strict controls for hard work
<b>Human activity</b>	Doing	Thinking	Being
<i>Effect on Job Involvement</i>	Action oriented and hard working, life gains meaning through their jobs, set job goals must be met	Rational in their actions including their jobs, jobs were chosen rationally and must be fulfilling	Possibility of variations in their input depending on feelings hence varying job levels
<b>Relationships among people</b>	Collectivist	Hierarchical	Individualist
<i>Effect on Job Involvement</i>	High when-jobs are designed to reflect group values, offer economic and social security	High when-jobs recognise status, emphasise vertical and horizontal communication and influence	High when-jobs meet their own needs, recognise and reward individual achievements

As already proposed two forms of fit are to be examined (HRM preference-policy fit and Person-culture fit) and the possible association with job involvement. In order to focus this part of the study I now consider the fit literature.

### 3.7 BASIC PREMISES OF PERSON-ENVIRONMENT (P-E) FIT AND DEFINITIONS

For decades, the study of person-environment (P-E) fit has been widespread in various areas of organisational behaviour research. Organisations and their employees are mainly concerned about how well the person and the environment fit one another. Several approaches have been adopted to try and meet this objective. Organisations



have tried to select people that promise to match the demands of their jobs, adapt them through training or change the demands of the job through job re-design and so forth. Researchers have focused several areas in understanding the effects of P-E fit, for example, job demands and employee abilities (e.g., French, Caplan & Harrison, 1982); perceived and wanted work attributes (e.g., Locke, 1976; Dawis & Lofquist, 1984; Chatman, 1989); supervisor and subordinate values (e.g., Posner, Kuozes, & Schmidt, 1985); desires and job characteristics (e.g., Hackman & Oldham, 1980; Kulik, Oldham, & Hackman, 1987); jobs and individual interests (Downes & Kroeck, 1996); vocational choices and organisational entry (Holland, 1985; Cable & Judge, 1996). Basically, fit in these studies is considered a predictor of outcomes relevant to the employee or the organisation. Person-Environment theory has attempted to advocate adjustment between organisational members and their work environments in order to achieve desired outcomes (e.g., Caplan, 1987).

Person-environment fit theory has been conceptualised as having several properties that may be of theoretical and empirical value in understanding adjustment in organisations. According to Caplan (1987: 249), 'one property is the operational need for assessing characteristics of the person and of the environment along commensurate dimensions. This property makes it possible to define goodness of fit as the discrepancy between P and E. A second property is the importance of distinguishing between objective and subjective measures of fit and its components. This property makes it possible to define accuracy of perception as a discrepancy between objective and subjective fit. A third property is the distinction between fit defined in terms of abilities-environmental demands and needs-environmental supplies. Research into the P-E fit approach in organisational settings presents three basic forms of fit. One form focuses on the discrepancy between person and environment, indicating that the outcome in question will decrease as the characteristics of the environment deviate from characteristics of the person or increase when they match. A second form focuses on the interaction between person and environment, indicating that the intended outcome occurs when environmental factors are combined with certain person factors. A third form focuses on the proportion of person that is fulfilled by environment, indicating that the intended outcome increases, as this proportion becomes lower. For example, if the difference between preferences and actual policy is negligible, job involvement increases.

Edwards and Cooper (1990) observed that P-E studies indicate that these three forms of fit are often viewed as compatible, if not interchangeable. They point out that the discrepancy, interactive and proportional forms of fit represent different theoretical perspectives on the relationship between P-E and strain. Further, they assert that these three forms of fit carry important methodological implications because they describe fundamentally different functional relationships between P, E, and the outcome. Edward and Cooper suggest that the discrepancy, interactive, and proportional forms of fit, should not be considered interchangeable.

One example of fit that is widely confused with other forms of fit is Person-Organisation (P-O) fit (Kristof, 1996). Examples of other forms of P-E fit include person-vocation (P-V) fit, whereby both people and occupations are assumed to have 'personalities' (Holland, 1985), or because people choose occupations which are congruent with their own self-concepts (Super, 1953). The second, type of P-E fit is Person-Group (P-G) fit, defined as the compatibility between individuals and their groups or teams (e.g., Klimoski & Jones, 1995). The third form of P-E fit focuses on people and their jobs (Person-Job or P-J) fit. This form of fit is referred to the compatibility of individuals with specific jobs, defined by Edwards (1991) as the fit between the abilities of a person and the demands of a job or the desires of a person and the attributes of a job. Yet another form of fit is person-culture (P-C) congruence demonstrating that the level of fit between an organisation's culture and its new employee's value preferences predicts organisational outcomes like turnover (e.g., O'Reilley et al., 1991; Vandenberghe, 1999). As indicated earlier this study focuses on two forms of fit: The fit (I) between individual preferences (needs) for HRM policy practice and actual (supplies) organisation HRM policy practice and (II) between an individuals own values with the values of others in the organisation. I treat P-C fit as a form of P-O fit and examine them under the broad perspective of P-E fit theory. Therefore, I propose to consider these types of fit under the broad term P-O fit. I briefly define this study's approach to P-O fit.

The impact organisational membership has on people and people on organisations can be gathered by focusing on the characteristics of both. Mostly, research in this area deals with the antecedents and consequences of compatibility between people and organisations. Researchers have focused on different aspects of the person and of the



organisation (e.g., abilities, job characteristics, values, personality characteristics, and careers). Fit has been described as 'elusive' and having an imprecise and inconsistent definition (Rynes & Gerhart, 1990). Researchers in the field of interactional psychology (e.g., Bowers, 1973) and organisational behaviour (e.g., Chatman, 1987; Schneider, 1987) define P-O fit as the degree of congruence between the values of individual employees and the norms, values and goals of the organisation as embodied in its culture. Edwards (1994) refers to congruence as the fit, match, agreement, or similarity between two conceptually distinct constructs. Kristof (1996) argues that P-O fit has been confused because of multiple conceptualisations and operationalisations as well as limited distinction from other forms of P-E fit. However, it is clear that the main focus of most fit studies is compatibility. Two types of fit distinctions are made, 'supplementary' and 'complementary' fit in order to clarify the issue of compatibility. Muchinsky and Monahan (1987) point out that 'supplementary fit' occurs when a person "supplements, embellishes, or possesses characteristics which are similar to other individuals" in an environment whereas, 'complementary fit', occurs when a person's characteristics "make whole" the environment or add to it what is missing.

Kristof (1996) bases her definition of P-O fit on the relationship between supplementary and complementary fit. She defines the construct as the 'compatibility between people and organisations that occurs when: (a) at least one entity provides what the other needs, or (b) they share similar fundamental characteristics, or (c) both' (p. 4). Kristof, then, concludes that this definition recognises the multiple conceptualisation of P-O fit and allows for both the supplementary and complementary perspectives to be considered concurrently. Caplan (1987) basing his theory on that proposed by French, Rodgers, and Cobb (1974) describes one of the properties of fit theory as that defined in terms of abilities-environmental demands and needs-environmental supplies. Edwards (1991) using the same perspective of P-E fit distinguishes between needs-supplies and demands-abilities elements of fit theory. In the case of needs-supplies perspective, P-E fit occurs when an organisation satisfies individual's needs, desires, or preferences. On the other hand, demands-abilities perspective means that fit occurs when an individual's abilities meet organisational demands (Edwards, 1991). Authors have recommended that a construct and dimensions under investigation be specified (Schwab, 1980; Kristof, 1996). Therefore, the present study specifically investigates fit from the perspectives of

needs-supplies and supplementary fit from Edwards' and Kristof's perspectives respectively. As mentioned earlier, this part of the research examines two forms of fit. First I investigate congruence between employee preferences for HRM policies and practices and actual organisation policy practice. In order to determine the effects that individual HRM preferences have on an organisations outcomes or employee work attitudes, we must first assess the extent of match or agreement between the employees' HRM preferences and actual organisation HRM practice (work context).

The second form of fit I examine is between individuals own values with the values of others in the organisation. Katz and Khan (1978) argue that despite the fact that many aspects of P and O are important in determining behaviour, values are the most fundamental and most enduring of both person and organisation. Schein (1992) asserted that values are the components of organisational culture that guide employee' behaviours. Therefore, this study also examines fit between individual cultural value orientations and those of other organisational members to determine any effects on job involvement. This is important as Brown (1996: 251) suggested, 'job involvement has been considered only as an individual phenomenon, but it would be worthwhile to explore whether it can be contagious under the right circumstances'. Individuals not holding particular values necessary for job involvement common in a group might find that he or she has acquired those values just because he or she happened to be a member of a certain group or organisation which he/she intends to remain.

### **3.8 HRM POLICY PREFERENCE-ACTUAL POLICY PRACTICE FIT AND JOB INVOLVEMENT**

It has become a widely held premise that people provide organisations with an important source of competitive advantage especially when well managed (Pfeffer, 1994; Poole & Jenkins, 1996; Wright, McMahan, & McWilliam, 1994). Organisational performance is seen to depend more on effective utilisation of human capital rather than physical capital (e.g., Reich, 1991). This is because technological and other material resources in spite of being critical are also generated by the industrious and creative efforts of people, and it is their ingenuity that also ensures that these resources are effectively deployed. Essentially, it is possible to define human resources 'as a pool of human capital under the firm's control in a direct employment relationship and human



resource practices are the organisational networks directed at managing the pool of human capital and ensuring that the capital is employed towards the fulfilment of organisational goals' (Wright et al., 1994). However, Wright & McMahan (1992), drawing on Barney's (1991) resource-based theory of the firm, argue that in order for human resources to qualify as a source of sustained competitive advantage, it must satisfy four conditions: the resource must add value to the firm, it must be rare, it must not be easily imitated and there must be no adequate substitutes. Bailey (1993) asserted that human resources are frequently 'under-utilised' because organisational efforts to elicit acceptable performance attitudes are not adequate, contending that HRM policies and practices can affect employee motivational attitudes. The effectiveness of even highly qualified and skilled employees will be limited if they are not motivated to perform well (Huselid, 1995). HRM practices can affect employees' motivation by encouraging them to work harder (job involved) and smarter.

Though HRM activities are frequently acknowledged to play a major role in encouraging employee performance and eliciting other desirable behavioural attitudes like commitment (e.g., Sparrow & Wu, 1998), the specific form of this relationship is still open to debate. As argued elsewhere in this chapter, HRM has been recognised by both management scholars and practitioners in Europe and North America as a channel to promote support and reinforce employee effectiveness. Arguably, then, even local and foreign firms in developing countries can benefit from this new concept. Two approaches have been used to describe the link between HRM and organisational outcomes such as firm performance namely: the *universal* and the *contingency* approaches. In the same note, as indicated earlier, terms such as 'culture free' and 'culture specific' have been in use. With more transnational organisations operating in different parts of the world and more managers being transferred internationally (Black, Gregerson, & Mendenhall, 1993; Dowling & Schuler, 1990), they are likely to encounter organisations and employees that are different in several ways bringing to question their state-of-the art HRM policies and practices. This might require that a proper mix of the two approaches (universal and contingency) be implemented. Organisations have to determine what human resource (HR) policies and practices they implement in order to achieve particular goals. These goals could be increase in organisation performance within the short-term and the long-term. The goals could also

be organisation survival or adaptability. One of the premises of an effective HRM system is reflected by the levels of congruence the HRM policies and practices generate or sustain between management and employees, different employee groups, the organisation and the community, employees and their families, and within the individual (Beer, et al., 1985). These authors indicate that ‘congruence (fit) is an essential outcome of any effective HRM system as lack of it will cost the organisation in terms of time, money and energy, in terms of the resulting low levels of trust and common purpose, and in terms of stress and other psychological problems it can create’ (p. 19).

It is widely known as described earlier that developing countries differ from developed countries on many dimensions including the nature of the economic and political environment, socio-cultural environment, internal work culture and related assumptions about guiding principles of behaviour in organisations (Kanungo & Jaeger, 1990). Mendonca and Kanungo (1996) point out that ‘the success of programmes, techniques and processes, particularly those relating to the social systems, presuppose an internal work culture whose norms, beliefs and values are conducive to and supportive of the attitudes and behaviours, of both managers and subordinates, that are necessary for the effective conduct of the programme’s activities and processes’ (p. 66). Arguably, then, organisations that tend to match their HRM policy practice to employees’ HRM policy preferences are likely to succeed in eliciting desirable behavioural outcomes like job involvement. Therefore, organisations intending to implement the state-of-the art HRM policies and practices need to modify them or adapt the mode of implementation to ‘fit’ the preferences of their employees more especially, in developing countries. This way the frequently acknowledged central role of HRM in linking employees to an organisation’s sustained competitive advantage may be extended to developing economies’ organisations too. This leads to the other research question to be addressed in this study:

Research Question 6: In a developing country environment, is job involvement related to HRM preference-policy practice fit?



### **3.9 INDIVIDUAL VALUES-OTHERS' VALUES (PERSON-CULTURE) FIT AND JOB INVOLVEMENT**

The view of person-culture (P-C) fit proposed here is closely linked to Schneider's (1983) Attraction-Selection-Model (ASA), the findings of Vroom (1966) showing that a person chooses an organisation in which to work that has the potential to meet his/her most valued outcomes, Tom's (1971) findings showing that people's most preferred environments are those that have the same 'personality' profile as they do and Holland's (1985) perspective that careers are conveniently and empirically classifiable into six major types.

Schneider (1983) argues that it is the attributes of the people, not the nature of the environment, or organisational technology, or organisational structure, are the fundamental determinants of organisational behaviour. Schneider strongly suggests that organisations acquire their "unique" culture from the individuals who make up the organisation arguing that, those who fit stay while those who don't leave creating an organisation with employees of similar behaviours and orientations. Schneider (1987) building on the theories of Holland (1985), findings of Vroom (1966), and Tom (1971) concludes that 'similar kinds of people are likely to have similar kinds of personalities, are likely to choose to do similar things, and likely to behave in similar kinds of ways' (p. 441). As noted elsewhere, the desire to 'fit' with others is a powerful social pressure (Asch, 1951), and that people are usually attracted to those similar to themselves (Moreland, 1985). Values that are socially endorsed by the organisation and valued by the individual can lead to close relationships, positive affect, and attachment (O'Reilly et al., 1991; Goodman & Svyantek, 1999). Harrison and Carroll (1991) in their model for cultural transmission in organisations point out that, the intensity of the socialisation process is one aspect that affects how long an organisation maintains its culture. These and other views point to the belief that organisations might be composed of employees with relatively homogenous values. In the US research has shown that fit between individual values and those of the organisation influences job outcomes as individual productivity, job satisfaction and commitment (Goodman et al., 1999; O'Reilly et al., 1991). Studies have also shown that mismatch between what the organisation and the individual values can influence important organisational criteria such as selection (Chatman, 1991). Therefore, it appears an important aspect of P-O fit includes the fit of

individual values and attitudes with those of others in the organisation. Scholars (e.g., Schneider, 1987: 437) recommend that, psychologists and behavioural scientists should seek explanations in people because “the people make the place”. This might exert strong pressures to adapt one’s own value orientations to others in the organisation in order to conform to organisational norms and hence maintain one’s employability, given harsh employment conditions in a Kenyan context. This kind of fit is likely to foster work-related attitudes as job involvement, and behaviours. Therefore, this part of the study investigates for fit between individual values and those of others, and if any, whether there is any association with job involvement attitudes. Specifically, the research question to be answered here is:

Research Question 7: In a developing country environment, is job involvement related to person-culture fit?

### **3.10 HOW UNIVERSAL IS THE CONCEPT OF PERSON-ENVIRONMENT (P-E) FIT**

Given the contextual differences in HRM, job involvement and culture, it is questionable whether theories like person-organisation fit are reflected in managers’ organisation strategies in Kenyan organisations, especially within the larger population of their labour force. Some aspects of fit might be universal such as Person-Job (P-J) fit, which is a well-studied type of fit (e.g., Chatman, 1991; Edwards, 1991; Cable & Judge, 1996); Person-Organisation fit with an organisation’s culture (e.g., Schein, 1985; O’Reilly et al., 1991; Kilmann et al., 1986). In the developed economies these types of fit are felt to be relevant to most organisations that want to survive and gain competitive advantage, especially those with ‘core’ human resources possessing rare skills. Studies that have focused on developing countries have stressed the need to adjust Western management policies - more especially HRM policies - to developing country environments. This they argue will lead to organisation success in developing countries (see for example, Jaeger, 1990; Kiggundu, et al., 1983; Kanungo & Mendonca, 1994). Further, in a developing country, the immediate concern is survival rather than competitiveness via their human resources and their problems cannot be comparable with developed economies (Pieper, 1990). Organisations operating in such environments might find that ‘fit’, as presented in the literature from developed



economies, does not matter. Therefore, even if organisations were willing, it might not be easy to match employee needs with organisation supplies in terms of resources and opportunities. Consequently, fit that is operationalized to reflect a needs-supplies perspective, whereby the organisation tends to fit individual preferences or needs and organisation systems might not explain employees' job attitudes in the Kenyan environment. From this needs-supplies perspective Kenyan employees might then not expect any fit between their HRM preferences and HRM policies. However, as noted above, to maintain employability, Kenyan workers may feel some pressure to adapt their own value orientations to organisational norms. This leads me to ask what kind of fit, if fit matters at all, is relevant for human resource (HR) managers in these environments? Is it the kind of fit that HR managers can do something about for example, through matching HR preferences with policies, or is it something more fundamental about the work environment such as fit with an organisations' culture?

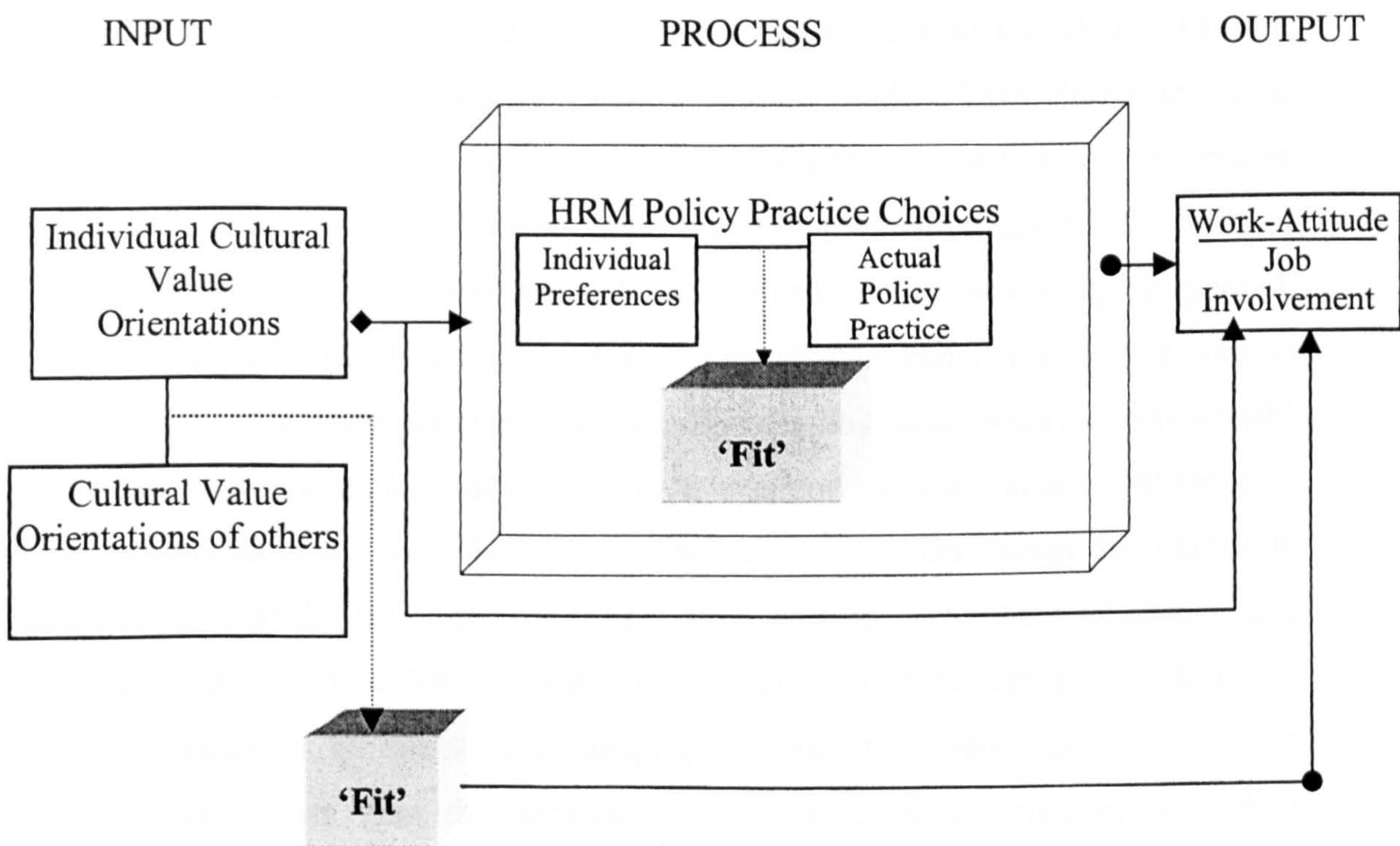


Figure 3.0: The Input-Process-Output Relationship of the Theoretical Framework

Overall, the conceptualised framework of this thesis may be represented graphically as shown in Figure 3.0. The figure contains three main components:



Input variables – cultural value orientations of individual employees that shape individual employees' preferences for HRM policy choices being implemented by the organisation(s). Also cultural value orientations of the individual with others in the organisation in light of the congruence between them;

Process variables – individuals' HRM preferences, as a reflection of employee attitudes toward HRM issues in light of the fit between what they desire and what the organisation(s) adopt. Also considered as a process is the congruence between individual values with others values.

Output variable – job involvement as a work-related behaviour influenced separately by the two types of fit.

### **3.11 CONCLUSION**

This chapter has enabled me set out the theoretical framework of this study. Clearly, culture is not a residual explanatory variable because studies have shown that it is behind the success or failure of international management techniques in foreign countries at the micro level. Culture is one of the principal instruments for the study of human behaviour and comparative research can not progress if the concept is ignored. Therefore, this study adopts the concept as a first step in understanding the context impacting HRM policy and practice in Kenya. By adopting Kluckhohn and Strodtbeck' (1961) value orientations this study attempts to examine cultural value orientations of Kenyan employees at the individual level. The review has also shown that culture is dynamic in spite of the fact that change is a slow process. The issue of change and stability in culture will be investigated. This dynamism in culture implies that old aggregative measures of culture are inappropriate and the focus should be at the individual level rather than the societal level because of the role of individual differences.

The theoretical framework presented in this chapter shows that cultural value orientations might influence preferences. Arguably then, cultural values influence HRM preferences for policy and practice. In order to examine for any influence the study proposes to first investigate for the overall pattern of HRM policy practice preferences of the sample under study. HRM policy and practice adopted is as conceptualised by



Schuler and Jackson (1987), in their HRM policy practice menu. Also, these cultural values are examined whether they impact job involvement, the work-related behaviour being investigated here.

Borrowing from person-environment fit literature; the study examines for two forms of fit. First, is fit between employee preferences and company actual policy. Second, is fit between individual cultural values and those of others in the organisation. These fit are examined for influence on job involvement. Overall, this study's framework adopts an input-process-output strategy to examine for all these linkages (Sparrow & Wu, 1998). In the next chapter I present the method adopted for this study.

## CHAPTER FOUR

### RESEARCH METHOD

#### 4.0 INTRODUCTION

This chapter describes the research design, justification of the method adopted and the techniques used to analyse the data. This chapter is organised as follows. First, the research design and justification for the choice of this type of design is presented. Second, the sampling design is described and justified. Third, the research measures or instruments for the three main areas of study are described (Cultural Values, HRM, and Job Involvement) and the rationale for their choice is given. Fourth, the procedure adopted at the data collection phase is described and explained. Fifth, the statistical techniques used to analyse the data are presented. Limitations of the research design are also discussed.

#### 4.1 THE RESEARCH DESIGN AND ITS JUSTIFICATION

The research design adopted for this study is a *survey/correlational* design, essentially quantitative with some input from the qualitative approaches. This 'hybrid' was thought appropriate in order to get richer data because some quantitative data like actual policy practice needed support from qualitative sources so as to make them more robust. A review of the literature indicates that there is a need to develop comparative HRM by including issues from developing countries (Adler et al., 1995). Moreover, research has indicated that HRM is a concept in transition in need of empirical information at the firm level for better understanding (Boxall, 1991). Therefore, more useful data could be collected by focusing on a few committed organisations that can legitimise research and give the necessary support during the data collection phase.

Other reasons for the choice of this study's particular design are: First, this study was conducted in a developing country of Sub-Saharan Africa where research has not taken root, researchers are then held with some suspicion (Devereux & Hoddinott, 1993). These circumstances require a few organisations that can commit themselves to the data collection process in order to get useable responses. Second, the nature of the units necessitated the type of design because there was a need to match the units using some



variables to control contaminating or 'nuisance' variables. Third, the organisation population covered almost all the main towns of Kenya, which necessitated wide travelling periods. Given manpower and financial limitations, this imposed a limitation on the number of organisations that could be sampled. Also, there was an element of collecting both primary data using questionnaires and some interviews, plus secondary data from documented material. Lastly, this being PhD research there were limits to what could be achieved within the given time frame.

Earley and Singh (1995) suggest a classification of research approaches to guide research in international and inter-cultural management. These are:

- Unitary: emphasising a single instance of phenomenon instead of cultural or national systems from a comparative perspective;
- Gestalt: emphasising examination of a system as a whole rather than in small parts;
- Reduced: this form emphasises breaking a system into parts in order to identify processes and procedures within;
- Hybrid: this form adopts a combination of features of both gestalt and reduced forms.

Earley and Singh advocate the hybrid form for use in international and inter-cultural research because it overcomes the limitations inherent in other forms making it more appealing. However, they do not rule out other approaches as they see them as promising. This study uses the 'Gestalt' approach, which emphasises examination of a system rather than in parts. The features of the gestalt form are given by Earley and Singh (1995: 330) as: '1) relationships among variables are examined as they occur across different cultural or national systems; 2) constructs and hypothesised relationships are derived from general principles rather than from the systems themselves; 3) interpretations of findings from a given cultural or national system must be developed with reference to specifics of the system'. These interpretations inform the researcher as to the universality of a given principle. These features are reflected in my study in different ways. First, I used available research and theory in the field from

other countries for framing research questions or interpreting the observations. Therefore, although the focus of this study is primarily on Kenyan employees in Kenyan organisations, my conceptual orientation reflects cultural and organisational theory evolved in other cultural systems in order to explain observations from Kenyan organisations. Second, the sampling frame comprised all levels of the structure rather than a particular department or group of employees. Third, the organisations studied were spread all over the country, which captures how organisations operate within the Kenyan context. The approach seemed suitable in examining the complex relationships between cultural value orientations, HRM preferences and job involvement in a developing country context. Furthermore, there were limitations that could not allow studying more than one country that necessitated concentrating on Kenya and using findings in other contexts for comparative purposes.

Another researcher (Adler, 1983) came up with a categorisation of cultural studies indicating that there are four types of approaches to cultural research. These are:

- **Parochial approach:** This applies to studies which, for example are conducted by Americans in the US;
- **Ethnocentric approach:** This applies to studies that attempt to replicate for example, American management research in foreign countries;
- **Polycentric approach:** This applies to studies that focus on describing, explaining and interpreting the patterns of management and organisation in foreign countries;
- **Comparative management approach:** This applies to research that attempts to identify those aspects of the organisations that are similar and those that are different in organisations around the world;
- **Geocentric approach:** This applies to studies of organisations operating in more than one culture, that is an organisation that operates in Kenya, Israel, France and so forth;



- **Synergistic approach:** This applies to studies that focus on those organisations with people from different cultures that work in the same organisation for example, when Asians, Americans, Africans and Europeans work for a company like Siemens located in Kenya.

From Adler's perspective this study falls under the 'parochial' approach, because it is designed and conducted in one culture by a researcher from that culture and the 'comparative management' approach because it attempts to identify those aspects of the Kenyan organisations or employees that are similar or different to those in other organisations or employees around the world by using *a priori* theory.

It is known that there is a need for qualitative approaches to explore possible underlying relationships, and broaden the focus of examination to include the context in which management philosophies occur. This is because surveys do not capture the processes and procedures that lie behind decision-making, nor strategy formulation. However, the types of methods essential for carrying out a qualitative study like observation, intensive in-depth interviewing, experiments in each organisation, may require a long time to complete, cause uneasiness, which may then lead to denial of access for this project in a developing country (see for example, Devereux & Hoddinott, 1993). Therefore, the study utilised both questionnaires and interviews to collect data from several organisations, across each organisation structure to assess individual employee attitudes and actual company HRM practice. However, interviews were limited to senior managers in order to check their quantitative responses on actual policy practice (see section 4.2.4 in this chapter). The main objective of this study was to establish a correlational linkage between individual values, HRM preferences and job involvement, a task only possible by employing self-report measures. An attitude scale was deemed suitable because according to Oppenheim (1992: 187) 'it enables us to divide people roughly into a number of broad groups with respect to a particular attitude, and to allow us to study the ways in which such an attitude relates to other variables in our survey'.

The main advantages of a self-administered questionnaire, according to Oppenheim (1992: 103), are that 'it ensures a high response rate, accurate sampling and a minimum of interviewer bias, while permitting interviewer assessments, providing necessary explanations (but *not* the interpretation of questions) and giving the benefit of a degree

of personal contact. The respondents can complete the questionnaire when it is convenient and can check personal records if necessary'. In relation with this research, these were important aspects for data collection due to the sizes of the organisations under investigation, the research focus (individual) and due to a wide organisational geographical spread (see sample design section). It was not possible to use any other method other than a questionnaire mode of inquiry. Furthermore, the questionnaire was designed in a closed-alternative format which according to Selltiz (1976) has the advantages of being simple to administer and quick and relatively inexpensive to analyse. The analysis of responses to open-ended questions is often difficult and time consuming. In addition, a closed-alternative question may help to ensure that the answers are given in a frame of reference that is relevant to the purpose of the inquiry and in a form that is useable in the analysis. Other advantages of fixed-alternative questions are they are easy to ask and quick to answer and they require no writing by either respondent or interviewer. The fixed-alternative questions also require less motivation to communicate on the part of the respondent, and the response itself is usually less revealing (and hence less threatening) than in the case of the open-ended questions (see Nachmias & Nachmias, 1992).

The research strategy also involved collecting data using interviews with some face-to-face interviewing with senior managers and collection of some secondary material from personnel policy manuals. This was necessary because I wanted to confirm the organisations' actual HRM practice, after going through the Chief Executives' or their designates' quantitative responses in the questionnaire. Furthermore, these face-to face interviews enabled me to establish the 'why' and 'how' of the organisation's HRM systems and decision processes. After tabulating their data it was possible to check for consistencies or inconsistencies between what the manager said during the interview or what is written in the manual regarding particular HRM policies and the choices made on the quantitative data (see tabulation in Appendix 5.0).

#### **4.1.1 Sampling Design**

The design was supposed to collect data that could answer the research questions and be as representative as possible both at the micro- and macro-level. The design was expected to possess different parameters on all the variables of interest (Sekaran, 1992).



For example, it was important to cover all the levels in the organisational hierarchy in all functional areas of the units. However, employing several procedures ensured an element of randomness. First, I had to choose the participating organisations using *purposive* sampling because there was a need to get those organisations willing to participate in the study and satisfied the criteria that were set out (see variables criteria in Table 4.0). The reasons that necessitated the choices and the basis for the criteria used are: First, Kenya is a capitalist country with several main players in its economic system i.e. subsidiaries of Multinational corporations, State owned firms, Public liability companies, Joint Ventures, Private Companies and Small Scale Enterprises. So, in order to capture the main business players into the sample, 30 organisations were identified from a business database, the Kenya Fact book (1996), that fulfilled the criteria. A letter was written to the 30 identified organisations of which five agreed initially. I followed up the rest by phoning and in some cases personal visits and meeting with the MD or his/her designate. In those conversations either in meetings or on phone, the Manager(s) wanted further clarification regarding the research. After a while another four companies agreed to participate whereby one was to participate for piloting purposes only. Time was running out hence, I settled for the nine organisations that had confirmed participation whilst one acted as a pilot. Therefore, only eight organisations participated in the main study.

Small Scale Enterprises were left out because many are sole proprietorships without a personnel department, a function that is important to this study. The issue of the industry sector was to match the units because different industries might exhibit different variables that might contaminate the data. All the firms were to be from the manufacturing or processing sector. The number of employees and the age of the organisation is an attempt to control the size of the units. It was necessary to require that units possess a Personnel/Human resource management department since this functional area is the focus of the study. This was necessary because then I could be sure there was some HRM activity going on in the organisation. Choice of several locations are also justified, as Kenya is a multi-ethnic society with over 43 different ethnic groups. So, with focus of the study being culture, it was felt necessary to include organisations that are likely to comprise employees from different ethnic groups. Such organisations could be found in the major towns of Kenya like Nairobi and Mombasa

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that are main industrial centres. Most towns comprise key ethnic groups in Kenya who have migrated from rural areas in search of employment. Other specific criteria for example, the Public liability company (PLC) being a quoted company with the Nairobi Stock Exchange was to capture a unit that is profit-oriented whose management practice is based on professional principles. A PLC satisfies these criteria well because it is owned by shareholders that are in need of dividends at the end of a period. Private companies owned by Kenyan citizens are where one might expect the influence of Kinship ethos and other cultural values because of ownership. It was important to include a state owned organisation, as up to recently they were among the main economic players and key employers of most Kenyans in the government's endeavour to Africanise and industrialise the country immediately after independence. However, still foreign companies such as multinationals play a major role in the economy. Whilst such a combination represents the many ownership structures found in Kenya, allowing for some control for sector and size, it is important to note that such matching for comparison can rarely be perfect in field studies. Those companies chosen which participated in the research include two Multinationals (MNCs), two Joint Ventures, one Public liability company (Plc), one State firm and two local Private companies. Table 4.0 shows the variables controlled for participating organisations.



Table 4.0

## Variables Controlled among Participating Organisations

Type of Organisation	Variables controlled
<b>Multinational (MNC)</b>	Be a subsidiary of a Multinational foreign firm Be in the manufacturing/processing industry Employing over 200 employees at the time Located within main towns of Kenya Having a fully operational Personnel/HRM department
<b>Public company (Plc)</b>	Be a quoted company with the Nairobi Stock exchange At least 50% of the shareholders be Kenyan citizens Employing no less than 200 employees at the time of the study Main location be within or around main towns of the country Have a fully operational Personnel/HRM department
<b>Joint Venture</b>	Owned by the Government and other foreign investors Employing not less than 200 employees Be in the manufacturing/processing industry Main location be within or around main towns of the country Have a fully operational Personnel/HRM department
<b>State Firm</b>	Be owned and managed by the government Employing not less 200 employees Be in the manufacturing/processing sector Main location be within or around a main town Have a fully operational Personnel/HRM department
<b>Private Company</b>	Be owned by local Kenyan citizens Employing not less than 200 employees at the time of the study Be in the manufacturing /processing industry Main location be within or around main towns Have a fully operational Personnel/HRM department.

In the case of choosing subjects, simple random sampling with an element of stratification (because of the procedure) was adopted in the selection of respondents in order to get groups that are relevant, appropriate, and meaningful in the context of the study. There was a deliberate attempt to try and ensure homogeneity within groups and heterogeneity between sections. A random sample of employees was identified with the help of line managers after the research was sanctioned by the Managing Director (MD). The line managers were instructed through a memo from the MD informing them that the organisation has accepted to participate in the survey and they were required to identify people randomly from their section across the following demographics: gender, ethnic group, occupation, grade, and education level. A representative sample of employee groups was expected to emerge across these variables. These criteria were chosen in order to try and select a more representative sampling frame. According to Kish (1965), there are four basic types of sampling problems (missing element, clusters of elements, blanks or foreign elements, and duplicate listings) of which I was mainly concerned with one, missing elements. The problem of *missing elements*, which means that elements that should be included in the population are not on the sampling frame.



This problem can occur in two ways. The frame may be *inadequate*, in the sense that it does not cover the whole population to be surveyed, or the frame may be *incomplete*, meaning that some population members who are supposed to be on it are in fact not on it. For example, in most Kenyan organisations the female gender is the minority, furthermore, the multi-ethnic identity of Kenya was a necessary element in assessing culture. Again, it was important that employees from different occupations and grades be in the frame. Some occupations such as secretarial work are predominantly female and grade is usually associated with age, long serving employees or those well-educated and qualified elements necessary for comparison purposes. Another important criterion was education level. It was necessary that respondents possess a minimum of primary education because the questionnaire was in English. English is the medium used in the education system and anyone who has successively completed primary education can write and read in English. It is the official language used in the civil service and in other organisations. The five criteria were also chosen because they are easy to identify and isolate. A minimum of 500 Questionnaires were administered and interviews conducted with the Managing Director or his/her designate in each organisation.

## **4.2 MEASURES USED IN THE STUDY**

Questionnaires (see Appendix 1.0) were used to assess cultural value orientations, HRM policy practice preferences, actual policy practice and levels of job involvement. Interviews were also conducted with senior managers to counter check consistencies or inconsistencies in their responses to the work practices survey administered to them and the forces surrounding the choice of particular policy practices. There was one main questionnaire containing four key parts covering the concepts in the research. This questionnaire was known as the Cultural Perspectives and Work Practices Questionnaire (CPWPQ). The questionnaire consisted of 4 sections:

- 1) Cultural perspectives questionnaire (CPQ4): meant to tap employees' perceptions of their individual cultural value orientations.
- 2) Human resource management (HRM) related work attitudes questionnaire (HRWPQ): meant to capture individual preferences for how the organisation should conduct particular HRM policies and practices.



- 3) Job involvement questionnaire (JIQ): meant to tap individual attitudes towards their levels of job involvement.
- 4) Demographic information: this part was to gather respondents' demographic data like age, gender, ethnic affiliation, education level, occupation, length of service, and years on the same job.

Actual organisation HRM policy practice was measured by using rephrased items in the HRWPQ. This questionnaire was completed by a senior manager or designate who could be from the HR section or from Administration. Also face-to-face interviews were conducted with the senior manager or designate. In some cases where available, personnel manuals were examined.

#### **4.2.1 Cultural Perspectives Questionnaire (CPQ4)**

When I embarked on studying cultural values of Kenyan employees as a possible influence on work preferences, Hofstede's well-known dimensions seemed most appealing and easy to apply. However, in reviewing the literature on the dimensions of cultural variations, I realised that several other cross-cultural researchers have attempted to develop measures that give the conceptualisation of culture a central role (e.g., Leung & Bond, 1989; Trompenaars, 1993; Schwartz, 1994; Maznevski & DiStefano, 1995). A critical analysis was made of the pioneering and current research projects that came up with measures of cultural values and it was decided that among those available Maznevski and DiStefano' (1995) Cultural Perspectives Questionnaire (CPQ4) was the most appropriate for this sample. A letter was written to request for permission to use the scale, which was granted towards the end of 1997.

As already explained in the previous chapter (Chapter Three) there are several reasons why I chose to use Kluckhohn and Strodtbeck's conceptualisation of cultural values. The following section recapitulates some of the reasons and justifies the use of CPQ4 (operationalised using Kluckhohn and Strodtbeck's (1961) cultural values) for this Kenyan sample.

Hofstede's (1980) dimensions have been extensively used to examine cross-cultural variations (Smith & Bond, 1993), despite which the study has been heavily criticised.

The range of countries sampled does affect the dimensions. It is clear that the study like many others leaves out countries from developing economies of Africa. As even Hofstede notes, communist countries were also left out of his sample. Another criticism is that the dimensions that emerged may not be exhaustive to cover all possible facets of national culture. The use of aggregated national data can be misleading. Hofstede aggregated work preferences across several psychological variables. Though widely used the validity and usefulness of the four dimensions at the individual level of analysis is questionable (Robinson, 1983; Sondergaard, 1994; Dorfman & Howell 1988; Hunt, 1981; Goodstein, 1981). Therefore, CPQ4 that combines different cultural facets and items describing real life situations seemed appropriate for this sample.

Secondly, after a closer look at almost all cultural value classifications developed so far, it was apparent that almost all converge at Kluckhohn and Strodtbeck's (1961) value variations, on which Maznevski and DiStefano base their measures. Further CPQ4 has proved its content validity due to its basis. Thirdly, classifying cultures on bipolar patterns ignores the fact that two dimensions can exist together within a culture. For example, as Sinha and Tripathi (1994) argue, it is possible to find both collectivist and individualistic values in a culture depending on context. African people have changed a lot since their first contact with Europeans and Americans and the introduction of education and the use of money into their lifestyles might have brought in new values that were not present before. Therefore, measures that compare values on a bipolar scale may ignore the changes that have taken place in most Kenyans' value orientations. The CPQ4 scale is therefore the most appropriate as it recognises the fact that value orientations may be present at the same time within a society, but having different rank orders across societies. Fourth, the psychometric properties and design principles of this measure have reported construct validity from different samples over time. The present version has gone through revisions across different cultures at different stages (Maznevski & DiStefano, 1995). At the first stage, 222 University business students in Canada and the US completed the first version called CPQ2. Further improvement was required necessitating the development of the third version the CPQ3 which was distributed to 776 respondents from 64 countries. The present version used for this study the CPQ4 was completed by 362 respondents from Australia, Canada, Hong Kong, and the US. The present scales' internal reliability using Cronbach' alpha have



subsequently improved from between 0.43 and 0.78 to between 0.60 and 0.79 for all the sub-categories except for three namely, relational individual (0.48), relation to nature mastery (0.50) and for activity being (0.51). Reliability for some of these three have improved in this study (see chapter Five section 5.2) and another in Taiwan (Sparrow & Wu, 1998). For the Taiwan sample, relational individual moved up to 0.59 while relation to nature mastery moved up to 0.58. Confirmatory factor analysis has shown that the hypothesised factor structures fit the data collected, and preferences within each value orientation were found to be independent of each other (Maznevski & DiStefano, 1995) (see results Chapter Five for the factor structure in this sample).

The cultural perspectives scale formed the first part of the main questionnaire. There were 79 items in all, covering the eleven sub-categories for the four dimensions originally developed by Kluckhohn and Strodtbeck (1961). On average each sub-category has seven items. The instrument contained statements, ideals or guides to behaviour e.g. “one’s responsibility for family members should go beyond one’s parents and children,” “every person on a team should be responsible for the performance of everyone else on the team,” “society works best when each person serves his/her own interests”. All items contained a seven point Likert-type scale (scored from 1 = ‘strongly disagree’ to 7 = ‘strongly agree’) with strongly disagree and strongly agree anchoring on both ends (see Appendix 1.0 for detail). The four value orientations with their respective sub-categories that were assessed are:

1. Activity orientation: Activity: being, 7 items; Activity: doing, 10 items; Activity: thinking, 8 items;
2. Relational orientation: Relational: individual, 7 items; Relational: collateral, 8 items; Relational: hierarchical, 7 items;
3. Relation to nature orientation: Subjugation, 7 items; Mastery, 7 items; Harmony, 7 items; and
4. Human nature orientation: Human nature: good or evil, 6 items; Human nature: changeable, 5 items.

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The following are example of items from each scale of the four value orientations:

- **Activity-Being:** “It is best to live for the moment”;
- **Activity-Doing:** “It is human nature to place more importance on work than on other activities”;
- **Activity-Thinking:** “It is important to think things through carefully before acting on them”;
- **Relational-Individual:** “It’s natural to put your own interests ahead of others”;
- **Relational-Collateral:** Every person on a team should be responsible for the performance of everyone else on the team”;
- **Relational-Hierarchical:** “Organisations should have separate facilities, such as eating areas, for higher-level managers”;
- **Relation to Nature-Subjugation:** “We have little influence on the outcomes of events in our lives”;
- **Relation to Nature-Mastery:** “Humans should try to control nature whenever possible”;
- **Relation to Nature-Harmony:** “The most effective businesses are those which work together in harmony with their environment”;
- **Human Nature-Good/Evil:** “If supervisors don’t always check when workers come and go, workers will probably lie about how many hours they work”;
- **Human Nature-Changeable:** “In general, bad people cannot change their ways”.

As noted earlier, Kluckhohn and Strodtbeck (1961) argue that these value orientations do guide behaviour because they give order and direction to human actions and there is



a relation to solutions of common day to day problems. This is because individuals express culture and its normative qualities through the values they hold. The basic premise underlying the value orientations is that there are common themes in the problems societies have faced throughout the ages.

#### 4.2.2 The HRM-related Work Attitudes Survey (WAS)

This was the second part of the questionnaire selected and designed by the researcher to examine issues related to work and organisational employee management in Kenyan organisations. The items were specifically meant to assess *individual preferences* for several HRM policies and practices. Five HRM areas were covered, namely: planning and job design; recruitment and selection; compensation; performance appraisal; and training and development. The scale contained 34 five-point items developed by the researcher based upon the typology of HRM practices proposed by Schuler and Jackson (1987). The HRM menu by these authors was based on empirical work in the US in relation to a contingency theory of international HRM literature. Originally, Schuler and Jackson's menu for HRM was in a shortened version that was seen to be vague for example, planning choices were postulated as: formal versus informal; short term versus long term (see Chapter 2 Table 2.1). This necessitated the researcher to represent the menu of HRM for example, into statements like:

Tight formal planning of most work issues by sophisticated control and information systems	1	2	3	4	5	Loose informal planning heavy dependence on informal relationships
Emphasis on long-term goals (more than 5 years)	1	2	3	4	5	Emphasis on short-term goals (one year or less)

Participants were asked to decide their individual preference for how the company should conduct specific HRM policies and practices by circling a number between 1 to 5 as shown above between the pairs. A score of three was taken to be the mid-point presenting a mixed preference or rather undecided response. Consequently, a score to the right or to the left of three reflected the respondent's preference between the items. Following are examples of items in each HRM area covered in the scale:

- Planning and Job Design: "The company should try to design jobs to attract and retain the best people, regardless of cost versus The company should consider the cost issues before recruiting the best people";

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- **Recruitment and Selection:** “Make the criteria used for selection very clear to all job applicants versus Not reveal all criteria used for selection to every job applicant”;
  - **Performance Appraisal:** “Focus performance evaluation on the personal achievements of the individual versus Focus performance evaluation on the results of the group or division to which the individual belongs”;
  - **Compensation:** “Determine salaries by the age and seniority of the employee versus Determine salaries with no regards to the age and seniority of the employee”;
  - **Training and Development:** “Ensure the average employee spends more than one week in ‘off-the-job’ training each year versus Do not require the average employee to spend more than one week in ‘off-the-job’ training each year”.

This scale is theoretically grounded and was considered appropriate for several reasons. First, as seen in chapter two of this thesis comparative HRM research contains cultural assumptions and culture is seen as the basis of much behaviour. It was also observed that earlier models of HRM reflect the cultural perspectives of their authors. Furthermore, existing instruments focus on what actually happens in practice using culture as an explanatory variable. As seen in chapter two, there are questions that need answers for example, what brings about employee preferences? Which among the preferences are more salient? To what extent do these preferences impact on employee behaviour attitudes? Organisations choose the policies to use depending on different contextual variables including existing managerial philosophies. Schuler and Jackson’s HRM practice menus do not prescribe what is to be done or what HRM practice is, but a number of alternative strategic HRM practice choices to be selected by the HR executives in order to promote the most effective employee ‘role behaviours’ that are consistent with company objectives. This alternative HRM policy practice menu was represented in a way that employees were free to choose either indicating their preference. This way it was possible to examine whether preference reflected one’s cultural values.



### 4.2.3 The Job Involvement Questionnaire (JIQ)

This study aimed also to assess which among the HRM preferences are more salient and to what extent satisfied preferences influence job involvement. After going through the literature on job involvement measures, it was apparent that reviewers have criticised the conceptual confusion in this research stream (e.g., Kanungo, 1979, 1981, 1982; Morrow, 1983, 1993; Rabinowitz & Hall, 1977). Lawler and Hall (1970) were among the first to advocate a distinction between the meaning of job involvement and other related constructs. Pioneering scales like that of Lodahl and Kejner (1965) has been widely used but the conceptual meaning of results generated is uncertain because of its confounding of conceptual meaning (Kanungo, 1979, 1982). Rabinowitz et al., (1977) observes that lack of conceptual clarity has been compounded because of researchers' tendency to use reduced versions of the Lodahl and Kejner scale without regard to the conceptual meaning the items were intended to tap. Several other researchers came up with new scales without resolving the conceptual confusion (e.g., Wollack, Goodale, Witjing, & Smith, 1971; Saleh & Hosek, 1976; Saal, 1978; Farell & Rusbult, 1981; Jans, 1982).

Kanungo (1982) developed a scale meant to resolve the conceptual meaning of job involvement arguing that a person's psychological identification with the job depends on both need saliency and perceptions about the job's potential for satisfying salient needs. In a review and meta-analysis of the construct, Brown (1996), noted that, of the commonly used scales of job involvement, defined from Kanungo's perspective, Kanungo's (1982) job involvement scale is the clearest and most precise in conceptualisation. It is able to clearly identify the core meaning of the construct without tapping concepts outside of the core meaning. This study adopts Kanungo's (1982) job involvement measure containing 10 items. The scale is a unidimensional measure with a reported internal consistency and test re-test reliability of 0.87 and 0.85 respectively. Paterson and O'Driscoll (1990) confirmed the usefulness of this measure of job involvement reporting an alpha coefficient of 0.81, which is similar to that reported by Kanungo (see also Elloy & Terpening, 1992). The scale contains items like "the most important things that happen to me involve my present job," and "I like to be absorbed in my job most of the time." Participants were asked to evaluate their job by indicating the degree of agreement or disagreement with each statement by putting a cross mark in

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one of the boxes representing the answer categories (strongly agree to strongly disagree) ranging from 1 to 6. Score 1 was at the higher side and score six at the lower side with score of three as the mid-point. For ease of interpretation, the categories were recoded so that high score represent high job involvement.

#### **4.2.4 Demographics**

This questionnaire contained a final part soliciting information on demographic variables like gender, age, level of education, ethnic group, occupation, length of service, and years in the present job that were intended to assess whether they had any influence in the way respondents answered the questions in the measures.

#### **4.2.5 Actual Policies and Practices Questionnaire (APPQ)**

To obtain the actual HRM policies and practices the same items contained in the measure assessing individual preferences were rephrased as a different measure and administered separately to the Chief Executives or their designates (see Appendix 1.1). This enabled me to collect actual policy practice and employee preferences that are commensurate, meaning that they reflect the same theoretical dimensions. To confirm the organisations' actual HRM practice, interviews with the same managers were conducted and other documents like personnel policy manuals were examined after going through the Chief Executives' or their designate' quantitative responses in the actual policies and practices questionnaire (APPQ). Furthermore, these face-to face interviews enabled me to establish the 'why' and 'how' of the organisation's HRM systems and decision processes. After tabulating their data it was possible to check for consistencies or inconsistencies between what the manager said during the interview or what is written in the manual regarding particular HRM policies and the choices made on the quantitative data. The schedule was semi-structured covering almost the same issues in the APPQ but presented in a different version verbally (face to face). This is an improvement on previous research which has made use of single respondents to collect actual organisation policy practice (e.g., Brewster & Hegewisch, 1994) or a within person comparison (the employee is asked his or her preference and what actually he or she thinks the organisation does) used by many researchers.



This part (actual policy practice) was meant to gather organisation policy practice data to be used together with employee preferences data to examine for 'fit' between preference and practice. This fit was then to be used as an independent variable to assess for its influence on employee's levels of job involvement.

### **4.3 THE RESEARCH PROCEDURE**

#### **4.3.1 The Pilot Study and Access**

The first phase of the research started with legitimising the study by getting permission from the Kenyan government as it is a requirement to secure such permission from the office of the president before conducting publishable research (see letter in Appendix 2.0). The next step was to contact organisations in the identified target population by letter and follow up telephone calls. One of the organisations agreed to participate just as a pilot for the main study. The pilot was meant to serve the following objectives:

1. assess the relevance of the research objectives;
2. test the respondents' understanding of the research questionnaire and any potential problems with unfamiliar terms used in the instrument;
3. get an idea of how long it will take to complete the questionnaires so as to fit that element into the data collection phase timetable.

The pilot study led to some refinements in the question wording and sequencing of questions refined. Further, some questions from the original 55 items were left out from the main questionnaire because they were deemed out of context by most respondents or were not clear during piloting. Thirty four (34) items were retained that formed this scale (see Appendix 1.0 Part Two). The number of job involvement items was reduced from fifteen to ten. Kanungo (1982) gives a total of fifteen items of which five are fillers that may or may not be applicable depending on context. The following filler items were removed after piloting as they seemed to create some form of social desirability in answering the questions:

1. I will stay overtime to finish my job, even if I am not paid for it;
2. Generally, I avoid taking on extra duties and responsibilities in my job;

3. Sometimes I'd like to kick myself for the mistakes I make in my job;
4. I feel depressed when I fail at something connected to my job;
5. I have other activities, which are more satisfying than my job.

Ten items recommended by Kanungo were finally used (see part three of the questionnaire in Appendix 1.0). Along with the reasons given above, I intended to shorten the length of the questionnaire and the time taken to complete answering. This was necessary because most employees in developing countries are not used to this kind of exercise (Devereux & Hoddinott, 1993) and long questionnaires might put them off responding. Again, too many items are not desirable in attitude measures. Oppenheim (1992: 105) warns that '...long and complex interviews or questionnaires will often be completed successfully if the topic is of intrinsic interest to respondents (for example, if it is about their children), or they believe that their responses will have a direct influence on policy'.

After the pilot, meetings were conducted with the MDs or their designates of the eight participating organisations to explain to them why it was necessary to conduct the research in their organisations and the importance of the study to the organisation. Also, the other aim was to get assurance of their co-operation during the data collection process. At the time Kenya was undergoing structural adjustments forcing many organisations to consider seriously their human resource management policies as many were declaring employees redundant or even closing down. Many managers were ready to get some feedback from the research to give guidance to some practical problems of employee relations. Such enthusiasm triggered interest in the top management of participating organisations that helped with access.

#### **4.3.2 Administering the CPWPQ**

The next task was to administer the main questionnaire, the Cultural Perspectives and Work Practices Questionnaire (CPWPQ). The questionnaires were given to the person co-ordinating the distribution (mostly the Managing Director or his/her designate) in a given organisation. The questionnaire had a letter introducing the study and indicating who is conducting the research, its value to the respondents and the organisations without revealing the hypothesis (see Appendix 1.0). It was also made clear that



complete confidentiality and anonymity were guaranteed. The questionnaire was then given to a randomly selected sample within the various departments with the aim of getting a representative sample across the organisation structure. It is more important to get an adequate sample size that is representative than getting large numbers (Reeves & Harper, 1981; Gill & Johnson, 1991). The following guidelines were used in sampling the respondents within individual organisations: (1) the respondents had to be full-time employees; (2) the sample had to match the hierarchy across functional areas; (3) try to cover as much as possible all employee groups across key demographic variables. On average 60 questionnaires were distributed to each company depending on its size. In all 500 questionnaires were distributed to all the eight organisations to respondents who ranged from security guards to senior managers. Employees completed the questionnaires during breaks at work or during weekends at home. I recruited two research assistants who were my former commerce students (I was familiar with their abilities) to assist in questionnaire administration due to the wide geographic spread of the organisations. They possessed a first degree in commerce and I gave them prior training by going through the questionnaire to familiarise with the items and clarified any issues that were not clear. In most cases these research assistants were available while the respondents were completing the questionnaire to give any necessary help in understanding the items in the instrument. The assistants would then collect the completed and sealed questionnaires from a locked box marked 'Research' where respondents were to place them. In organisations where there was no research assistant, respective department heads received sealed completed questionnaires in a box outside their offices which were later forwarded to me or collected by me personally from the person concerned with the co-ordination. A total of 290 out of 500 questionnaires were returned of which 274 were useable representing a response rate of 55%. This is a very acceptable rate considering that in a third world country surveys may not be taken seriously. Perhaps, this response rate was achieved due to the official support of the research and active involvement of research assistants.

### **4.3.3 The face-to-face Interview and Administration of the APPQ**

As mentioned in the measures' section this instrument (Actual Policy Practice Questionnaire) was meant to obtain the actual HRM policies and practices. The same items contained in the measure assessing individual preferences were rephrased and

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administered to the top managers or their designates. This measure was given to the top managers during the initial meetings explaining its purpose and why it is different from the other measure given to the rest of the participants. Any questions regarding completing the questionnaire were cleared then and an interview arranged on phone during a later date after they completed the questionnaire. The interview was meant to confirm the organisations' actual HRM practices. The findings then were compared with the top managers' responses about actual practice to check for convergence or inconsistencies. There were no major inconsistencies found between the two perhaps, because they were aware of the relationship between the quantitative measure and the interviews. I was also allowed to go through some policies in the personnel manuals for some companies. However, I was not allowed to peruse through 'sensitive' documents regarding policies like salary scales. To check for convergence of responses, I first went through the quantitative responses of a particular MD to ascertain the direction of his or her choice. For example, if he or she indicated in the measure that they create official evaluation systems in which forms are always filled out and processed, I probed this indirectly during the interview. I would for example, ask the MD to briefly explain how they conduct performance appraisals of their employees in some cases where available I checked the written policy. This way it was easy to check whether in fact there are official forms filled out either by the supervisor or the employee. Again, usually the same would be implied in the personnel manual. Another example question would be whether the organisation gives preference to insiders in filling vacancies or to outsiders. The same question could be asked indirectly for example, whether they advertise their jobs internally first before going to channels like newspapers. Again, this can be confirmed from the policies on promotions to higher jobs and career progression. As pointed out earlier, this procedure is an improvement on previous research, which has made use of single sources to collect actual organisation policy practice. It also means that the statistical fit measure is not based on within-person comparisons, improving its statistical robustness.



#### 4.4 TECHNIQUES OF DATA ANALYSIS

The bulk of the data were quantitative with some interview and secondary data to supplement actual policy and practice data given by senior managers. For quantitative data derived from questionnaire surveys, a number of statistical tests were used essentially by the Statistical Package of Social Science (SPSS) software. The main objectives that were to be achieved by these statistical methods of analysis were:

- 1) to assess the structure and reliability of the measures by utilising principle components with oblique (OBLIMIN) rotation and reliability of the tests using Cronbach's alpha;
- 2) to examine the value orientations, HRM preferences, and job involvement held by Kenyans in the sample and any differences in values due to demographic variables such as age, gender and occupation by using tests such as analysis of variance (ANOVA);
- 3) to examine links between the individual cultural values and HRM policy and practice preferences; using correlational and regression analysis;
- 4) to assess fit between individual HRM preferences and actual organisation policy practice as an influence of job involvement using a polynomial regression approach to assessing fit by Edwards (1994);
- 5) to examine for effects of individual cultural value orientations on job involvement using correlation and regression analysis.

Qualitative data were edited manually and analysed as the objective was to compare for convergence of senior managers' quantitative responses about the organisation's actual policy and practice. Notes from interviews were hand written during the interviews in a notebook which were later systematically organised and categorised according to HRM themes under investigation. Secondary data gathered from relevant policy manuals were also recorded in a notebook, which was used to check for inconsistencies or

convergence with managers' quantitative responses and interview responses as already explained.

#### 4.4.1 Scale Reliability and Validity for Multi-item Measures

The reliability of a measure refers to its consistency. It is important to check for the reliability of a scale because it indicates to what extent measures are free from error consequently yielding consistent results (Peters, 1979). Reliability requires that a measure yield similar results when administered by different people using alternative forms. Most of the scales used in this study were already well developed and found both externally reliable and valid under different circumstances. However, these measures have not been tested with any sample in Kenya or any country in the region to ensure that the concept(s) is sustained albeit with different dimensions or constructions. Therefore, the construct validity is also examined under the present study. A widely used technique to test for internal reliability is Cronbach's coefficient alpha (Cronbach, 1951), which was employed in the present study to estimate the internal consistency of the scales. The technique enables researchers to check how well the items in a set are positively correlated to one another. The rule of thumb is that scales are reliable when alpha coefficients generated are 0.70 or above (Nunnally, 1968). An alpha of 0.60 has been set as the limit of acceptability for exploratory research (Nunnally, 1968) and is considered to be good although alphas greater than 0.70 are preferred. This limit ( $\alpha \geq 0.60$ ) would be adopted for this exploratory research. There are other ways to measure reliability (see for example Nunnally, 1978): computing estimates of reliability on the basis of observed correlation or covariance of the items with each other; and correlating the results from two alternate forms of the same test or halves of the same test. However, Cronbach's alpha was deemed suitable due to its wide usage to assess for internal comparison reliability of the multi-item questionnaire used for the present study containing cultural value orientations, HRM policy choices and job involvement items.

It is not enough for an instrument to be reliable without being valid. A valid instrument is that which measures what it is intended to measure (Hair, Anderson, Tatham, & Black, 1995). It reflects how well the concept is constructed as a measure. At the very minimum, the measure should have face validity - that is, the measure should reflect the content of the concept in question. Construct validity is the statistical relationship of a



scale and its theoretical concept; that is, one is able to deduce hypotheses from a theory that is relevant to the concept. One way to assess construct validity is through principal component analysis (PCA) or factor analysis. PCA and factor analysis are related techniques which seek to explain the correlations amongst a set of variables by generating components or factors which show which items form relevant sub-sets. If a factor analysis produces components or factors which either conform to theoretical expectations, where it can be presumed the sub-scales of the measure are known (e.g., CPQ4), or make theoretical sense when the items structure is not known a priori (e.g., WAS), then there is support for the construct validity of the scales. In this study, I chose to use PCA, because it produces a mathematically unique solution for any given sample (Tabachnick & Fidell, 1996).

For the CPQ4, given 79 items in the scale and a sample of less than 300, the ratio of respondents to variables is  $< 4$ . This subject to variables ratio is then not suitable for multivariate analyses (Tabachnick & Fidell, 1983). *As a general rule of thumb, a researcher should have at least 300 (good) cases for factor analysis.* My sample was between fair and good according to Comry & Lee (1992). They give as a guide a sample size of 50 as very poor, 100 as poor, 200 as fair, 300 as good, 500 as very good, and 1000 as excellent. Therefore, I conducted exploratory principal component analyses (PCA) on each set of items within a given domain (activity, human nature, human relationships, relationships to nature). The respondents to variables ratios for these analyses are all  $>10$ . For these analyses, I chose PCA with oblique rotation (OBLIMIN) rather than confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) because I was initially unsure whether the items would conform to theoretical expectations. PCA is then useful here for two reasons (Hurley et al., 1997). First, unlike CFA, PCA is able to uncover non-hypothesised cross-loadings. Second, the provision of eigenvalues in PCA provides direct diagnostic information on the number of factors underlying the data. Therefore, PCA provides a number of diagnostics to allow me both: to examine any discrepancies between the structure of the items in this sample and the structure reported by Maznevski and DiStefano, (1995) and to change the composition of the scales if discrepancies were too great. Further, CFA using single item indicators can be problematic (Kelloway, 1995), especially given single item indicators are likely to have

small but non-zero loadings on other factors, which could bias fit indices in CFA (Hurley et al., 1997). Oblique rotation was chosen as I expected the factors to correlate.

The next scale to be tested for construct validity is the HRM preference scale. The scale was also subjected to PCA. The other scale in the study is that proposed by Kanungo (1982) to measure job involvement. The scale is unidimensional and hence does not require rotation. Nevertheless, the scale was subjected to PCA with oblique rotation to confirm whether the same is replicated in the Kenyan context.

#### 4.4.2 Establishing Relationships

The main objective of this study was to examine and identify relationships between cultural values, individual HRM preferences, and actual policy practice and job involvement. The relationship between individual HRM preferences and actual organisation policy practice was however, approached from examining the 'fit' between the two and investigating associations with job involvement. According to Bryman and Cramer (1990) establishing a causal relationship, requires three criteria: 'first, it is necessary to establish that there is an apparent relationship between two variables. This means that it is necessary to demonstrate that the distribution of values of one variable corresponds to the distribution of values of another variable. Second, it is necessary to demonstrate that the relationship is *non-spurious*. A spurious relationship occurs when there is not a 'true' relationship between two variables that appear to be connected. The variation exhibited by each variable is affected by a common variable. Third, it is necessary to establish that the cause precedes the effect, i.e. the *time order* of the two related variables' pp. 8-9.

However, Bryman and Cramer contend that because of the difficulties associated with survey designs in revealing a causal relationship they are often referred to as *correlational* designs. This draws attention to the limited capacity of survey designs in elucidation of causal processes. The main reason being social researchers are not able to manipulate variables as can be done more easily by natural science researchers. Depending on the relationship of interest, many variables cannot be manipulated and can only be examined through a social survey. Moreover, data on variables are simultaneously collected so that it is not possible to establish a time order to the



variables in question. Despite the limitations, social scientists have developed techniques to analyse possible causal relationships that when established may bring great practical benefits as the cause can be controlled or enhanced.

A better way of establishing relationships over time is by employing longitudinal panel design (Moser & Kalton, 1993). This type of design offers a good way of studying trends of behaviour or attitudes. Panel designs involve a second or third wave of data collection from the same sample. This would have enabled examination of subsequent changes in job involvement from initial levels of preferences, policy, and values. However, such a design has limitations and specifically for my research. First, job involvement, preferences, policy and especially values might change very slowly rendering detecting changes very difficult. Second, this study was carried out in an African developing country where going back to the same sample for a second wave of data would be very problematic. Third, in the time span of a PhD, this might not be feasible if changes in a short time period are tiny.

In order to establish relationship between variables in this research, correlation analysis was carried out for example between cultural value orientations and HRM preferences. Another method relied on is *a priori* theory already documented about the impact of culture on behaviour and attitudes in other samples. These were preferred methods as it was possible to indicate both the strength and the direction of the relationship between a pair of variables supported by well-grounded theory. Correlation coefficients were calculated to provide succinct assessments of the closeness of a relationship among pairs of variables. *Pearson's Product Moment Correlation Coefficient* (commonly referred to as Pearson's  $r$ ) was used to assess the interval data for relationships. Pearson's  $r$  varies between -1 and +1 whereby a relationship of -1 or +1 would indicate a perfect relationship, negative or positive respectively, between two variables. It was also important that an indication of statistical significance of  $r$  be examined. However, such significance is very sensitive to the number of cases for which there are pairs of data. Bryman and Cramer (1990) point out that, statistical significance tells us the likelihood that a relationship of at least a given size could have arisen by chance. This requires that researchers interpret both the size of  $r$  and the significance level when examining correlation coefficients. This was done for this study.

As pointed out earlier, it is important to confirm that a relationship is non-spurious. There is also the issue of multiple causation. For example, whether age or ethnic affiliation influenced either the independent or dependent variables. These third factors are also referred to as test factors or control variables. It is possible to control for such factors by carrying out multivariate analysis which allows the researcher to discount the alternative explanations of a relationship that can arise when employing survey designs. For this study multiple-regression analysis was employed. Sets of variables were entered in a hierarchical manner. This enabled me to see the contribution of each set of variables to the overall  $R^2$ . According to Cohen & Cohen (1983: 86) 'just as  $r$  is the measure of association between two variables, so the multiple  $R$  is the measure of association between a dependent variable and an optimal combination of two or more IVs. Similarly,  $r^2$  is the proportion of each variable's variance shared with the other, and  $R^2$  is the proportion of the dependent variable's variance shared with the optimally weighted IVs. The change in  $R^2$  was calculated and the statistical significance of that contribution assessed. To test the significance of individual regression coefficients, a statistic that is based on the  $F$  ratio to assess the significance of the change in the value of  $R^2$  as a result of the inclusion of each variable in the equation was employed.

Since I was also interested in the implications of non-interval variables like ethnic affiliation for the dependent variable job involvement, I used dummy variables for the case of ethnic affiliations (Cohen & Cohen, 1983). There were eight different ethnic groups in the study and in order to create dummy variables I had to produce 8-1 dummy variables. This was done in the following manner shown in Table 4.1.

Table 4.1  
Coding Ethnic Groups into Dummy Variables

Ethnic Group	Coded
Ethnic group 1 (Kalenjin)	as 1 or not Kalenjin coded as 0
Ethnic group 2 (Kikuyu)	as 1 or not Kikuyu coded as 0
Ethnic group 3 (Kisii)	as 1 or not Kisii coded as 0
Ethnic group 4 (Luo)	as 1 or not Luo coded as 0
Ethnic group 5 (Kamba)	as 1 or not Kamba coded as 0
Ethnic group 6 (Luyha)	as 1 or not Luyha coded as 0
Ethnic group 7 (Asian)	as 1 or not Asian coded as 0
Ethnic 8 (Other)*	as 0 or not Other coded as 0

Note. \* This ethnic group is the reference group.



In this way, all the eight ethnic groups were represented by seven dummy variables as shown in Table 4.2. There was no need for the eighth dummy variable (one based on other or not that was used as a reference group comprising of pastoralists, Europeans, Arabs, etc.) because all the information regarding ethnic group is encapsulated in the seven other dummy variables. The ethnic group 'other' is represented by the combination 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 (see Table 4.2).

Table 4.2  
Creation of a Dummy Variable (ethnicgp)

Ethnic Group		Dummy Variables							
		1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
1.	Kalenjin	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
2.	Kikuyu	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0
3.	Kisii	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0
4.	Luo	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0
5.	Kamba	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0
6.	Luyha	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0
7.	Asian	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0
8.	Other*	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0

Note. \* Reference ethnic group

#### 4.4.3 Other Assumptions Underlying Multivariate Analysis

Researchers employing multivariate techniques in data analysis need to be aware of important assumptions that may affect results. One such assumption is linearity. The linearity assumption holds that there is a straight-line relationship between two variables. Linearity has practical importance because Pearson's  $r$  only captures the linear relationships among variables. Linearity in these analyses will be examined from residual plots using predicted variables. The other important assumption is linked to the ratio of cases to independent variables (IVs). According to Tabachnick and Fidell (1996: 132), 'the cases-to IVs ratio has to be substantial or the solution will be perfect- and meaningless. With more IVs than cases, one can find a regression solution that completely predicts the DV (dependent variable) for each case, but only as an artefact of the cases-to-IV ratio. Required sample size depends on the number of issues, including the desired power, alpha level, number of predictors, and expected effect sizes. The simplest rules of thumb are  $N \geq 50 + 8m$  ( $m$  is the number of IVs) for testing the multiple correlation and  $N \geq 104 + m$  for testing individual predictors. These rules of thumb

assume a medium-size relationship between the IVs and the DV,  $\alpha = .05$  and  $(\beta) = .20$ . Tabachnick and Fidell point out that if for example, one plans six predictors, a researcher needs  $50 + (8)(6) = 98$  cases to test regression and  $104 + 6 = 110$  cases for testing individual predictors. In this study, there are 274 cases. This sample size comfortably exceeds the minimum sample size for multiple regression outlined by Tabachnick and Fidell in all regression equations reported in this thesis, for testing both the significance of multiple correlations and individual predictors.

It is also important to ensure that the independent variables are not too highly related to each other as regression coefficients requires an inversion of the correlation matrix among the independent variables. It is recommended that the Pearson's  $r$  between each pair of independent variables should not exceed 0.80, as they may indicate *multicollinearity* (Bryman & Cramer, 1990). Others (e.g., Hanushek & Jackson, 1977) see correlation coefficients of 0.70 to be reducing the appropriateness of the tests whereas, others (see for example, Berry, 1993) suggest that multicollinearity exists when  $r$  is 0.90 and above. Multicollinearity is usually regarded as a problem because it means that the regression coefficients may be unstable implying that they are likely to vary from sample to sample. There is also no point in treating two highly correlated items as separate entities. Another undesirable property that is relevant here is singularity, which arises when some of the variables are exact linear functions of others in a battery for example when variable  $C$  is constructed by adding together the subject's scores on variable  $A$  and  $B$ . In the present study higher order interaction terms were used to investigate fit and in one of the higher order terms relating to cultural value orientations the effect was too large indicating the possibility of multicollinearity (Kristof, 1996) as will be seen in later chapters. Otherwise, zero-order correlation did not indicate any problems with multicollinearity in all other analyses.

Finally, two other assumptions to be taken into account while employing multiple regression are normality and homoscedasticity. The normality assumption requires that the distribution of residuals (prediction errors) of all variables and linear combinations be independent and normal, as a large variation from normality may invalidate the statistical tests. The assumption of homoscedasticity requires that the standard deviations of residuals be approximately equal for all predicted dependent variable



scores (Tabachnick & Fidell, 1996: 138). There is a possibility of bias if the variables exhibit heteroscedasticity that weakens the analysis. Assessing the scatter plots revealed that the distributions of residuals did not deviate much from the straight line in the study, indicating these assumptions were not violated (Berry, 1993; Tabachnick & Fidell, 1996). Another issue in regression analysis that had to be considered is that of outliers among the IVs and on the DV. Cases far from the mean and unconnected with other cases on either plots or z scores are regarded as outliers. Such extreme cases can have too much impact on the regression solution and should be deleted, rescored or the variable transformed (Tabachnik & Fidell, 1996: 133). There are two possible approaches to outlier screening namely: residual analysis after an initial regression run and prior to an initial regression run (before running regression analysis). For this study, data screening was performed through a residual analysis after an initial regression and any outliers were deleted. Examining for outliers prior to an initial regression run was not adopted because it has problems that may lead to bias being introduced into the study. For example, there are temptations to make screening decisions based on desired outcomes, and the overfitting that may occur if outliers in the solution are deleted along with outliers among variables.

#### 4.4.4 Analysing Person-Organisation (P-O) Fit

Fit analysis considers the relationship between HRM preferences and job involvement on the one hand and on the other, whether in a developing country environment job involvement is related to fit with others in the organisation.

During recent years the subject of P-O fit has generated a great deal of interest both theoretically and practically. However, there has been much debate on its conceptualisation, measurement and implications (e.g., Kristof, 1996; Edwards & Parry, 1993; Edwards, 1994; Tisak & Smith, 1994b). Difference scores have been the main technique of analysis (e.g., Gresov, 1989; Vancouver & Schmitt, 1991), whereby researchers use the algebraic difference index  $(X-Y)$ ; the absolute difference index  $(|X-Y|)$ ; or the squared difference index  $(X-Y)^2$ . These difference scores are used to represent fit or congruence between two constructs, which is then taken as an independent variable to predict various outcomes (e.g., Mowday, 1987; Edwards, 1991). However, the reliability and validity of difference scores has been questioned (Cronbach, 1958;

Johns, 1981; Edwards & Cooper, 1990; Edwards, 1993). As a result, researchers (e.g., Cronbach & Furby, 1970) have suggested that the use of this method should be dropped altogether. Edwards (1993, 1994) criticises the method for the conceptual ambiguity that results from concealing the individual contribution of each element to the overall score. Difference scores discard information about the absolute level of the person and the environment variable and the direction of the difference with “symmetric” indices. Restrictive constraints are also placed on the sign and the size of the coefficients when reducing person and organisation measures into a single index.

Despite these criticisms, not all researchers agree that difference scores are all useless as they provide unique information on intra-individual change. Tisak and Smith (1994a) in defending difference score methods, point out that historical arguments against this method often do not directly translate to management research. There are distinctions between the difference scores criticised by psychometricians and those used by organisational researchers. Traditional psychometric arguments have mostly concerned change scores, or scores on identical variables over time. These measures are usually single pre-and-post-scores collected from individual subjects. However, difference scores collected by organisational researchers are often multiple items, multiple source measures collected at a single point in time. Furthermore, difference scores are useful and acceptable because differences among measures are implicit in the commonly used statistical procedures like analysis of covariance and repeated measures analysis of variance. On the issue of validity Tisak and Smith, (1994b) maintain that the problem can be addressed within the context of data analysis techniques, as most criticisms are empirical. They disagree with the position that difference scores are not useful because they cannot explain more variance than their components jointly. Beyond some pre-determined level of statistical significance or practical meaningfulness, the relative usefulness of difference scores is a value judgement that researchers must decide upon a situational basis. They recommend that difference scores should not be discarded, as the concept is theoretically rich. Instead, more complex difference score functions should be investigated.

Edwards (1994) points out that such an assumption is mistaken and suggests polynomial regression as an alternative method for measuring fit. Polynomial regression is seen as a better alternative to difference scores because it is based on the assumption that the



relationship (i.e. person and organisation) between two entities and an outcome and the analysis should be considered along a three-dimensional response surface. This method addresses some of the problems inherent in difference scores, but it is also criticised. Kristof (1996) points out that multicollinearity resulting from expanding the constrained two-dimensional difference score to the unconstrained three dimensional equation is a problem, and the technique is also highly dependent on sample size and power. This is not a problem unique to Edwards' technique, but it is particularly relevant because of the high number of degrees of freedom used in polynomial regression. Additional difficulties are encountered if testing complex moderation models or using dummy-coded variables.

Concerns have also been raised with regard to the conceptual validity of the higher order terms that can be created by using polynomial regression (Bedeian & Day, 1994). Even if higher order terms receive empirical support, they should be theoretically relevant; otherwise they do not aid in conceptual understanding. In short, Kristof (1996) cautions against the use of the technique unless guided by theory. The debate regarding the usefulness of difference scores to measure fit continues but I feel that Edwards' concerns are valid. Progress in improving fit measurement should be welcomed on balance and the use of difference scores is more problematic. Edwards' regression procedure overcomes most of these problems. As shall be seen in this study, analysis across a three-dimensional surface also enables identification of a range of conceptually different theoretical relationships in terms of fit and the outcome of job involvement. Therefore, this study makes use of polynomial regression to analyse the relationship between fit and job involvement.

Edwards (1994) outlines the format for assessing fit using polynomial regression. It is recommended that prior to analysis, scales be centred by subtracting the mid-point of each in order to reduce problems of multicollinearity before calculating curvilinear and interaction terms (Aikin & West, 1991; Edwards, 1994). I centred the cultural values scale by subtracting 4, and the HRM scale by subtracting 3 (i.e. the theoretical mid-point of each scale). Before interpreting regression equations it is recommended that equations be screened for outliers and influential observations (Edwards & Parry, 1993, 1996). Outliers can have substantial effects on estimates of regression coefficients for squared terms. I investigated my data for outliers and excluded those with extreme

scores  $> +3$  or  $< -3$  on the standardised regression residuals (only three cases were found to be outside the accepted limit and were dropped).

Two formulae can be used: absolute difference and squared difference. According to Edwards (1994: 72) absolute difference and squared difference models uses a procedure based on three guiding principles; First, the relationship between congruence and an outcome should be considered in three dimensions, with paired components constituting the two horizontal (i.e.,  $X$ ,  $Y$ ) axes and the outcome constituting the vertical (i.e.,  $Z$ ) axis. Second, the relationship between congruence and the outcome should be viewed not as a simple two-dimensional function, but instead as a three-dimensional response surface. Third, the constraints implied by congruence indices should not be simply imposed on the data, but instead should be considered as a set of hypotheses that, if confirmed, lend support to the conceptual model upon which the index is based.

To calculate an absolute difference fit model, in which equivalent linear relationships are expected from positive or negative deviations, a transformation is required which transforms negative deviations into positive deviations (Edwards, 1994). The following formula was used:

$$\text{Difference} = b_0 + b_1 (1-2W)(X-Y) + a \quad (1)$$

Where  $W = 0$  if  $X \geq Y$   
 $W = 1$  if  $X < Y$ .

Here  $X$  = Individual Preference,  $Y$  = Actual policy practice.

Expanding this equation yields:

$$Z = b_0 + b_1 (1-2W) X - b_1 (1-2W) Y + a \quad (2)$$

where  $Z$  = Job Involvement,  $a$  = Residual.

This equation assumes the regression coefficients is the same magnitude and opposite in direction for  $X$  and  $Y$  and contains interactions between  $W$  and  $X$  and  $W$  and  $Y$ . Therefore, following the correct hierarchical procedure for testing interactions in multiple regression, the lower order effects of  $X$ ,  $Y$  and  $W$  were entered before these higher-order terms (Cohen & Cohen, 1983). Relaxing the assumptions concerning regression coefficients and including lower-order terms:



$$Z = b_0 + b_1X + b_2Y + b_3W + b_4WX + b_5WY + a. \quad (3)$$

When the terms  $X$  and  $Y$  are entered before  $W$ , and  $W$  entered before  $WX$  and  $WY$ , a simple difference model ( $X-Y$ ) in which there is no transformation, is tested automatically in testing an absolute fit model (Edwards, 1994).

To measure fit implied by the squared difference ( $X-Y$ ); a quadratic equation is used, which in regression format is:

$$Z = b_0 + b_1 (X-Y)^2 + a. \quad (4)$$

Expanding this equation yields

$$Z = b_0 + b_1X^2 + b_1Y^2 - 2b_1XY + a. \quad (5)$$

Similarly, this equation assumes that the regression coefficient is the same for both  $X^2$  and  $Y^2$ , and twice the magnitude and negative for  $XY$ . Further, as Edwards (1994) notes, testing this equation contains a number of non-linear terms, which are most properly tested by including relevant lower-order terms in the equation first in a hierarchical fashion. Therefore, including lower-order terms, and relaxing assumptions about regression coefficients, squared difference fit is best tested by

$$Z = b_0 + b_1X + b_2Y + b_3X^2 + b_4Y^2 + b_5XY + a. \quad (6)$$

Again, it will be noted from this equation that simple difference fit is tested automatically in tests of squared difference fit if the squared and interaction terms ( $X^2$ ,  $Y^2$ ,  $XY$ ) are entered after the linear terms ( $X$ ,  $Y$ ) in a hierarchical analysis (Cohen & Cohen, 1983).

To guard against Type 1 error, Edwards (1994) suggests that both these regression equations should be tested when there is an overall significant effect for the equation, or at the step in which the terms are entered if testing only squared difference or absolute difference models. Further, only those coefficients, which reach statistical significance, should be interpreted within the overall significance (using the nominal alpha level of

.05) of the equation or step. Unlike Edwards, I have not corrected for Type 1 error amongst the different regression equations. This is because assessment of P-O fit in developing countries is a new area of research, and I considered it more problematic to exclude potentially significant and meaningful relationships, especially given the conservative nature of polynomial regression (Chapman & Peters, 1987).

Edwards and Parry (1993) agree that it is difficult to interpret coefficients from quadratic equations, particularly when they deviate from the pattern implied by squared difference. Using the response surface method for testing features of surfaces corresponding to quadratic equations (Box & Draper, 1987; Khuri & Cornell, 1987), Edwards and Parry focus on three main ones. The first feature of focus is the stationary point (i.e., the point at which the slope of the surface is 0 in all directions), which corresponds to the overall minimum, or saddle point of the surface. Second, they focus on the principal axes of the surface, which run perpendicular to one another and intersect at the stationary point. Two surfaces of interest here are: convex and concave. Convex surfaces appear if a line connecting any two points on the surface lies on or above that surface. On the other hand, a surface is concave if a line connecting any two points on the surface lies on or below that surface (Chiang, 1974: 255). These scholars assert that for convex surfaces, the upward curvature is greatest along the first principal axis and least along the second principal axis whereas, concave surfaces present a downward curvature that is least along the first principal axis and greatest along the second principal axis. Saddle-shaped surfaces have an upward curvature that is greatest along the second principal axis, and the downward curvature greatest along the second principal axis. The third key feature is the slope of the surface along various lines of interest, such as the principal axes and the line along which the component variables are equal (the  $Y = X$  line).

To illustrate these three main features and the three-dimensional nature of polynomial fit regression, Edwards (1994) uses ideal regression equations to present surfaces that may result from the algebraic, absolute and squared difference polynomial regression. I adopt similar equations to depict the ideal surfaces corresponding to these three congruence indices. It is worth noting that due to the difference of software used (I used Stanford Graphics) to plot these figures, the appearance is not exactly identical. Nevertheless, the emerging surfaces are essentially the same (see Edwards, 1994: 58-59).



Using a simple difference equation ( $Z = b_0 + b_1X - b_2Y + a$ ), Edwards shows that a simple difference index represents a plane in which both components exhibit equal but opposite linear relationships with the outcome ( $Z$ ) as shown in Figure 4.0.

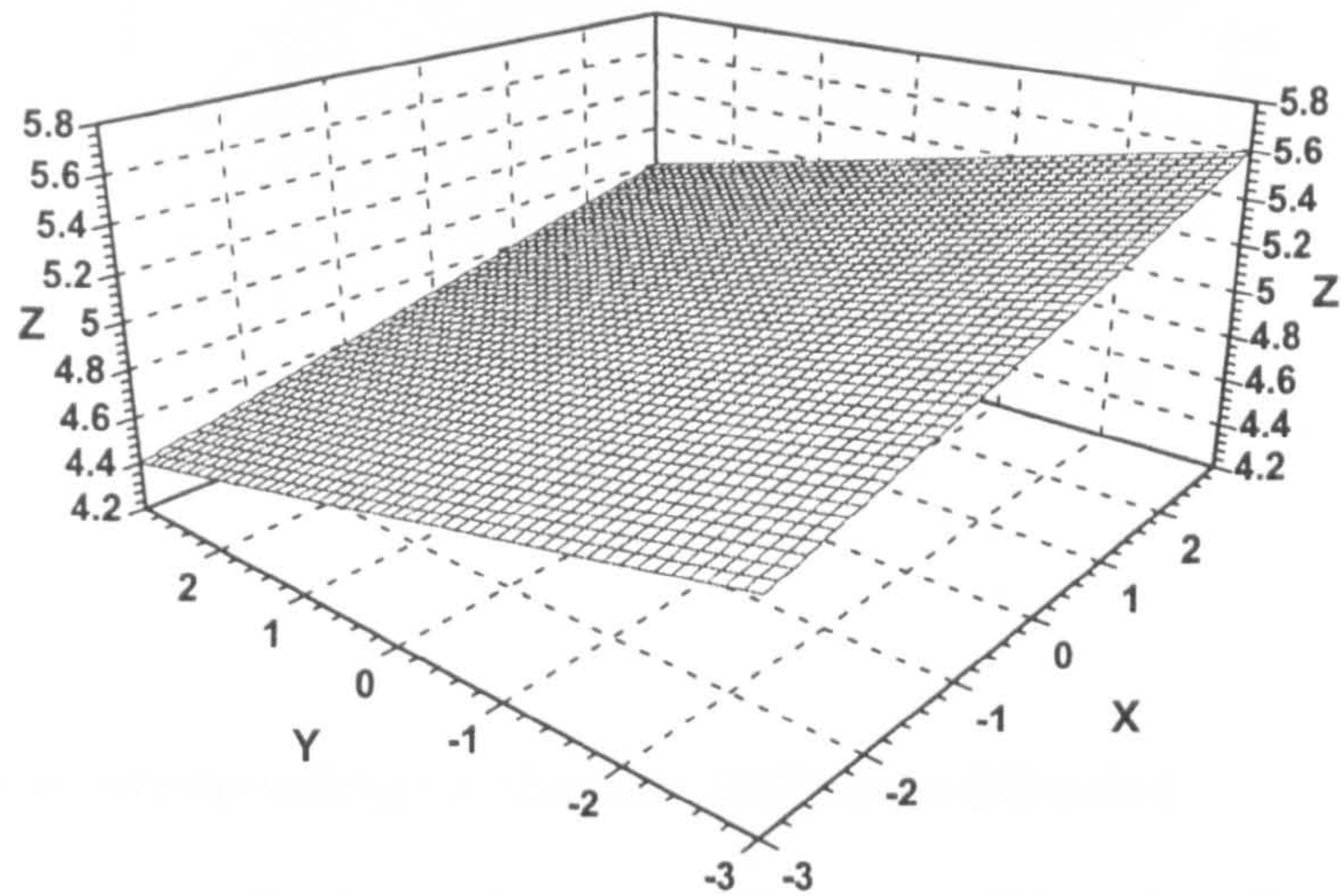


Figure 4.0. Surface corresponding to Simple (Algebraic) Difference Fit Index

The surface indicates that the simple difference equation includes both components as separate predictors. Edwards argues that if the model implied by the simple difference index is tenable, then the increment in variance explained by both coefficients entered simultaneously will be significant, each component will exhibit a significant effect, and the coefficients on the components will be opposite in sign and not significantly different in absolute magnitude.

The second fit index is the absolute difference, which represent transformations of the simple difference indices. It is the absolute difference between two components (for example, preference-policy for this study). Absolute difference implies a maximum (or minimum) along the diagonal line where both components are equal. This difference indicates constant linear effects on either side of the maximum (see Figure 4.1).



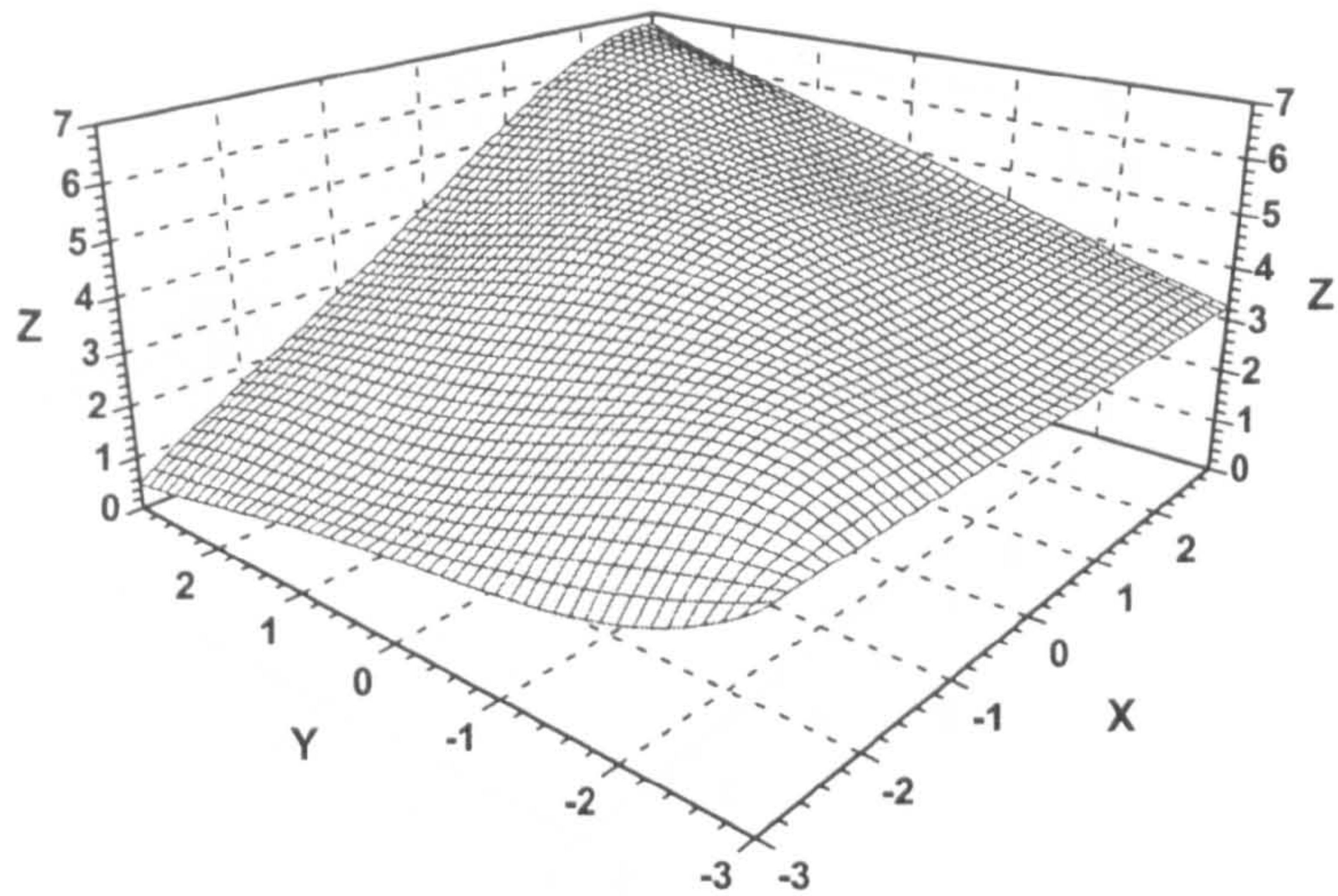


Figure 4.1. Surface corresponding to Absolute Difference Fit index

The figure (plotted using equation 2) shows that the surface underlying the relationship between an absolute difference index and an outcome is substantively different from that represented by the joint linear effects of the original component measures (see Figure 4.0). Edwards (1994) argues that such comparisons suggest different relationships between the components and the outcome rather than the presumed unique explanatory power of congruence.

Applying equation 3 allows  $X$  and  $Y$  independently to take on different slopes on either side of the line where  $X = Y$ , as well a vertical shift in the surface along this line. For absolute difference indices, the points of primary interest are along the  $X = Y$  line, because these indices presume no vertical shift in the surface along all points along this line.

The third ideal measure of fit is the squared difference index represented by equation 5. This squared difference model yields an ideal surface as shown in Figure 4.2 indicating stronger effects as the distance from the maximum increases.



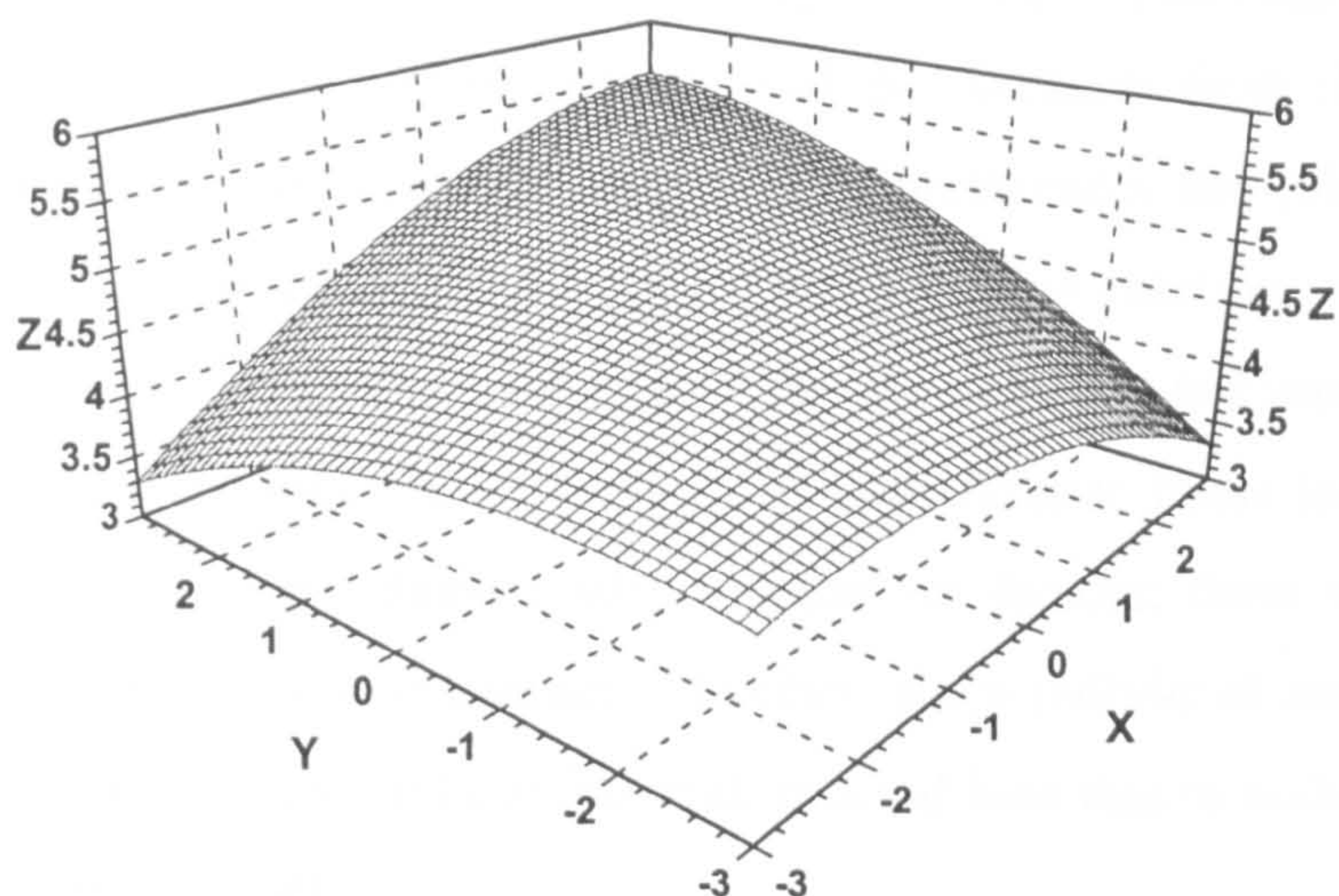


Figure 4.2. Surface corresponding to Squared Difference Fit Index

Edwards argues that for squared difference indices, tests should focus on points along the  $X = Y$  line, because the slopes of both  $X$  and  $Y$  are presumed to be zero at all points along this line. For detailed illustrations on how to interpret polynomial regression surfaces refer to Edwards and Parry (1993: 1586-1589).

This analytic technique allows for more complex relationships (e.g., Edwards, 1994). In Chapter Six, I will show empirically some of the relationships that emerge from using this method.

#### 4.5 LIMITATIONS OF THE PRESENT STUDY

Several methodological caveats should be noted. Studies employing only self-report measures face the problem of ‘shared method variance’-due to the reliance on a single method of data collection leading to ‘contamination’ across the measures. However, self-report measures are probably the best means of assessing both individual cultural values and HRM policy preferences. In order to address this problem the main parts of the questionnaire were differentiated. By using different response formats ‘cross-



contamination' was minimised (Schmitt, 1994). The first part that measured cultural value orientations as explained earlier had items with a seven-point scale ranging from strongly agree to strongly disagree. The second part contained bipolar alternative items with five point scale ranging from 1 to 5 and the last part measuring job involvement contained a six point scale ranging from strongly agree through mildly agree to strongly disagree. To ascertain the level of independence of the measures from shared method variance, the total dataset across cultural values HRM preferences and job involvement was subjected to principal component analysis with oblique rotation, revealing that shared method variance cannot account for all of the relationships between variables as cultural value items loaded together on factors, HRM preference items loaded together on factors and job involvement items loaded together on factors: there were no cross loadings across sections of the questionnaire. Further, since individual responses to the questionnaires were anonymous and confidential, method bias due to social desirability is minimised (Oppenheim, 1992).

It should be born in mind that measuring cultural values has been questioned, especially when using 'attitude survey' questionnaires. For example, Sondergaard (1994: 449), while evaluating the usefulness of Hofstede's approach to studying cultural values, questioned whether the use of attitude-survey questionnaires is a valid base from which to infer values'. Again, inferences about national culture require caution because of differences in demographic characteristics and other factors. Jackson (1995: 3) lists some problems of measuring psychological attributes across cultures using questionnaire methods as pointed out by Lonner (1990):

1. *Familiarity of psychological testing to the cultural group concerned:* Western cultures are fairly familiar with such forms of testing but not so other cultures. Also with self-report questionnaires, some cultures are more conducive to accurate self-report and assessment than other cultures.
2. *The psychological constructs used may not be universally valid:* For example concepts of intelligence, and such well accepted personality concepts in English-speaking countries as extroversion and introversion, may not have relevance or meaning outside these societies.



3. *The basis of comparison may not be equivalent across cultures*, and comparisons may be difficult at the social norms. For example, contrast the ‘politeness’ of asking as many questions as possible of the person’s family, as opposed to the ‘politeness’ of being non-intrusive in a social encounter. Problems may also occur at the level of linguistic translation.
4. *Verbal test stimuli may not be appropriate*, or at best give rise to the problems in (3) above. It is assumed that tests purged of verbal stimuli may travel better between cultures, but even non-verbal stimuli are fraught with difficulty as prior experience is known to strongly influence perception.

There is also the possibility that questionnaire comprehension was a problem as the measures were in English, in spite of the fact that English is the official language of Kenya. However, this may have not been a problem as the sample was limited to those with a minimum of primary education. Furthermore, I used research assistants to explain any difficulties encountered by the participants.

My measures of HRM preferences and actual practice may have not comprehensively assessed preferences and actual practice, because of their bipolar nature. Again, to measure actual company practice I used the views of only either the chief executive or his/her designate which might have brought the social desirability effect reflecting rhetoric more than reality, although I made some attempt to control for this by checking policy documents. Even so, the measures were theoretically grounded and reliable.

In the following two chapters, the results of this research are presented followed by chapters covering relevant discussions and conclusions. Chapter Five comprises of the cultural value orientations of the sample, their HRM preferences, and the variance resulting from demographic and ethnic variables. The chapter ends with a brief discussion and conclusion. Chapter Six comprises analysis of job involvement and the role of demographic variables and ethnicity. The relationship of cultural values and job involvement is also examined. The chapter investigates fit (congruence) between employee preferences and actual organisation policy practice and between individual cultural values and other’s cultural values in the organisation. This ‘fit’ is used as an

independent variable to check for any impact on job involvement. This chapter also ends with a brief discussion and a conclusion.



## CHAPTER FIVE

### CULTURAL VALUE ORIENTATIONS AND HRM PREFERENCE RESULTS

#### 5.0 INTRODUCTION

In chapter four, I justified the techniques used in this study and the potential advantages over other techniques. These techniques are now employed in this chapter and the next, to examine the data and present results for interpretation. I will attempt to recapitulate where necessary the rationale for using particular methods of analysis or refer other chapters or sections for more detail. In this chapter, results of cultural value orientations' and influence on individual HRM preferences are presented. The chapter first examines the background characteristics of the sample. This is followed by analysis of components using principal component analysis (PCA) with oblique rotation (Oblimin) of the cultural value orientations and HRM preferences. The means, standard deviations, alpha coefficients and correlations of cultural and HRM preference scales along with decision criteria for rejecting scales are presented. Analysis of variance (ANOVA) and *F* ratios of the value orientations and HRM preferences' data are also presented across basic demographics like gender, age, occupation, length of service, ethnic group and organisational affiliation. The correlational links of value orientations to preferences, regression results and the variance in individual HRM preferences accounted for by cultural value orientations are shown. Finally, there is a brief discussion related to this first set of results. The discussion gives a summary of this chapter's univariate and multivariate results. The chapter ends with a short conclusion.



## 5.1 BACKGROUND CHARACTERISTICS OF THE SAMPLE

Table 5.0

### Participating Companies' Characteristics

<i>Firm</i>	<i>Ownership</i>	<i>Products</i>	<i>City Location</i>	<i>Province</i>	<i>Age</i>	<i>Employees</i>
1	MNC	Sausages/Pork	Nairobi	Nairobi	33	970
2	Local/Private	Soft Drinks	Kisumu	Nyanza	32	400
3	MNC/Plc	Tyres and Tubes	Nairobi	Nairobi	29	684
4	Joint Venture	Vehicles, etc	Thika	Central	24	410
5	Joint Venture	Textiles	Eldoret	Rift Valley	29	2500
6	State	Textiles	Eldoret	Rift Valley	21	1400
7	Local/Plc	Building Material	Nairobi	Nairobi	66	600
8	Public/Plc	Cement/Roofing	Mombasa	Coast	62	2000

Table 5.0 presents the sample characteristics of the organisations that participated in this research. Data were obtained from the eight Kenyan manufacturing/processing organisations shown in the table. These organisations' profiles were presented in chapter one (for more details refer to Chapter One: Introduction to the Research, part five-section 1.5). Table 5.0 shows that the firms (companies) range from multinationals to local private ownership structures. They are all in manufacturing or processing industries. The companies have been in their respective businesses for sometime now. The youngest company has been in operation for twenty-one years and the oldest for sixty-six years. The minimum number of employee criteria was by passed by a huge margin. As seen from the table the company with the least number of employees had four hundred whereas the largest had two thousand five hundred employees. Kenya has in all eight provinces including the Nairobi area. The provinces are Nyanza, Coast, Central, North Eastern, Eastern, Rift Valley, Western, and the Nairobi area (see Map in Appendix 6.0). Nairobi the capital city is counted as a province on its own right. Most economic activity takes place here as the area is the economic hub of the country. As seen from the table, the sample is spread covering five of the eight provinces namely: Nairobi, Nyanza, Central, Rift Valley, and Coast provinces.



Table 5.1 presents sample demographic characteristics. A total of 274 out of 500 questionnaires were useable representing a response rate of 55%.

Table 5.1  
Sample Demographic Characteristics

<i>Age of Respondents</i>	<i>Percentage</i>	<i>Number of Cases</i>
<25	16.2	271
26-30	20.3	
31-35	17.0	
36-40	15.1	
41-45	18.1	
51-55	3.0	
56-60	.7	
61-65	.4	
<i>Gender of Respondent</i>	<i>Percentage</i>	<i>Number of Respondents</i>
Female	11.3	274
Male	88.7	
<i>Ethnic Group of Respondents</i>	<i>Percentage</i>	<i>Number of Respondents</i>
Kalenjin	12.0	259
Kikuyu	27.8	
Kisii	5.8	
Luo	18.9	
Kamba	7.7	
Luyha	18.1	
Asian	2.7	
Other	6.9	
<i>Education of Respondent</i>	<i>Percentage</i>	<i>Number of Respondents</i>
Primary Level	4.8	272
Ordinary Level	47.1	
Advanced Level	8.5	
O or A + Diploma	23.2	
Undergraduate	10.3	
Postgraduate	4.0	
Other	2.2	
<i>Occupation of Respondent</i>	<i>Percentage</i>	
Upper Level Management	4.2	265
Middle Level Management	15.8	
Machine Operator	5.3	
Supervisor	21.9	
Sales	8.3	
Accountancy	3.8	
Secretarial	4.5	
Technician	20.0	
Support Staff	14.0	
Security	2.3	
<i>Length of Service</i>	<i>Percentage</i>	<i>Number of Respondents</i>
0-11 Months	6.3	268
1-5 Years	38.8	
6-10 Years	15.7	
11-15 Years	14.2	
16-20 Years	18.3	
21-25 Years	4.5	
26-30 Years	1.9	
31-35 Years	.4	
<i>Years on the Same Job</i>	<i>Percentage</i>	<i>Number of Respondents</i>
0-11 Months	4.1	268
1-5 Years	49.6	
6-10 Years	19.4	
11-15 Years	12.0	
16-20 Years	10.1	
21-25 Years	4.5	
26-30 Years	2.2	
31-35 Years	1.5	
>36 Years	.4	

Most (71%) of the respondents were aged between 26-45 years, and 89.1% possessed at least fourth form level of education. The majority (75.1 %) were from the middle

level in the structure, 4.2% were from the upper level management, while 21% were comprised of lower level staff. Almost 55% had served the same firm for between one and ten years and 69% had been on the same job during the same period. The ethnic composition of respondents indicates that the six big ethnic groups that make up the majority of salaried employment in Kenya accounted for 90.3% of the sample. The main reason is that many of the other ethnic groups are either pastoralists or peasants. As expected the proportion of women in the sample was very low at 11.3%, as female participation in the labour force has in most African countries.

## **5.2 RELIABILITY AND VALIDITY OF THE CULTURAL AND HRM SCALES**

In the methods chapter (Chapter Four), the rationale for subjecting this study's scales to tests such as reliability and validity were presented. It was argued that scales indicate to what extent they are free from error and able to yield consistent results. I further observed that most of the scales used for this research were already well developed and found to be reliable and valid under different circumstances. Nevertheless, it was deemed necessary to examine their reliability and construct validity as they have not yet been tested with samples from Kenya or other samples from the Sub Saharan region. Cronbach coefficient alpha (Cronbach, 1951), is used to test the internal reliability or consistency of the scales because the technique enables a researcher to check the degree to which the items are positively correlated to one another. An alpha coefficient of 0.60 is set as the minimum acceptable limit (Nunnally, 1968) although alphas of  $>0.70$  are preferred. Another reason for choosing to use Cronbach alpha is that it has been widely used in research to assess for internal reliability of multi-item scales.

To demonstrate construct validity, the measures were subjected to principal components analysis (PCA). Essentially, this technique enables the researcher to confirm whether or not the theorised dimensions emerge from the data. In this case the researcher believes that responses to many different questions are driven by just a few underlying structures called components. PCA for cultural values, HRM preferences and job involvement are reported later in this thesis.

To ascertain the level of independence of the measures, the total data set across cultural values HRM preferences and job involvement were subjected to a principal components



analysis with oblique (Oblimin) rotation, revealing the measures were independent as cultural value items loaded together on components, HRM preference items loaded together on components and job involvement items loaded together on components: there were no cross-loadings across sections of the questionnaire. The interpretation is based on the components with eigenvalues greater than 1 and items with a loading of more than .50 on the components. There are 44 components with eigenvalues greater than unity accounting for 76 percent of total variance explained of which sixteen are multi-item components and 28 are single-item components. Four relate to HRM preferences, one to job involvement and the remaining relate to cultural value orientations. Of the 16 multi-item components, eleven each relate to the different sub-dimensions of cultural value orientations (Activity: activity doing, activity thinking, activity being; human nature: human nature good-evil, human nature changeable-unchangeable; relational: relational hierarchical, relational collateral, relational individual; relation to nature: relation to nature subjugation, relation to nature mastery, and relation to nature harmony). Whilst this analysis does not indicate the structure of the scales (the ratio of subjects to variables for this analysis is not satisfactory to produce a stable solution, see section 4.4.1), it does suggest the independence of the measures and that the scales are not caused solely by a single factor such as common method variance (Harman, 1967). I report each PCA with each cultural value domain in more detail below.

### **5.2.1 Cultural Value Orientations**

In Chapter Four (section 4.4.1), I argued the reasons for adopting my particular approach to PCA of cultural values. To recap, given a total of 79 items in the cultural value orientation scale and a sample of less 300 (274), the ratio of subjects to variables ( $< 4$ ) was not sufficient to conduct exploratory or confirmatory factor analyses on the entire scale. Instead exploratory PCAs were conducted on each set of items within a given domain of the cultural scale. That is, separate analyses were conducted for items in the activity, human relationships, relationships to nature and human nature domains respectively. For these analyses, PCA with oblique rotation (Oblimin) rather than confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) was utilised because at the onset I was unsure whether the items would conform to theoretical expectations, given restriction of range in a Kenyan sample. The main reasons for adopting PCA as indicated earlier (Chapter Four) are first; PCA is able to uncover non-hypothesised cross-loadings. Second, the

provision of eigenvalues in PCA provides direct diagnostic information on the number of components underlying the data. This allows me both: to examine any discrepancies between the structure of the items in this sample and the structure reported by the authors of the cultural scale (Maznevski & DiStefano, 1995) and to change the composition of the scales if discrepancies were too great. Another reason is that CFA using single item indicators can be problematic (see for example Kelloway, 1995), especially given single item indicators are likely to have small but non-zero loadings on other factors, which could bias fit indices in CFA (e.g., Hurley et al., 1997).

Oblique rotation was chosen as I expected the components to correlate. Further, oblique rotations offer a continuous range of correlations between components and simplify factors by minimising cross products of loadings. Oblique rotation is considered appropriate because orthogonal rotation produces components that may have been forced to be unrelated, whereas in real life they may be related. In other words, an orthogonal solution may be more artificial and not necessarily an accurate reflection of what occurs naturally in the world. This may be less likely with oblique rotation.

Tabachnick and Fidell (1996: 653) indicate that there is some debate as to whether one should interpret the pattern matrix or the structure matrix following oblique rotation. The structure matrix, showing zero-order correlation between items and components is appealing because it is readily understood. However, the correlations between variables and components are inflated by any overlap between components. The problem becomes more severe as the correlations among components increase and it may be hard to determine which variables are related to a component. On the other hand, the pattern matrix contains values representing the unique contributions of each component to the variance in the variables. Shared variance is omitted (as is with standard multiple regression), but the set of variables that composes a component is usually easier to see.

In each case, scree plots indicated the expected number of components underlying the items in each domain (i.e., three components for activity, human relationships and relationships to nature, two components for human nature). For the scree diagram, the first few components show a sharp decline, followed by a much more gradual slope. The flat dimensions of the graph represent undifferentiable 'noise' components (Cattell, 1966) of the system, showing that key components are at the point where the slope starts



to flatten out. I considered an item to load on a component if it had both its highest loading on that component and the loading exceeded .30.

### 5.2.1.1 Activity Orientation

Cattell's scree diagram indicates that the dimension has only three interpretable components (see Figure 5.0).

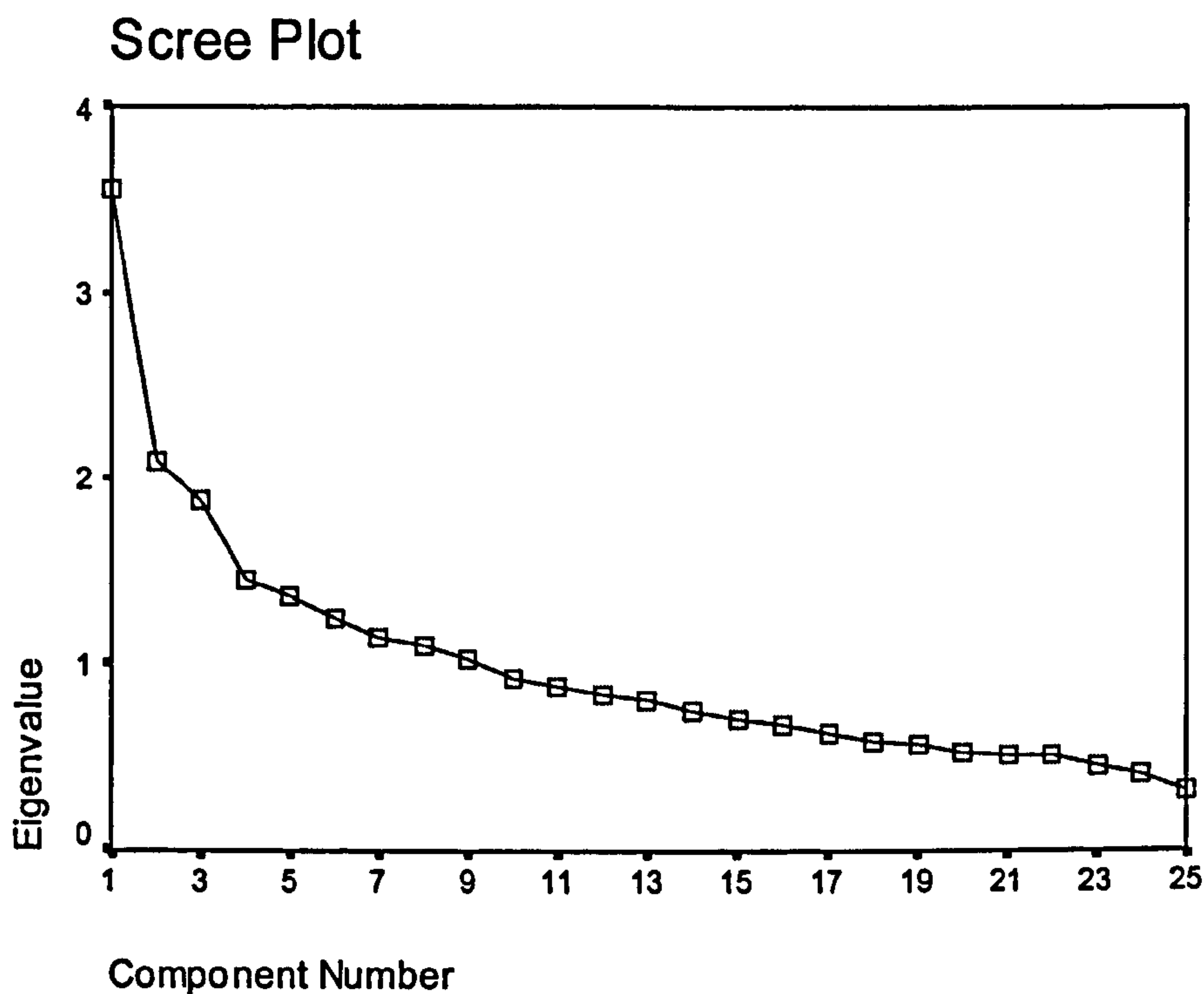


Figure 5.0: Scree plot showing components of the activity dimension

The first three components accounted for 14.2 percent, 8.4 percent, and 7.5 percent of variance respectively. The eigenvalues are component one 3.6, component two 2.1, and component three 1.9. The Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) measure of sampling adequacy for this dimension is .70. KMO measure of sampling adequacy is an index for comparing the magnitudes of the observed correlation coefficients to the magnitudes of the partial correlation coefficients. Kaiser (1974) suggests a general rule for acceptable levels of measures of sampling adequacy derived from component analysis as 0.90 or above, marvellous; 0.80 or above, meritorious; 0.70 or above, middling; 0.60 or above, mediocre; 0.50 or above miserable; and below 0.50, unacceptable.

Table 5.2.1 shows the pattern matrix for the activity cultural orientation dimension from PCA with oblique rotation. In regard, the items conform to the expected factor

structure. That is, activity: thinking items tend to load on one factor, activity: doing on another factor, and activity: being on a third factor. However, one item expected to load on activity: being (AB1) loaded on both activity: thinking and activity: doing while one item (AD8) expected to load on activity doing also loaded on activity thinking.

Table 5.2.1

## Pattern Matrix for Activity Orientation Scale

Item with Description	Component		
	1	2	3
AT1. It is important to think things through carefully before acting on them.	.612		
AT6. A logical argument is as persuasive as visible evidence that something will work.	.610		
AT2. All business decisions should be analysed from every possible angle before they are implemented.	.600		
AT7. It is always better to stop and plan than act quickly.	.572		
AT8. No matter what the situation, it is always worth the extra time it takes to develop a comprehensive plan.	.520		
AT5. The outcomes of a business decision can be predicted accurately by a logical analysis of that decision.	.489		
AT3. People should always think carefully before they act.	.483		
AT4. Even if it takes more time, business decisions should be made based on analysis not intuition.	.410		
AD10. One should live to work, not work to live.		.604	
AB1. One should work to live, not live to work.	.310	-.594	
AD9. People who work very hard deserve a great deal of respect.		.536	
AD6. Sitting around without doing something is a waste of time.		.533	
AD2. Effective managers use spare time to get things done.		.450	
AD7. People who work hard are the ones who make society function.		.443	
AD8. Hard work is always commendable.	.301	.395	
AD3. Accomplishing a great deal of work is more rewarding than spending time in leisure.		.369	
AD5. Once you set a goal, it's important to work towards it until it is achieved		.333	
AD4. It is important to get work done before relaxing.		.320	
AB3. You shouldn't worry about working when you don't feel like it.			.669
AB4. It's important to do what you want, when you want.			.650
AB7. If you don't like your working environment you should quit your job.			.592
AB2. People should take time to enjoy all aspects of life, even if it means not getting to work.			.485
AB5. Quality of life is more important than financial accomplishments.			.348
AB6. It is best to live for the moment.			.348
AD1. It's human nature to place more importance on work than on other activities.			.313

**Note.** AD = Activity: Doing, AT = Activity: Thinking, and AB = Activity: Being (the number against each abbreviation refers to the item number in the scale). Loadings <|. 30| are omitted.



### 5.2.1.2 Human nature orientation

The second value dimension examined is human nature: good-evil, changeable-unchangeable. The scree plot (see Figure 5.1) shows the two components one for human nature: good-evil and the other for human nature: changeable-unchangeable. The principal component explains 21 percent of the variance while the second component explains 16 percent of the variance. The eigenvalues attributed to component one and two are 2.3 and 1.7 respectively. The KMO measure of sampling adequacy came to .70.

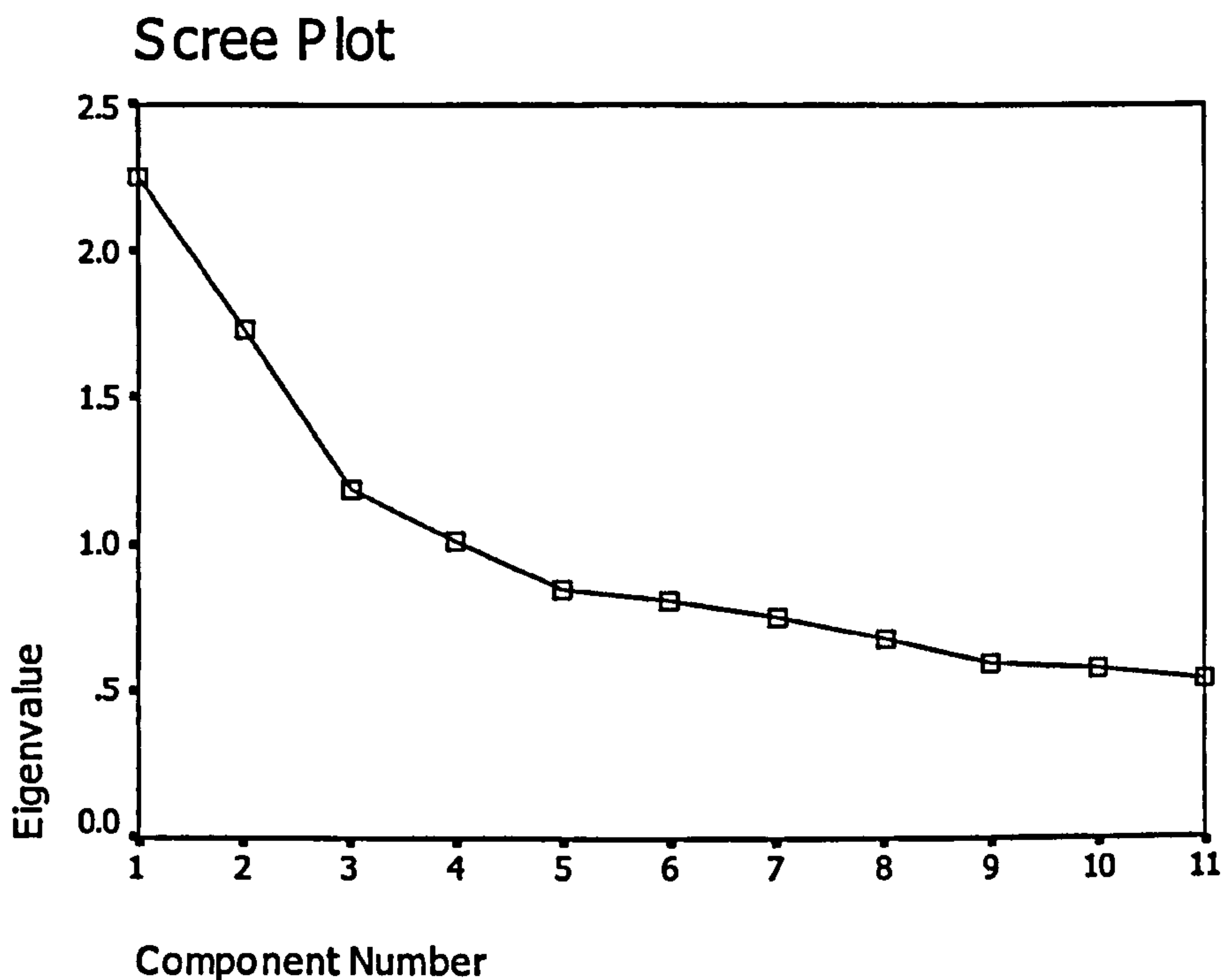


Figure 5.1: Scree plot showing components of the human nature dimension

Examining the pattern matrix for a two component solution (see Table 5.2.2) indicates human nature: good-evil collapsed into one component comprising of the six original items. The other items loaded on the second component of this sub-scale comprising four of the five original items.

Table 5.2.2

## Pattern Matrix for the Human Nature Orientation Scale

Item with Description	Component	
	1	2
HNGE4. If employees don't have to submit receipts for their expenses, they are likely to lie about how they spent.	.692	
HNGE5. You can't trust anyone without proof.	.651	
HNGE1. If supervisors don't always check when workers come and go, workers will probably lie about how many hours they work.	.615	
HNGE6. Some amount of corruption is inevitable in any organisation.	.612	
HNGE2. In general, you can't trust workers with keys to the building they work in.	.501	
HNGE3. You shouldn't be suspicious of everybody.	.448	
HNC2. In general, bad people cannot change their ways.		
HNC1. Anyone's basic nature can change.		.793
HNC3. It's possible for people whose basic nature is bad to change and become good.		.690
HNC5. It's possible for people whose basic nature is good to change and become bad.		.665
HNC4. If someone is essentially a good person now, she or he will likely always be good.		.424

**Note.** HNGE = Human Nature: Good-Evil, HNC = Human Nature: Changeable-Unchangeable.

Loadings <|. 30| are omitted.

Essentially, then one principal component was taken to represent the human nature: good-evil scale. The second sub-scale represents human nature changeable-unchangeable. The two components represent the two bipolar constructs originally constructed by the authors.

### 5.2.1.3 Relational orientation

The third cultural value dimension examined is relational orientation. Three components were expected from the scale namely relational collateral, relational hierarchical and relational individual.



The scree plot reveals three components as the slopes' sharp decline starts to end at component 3 (see Figure 5.2).

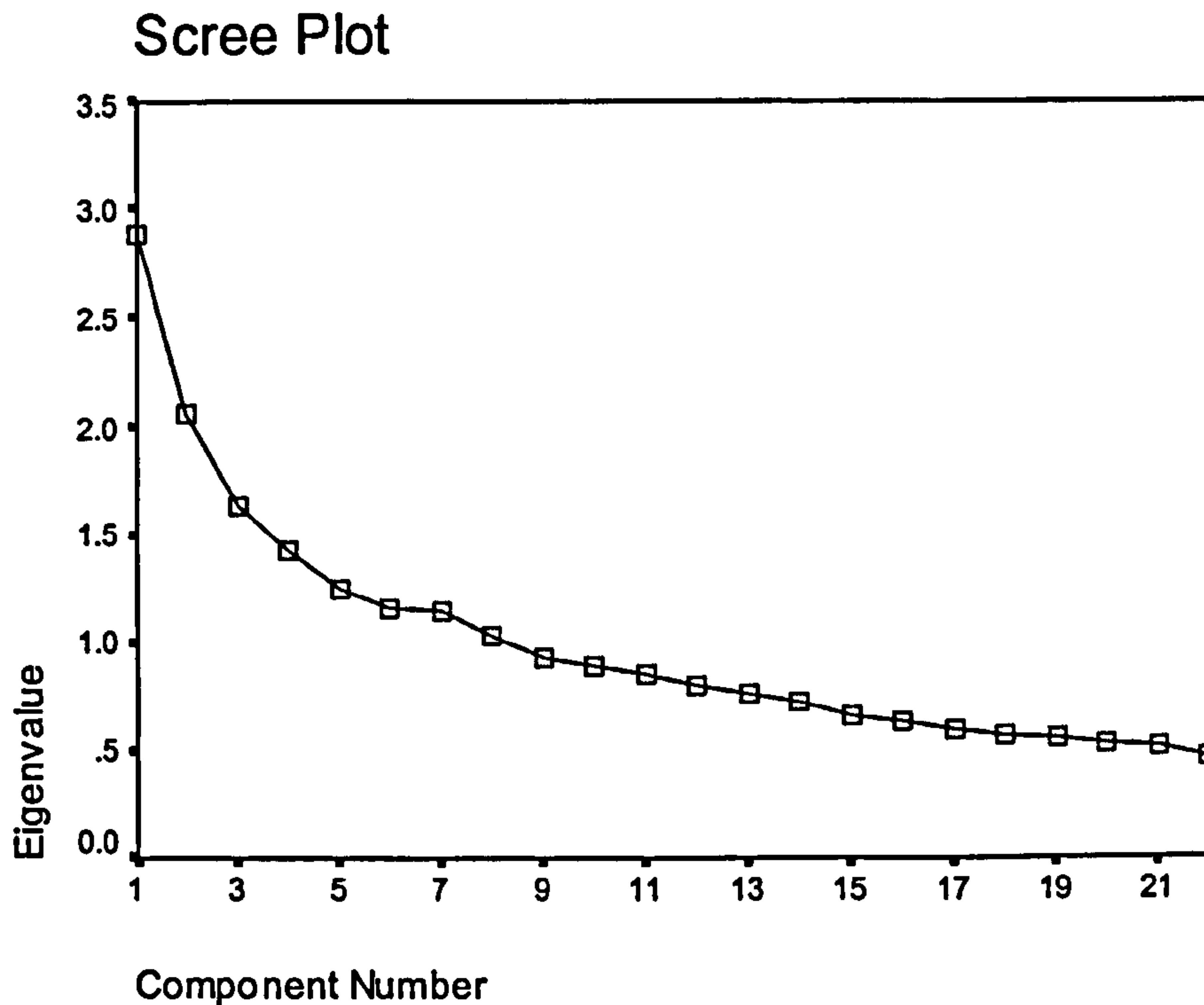


Figure 5.2: Scree plot showing components of the relational dimension

These three components represent the three sub-dimensions of the relational collateral dimension. Component one explains 13 percent of the variance; component two explains 9.5 percent; and component three 8 percent of the variance. Eigenvalues for the components are component one 2.9, component two 2.1, and component three 1.7. The KMO measure came to .70, which is middling in Kaiser's words.

Examining the pattern matrix for a three factor component from oblique rotation mainly shows the components conforming to the structure suggested by Maznevski and DiStefano (1995) (see Table 5.2.3). One item, RC4 (part of the relational: collateral scale), did not have a substantial loading on any of the factors ( $< .30$ ), although its highest loading was on the factor with the other relational: collateral items.

Table 5.2.3

## Pattern Matrix for Relational Orientation Scale

Item with Description	Component		
	1	2	3
RI7. Ultimately, you are accountable only to yourself.	.669		
RI6. We should try to avoid depending on others.	.629		
RI5. An employee's rewards should be based mainly on his or her performance.	.563		
RI4. Adults should strive to be independent from their parents.	.552		
RI2. It's natural to put your own interests ahead of others.	.534		
RI1. People tend to think of themselves first, before they think of others.	.517		
RI3. Society works best when each person serves his or her own interests.	.309		
RH4. The highest-ranking manager in a team should take the lead.		-.672	
RH6. Organisations should have separate facilities, such as eating areas, for higher-level managers.		-.654	
RH5. People at lower levels in organisations should carry out the requests of people at higher levels without question.		-.627	
RH7. People at lower levels in the organisation should not have much power in organisations.		-.568	
RH3. Employees should be rewarded based on their level in the organisation.		-.463	
RH1. A hierarchy of authority is the best form of organisation.		-.409	
RH2. People at higher levels in organisations have a responsibility to make important decisions for people below them.		-.403	
RC7. Every person on a team should be responsible for the performance of everyone else on the team.			.685
RC5. Every person has a responsibility for all others in his or her workgroup or unit.			.670
RC3. Good team members subordinate their own goals and thoughts to those of the team.			.496
RC6. It is important not to stand out too much in a team.			.484
RC2. Society works best when people willingly make sacrifices for the good of everyone.			.466
RC8. One's responsibility for family members should go beyond one's parents and children.			.423
RC1. The performance of one's workgroup or units is more important than one's own individual performance.			.331
RC4. An employee's rewards should be based mainly on the workgroup or unit's performance.			

**Note.** RI = Relational: Individual, RH = Relational: Hierarchical, RC = Relational: Collateral.

Loadings <|. 30| are omitted.



### 5.2.1.4 Relation to nature orientation

The fourth dimension examined is relation to nature. The dimension contains three sub-dimensions (relation to nature: mastery, relation to nature: subjugation, and relation to nature: harmony), which were expected to emerge from PCA.

The scree plot reveals the three components expected from this scale (see Figure 5.3).

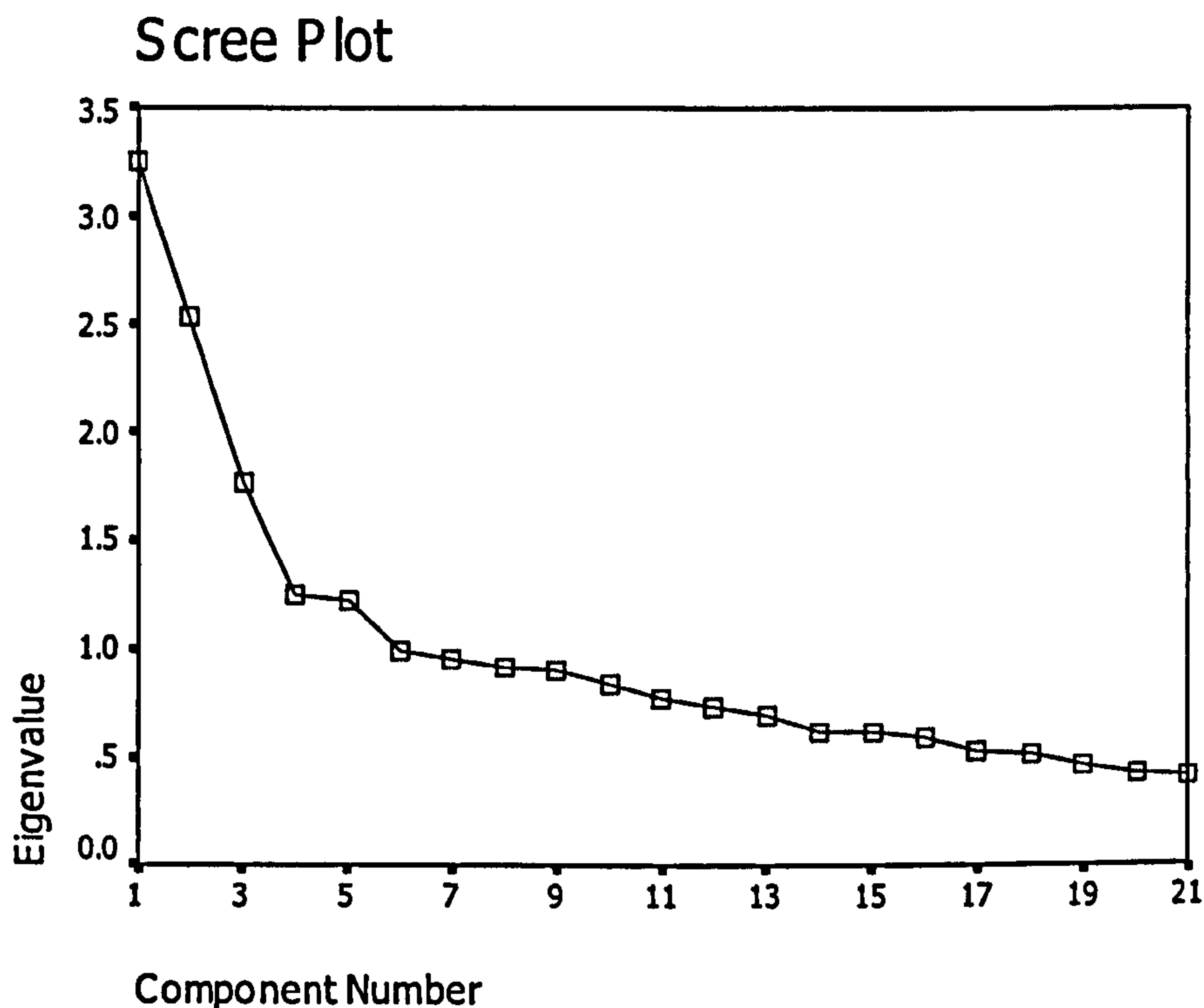


Figure 5.3: Scree plot showing components of the relation to nature dimension

Each of the sub-dimensions in this dimension originally comprised of seven items. The pattern matrix for a three component solution (see Table 5.2.3) reveals that six items loaded on relation to nature mastery, six on relation to nature subjugation, whereas eight items loaded on relation to nature harmony. One item (RNM6) expected to load on relation to nature mastery, loaded on relation to nature harmony and another (RNS5) expected to load on relation to nature subjugation also loaded on this sub-scale. One item (RNH4) cross-loaded on relation to nature subjugation and relation to nature harmony though expected to load on relation to nature harmony alone. The first component accounted for 15.4 percent of the variance explained, component two 12.1 percent, and component three 8.3 percent of the variance explained. The eigenvalues

attributed to each of the three components are component one 3.2, component two 2.5, and component three 1.8. This component analysis' KMO is .72.

Table 5.2.4

## Pattern Matrix for the Relation to Nature Orientation Scale

Item with Description	Component		
	1	2	3
RNM4. Good performance comes from taking control of one's business.	.661		
RNM2. Given enough knowledge and resources, any poor performing business can be turned around.	.657		
RNM3. With enough knowledge and resources, any poor performing business can be turned around.	.647		
RNM1. We can have a significant effect on the events in our lives.	.584		
RNM7. Human beings should try to control nature whenever possible.	.569		
RNM5. It's important to try and prevent problems you may encounter in your life.	.530		
RNH1. All living things are equal and deserve the same care and consideration.	.384		
RNS6. One's success is mostly a matter of good fortune.		.700	
RNS3. Whatever is going to happen will happen, no matter what action people take.		.686	
RNS7. It is better to be lucky than smart.		.678	
RNS2. Most things are determined by forces we cannot control.		.586	
RNS1. People should not try to change the paths their lives are destined to take.		.580	
RNS4. We have little influence on the outcomes of events in our lives.		.488	
RNH6. It's important to achieve harmony and balance in all aspects of life.			-.677
RNH7. It's important to achieve balance among divisions and units within an organisation.			-.607
RNH3. When considering the design of a new building, harmonising with the environment surrounding the proposed building is an important consideration.			-.604
RNH4. Many of the world's problems occur because of our attempts to control the natural forces in the world.		.364	-.489
RNH2. It's our responsibility to conserve the balance of elements in our environment.			-.457
RNM6. A good manager should take control of problem situations and resolve them quickly.			-.457
RNH5. The most effective business are those which work together in harmony with their environment.			-.429
RNS5. It's best to leave problem situations alone to see if they work out on their own.			.374

**Note.** RNM = Relation to Nature: Mastery, RNS = Relation to Nature: Subjugation, RNH = Relation to Nature: harmony.

Loadings <|. 30| are omitted.

Overall, in each of the domains, for both pattern and structure matrices, over 90% of the items' loadings were consistent with the factor structure reported by Maznevski and DiStefano (1995) as can be seen from these analyses.



After principal component analysis, the cultural value orientations scales were subjected to Cronbach's alpha to examine for the scale's reliability. It was pointed out that I choose to adopt the cultural scale as described by Maznevski and DiStefano' (1995). However, I had to also examine for the scale's internal reliability in the Kenyan context.

Table 5.2.5 indicates that two scales (Activity: Thinking  $\alpha = 0.72$ , and Relation to nature: Subjugation  $\alpha = 0.70$ ) immediately reached the acceptable level of reliability of 0.70 (Nunnally, 1978: 245-46). Six scales fell between the range of 0.60 to 0.69 reaching the minimum acceptable for research (Nunnally, 1968). This is consistent with Maznevski and DiStefano's findings. Three scales (Activity: Being; Relational: Collateral; and Human Nature: Changeable) did not reach the threshold of  $\alpha > 0.60$  and were dropped from further inferential analysis (see Table 5.2.5)<sup>1</sup>. Two of these scales (Human Nature: Changeable and Activity: Being) were found by Sparrow and Wu (1998) to have low reliability in a Taiwanese sample. These low alphas indicate that there are inconsistencies, meaning that the scales might not accurately measure the theoretical constructs under study. Table 5.2.5 also presents the means, standard coefficients, alphas and number of items of the 11 cultural scales that were used in the study.

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<sup>1</sup> I conducted further PCA and alpha analyses with scales indicating alphas  $< 0.70$  and no improvement in alphas was found hence the decision to eliminate the three original scales indicating alphas  $< 0.60$ .

Table 5.2.5

Means, Standard Coefficients, Alphas and Items of Original Cultural Scale

Variable	Mean* ( $\mu$ )	Standard Deviation	Alpha ( $\alpha$ )	Number of Items
<b>Activity</b>				
Being (AB) <sup>1</sup>	3.89	1.16	.52	7
Doing (AD)	5.47	.98	.64	10
Thinking (AT)	6.23	.82	.72	8
<b>Relational</b>				
Collateral (RC) <sup>1</sup>	5.14	1.03	.54	8
Hierarchical (RH)	4.15	1.27	.62	7
Individual (RI)	5.00	1.14	.62	7
<b>Relation to Nature</b>				
Harmony (RNH)	5.66	1.03	.63	7
Mastery (RNM)	5.93	1.06	.69	7
Subjugation (RNS)	2.88	1.25	.70	7
<b>Human Nature</b>				
Good or Evil (HNGE)	4.45	1.34	.63	6
Changeable (HNC) <sup>1</sup>	4.87	1.25	.50	5

\*Scale Means are derived from summing the items and then dividing by the number of items in the scale.

<sup>1</sup>These scales were dropped from further analysis due to unacceptable alpha coefficients.

Clearly, PCA with oblique rotation and Cronbach's alpha have provided a number of diagnostics that has allowed both: to examine for discrepancies between the structure of the items in this sample and the structure reported by Maznevski and DiStefano (1995); and change the composition if discrepancies were too great. As can be seen some scales have been dropped while others have been retained for this study. However, as the analysis of the total data set suggests, that the cultural items are independent of all other measures, these moderate levels of reliability are satisfactory for this research, but there is scope for further improvement of the Cultural Perspectives Questionnaire (CPQ4).

In this study, I assume the component structure for the value orientation scale presented by (Maznevski & DiStefano, 1995) for three reasons. First, because of the convergence between this sample and the expected pattern of loadings. Second, by using the original scales, it is then easier to make comparisons between this study and others. Third, because of larger size and wider geographical range of Maznevski and DiStefano's



sample (Australia, Canada, Hong Kong, and US) ensures greater variance amongst the items. Within one country, it is more likely that there will be a restriction of range in the items, which will affect the inter-item correlations and hence the component structure of the items for that country. Bearing these limitations of within country analyses in mind, I nevertheless conducted these preliminary analyses to help establish the construct validity of the value orientation questionnaire within this Kenyan sample. This is because the Cultural Perspectives Questionnaire (CPQ4) is still in development hence there is a need for additional data from different national contexts.

### 5.2.2 Human Resource Management (HRM) Preferences

Items in the HRM preferences scale were subjected to principal component analysis with oblique rotation, revealing a ten-component solution (see Appendix 4.0). However, after rotation only four components were interpretable. The decision was made on the basis of components with eigenvalues of 1 and above and items that loaded at more than 0.30 on each component. Of the 34 HRM items, ten were dropped to get clearer scales leaving 24 items, which were again subjected to PCA to confirm the four components. Cattell's scree plot also revealed a 4-component solution (see Figure 5.4).

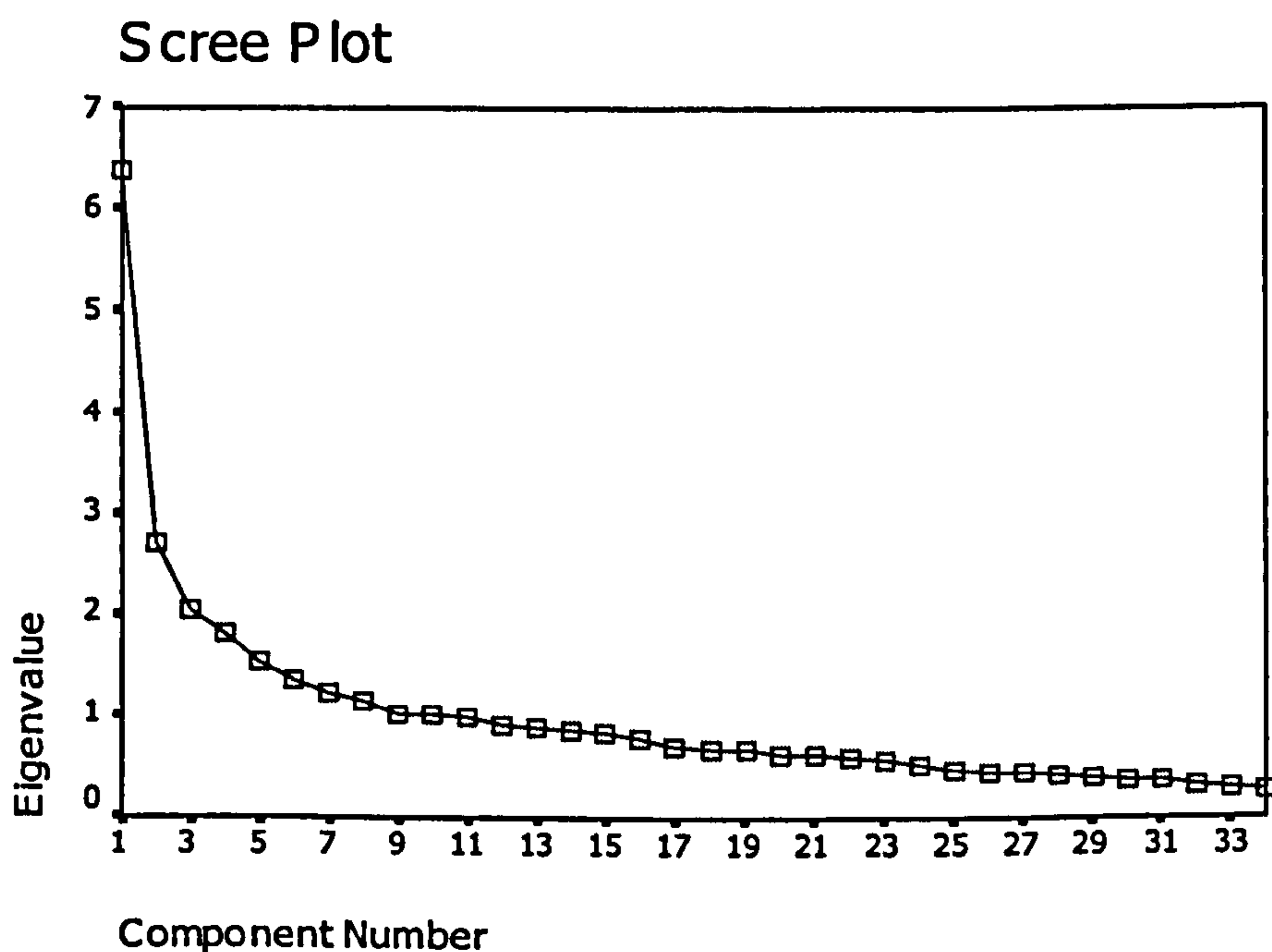


Figure 5.4. Scree plot showing the number of components from the HRM preference scale

The four main components accounted for 38% of variance explained (see Table 5.2.6). The pattern matrix loadings and descriptive statistics for the four key components are

also shown in the table (Table 5.2.6). Individual eigenvalues and percent of variance accounted for by the components are also shown. The KMO measure for this analysis was 0.83. Examining the pattern matrix, it was found that the first component consisted of items in which high values equate to a high 'Human Resource (HR) involvement or participation' (e.g., 'Employees to have a minimum say in career vs. Employees to have a major say in career'). HR Involvement/participation here refers to practices and policies emanating from the management that provide employees with the opportunity to influence and where appropriate take part in the decision-making matters that affect them. The second component consisted of items in which high values equate to a 'High predictability of rewards' (e.g., 'Rewards by non-financial incentives vs. Rewards by financial incentives'). The third component consisted items which equate to a 'Performance vs. loyalty related HRM practice' (e.g., 'Pay regardless of age and seniority vs. Pay based on age and seniority'). Finally, the fourth component consisted of items in which high values equate to 'High HR empowerment' (e.g., 'Maintain present levels of structure vs. Minimise levels of organisation structure'). Empowerment as used here is more than its predecessors (involvement/participation), meaning a process for improving organisations by developing and deploying competent influence (Kinlaw, 1995). It is important to note that questionnaire items took the format by Schuler and Jackson (1987) where low items equate to high items. However, for analysis the items were re-coded, high items equated to high items. The meanings of the components that emerged were derived from the majority of the items in a component.

The items have been abbreviated HRM as the variable name used in the scale. The number against each HRM item i.e. HRM11 does not refer to item 11 (eleven) in the scale but item 1 in component one or HRM21 is not item 21 (twenty one) in the scale but item one in component two and so forth. The number against each variable as it appeared in the questionnaire is shown under the column item in scale in Table 2.5.6. The item description is exactly as was phrased in the questionnaire measuring for policy practices. It is also worth to note that in most cases I have used the term component referring to preference in order to fit long titles into available space i.e. component 1 refers to HR involvement/participation and so forth. A complete guide is given below.



Table 5.2.6

## Human Resource Management Item pattern matrix Loadings

Item in Scale	Item	Item Description <sup>a</sup>	Component			
			1	2	3	4
17	HRM11	Appraisals by subordinates/peers vs. Appraisals be done by superiors	.73			
8	HRM12	Not to reveal selection criteria vs. Selection criteria be made clear to all	.72			
29	HRM13	Not require off the job training for employees vs. Employees go for off the job training	.74			
7	HRM14	Management determine best way to work vs. Workers determine how they work	.73			
33	HRM15	Employees to have minimum say in career vs. Employees to have major say in career	.65			
32	HRM16	Informal training policy on an ad hoc basis vs. Formal, systematic training policy	.68			
21	HRM17	Not expect employees be shareholders in the firm vs. Employees be shareholders of the firm	.76			
24	HRM18	Employees pay be made public knowledge vs. Keep employees personal pay secret	.77			
20	HRM21	Wage determination comparable with group vs. Wage comparable with market rates		.53		
30	HRM22	Training for more transferable skills vs. Training for improving present skills		.57		
22	HRM23	Pay increases by group performance vs. Pay increases by personal performance		.64		
18	HRM24	Focus performance on group achievement vs. Focus performance on personal achievement		.64		
26	HRM25	Rewards by non-financial incentives vs. Rewards by financial incentives		.61		
1	HRM26	Loose informal HR planning vs. Tight formal HR planning		.56		
27	HRM31	Pay regardless of age and seniority vs. Pay based on age and seniority			.66	
19	HRM32	Performance appraisal done frequently vs. Performance appraisal once in a while			.72	
25	HRM33	Consider company needs when determining pay vs. Employee needs when determining pay			.68	
9	HRM34	Fill vacancies with the best people first vs. Fill vacancies with insiders first			.64	
5	HRM35	Provide jobs that make one switch jobs vs. Provide jobs that make one an expert			.68	
2	HRM41	Always take cost into consideration vs. Design jobs regardless of cost				.71
15	HRM42	Managers determine what is best vs. Employees participate in evaluation				.71
6	HRM43	Maintain present levels of structure vs. Minimise levels of organisation structure				.61
28	HRM44	Rewards focusing only on performance vs. Rewards considering qualifications & skill				.66
23	HRM45	Guarantee employment security vs. Guarantee same job security				.62
		Alpha	.89	.70	.71	.71
		Mean	3.81	3.51	2.43	3.31
		SD	1.16	1.01	1.10	1.09
		Eigenvalue	6.4	2.7	2.0	1.8
		Percent of Variance Explained	18.7	7.9	6.0	5.3

**Note.** Component 1 = Human Resource Involvement/Participation; Component 2 = Predictability of HR Rewards; Component 3 = Preference for Performance vs. Loyalty Related HRM Practice; Component 4 = Human Resource Empowerment.

<sup>a</sup>Items were re-coded so those high items equate to high items also, item descriptions are shortened.

Table 5.2.6 also shows that scales derived from the four components reached an acceptable reliability of 0.70 and above with component one reaching an alpha level of 0.89. The item-to-total correlations for each component reported high correlations among the items (see Table 5.2.7).

Table 5.2.7  
Corrected Item-to-total Correlations of the HRM Preference Scale  
HRM Preferences

Item	Component 1	Component 2	Component 3	Component 4
HRM11	.73			
HRM12	.64			
HRM13	.69			
HRM14	.67			
HRM15	.61			
HRM16	.59			
HRM17	.70			
HRM18	.69			
HRM21		.34		
HRM22		.41		
HRM23		.47		
HRM24		.49		
HRM25		.45		
HRM26		.46		
HRM31			.49	
HRM32			.53	
HRM33			.45	
HRM34			.46	
HRM35			.42	
HRM41				.45
HRM42				.49
HRM43				.47
HRM44				.49
HRM45				.42

The correlation coefficients and the alpha reliabilities of these scales indicate that they measured the same concept in the *Kenyan context*, which is inferred from the items within the scale. The scale is based on well-grounded theory and since they have shown that they are reliable they were adopted for analysis in this study. Employee HRM policy practice preferences are inferred from the average means reported in Table 5.2.6.

### 5.3 SCREENING DATA FOR ANALYSIS

Prior to analysis, cultural value orientations (Activity: doing, Activity: thinking, Human nature: good-evil, Relational: hierarchical, Relational: individual, Relation to nature: harmony, Relation to nature: mastery, and Relation to nature: subjugation); HRM preferences (HR involvement/participation, Predictability of rewards, Performance vs. loyalty HRM practices, and HR empowerment); and Job involvement were examined through various SPSS programmes for accuracy of data entry, missing values, and fit



between their distributions and the assumptions of multivariate analysis. Missing data were deleted listwise. The assumptions examined for are normality, linearity, homoscedasticity, multicollinearity and singularity, and outliers among the variables (Tabachnick & Fidell, 1996). The following is a description of how each issue was dealt with in these analyses.

Normality is one of the issues underlying multivariate procedures where each variable and all linear combinations of the variables are normally distributed. It is particularly important when the researcher intends to draw inferences from the data. Normality was here statistically assessed using one of the components of normality called skewness. The other component is called kurtosis. Skewness deals with the symmetry of the distribution while kurtosis deals with the peakedness of a distribution. When a distribution is normal these components are zero. Data may show negative or positive skewness. However, in large samples, variables with statistically significant skewness often do not deviate much from normality. Initially, normality was examined for each variable (see skewness statistics presented in Table 5.3). However, skewness doesn't really matter with a sample size greater than 200 (Tabachnick & Fidell, 1996).

Table 5.3

## Skewness Statistics of Cultural Values, HRM Preferences, and Job Involvement

variable	Skewness
Activity: Doing	-.695
Activity: Thinking	-1.897
Human Nature: Good-Evil	-.249
Relational: Hierarchical	.002
Relational: Individual	-.539
Relation to Nature: Harmony	-1.043
Relation to Nature: Mastery	-1.348
Relation to Nature: Subjugation	.632
HR Involvement/participation	-1.091
Predictability of Rewards	-.275
Performance HRM practices	.439
HR empowerment	-.252
Job Involvement	-.285

The linearity assumption is that there is a straight-line relationship between two variables. Linearity has practical importance because Pearson's  $r$  only captures the linear relationships among variables. Linearity in these analyses was examined from

residual plots using predicted variables. This assumption was also not unreasonably violated (see normal probability plots and scatter plots in Appendix 3.0).

Another multivariate assumption is homoscedasticity that is the variability of errors in predicted scores for a continuous variable is roughly the same at all values of other continuous variables. Since this assumption is related to that of normality it was not examined here because normality had already been examined for under the normality assumption. Heteroscedasticity is caused by either non-normality of one of the variables or by the fact that one variable is related non-linearly to another.

Multicollinearity and singularity are other assumptions related to the correlation matrix. Multicollinearity occurs when the variables are highly correlated for example at .90 (Tabachnick & Fidell, 1996), while singularity occurs when there is redundancy amongst the variables i.e. one of the variables is a combination of two or more of the other variables. This initially was not a problem as can be observed from correlation tables (see for example Table 5.7) the highest correlation between variables reported is .48, which is far below the .90, level. However, during fit analyses in the next chapter, there was need for transformations, which required for higher order interaction terms: in one case, there appeared to be problems with multicollinearity.

Another issue dealt with in this data is that of outliers. Outliers are cases with such extreme values or combinations of variables that they distort statistics. Outliers are problematic as they lead to both Type I and Type II errors, with no clue regarding which effect they have in the analysis. Outliers also lead to results that do not generalise as results are overly determined by the outlier or outliers. In these analyses there were three cases with the standardised regression residuals  $> +3$  or  $< -3$ . These were deleted from further analyses.

#### **5.4 CULTURAL VALUE ORIENTATIONS OF KENYAN EMPLOYEES**

This section examines and presents the cultural value orientations held by this Kenyan sample. The analysis comprises all the eleven original sub-dimensions from raw data. This is followed by examination of variations in value orientations using only the scales that were adopted for further analysis. Earlier, Table 5.2.5 presented means, standard deviation and reliability coefficients including number of items of these original value



orientations' sub-scales indicating those that were retained and the ones dropped from further analysis.

The results represent the picture from raw data collected from the Kenyan sample. They paint a picture of the values held by the Kenyan sample. Only scales with an alpha greater than 0.60 were taken to be reliable and adopted for this analysis. This is consistent with the authors of the scales' finding of reliabilities of between 0.60 and 0.70 (Maznevski, DiStefano, & Nason 1993, 1994). Therefore, as pointed out earlier, scales with  $\alpha < .60$  are examined to get a picture of Kenyan culture but then are not used beyond this initial description. The Kenyan sample shows some variations with commonly held assumptions about the nature of people from developing countries which could be a product of this country's history and current economic state. The following is the emerging picture of the Kenyan sample's value orientations across the original eleven sub-dimensions.

#### **5.4.1 Activity Orientation**

The activity orientation shows that Kenyans prefer to think things through and to live rationally (Activity: Thinking). On average they strive to achieve goals and work harder if well rewarded. They view work as central to their existence because of the benefits work brings to them (Activity: Doing). The results indicate that Kenyans are not 'being' oriented, which is an orientation characterised by spontaneity. People don't work on feelings, as they are experienced but tend to be reflective and think things through.

#### **5.4.2 Relationships Orientation**

On relationships among people, the Kenyan sample tends to value both group (Relational: Collateral) and individual (Relational: Individual) welfare, but group welfare is more valued compared to individual welfare. This is not surprising as Sinha and Tripathi (1994) argue that both individualistic and collectivist behaviours could be found in a society depending on context. They are neutral with regard to hierarchical relations (Relational: Hierarchical).

#### **5.4.3 Relation to Nature Orientation**

The results of this orientation show that Kenyans tend to be in harmony with the world around them. They tend to behave in concert with their environment. They see no real separation between people and their natural environment, and their beliefs have allowed

them to live at peace with the environment. Mastery orientation was scored surprisingly high, perhaps due to the composition of the respondents who are young and educated. A young employee who has made it from scratch to be where he/she is, earning his/her own money and having great plans for the future could score high regardless of his/her environment. One result reported by the Kenyan sample, which is presumed by many researchers to be a feature of developing countries, is the issue of being subjugated to nature. Subjugated societies tend to see themselves as dominated by physical forces and or subject to the will of a Supreme power or some external force. This finding shows the opposite for Kenya. Modern Kenyans, though in a developing country, do not see causality as determined by components beyond their control as they will try very hard to live better. This is consistent with other value orientations which are seen in non-subjugated societies like activity doing and activity thinking, which the Kenyan sample has also exhibited.

#### **5.4.4 Basic Human Nature Orientation**

The study shows that Kenyans' belief about the inherent character of the human species is a mixture of both good and evil (manipulative), i.e. they are neutral on this orientation (Human Nature: Good or Evil). Some people are evil and can not be trusted but then there are others who are good and can be trusted. They score on the other belief about the changeability of people (Human Nature: Changeable/Unchangeable). Together, the results have indicated that given the right support and environment most people would change for the better, and the wrong environment can change others to be bad even if they were good.

This analysis has revealed the cultural value orientations held by this Kenyan sample (answering my first research question), by using one of the most coherent set of cultural value scales so far developed. In summary, the results indicate that on average, the sample can be characterised: as rational and goal oriented; more group than individually oriented, but not overly concerned with hierarchy; oriented towards harmony with the world around, but with a preparedness to control the environment for their benefit; and seeing good, bad, stability and change in people.



## 5.5 VARIATIONS IN VALUE ORIENTATIONS OF KENYAN EMPLOYEES

Kenya is a multi-ethnic society, which might make one doubt whether there is a homogenous culture. This is even more questionable as individual cultural dimensions may be shaped by a series of demographic variables or even the organisation's culture. The focus of this study is on individual cultural value orientations as a proxy of national culture. These values have indicated that same general tendencies are discernible within the Kenyan culture. In this section I examine the effects of some demographic variables like education, age, gender, occupation, ethnic affiliation, and organisational affiliation. Analysis of variance (ANOVA) with Turkey-HSD tests are utilised to investigate the variable mean differences if any, between groups. This will then give an indication of influence of such variables on individual value orientations.

Variance is a statistical measure described as the mean of squares of deviations taken from the mean of the given series of data. Its square root is known as standard deviation. ANOVA is essentially a procedure for testing the difference among different groups of data for homogeneity. Harnet and Murphy (1975: 376) point out that 'the essence of ANOVA is that the total amount of variation in a set of data is broken down into two types, that amount which can be attributed to chance and that amount which can be attributed to specified causes.' If one takes only one component or presumed cause and investigates the differences amongst its various categories having numerous possible values, he/she is said to use one-way ANOVA. In case he/she investigates two components at the same time, then they use two-way ANOVA and so while using ANOVA, we assume that each of the samples is drawn from a normal population and that each of these populations has the same variance. However, with large sample sizes—such as here, this assumption can be violated with no effect on statistical inference (Hays, 1988). Using this technique one can draw inferences about whether the samples have been drawn from populations having the same mean—the technique is important in the context of those situations where one wants to compare more than two populations. There are other more complex techniques to measure variance that are extensions of ANOVA in multivariate statistics such as analysis of covariance (ANCOVA), multivariate analysis of variance (MANOVA), and multivariate analysis of covariance (MANCOVA). There are both theoretical and practical limitations of using these techniques some that influenced the decision to resort to one-way ANOVA. One of the

reasons is that the analyses reported here are essentially descriptive, showing differences across the sample to aid in contextual interpretation of results. A second, reason is that the sample size isn't big enough to conduct complex multi-component ANOVAs.

In the following sections I examine for variations within and between different variables using the demographic data that formed the last section of the measures. It was suggested that there might be differences in cultural values according to demographics. In order to test whether this suggestions hold, analysis of variance is expected to provide some clues.

Table 5.5.1 presents the findings of the differences emerging from education levels of respondents in the sample.

Table 5.5.1  
Comparison of Means by Educational Levels  
Cultural Value Orientations

GROUP	AD	AT	HNGE	RH	RI	RNH	RNM	RNS
1. Primary level	5.82 <sup>6</sup>	6.12	5.19 <sup>6</sup>	4.59	4.51	5.57	5.82	3.64 <sup>4,5</sup>
2. Ordinary level	5.54 <sup>6</sup>	6.19	4.44	4.19	4.90	5.65	5.74	3.16 <sup>4</sup>
3. Advanced level	5.96 <sup>6</sup>	6.61	4.76	4.41	5.30	5.72	6.17	2.91
4. Ordinary or Advanced plus diploma level	5.35	6.27	4.45	3.91	5.10	5.66	6.12	2.45 <sup>1,2</sup>
5. Undergraduate	5.17	6.33	4.11	4.34	5.31	5.78	6.17	2.44 <sup>1</sup>
6. Postgraduate	4.59 <sup>1,2,3</sup>	6.27	3.47 <sup>1</sup>	4.34	4.79	5.82	5.87	2.27
7. Other	5.97	6.52	5.31	3.46	4.55	5.74	5.93	2.93
F Ratio	3.89 <sup>***</sup>	1.05	2.65 <sup>**</sup>	1.26	1.50	.21	1.50	4.44 <sup>***</sup>

**Note.** Superscripts indicate that means between groups are significantly different at the 0.05 level using Turkey-HSD test.

Means are significantly different at P<. 05\*; P<. 01\*\*; P<. 001\*\*\*.

Degrees of freedom = 6/268.

Table 5.5.1 shows that three cultural value orientations indicate 'within culture' differences. These are Activity doing (AD), (p<. 001). The second value orientation indicating difference is Human nature good/evil (HNGE), (p<. 01) and the other is Relation to nature subjugation (RNS), (p<. 001). Turkey HSD reveals that respondents with certificate education (1, 2, and 3) are significantly greater than those with postgraduate degree education on the AD cultural value orientation. Human Nature: Good/Evil is significantly greater between group one (Primary education) and group six,



(Postgraduate education). Those with post graduate degrees tend to indicate that they think human nature is good whereas, those with certificates tend to indicate that human nature is evil. The lower education respondents seem to rank this value high or than the respondents who have spent in education. Relation to nature subjugation shows significant differences between those with a primary level education and those with ordinary level education (ordinary level is equivalent to four years in a secondary school) compared to those with either ordinary level education and have done a diploma or those with advanced level of education and have done a diploma (Advanced level is equivalent to four years secondary schooling plus two years in high school, those in the fourth group are respondents who have taken up some specialised training leading to diploma after school, mostly from Polytechnics). Such groups are usually more confident because their skills are valuable and can become self employed. Group 1 (Primary certificate) and 5 (Undergraduate degree) show differences' indicating that the less educated the employee is the more he or she possesses subjugation values: again this may be related to the acquisition of skills through training.

Table 5.5.2 presents comparisons of means by occupation levels using one-way ANOVA.

**Table 5.5.2**  
**Comparisons of Means by Occupational Levels**  
**Cultural value Orientations**

GROUP	AD	AT	HNGE	RH	RI	RNH	RNM	RNS
1 Upper Management	5.16	6.18	4.24	4.51	4.70	5.47	5.83	2.58
2 Middle Management	5.28	6.35	4.02	4.28	5.08	5.57	5.99	2.53 <sup>3</sup>
3 Machine Operator	5.67	5.91	5.12	3.79	4.76	5.57	5.75	4.19 <sup>6,2,4,8</sup>
4 Supervisor	5.51	6.36	4.54	4.28	5.17 <sup>9</sup>	5.69	5.81	2.89 <sup>3</sup>
5: Sales	5.31	6.05	4.34	3.83	5.11	5.19	5.81	2.90
6 Accountancy	5.33	6.35	4.16	4.47	5.45	5.91	6.04	2.31
7 Secretary	5.24	6.36	4.24	3.79	5.22	6.01	5.67	2.73
8 Technician	5.62	6.36	4.67	4.30	5.16 <sup>9</sup>	5.72	6.16	2.88 <sup>3</sup>
9 Support Staff	5.59	6.23	4.43	4.18	4.38 <sup>8,4</sup>	5.75	5.99	3.03
10 Security	5.87	6.25	5.44	4.95	4.95	5.68	5.69	4.00
<i>F</i> Ratio	.83	.67	1.57	.92	1.99*	.86	.59	3.04***

**Note.** Superscripts indicate that means between groups are significantly different at the 0.05 level using Turkey-HSD test.

Means are significantly different at  $P < .05^*$ ;  $P < .01^{**}$ ;  $P < .001^{***}$ .

Degrees of freedom = 8/261.

ANOVA indicates that there are significant differences for two cultural values namely, Relational: Individual (RI) and Relation to Nature: Subjugation (RNS) on the basis of occupational level of the respondent. For RI, significant differences are observed between group 4, 8, and 9. Support staff (group 9) emerge as less individualistic as compared to supervisory respondents (group 4). Technical staff (group 8) also tends to be more individualistic than the support staff. Relation to nature subjugation (RNS) shows differences ( $p < .001$ ) between group 3, 2, 6, 4, and 8. Machine operators (group 3) tend to report a higher mean than all the other groups indicating that this group report greater subjugation to nature values than the rest.

Another demographic variable examined using one-way ANOVA is gender of the respondent. In an African family, gender played a role in culture because parents seemed to impart feminine values for girls and more masculine values to boys (see chapter one part four). However, only two cultural value orientations, Relational: Individual (RI) and Relation to Nature: Harmony (RNH) indicated a significant differences ( $p < .05$ ) (see Table 5.5.3).



**Table 5.5.3**  
**Comparisons of Means by Gender**  
**Cultural Value Orientations**

GROUP	AD	AT	HNGE	RH	RI	RNH	RNM	RNS
1 Female	5.53	6.29	4.19	3.95	5.37	5.26	5.75	2.89
2 Male	5.46	6.26	4.49	4.19	4.95	4.82	5.95	2.88
<i>F</i> Ratio	.11	.02	1.35	.95	3.71*	3.61*	.97	.00

**Note.** Superscripts indicate that means between groups are significantly different at the 0.05 level using Turkey-HSD test.

Means are significantly different at  $P < .05^*$ ;  $P < .01^{**}$ ;  $P < .001^{***}$ .

Degrees of freedom = 1/270.

These results may reflect the fact that most of the women who have recently joined salaried jobs have been socialised to the world of salaried employment in similar ways to men. However, because they are entering a traditionally male domain, they may be more strong willed than men may. Women in the sample are significantly more individualistic than men. However the results also indicate that women score highly on relation to nature harmony than men. This may indicate a perseverance of some traditionally Kenyan female values. There are no significant differences between male and female in most of the other cultural values

The other demographic variable examined is ethnic affiliation of the respondents. Since Kenya is a multi-ethnic society, it was worthwhile to investigate whether employees' ethnic affiliation made any difference in their cultural value orientations. Table 5.5.4 shows that four of the eight cultural values namely activity doing (AD), human nature good/evil (HNGE), relational individual (RI), and relation to nature subjugation (RNS), have a link to ethnic affiliation. These points to the variations that might exist in different ethnic socialisation processes that might influence cultural value as much as individual differences do. This also indicates that ethnicity is an important element in cultural studies. Perhaps emanating through deep historical roots that may affect the present (Coughlan & Samarasinghe, 1991).

Table 5.5.4  
Comparisons of Means by Ethnic Group Affiliation  
Cultural Value Orientations

GROUP	AD	AT	HNGE	RH	RI	RNH	RNM	RNS
1 Kalenjin	5.89 <sup>2</sup>	6.58	4.84	4.57	5.22	5.96	6.10	3.23 <sup>2</sup>
2 Kikuyu	5.25 <sup>1</sup>	6.31	4.10 <sup>6</sup>	3.98	5.18	5.72	6.16	2.48 <sup>6</sup>
3 Kisii	5.40	6.27	4.14	3.84	4.55	5.68	5.48	3.28
4 Luo	5.39	6.37	4.15	4.18	4.68 <sup>8</sup>	5.57	5.89	2.75
5 Kamba	5.33	6.01	4.06	4.27	5.17	5.73	6.18	2.90
6 Luyha	5.74	6.16	5.15 <sup>2</sup>	4.53	4.92	5.49	5.89	3.55 <sup>2</sup>
7 Asian	5.31	6.17	5.00	3.67	5.16	5.99	5.57	2.61
8 Other	5.53	6.51	4.41	4.18	5.64 <sup>4</sup>	5.83	5.84	3.02
<i>F</i> Ratio	2.13*	1.05	3.26***	1.53	2.05*	.96	1.40	3.89***

**Note.** Superscripts indicate that means between groups are significantly different at the 0.05 level using Turkey-HSD test.

Means are significantly different at  $P < .05^*$ ;  $P < .01^{**}$ ;  $P < .001^{***}$ .

Degrees of freedom = 7/255.

There are significant differences between the Kalenjin (group 1) and the Kikuyu (group 2) with regard to activity doing (AD), ( $p < .05$ ). There is a significant difference observed between Kikuyu ethnic group (group 2) and the Luyha ethnic group (group 6) with regard to the cultural orientation Human Nature: Good/Evil ( $p < .001$ ). Relational individual (RI) also indicates a significant difference between the Luo (group 4) and 'Other' ethnic groups coded as 8 (these include Pastoralists, White race, Arabs) ( $p < .05$ ). However the majority in this group are the White race because the main occupation of pastoralists is still cattle raising and Arabs are basically small business people. This points to the fact the White race in group 8 is more individualistic hence the high score toward individualism. The significant difference between the Luo (group 4) who score low in individualism indicates that collectivist values are still prevalent among the Luo (see for example, Ochieng', 1979, also see chapter one part four). Relation to nature subjugation (RNS) again indicates significant differences with ethnic affiliation ( $p < .001$ ). The Kikuyu (group 2) seem to be less subjugated than the other two ethnic groups showing differences with them namely, the Kalenjin (group 1) and Luyha (group 6). There are no other significant differences. These findings will be pursued in more detail in the discussion chapter.



Corporate culture may influence individual culture in several ways, which may in turn influence individual culture. Comparison of means for this variable indicates that organisations have an effect in individual cultural values. Table 5.5.5 presents the means and *F* Ratios for the eight cultural variables examined compared by firm affiliation.

Table 5.5.5  
Comparisons of Means by Organisation Affiliation  
Cultural Value Orientations

GROUP	AD	AT	HNGE	RH	RI	RNH	RNM	RNS
1	4.96 <sup>2,7</sup>	6.20	3.49 <sup>5,2,7</sup>	4.02	5.25	5.59	5.84	2.25 <sup>7,2</sup>
2	5.68 <sup>1</sup>	6.17	4.75 <sup>1,3</sup>	4.24	4.62	5.47	5.89	3.41 <sup>1,6,8</sup>
3	5.55	6.38	3.68 <sup>2,7</sup>	3.98	5.16	5.91	6.15	2.75
4	5.51	6.22	3.85	3.69	4.62	5.58	5.93	2.58
5	5.55	6.21	4.70	4.33	4.88	5.51	5.77	2.64
6	5.16	6.37	4.55	4.50	5.03	5.64	6.14	2.53 <sup>2</sup>
7	5.79 <sup>1</sup>	6.40	4.88 <sup>1,3</sup>	4.48 <sup>8</sup>	5.29	5.89	5.92	3.38 <sup>1</sup>
8	5.38	6.17	4.41	3.65 <sup>7</sup>	5.17	5.84	6.03	2.62 <sup>2</sup>
<i>F</i> Ratio	2.75 <sup>**</sup>	.58	5.03 <sup>***</sup>	2.53 <sup>**</sup>	1.85	1.65	.49	4.86 <sup>***</sup>

Note. Group 1: Company 1; Group 2: Company 2; Group 3: Company 3; Group 4: Company 4; Group 5: Company 5; Group 6: Company 6; Group 7: Company 7; Group 8: Company 8.

Superscripts indicate that means between groups are significantly different at the 0.05 level using Turkey-HSD test.

Means are significantly different at  $P < .05^*$ ;  $P < .01^{**}$ ;  $P < .001^{***}$ .

Degrees of freedom = 7/270.

The results indicate that activity doing (AD) shows significant differences between employees of different companies. For example, company 1 is different from company 2 and company 7 ( $p < .01$ ). There are more companies showing significant differences amongst their employees with regard to human nature good or evil (HNGE) ( $P < .01$ ). Table 5.5.5 shows that company 1 respondents indicate differences between those of company 5, 2, and 7. Further, company 2 members show differences also with those of company 3 and company 7 employees also show differences with regard to this value orientation with those in company 3. Relational hierarchical (RH) also indicates clear differences between those of company 7 and company 8 ( $p < .01$ ). Another value that shows differences with most of the non-cultural variables is RNS ( $p < .001$ ), with organisation members in company 1 being different from those of companies 7 and 2. It

also shows further differences between members of company 2 with members of companies 6 and 8. All these differences show company membership might influence an individual's cultural value orientations.

The comparison of means between different tenure (length of service) groups suggests that only Relation to nature harmony (RNH) is related to tenure ( $p < .05$ ). Table 5.5.6 presents the ANOVA results for value orientations and length of service.

Table 5.5.6  
Comparisons of Means by Length of Service (Tenure)

GROUP	Cultural Value orientations							
	AD	AT	HNGE	RH	RI	RNH	RNM	RNS
1. 0-11 Months	5.44	6.51	4.21	4.03	4.99	5.98	6.28	2.68
2. 1-5 Years	5.45	6.23	4.25	3.97	5.04	5.66	5.89	2.72
3. 6-10 Years	5.67	6.37	4.76	4.28	4.98	5.93 <sup>4</sup>	6.02	3.19
4. 11-15 Years	5.47	6.26	4.75	4.58	5.19	5.22 <sup>3</sup>	5.67	3.00
5. 16-20 Years	5.47	6.39	4.68	4.25	4.76	5.65	5.90	3.00
6. 21-25 Years	5.53	6.39	4.44	4.68	4.97	5.76	6.00	3.08
7. 26-30 Years	6.20	6.10	4.30	3.94	5.58	6.85	6.40	2.91
8. 31-35 Years	3.50	5.00	7.00	3.95	3.00	4.43	3.95	3.14
<i>F</i> Ratio	1.11	.85	1.30	1.04	.91	2.03*	1.33	.70

**Note.** Superscripts indicate that means between groups are significantly different at the 0.05 level using Turkey-HSD test.

Means are significantly different at  $p < .05^*$ ;  $p < .01^{**}$ ;  $p < .001^{***}$ .

Degrees of freedom = 7/264.

The Turkey HSD indicates that there are differences between employees who have worked for the same company for between 6-10 years and those who have worked for between 11-15 years with regard to this relation to nature harmony (RNH) cultural value orientation. Those who hold this are expected to be peaceful and like to live in harmony with their environment.

Variables that were examined but did not show any significant difference between two groups are age of the respondents and the years one has been on the same job. The tables of these values are therefore not shown.

In summary, value orientation variations due to demographic differences indicate that:



- \* there is a link between value orientations and a range of demographic variables indicating variations within national cultures, although general tendencies are discernible at the national level;
- \* ethnic affiliation has an effect on individual cultural value orientations;
- \* corporate or organisation culture is related to individual value orientations, which could be due to types of socialisation that different companies adopt.

These observations are dealt with in some detail in the discussion section.

## **5.6 HRM PREFERENCES OF KENYAN EMPLOYEES**

It is clear that the HRM scale produced four components, which will guide the analysis of the HRM preferences of the Kenyan sample. To recapitulate the four components were titled as follows: HR involvement/Participation; Predictability of HR rewards; Performance vs. loyalty related HRM practices; and HR empowerment (the components are shown in Table 5.2.1).

Component one (human resource involvement/participation) indicates that Kenyan employees on average (3.81) prefer some degree of involvement and participation in some, but not all, policy matters affecting them. For example although they prefer that performance appraisals be carried out by superiors instead of subordinates or peers, they prefer to be able to determine their own best way of working. The means also show that employees want to have a say in their career path and training needs. The sample reveals that there is preference for selection criteria to be made clear, but issues related to individual pay kept secret. Kenyans being people who don't value living for the present indicate that they will be better off if they are shareholders of the firms they work for rather than just workers. A formal systematic training policy seems to be preferred, perhaps because it would curb favouritism in the work place.

Human resource policy preferences in component two (predictability of rewards) report a mean that tend towards preference for items on the right side of items (see Table 5.2.1). The component reflects preference for policies that provide predictability of rewards, such as incentives and benefits that are comparable to the market, and rewards that are based on individual performance rather than the group. Employees seem to prefer tight formal planning probably to increase transparency hence, allowing

predictability of the future. Training for present skills ensures predictability in the sense that one is familiar and sure of what he/she is used to doing when venturing into new areas that are not familiar. Financial rewards are more predictable as one can be sure of what one will get, rather than non-financial rewards which can come in any form, even in just praise or more responsibilities. Focus on personal achievement is also more predictable as one knows that if one exerts more effort there will be reward, unlike trying to make reward a group issue where some might be lazy.

Component three (Performance vs. loyalty HRM practices) contains HRM policies practice that are performance and loyalty related. The mean is less than the mid-level which shows a tendency towards policy practices to the left side of items shown in Table 5.2.1. These recognise competence and performance leading to the success of the organisation. Again issues like rewarding on merit rather than age and seniority is a practice, which can go well with younger employees who may feel that their hard work will benefit them. Furthermore, practices which may lead to the organisation's success regardless of an individuals' culture' orientation, may be seen in a good light as they will ensure the organisation's survival and assure continued employment. Again, this might be the accepted best practice in most firms, especially in the unstable environments found in developing countries.

The fourth component (human resource empowerment) contains items that reflect HR empowerment in the work place. There is a slight tendency for employees to prefer that the company design jobs to maintain and retain good people regardless of the cost, as this gives them a sense of job security and in that they cannot be swapped around or declared redundant with the objective of reducing costs. The Kenyan sample tends slightly to prefer policies to the right of items in Table 5.2.1, i.e. that empower them through performance evaluations and minimising layers of management, allowing easier and faster contact with seniors. Rewarding qualifications and skills is also preferred as it motivates employees on merit. Such a practice assures the highly educated and hard working younger employees the power to progress. This observation could be attributed to the present composition of the Kenyan labour market of young and educated people, reflected in this sample.



## 5.7 VARIATIONS IN HRM PREFERENCES OF KENYAN EMPLOYEES

The HRM preferences for this Kenyan sample are assumed to reflect the same pattern. However, it is possible that companies are pursuing different paths in fitting their HRM policies with employee preferences hence, influencing individual preferences. Authorities in HRM have recognised that organisations tend to integrate HRM with strategies and objectives (e.g., Schuler & Jackson, 1987; Lengnick-Hall & Lengnick-Hall, 1988; Schuler, 1992). It is possible that companies are pursuing different strategies, leading to different HRM approaches. In this sample, there was a mix of companies from different sectors and of different ownership forms. The respondents varied in several ways in gender, occupational level, ethnic affiliation, etc. These variations are examined here for any influence in HRM preferences of this sample. Again, ANOVA with Turkey-HSD tests are used to examine the differences between the organisations and the demographic groups.

Education level of the respondents was also examined for differences between groups. Table 5.7.1 presents the results of this variable between groups. Note that for all subsequent HRM preferences I use the term component to refer to the four HRM preferences. Component 1 refers to HR involvement/participation; component 2 represents predictability of rewards; component 3 stands for performance vs. loyalty related HRM practices; and component 4 is for human resource empowerment.

Table 5.7.1  
Comparisons of Means by Educational Level

GROUP	HRM Preferences			
	1	2	3	4
1 Primary level	3.88	3.04	2.72	2.77 <sup>5</sup>
2 Ordinary level	3.81	3.47	2.44	3.23
3 Advanced level	4.44 <sup>4</sup>	4.04	2.33	3.50
4 Ordinary or Advanced level plus Diploma	3.49 <sup>3</sup>	3.43	2.43	3.17
5 Undergraduate	4.13	3.55	2.42	3.86 <sup>1</sup>
6 Postgraduate	3.68	3.97	2.58	3.45
7 Other	3.99	3.44	1.80	4.36
<i>F</i> Ratio	2.41*	1.90	.54	3.01**

**Note.** Superscripts indicate that means between groups are significantly different at the 0.05 level using Turkey-HSD test.

Means are significantly different at  $p < .05^*$ ;  $p < .01^{**}$ ;  $p < .001^{***}$ .

Degrees of freedom = 6/268.

It shows that education level has a significant influence on employees' HRM preferences. The results indicate that preference for HR involvement/Participation

shows significant differences between group 3 (those with Advanced level education) and those in group 4 (those with either Ordinary level and Diploma or Advanced level with Diploma) ( $p < .05$ ). Preference for HR empowerment also shows a significant difference ( $p < .01$ ) between group 1 (those with primary education level) and group 5 (those with undergraduate level of education).

Occupation of respondents is related only to performance HRM practices. Table 5.7.2 presents comparison of means results of the four HRM preference components by occupation of respondent ( $p < .05$ ). The significant differences are between supervisors (group 4) and sales people (group 3). Results show that employees in sales prefer more performance/loyalty related HRM practices as compared to all the rest.

Table 5.7.2  
Comparisons of Means by Occupational Level

GROUP	HRM Preferences			
	1	2	3	4
1 Upper Management	4.31	3.97	2.33	4.07
2 Middle Management	3.99	3.60	2.89	3.38
3 Machine Operator	4.01	3.48	2.29	3.37
4 Supervisor	3.89	3.68	2.25 <sup>s</sup>	3.20
5 Sales	3.99	3.64	3.16 <sup>t</sup>	3.44
6 Accountancy	4.37	3.85	2.24	3.08
7 Secretary	3.44	3.35	2.13	3.60
8 Technician	3.60	3.40	2.69	3.29
9 Support Staff	3.95	3.35	2.57	3.41
10 Security	3.98	3.67	2.10	2.83
<i>F</i> Ratio	.88	.63	2.13*	1.07

Note. Superscripts indicate that means between groups are significantly different at the 0.05 level using Turkey-HSD test.

Means are significantly different at  $p < .05^*$ ;  $p < .01^{**}$ ;  $p < .001^{***}$ .

Degrees of freedom = 9/261.

Ethnic affiliation has a relationship to some individual cultural values. This variable is analysed here to examine its level of influence with regard to employee HRM preferences. The comparison of means between different ethnic groups suggests that some ethnic groups are different from others in their HRM preferences, as shown in Table 5.7.3.



Table 5.7.3  
Comparisons of Means by Ethnic Group  
HRM Preferences

GROUP	1	2	3	4
1. Kalenjin	4.13 <sup>5</sup>	3.55	2.06	3.17
2. Kikuyu	4.11 <sup>5</sup>	3.75 <sup>3</sup>	2.30	3.72 <sup>4</sup>
3. Kisii	3.38	2.86 <sup>2,6</sup>	2.21	3.11
4. Luo	4.02 <sup>5</sup>	3.32	2.38	3.15 <sup>2</sup>
5. Kamba	3.01 <sup>1,2,4</sup>	3.23	2.65	3.51
6. Luyha	3.85	3.89 <sup>3,8</sup>	2.57	3.10
7. Asian	3.45	3.67	2.77	3.43
8. Other	3.50	3.03 <sup>6</sup>	3.03	3.11
<i>F</i> Ratio	3.59***	3.89***	1.67	2.45**

Note. Superscripts indicate that means between groups are significantly different at the 0.05 level using Turkey-HSD test.

Means are significantly different at  $p < .05^*$ ;  $p < .01^{**}$ ;  $p < .001^{***}$ .

Degrees of freedom = 7/255.

The only preference without ethnic influence is performance related HRM practices. For human resource involvement/participation preferences indicate that the Kamba (ethnic group 5) are significantly different from the Kalenjin (ethnic group 1), the Kikuyu (ethnic group 2), and the Luo (ethnic group 4). For preference for predictable rewards the Kisii (ethnic group 3) show significant differences to the Kikuyu (ethnic group 2) and Luyha (ethnic group 6). The Luyha (ethnic group 6) also show differences to 'Other' ethnic groups (group 8) for example, Pastoralists, Europeans, and Arabs. Two ethnic groups indicate that they are significantly different regarding their preference for HR empowerment. These are the Kikuyu (ethnic group 2) who are significantly different from the Luo (ethnic group 4) regarding HR empowerment. All other ethnic groups show no difference on their preference for empowerment. This observation is complex as it shows that ethnicity plays on employee preferences. This phenomenon was also seen with employee cultural values.

Table 5.7.4 shows the findings of the differences between different companies.

**Table 5.7.4**  
**Comparisons of Means by Organisational Affiliation**

GROUP	HRM Preferences			
	1	2	3	4
Company 1	4.01 <sup>8</sup>	3.74 <sup>8</sup>	2.72 <sup>7</sup>	3.54
Company 2	4.19 <sup>8</sup>	3.52 <sup>6,8</sup>	2.72 <sup>8</sup>	3.20 <sup>3</sup>
Company 3	4.58 <sup>8</sup>	3.87 <sup>8</sup>	2.21 <sup>8</sup>	4.16 <sup>8,7,2</sup>
Company 4	4.45 <sup>8</sup>	3.15 <sup>6,8</sup>	1.77 <sup>8</sup>	3.98
Company 5	3.71 <sup>8</sup>	3.79 <sup>8</sup>	2.23 <sup>8</sup>	3.27
Company 6	4.40 <sup>8</sup>	4.16 <sup>8,4,2</sup>	2.17 <sup>8</sup>	3.57
Company 7	4.14 <sup>8</sup>	3.60 <sup>8</sup>	1.95 <sup>1,8</sup>	3.11 <sup>3</sup>
Company 8	2.18 <sup>1,2,3,4,5,6,7</sup>	2.59 <sup>1,2,3,4,5,6,7</sup>	3.13 <sup>4,7,6,3,5,2</sup>	3.03 <sup>3</sup>
F Ratio	28.48***	10.26***	7.10***	3.33**

**Note.** Superscripts indicate that means between groups are significantly different at the 0.05 level using Turkey-HSD test.

Means are significantly different at  $p < .05^*$ ;  $p < .01^{**}$ ;  $p < .001^{***}$ .

Degrees of freedom = 7/270.

Table 5.7.4 reports that company membership has impact on HRM preference ( $p < .001$ ) for components 1, 2, and 3 while component 4 was also significant ( $p < .01$ ). The result indicates that company 8 is different from all the other companies regarding preference for HR involvement/participation. All the other companies seem to be similar with regard to this component. Again, company 8 members emerge to be different from all the other employees in other companies in issues regarding predictability of HR rewards. Company 6 indicated that its members are different with regard to predictable rewards with those members of company 8, 4 and 2. There are differences between members of company 8 with almost all the others for performance vs. loyalty related HRM preferences. However, members of company 1 only show differences with company 7. Company 8 members indicate that they are low in preference for HR involvement and predictability of rewards while they are high in performance vs. loyalty HRM practice. Preference for empowerment indicates a rather different picture from the rest as company 3 members show differences between members of company 2, 7 and 8. It can be seen that means of company 8 members are less than those of other companies' members indicating that they were lower in most of these preference: an issue that would be dealt with in the discussion section.



Another variable investigated was the age of the respondents. Only preference for HR involvement/participation shows significant differences ( $p < .05$ ) between employees in group 1 (those aged less than 25 years) and employees in group 2 (those aged between 26 and 30 years) as presented in Table 5.7.5.

Table 5.7.5

## Comparisons of Means by Age of Respondent

GROUP	HRM Preferences			
	1	2	3	4
1 <25 Years	3.24 <sup>2</sup>	3.24	2.81	3.39
2 26-30 Years	4.14 <sup>1</sup>	3.50	2.28	3.33
3 31-35 Years	3.99	3.51	2.32	3.34
4 36-40 Years	3.75	3.54	2.36	3.27
5 41-45 Years	3.97	3.65	2.21	3.17
6 46-50 Years	3.89	3.61	2.80	3.58
7 51-55 Years	4.06	4.13	2.10	3.23
8 56-65 Years	3.06	3.83	3.60	4.20
9 61-65 Years	4.50	3.76	3.20	4.80
F Ratio	2.24*	.83	1.98	.60

**Note.** Superscripts indicate that means between groups are significantly different at the 0.05 level using Turkey-HSD test.

Means are significantly different at  $p < .05^*$ ;  $p < .01^{**}$ ;  $p < .001^{***}$ .

Degrees of freedom = 8/267.

The years one has spent on a job shows some significant difference on predictability of rewards (Table 5.7.6): those who have spent less than a year on the same job prefer less predictability of rewards than those who have been in the job for 21-25 years. Also those employees who have spent between 1-5 years in the same job indicate they prefer more predictable rewards than those who have been working in the same job for less than one year (see Table 5.7.6). The differences reported here are explained in the discussion section of the thesis.

Table 5.7.6

Comparisons of Means by Years on the same Job (Experience)

GROUP	HRM Preferences			
	1	2	3	4
1 < 1 Year	3.26	2.61 <sup>2,6</sup>	3.09	3.09
2 1-5 Years	3.90	3.65 <sup>1</sup>	2.43	3.42
3 6-10 Years	3.94	3.39	2.54	3.25
4 11-15 Years	3.52	3.42	2.21	3.25
5 16-20 Years	4.02	3.66	1.99	3.15
6 21-25 Years	4.02	4.08 <sup>1</sup>	2.86	3.56
7 26-30 Years	3.38	2.75	2.56	3.13
8 31-35 Years	3.41	3.76	2.55	3.00
9 > 36 Years	4.50	3.76	3.20	4.80
<i>F</i> Ratio	1.25	2.57**	1.56	.72

Note. Superscripts indicate that means between groups are significantly different at the 0.05 level using Turkey-HSD test.

Means are significantly different at  $p < .05^*$ ;  $p < .01^{**}$ ;  $p < .001^{***}$ .

Degrees of freedom = 8/264.

Two demographic variables (gender and tenure) indicated no significant differences with HRM preferences hence they are not reported here.

## 5.8 CORRELATION OF VALUES WITH PREFERENCES

One of the objectives of this study was to establish relationships between variables. In chapter four (section, 4.4.2) I explained in detail why this is important and indicated required criteria for establishing causal relationship. In this section I examine for causation using product-moment correlation coefficients (Pearson's  $r$ ) to provide succinct assessments of the closeness of a relationship among variables, for this case between cultural values and HRM preferences. Despite the fact that correlations cannot conclusively demonstrate causality, this was the most appropriate design given limitations described in the method chapter.

The correlation results in Table 5.8 are taken against a more conservative significance level of  $p < .01$ , because even trivial correlations can reach significance at  $p < .05$  with large samples (Hays, 1988). Activity thinking stands out as having the strongest



relationship with HR involvement, but activity: doing and relation to nature: mastery are also correlated with this HRM preference.

Predictability of rewards correlates with activity: doing, activity: thinking, relationship: individual and relationships: hierarchical value orientations. Human resource empowerment correlates negatively with human nature: good-evil, relational: hierarchical and relation to nature: subjugation.

Table 5.8

Standard Deviations, Means, Alphas and Correlation between Cultural Value Orientations with Human Resource Management Preferences

Variables	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11
1. AD											
2. AT	.3468**										
3. HNGE	.2633**	.1113									
4. RH	.1043*	.0831	.2966**								
5. RI	.2508**	.2631**	.1942**	.2144**							
6. RNH	.2742**	.4270**	.1033**	.0200	.2296**						
7. RNM	.3178**	.4240**	.0725	.0754	.2141**	.2833**					
8. RNS	.1482*	-.1016	.3086**	.1735*	.1488*	-.0622	-.0982				
9. Component 1	.1981**	.3552**	.0307	.1265	.0952	.1406	.1541*	.0420			
10. Component 2	.2082**	.1498*	.0857	.1641*	.2095**	.0095	.1154	-.0262	.4806**		
11. Component 3	.0322	-.062	.0811	-.0564	.0876	-.0172	.0104	.0614	-.2604**	-.1245	
12. Component 4	.0236	.0019	-.1650*	-.2746**	-.0306	.0456	.0643	-.1607*	-.2427**	.2144**	-.0320

**Note.** Significant correlation at  $p < .01$ , are shown, \* $p < .01$ ; \*\* $p < .001$ ,  $N = 274$ .

AD = Activity: Doing; AT = Activity: Thinking; HNGE = Human Nature: Good/Evil; RH = Relationship: Hierarchical; Relationships: Individual; RNH = Relation to Nature: Harmony; RNM = Relation to Nature: Mastery; RNS = Relation to Nature: Subjugation.

Component 1 = Human Resource Involvement/Participation; Component 2 = Predictability of HR Rewards; Component 4 = Performance vs. Loyalty HRM Practices; Component 4 = Human Resource Empowerment.

The results also indicate, rather intriguingly, that preference for performance vs. loyalty related HRM practices have no association with cultural values. There are two possible explanations for this particular result from the Kenyan sample. First, performance related practices are just a good idea, hence the agreement is not explained by the cultural orientation reflecting some agreement about best practice. Second, the preference is linked to a cultural value orientation across which there is little variation in

the sample, as indicated from the ANOVA analysis presented earlier. The only variations reflected in relation to this component are with organisational affiliation and occupation of the respondents both, rather than ethnicity, a variable more readily linked to deep-rooted cultural values. Even with these variables, only one organisation tended to indicate significant differences and for occupation the differences were from two types, supervisors and sales people.

These analyses enabled the assessment of relationships. However, in order to understand the extent to which cultural values predict HRM preferences I adopted multiple regression analysis since these values are correlated. The multiple regression model allows us to consider the way in which several independent variables (IVs) or  $X$ s affect the behaviour of the dependent variable (DV) or  $Y$  under the assumptions that they have an *additive* influence. The goal of regression is to arrive at the set of  $B$  values, called regression coefficients, for the independent variables that bring the  $Y$  values predicted from the equation as close as possible to the  $Y$  values of the measurement. A general goal of regression is to identify the fewest independent variables necessary to predict a dependent variable where each independent variable predicts a substantial and independent segment of the variability in the dependent variable.

However, a regression solution is very sensitive to the combination of variables that is included in it. Tabachnick and Fidell (1996) point out that regression analysis assumes that independent variables are measured without error, asserting that this is a clear impossibility in most social and behavioural sciences. They argue that the best one can do is to choose the most reliable independent variables.

## 5.9 MULTIPLE REGRESSION ANALYSIS

Table 5.9 shows the results of the combined effects and overall relationship of the eight cultural scales with some demographic variables related to culture on HRM preferences.



Table 5.9

## Multiple Regression Results of Cultural Value Orientations on HRM Preferences

Unstandardised Regression Coefficients

## HRM Preferences

Variables	1		2		3		4	
	$\Delta R^2$	B	$\Delta R^2$	B	$\Delta R^2$	B	$\Delta R^2$	B
Step 1	.11***		.10***		.07**		.07*	
Age		.03		.05		-.02		.03
Gender		.09		.03		.03		-.07
Kalenjin (Ethngrp1)		.67**		.39		-1.01**		.15
Kikuyu (Ethngrp2)		.88***		.67***		-.70**		.53**
Kisii (Ethngrp3)		.09		-.05		-.84**		-.01
Luo (Ethngrp4)		.75**		.30		-.73**		-.05
Kamba (Ethngrp5)		-.14		.25		-.52		.41
Luhya (Ethngrp6)		.52*		.79***		-.62**		.12
Asian (Ethngrp7)		.20		.58		-.33		.19
Step 2	.13***		.09***		.03		.08**	
Activity: Doing		.13		.19**		.05		.10
Activity: Thinking		.44***		.08		-.13		-.02
Human Nature: Good/Evil		-.08		-.02		.06		-.06
Relational: Hierarchical		.08		.08*		-.08		-.21***
Relational: Individual		-.02		.15**		.08		.02
Relation to Nature: Harmony		.01		-.10		.01		.01
Relation to Nature: Mastery		-.03		-.01		.02		.03
Relation to Nature: Subjugation		.10		-.08		.03		-.07
Adjusted R Square		.19		.14		.04		.09
Degrees of Freedom		17/253		17/253		17/253		17/253

Note. Significant B at  $p < .05$ , are shown,  $p < .05^*$ ,  $p < .01^{**}$ ,  $p < .001^{***}$

Missing data were deleted listwise.

Ethnic group is coded as a dummy variable (Ethngrp). The reference category for all dummy variables is minority groups like the Maasai (Pastoralists), and includes Europeans, Americans and Arabs. This grouping of minorities was coded as 0 for all seven variables representing ethnic group.

DVs are the HRM preferences referred to as components in previous sections.

After controlling for age, gender and ethnic group<sup>2</sup>, some significant changes in  $R^2$  and B effect are observed on step two of multiple regression analysis (I have controlled for age, gender and ethnic variables because they are more likely to be linked to culture (see for example Triandis, 1994). When taking all cultural values together in multivariate analyses, many of the relationships suggested by zero-order correlation become non-significant, but some relationships remain significant ( $p < .05$  or better). Overall, cultural values account for 13% of an individual's score for 'HR involvement', and there is a statistically significant relationship to activity: thinking. Cultural values account for 9% of the variance in 'predictable HRM rewards' and there are statistically significant relationships with activity: doing, relational: individual and relational: hierarchical. Cultural values account for 8% of the variance in 'human resource

<sup>2</sup> Ethnic group is analysed as a dummy variable

empowerment', and there is a significant negative association with relational: hierarchical. Performance vs. loyalty' related HRM practices again come out as value free, as no cultural value orientation was significantly related to it. However, demographic components might explain much of this simple values-HRM preference link. It can be seen for example that ethnic group has an important relationship with many HRM preferences.

## **5.10 SUMMARY OF VALUES AND PREFERENCES RESULTS**

These results indicate that on average Kenyans prefer thinking things through (AT) and on average strive to achieve goals and work hard (AD) in their activity orientation, and did not score highly on the 'being orientation. Being oriented individuals are passive to many things in life and most actions are feeling based. The sample also indicated that they value harmony and are mastery oriented rather than subjugated to nature. Individualistic values were also observed in this sample. However, Kenyans are more collectivists than individualists. The kind of individualism is not self centred but a reflection of limited resources that are not enough to cater for all those that may need help from an employed person. Human nature is seen to be good in spite of the fact that there are some individuals in the society, who are evil. Competition for the little available and lack of proper controls to deter likely culprits increases the number of such people. Evil is manifested in the manipulative nature of people and loose morals. People without morals indulge in corruption and related malpractice. Respect for hierarchy is not the most preferred value orientation as observed in this sample. The sample indicated a middling response regarding hierarchical arrangements showing a tendency toward preference for reduced power distance.

Analysis of variance (ANOVA) revealed some variations in the cultural values held by the sample indicating that in general, Kenya's national culture is not homogenous, although overall tendencies are discernible. This observation extends to ethnic affiliation of respondents indicating that ethnicity has influence on cultural values.

Investigating for relationships between these cultural values and HRM policies and practice preferences indicated association. However, not all HRM policies and practice preferences are influenced by cultural value orientations. Three components, human resource involvement or participation, predictability of rewards and human resource



empowerment were related to cultural value orientations. Performance vs. loyalty related HRM practices came out as culture-free.

At the zero-order level three cultural values (activity: doing, activity: thinking, and relation to nature: mastery) reported significant association with human resource (HR) involvement or participation. The association of activity doing (AD), activity thinking (AT), and relation to nature mastery (RNM) with preference for HR involvement indicates that these are individuals who endorse the work ethic and leaving them out in decisions that affect them does not go down well. This is in line with the features of people holding these values. Activity: doing oriented people, are relentless to achieve goals, activity: thinking individuals exhibit rationality and carefulness, while mastery oriented ones value work and work outcomes.

Activity doing (AD) scale contained items that imply people should work before they indulge in leisure, work toward set goals until they are met, and appreciate a hard working ethic. For example, they may be more comfortable to know whether what they had set to achieve has been achieved by getting involved in appraisals together with their superiors which allows speedy feedback or immediate feedback in knowing what they have achieved in set goals and what remains to be done. A doing oriented people would prefer to determine how they work than getting instructions from above. There are situations in a developing country one finds she/he is smarter than the superior who is occupying that position because of age, political or ethnic consideration. In such situations it would be possible that an employee who is high in activity doing would prefer to make decisions on how to perform his/her duties.

Related to the activity doing orientation is activity thinking value orientation that was also related to HR involvement. Activity: thinking oriented people's preference for HR involvement reflects their nature. They rationalise issues and are logical in their decisions. They may feel to be an asset to the company if only they are given a chance to express their ideas.

Relation to nature mastery (RNM) which was also significantly related to preference for HR involvement or participation exhibits features like striving to master the environment and to rule over it. This value reflects the belief that given enough



resources everything is possible. The environment could be even one's organisation. A mastery oriented employee would prefer to be involved in what is happening in the organisation so as to have some form of control in events. Information is power and can be used effectively to master whatever one has aimed to achieve. The items in preference for HR involvement reflect this opportunity of giving mastery oriented individuals the avenue to have some control in their organisations. For example, items like workers determine how they work rather than the management determining the best way, can provide the opportunity and the flexibility to control the events in the organisation (environment) or your work. Again, appraisals by superiors must give feedback, which gives such employees a chance to participate in the results of what they have been doing. It provides a communication avenue for an employee to explain what went wrong or right while doing his/her work because they believe that given enough resources they can do a better job.

The second HRM preference titled predictability of HR rewards is associated with four value orientations at the zero-order level. Looking at these values individually may shed light on the relationship indicated. Activity doing (AD) again is related to this preference which contains items like wages be determined compared with the group rather than with the market. The mean indicates that the preferred policy is when an organisation determines wages that are compared or comparable with the going market rates. It is clear that an individual who is hard working and who makes sure that set goals must be achieved, would be more comfortable with a wage which does not short charge him or her but reflects the market rate. Doing people may be motivated to prefer training policies that make them specialists in a job enabling achieve set goals with ease. When one is specialised in one field his or her work is more achievable than being a jack of all trade and a master of none. Arguably, then such people would prefer training that is focused on their present jobs. Policies that focus on the individual are more predictable than those focused on the whole group, as one cannot as easily control the actions of the group. For example, performance focused on personal achievement is more predictable than that based on the group, as people have different capacities. One of the features of activity doing value orientation is hard work. An individual holding such values will not prefer taking blame on behalf of the lazy in the group. This feature leads to preference for performance based on personal rather than group criteria. It is



easy to set individual goals and execute them individually. Rewards based on financial incentives are more predictable, because one knows how much and how often he or she gets a financial reward than a non-financial reward, which may be given in any form such as praise or a recommendation. In a developing country such recognition does not bother many people as a financial or tangible reward would add to his/her limited income.

Activity thinking is also correlated with predictability of rewards. This scale contained items that suggest the predictability of decisions and persuasion based on logical argument. So, considering the environment within a developing country context, such individuals might prefer predictable HRM policies that are well thought out. Policies that cater for environmental turbulence that make the prospect of another day quite deem without a job. The items in preference for predictable rewards may explain why somebody with high activity thinking would prefer them. For example, why should his or her wages be different from the market especially if they do the same job and he or she earns less than the market value. Logically, this would not be a preference unless justified. Again tight formal planning ensures predictability as it doesn't allow for flexibility in what has been planned and set out for the future. An individual with high levels of activity thinking would go for formal tight planning than informal loose planning that can be changed at no or very short notice.

The next value that showed significant association with preference for predictable rewards at the zero-order level is relationship: hierarchical (RH). This value orientation included items suggesting hierarchies of authority are good in organisations, rewards and facilities be designed accordingly, and employees at lower levels should not have much power but follow leads from their superiors. Hierarchical societies also do exhibit some form of collectivism in their nature, which may explain why they prefer more predictable rewards. For example, if they are the only ones depended on, then, predictable policies can ensure continuity into the future without much disruption. Hierarchical communities believe in status which might explain why they do not prefer rewards that are group based *per se* as these are not predictable and do not give one the status that is valued by such people. Individual achievement has to be accompanied by individual rewards, which is among the items in this preference.



Relationship individual (RI) seems too to be associated with preference for predictability of rewards. Results indicate that individualistic values go well with the items that loaded on predictability of rewards. For instance, pay increases by personal performance rather than group performance; performance judged on individuals rather than on the group; rewards be based on financial incentives; wages be comparable to the market rates, and tight formal planning. These are items that explain why someone with individualistic values would prefer such HRM policies that are more focused to the individual than the group.

Human resource empowerment came out as negatively related to human nature: good/evil (HNGE). HNGE contained items suggesting lower mutual trust for example between management and staff or among strangers. The items were testing how honest or dishonest people are in a society. Human nature would prefer empowerment when they see other people as evil especially if such are in positions of power determining the direction of all others. The negative association of this value with empowerment sends signals indicating that there is lack of trust between superiors and other staff hence, the need for empowerment to make changes in the present status quo.

The other value that was significant and negatively related was relational: hierarchical (RH) which as already seen included items recognising authority and status, and a belief that lower ranking employees should just follow. It is clear from the results that Kenyans are not overly focused on hierarchical relations but would prefer empowerment. Such values might not prefer the present set of hierarchies as most in authority are not using the power and authority they wield in accordance to rules but for their own benefit. This sends discontentment amongst employees hence, their quest for reduced power distance because those in authority can be accountable to their undesirable actions. This might explain the negative but significant relationship between empowerment and relational hierarchical.

Lastly, Relation to Nature: Subjugation (RNS) reported significant association with empowerment. Relation to nature subjugation contained items suggesting that people should not try to change their predetermined paths in life and they have very little they can do about the future. The results indicated that this sample was low on this particular cultural value orientation. Therefore, there quest for empowerment indicates that they



want to participate in what affects them and be able to change some undesirable situations. This then, would negatively associate with empowerment because people with such values have already given up their fate to external forces. Such external forces might be employing organisations or the economic environment.

Performance vs. loyalty related HRM practice came out as 'value free', which could be explained as what people see as accepted best practice. This preference captures two crucial objectives of any organisation that intends to grow and survive in business. These objectives are good performance and a loyal labour force that is to work for the same organisation for a long time. There was indication that some demographic variables such as organisational affiliation and occupation of respondent were sources of variation for this component (see Table 5.5.2 and Table 5.5.4). First, organisational affiliation had strong association with this HRM component and most employees indicated preference for performance based HRM. However, Company 8 situated at the Coast province of Kenya showed differences between all the other companies as employees scored toward loyalty or preferred both performance and loyalty HRM practices. A close look at this company's profile and actual company policy might explain this phenomenon. The organisation is a Public liability company whose management is accountable to the shareholders. It employs highly skilled labour and tends to emphasise both performance and loyalty HRM policy practices (see Chapter Six and Appendix 5.0 for detailed analysis of actual organisation policies and practice). The management encourages employees to buy the company's shares making them partners in the company. Occupation also indicated some variation between supervisors and sales people. Sales people scored more toward loyalty as compared to performance. This could be because of the intense pressure sales people get from management to deliver and even base their pay on level of sales. They may then prefer practices that practices long term employment in spite of lack of sales during a given period. Overall, most demographic variables did not indicate significant differences between groups.

To gain more understanding of this relationship between cultural values and HRM preferences the data was subject to multiple regression analysis. After controlling for age, gender and ethnic group, some significant changes in  $R^2$  and B effect are observed on the second step of hierarchical analysis. Results indicated that values accounted for between 3% to 13% of the total variance explained. Again preference for performance

vs. loyalty HRM practice comes out as value free. Why some variables are still significant while others aren't is examined in the discussion chapter.

## 5.11 CONCLUSION

These results have revealed the cultural values held by this Kenyan sample despite the fact that differences were observed between groups. The findings demonstrate that on average, this Kenyan sample value activity thinking and doing orientations, relational hierarchical, relation to nature harmony and mastery orientations, human nature is seen as a mixture of good and evil.

It is clear that HRM is not an exogenous phenomenon as cultural value orientations affect it. Three of the four HRM preferences were explained by cultural value orientations. This findings demonstrate that the strongest cultural values in influencing preferences are activity thinking; activity doing; relational hierarchical and relationships individual. Job involvement is also influenced strongly by activity doing; relational hierarchical and relation to nature subjugation.

These results are not straightforward, so in order to offer some useful implications for theory and practice in the field of HRM further analysis is required. In the next chapter I analyse the job involvement scale data and examine for relationships and predictions with cultural values. This would be followed by analysis of the HRM preferences observed here for fit with actual organisation policy practice and whether this fit if any, influences job involvement. Since cultural values seem to play a role in HRM preferences, data will be subjected to further analysis to investigate fit from the cultural values of individuals with the cultural values of others in organisation.



## **CHAPTER SIX**

### **RESULTS OF CULTURAL AND HRM FIT ON JOB INVOLVEMENT**

#### **6.0 INTRODUCTION**

This chapter presents the thesis' second phase of the research data analyses. The chapter begins by analysing job involvement data. The job involvement scale's reliability and validity are examined. An examination follows of the relationship between cultural value orientations and job involvement. Variation within the Kenyan sample in their levels of job involvement is also investigated from their demographic and ethnic characteristics. The chapter then covers the actual organisation policy. The issue of consistency or inconsistency between manager's responses regarding company policy and interview findings and secondary data are presented (most of these results are basically descriptive, and hence are shown in Appendix). Congruence is seen as one of the crucial ingredients of good HRM policy practices (Beer, et al., 1984). The issue of congruence or fit is analysed here between HRM preferences and actual organisation policy practice. HRM preferences as analysed in chapter five are used here to test for fit with actual organisation policy practice. This fit's impact on job involvement is then investigated and results presented. Further, results investigating fit from cultural values held by the individual with the cultural values of others in the organisation are also reported.

#### **6.1 RELIABILITY AND VALIDITY OF THE JOB INVOLVEMENT SCALE**

The Job Involvement scale developed by Kanungo (1982) is supposed to be a unidimensional scale with only one component. The scale identifies the core meaning of the construct as a cognitive state of the individual. For purposes of this study, job involvement represents an individual's beliefs that he/she is job involved depending upon whether the job is perceived to have the potential for satisfying his/her salient needs. The reliability alpha for Kanungo's ten-item job involvement scale for this study reached .71. This alpha is lower than that reported by Kanungo (1982) and other researchers who have measured the usefulness of this scale (see for example, Brown, 1996; Elloy & Terpening, 1992; Paterson & O'Driscoll, 1990). This necessitated

exploring whether all the items conformed to Kanungo's structure. PCA with oblique rotation showed sampling adequacy (KMO) of .83 which is meritorious (Kaiser, 1974). Two components with eigenvalues greater than unity were produced (see Table 6.0).

**Table 6.0**  
**Job Involvement Pattern Matrix Loadings**  
**Component**

Item	Item Description	1	2
1	The most important things that happen to me involve my present job	.635	
2	To me my job is a small part of who I am		.777
3	I am very much involved personally in my job	.552	
4	I live, eat, breathe my job	.567	.320
5	Most of my interests are centred around my job	.715	
6	I have very strong ties with my job which are very difficult to break	.669	
7	Usually I feel detached from my job		.698
8	Most of my personal life goals are job oriented	.628	
9	I consider my job to be very central to my existence	.697	
10	I like to be absorbed in my job most of the time	.559	
	Eigenvalues	3.21	1.25
	Percent of Variance Explained	32.1	12.5



The resulting scree plot also shows two components, however, only one main component is interpretable from this scale (see Figure 6.0).

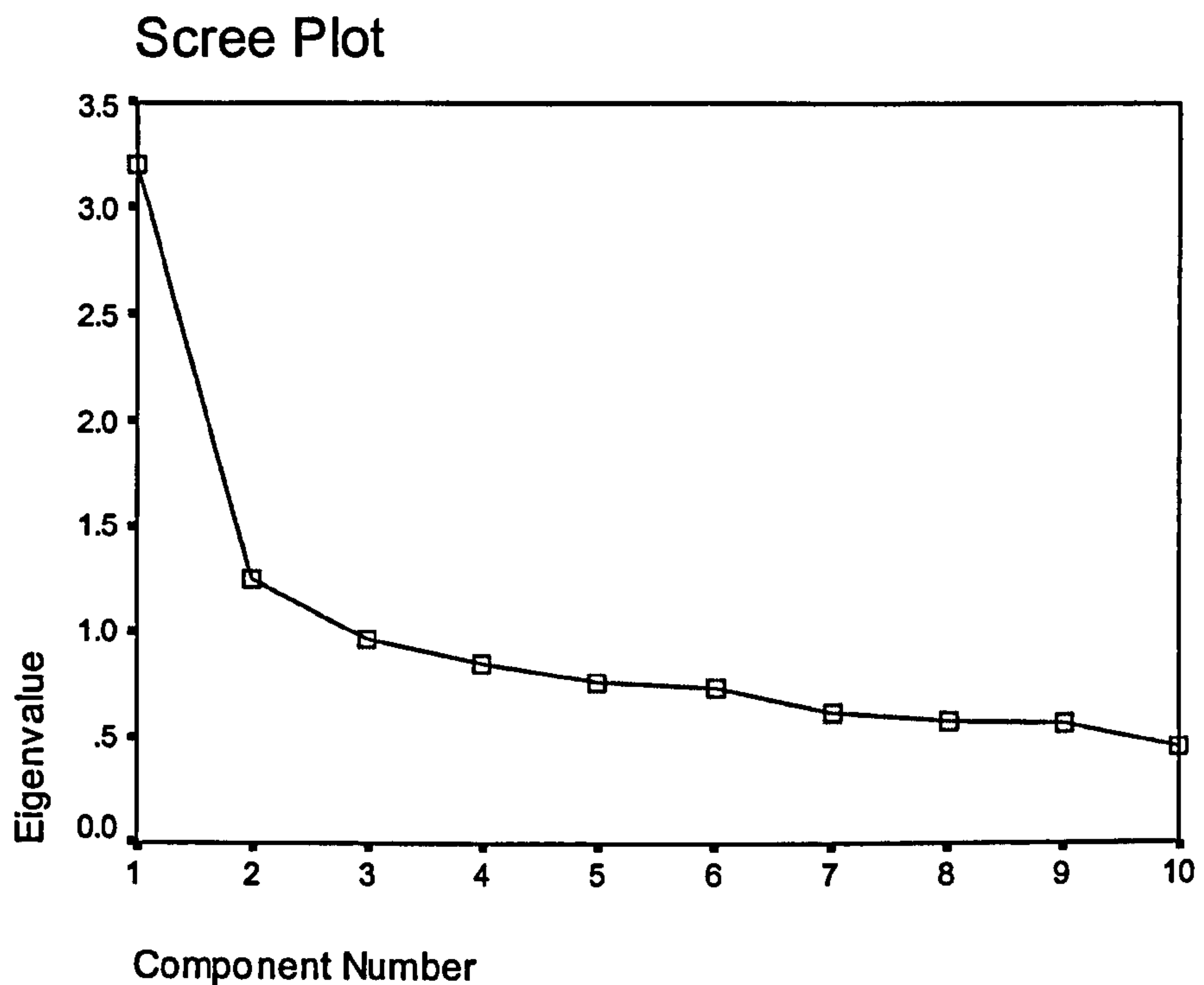


Figure 6.0: Scree plot showing components from the Job Involvement Scale

The primary component captured the core concept of job involvement with eight items. This component accounted for an eigenvalue of 3.21 explaining 32.1 percent of the variance. The second component comprised of two main items ‘To me my job is a small part of who I am’, and ‘Usually I feel detached from my job’. I felt that perhaps these items were not well answered because of the way they are framed especially for employees in a developing country context. They are likely to create a social desirability effect as employees may feel that employers might ‘catch’ them if for example they strongly agree with questions like ‘usually I feel detached from my job’ or ‘to me my job is a small part of who I am’. Employees in an environment without many alternative jobs may feel threatened by such questions as they may think employers will come to know how they feel about their jobs leading to undesirable consequences like even being fired. The item-to-total correlations of these two items were very low at .03 for item 2 and .14 for item 7, compared to the highest item (item 9) ‘I consider my job to be very central to my existence’ with a correlation of .56 (see Table 6.1).

**Table 6.1**  
**Internal consistency and Reliability of the Job Involvement Scale**  
**Corrected Item-to-total Correlations**  
**Component**

Item	Item Description	1
1	The most important things that happen to me involve my present job	.45
2	To me my job is a small part of who I am	.03
3	I am very much involved personally in my job	.41
4	I live, eat, breathe my job	.51
5	Most of my interests are centred around my job	.53
6	I have very strong ties with my job which are very difficult to break	.42
7	Usually I feel detached from my job	.14
8	Most of my personal life goals are job oriented	.45
9	I consider my job to be very central to my existence	.56
10	I like to be absorbed in my job most of the time	.37
	Scale Alpha Coefficient	.71
	Scale Mean <sup>a</sup>	4.18
	Standard Deviation	.81

<sup>a</sup>Scale Means are derived from summing the items and then dividing by the number of items in the scale.

This indicated that the two items might not be reflecting job involvement in this context accurately. Removal of these two items increased the alpha levels from .71 to .78. In an empirical assessment of Kanungo's (1982) concept and measure of job involvement, Paterson and O'Driscoll (1990) reported very low corrected item-to-total correlation for item 7, which deals with detachment from the job and removed it to improve reliability. However, for this study, I adopt Kanungo's original ten items to allow researchers to compare more easily these results with other studies and because the ten items together reached acceptable reliability.



## 6.2 CULTURAL VALUE ORIENTATIONS AND JOB INVOLVEMENT

In chapter three, it was pointed out that social psychological theories illustrate that as adults we are much a product and reflection of our childhood experiences (e.g., Kluckhohn, 1962). The reason for this is because family conventions, religious traditions and forms of education play a role and every adult is partly a product of these features with the attendant values, imperatives and beliefs that shape behaviour and expectations. Since work involvement and job involvement are related, though conceptually distinct (Elloy & Terpening, 1992), people socialised to believe that work is important may possess values predisposing them to job involvement. Therefore, personal values might then play an important role in influencing levels of job involvement. It was also pointed out that findings indicate that individuals in different cultures exhibit different salient needs due to their socialisation and situations (Misra & Kalro, 1981; Kanungo, 1990). Researchers like Kanungo, Gorn, and Dauderis (1976) reported differences in need salience patterns between the French-and English-speaking Canadian managers. The key question then, is are we culturally predisposed to be more or less job involved? One way to answer this is to look at the link between our cultural values and our job involvement.

Table 6.2 presents standard deviations, means, alpha coefficients and the correlation between cultural value orientations and job involvement.

**Table 6.2**  
**Standard Deviations, Means, Alpha Coefficients and Correlations between**  
**Cultural Value Orientations and Job Involvement**

Variable	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
1. AD								
2. AT	.3465**							
3. HNGE	.2647**	.1152						
4. RH	.1044	.0847	.3105**					
5. RI	.2474**	.2665**	.1933*	.2132**				
6. RNH	.2761**	.4265**	.0984	.0319	.2372**			
7. RNM	.3184**	.4231**	.0710	.0808	.2177**	.2796**		
8. RNS	.1519*	-.1018	.3118**	.1775*	.1562*	-.0650	-.0994	
9. JI	.3682**	.1852*	.1550*	.2166**	.0914	.0957	.2125**	.1704*

**Note.** Significant correlation at  $P < .01^*$ ;  $P < .001^{**}$ ;  $N = 274$ .

AD = Activity: Doing; AT = Activity: Thinking; HNGE = Human Nature: Good-Evil; RH = Relationship: Hierarchical; Relationships: Individual; RNH = Relation to Nature: Harmony; RNM = Relation to Nature: Mastery; RNS = Relation to Nature: Subjugation; JI = Job Involvement.

These results indicate that cultural value orientations have a significant relationship with job involvement for this sample. Six of the eight retained cultural value orientations (Activity: Doing; Activity: Thinking; Human Nature: Good-Evil; Relational: Hierarchical; Relation to Nature: Mastery and Relation to Nature: Subjugation) show association with job involvement at this zero-order level. Activity doing, relational hierarchical and relation to nature mastery showed the strongest relationship ( $p < .001$ ) to job involvement. The main effects of culture on job involvement using multiple regression analysis were significant ( $p < .05$ ). Three of the six cultural value orientations accounting for 19% of the variance (see Table 6.2.1), namely activity doing, relational hierarchical and relation to nature subjugation. Demographics were not controlled for here, as they indicate no association with job involvement as shown in Table 6.2.2.



Table 6.2.1  
Multiple Regression Results of Cultural Value Orientations with Job  
Involvement

Variable	B <sup>a</sup>	R <sup>2</sup>	F Value	d.f.
		.19	7.9***	8/262
Activity: Doing	.24***			
Activity: Thinking	.06			
Human Nature: Good-Evil	-.01			
Relationship: Hierarchical	.11**			
Relationship: Individual	-.05			
Relation to Nature: Harmony	-.02			
Relation to Nature: Mastery	.08			
Relation to Nature: Subjugation	.08*			

Note. <sup>a</sup>Unstandardised regression coefficients.  
p<. 05\*, p<. 01\*\*, p<. 001\*\*\*.

### 6.2.1 VARIATIONS IN JOB INVOLVEMENT OF KENYAN EMPLOYEES

Research has shown that demographic variables are poor predictors of a job involved person. Brown (1996) observes that the job involved person can be described in terms of three salient personality traits. He or she strongly endorses the work ethic and is high in both internal and self-esteem. Brown, then asserts that the job involved person is not identifiable in terms of demographic characteristics concluding that job involvement does not depend on age, gender, education, length of service, or salary. In general, demographic variables have reported weak and poor correlations on job involvement. Nevertheless, to confirm other studies observations job involvement data were subjected to further analysis by using ANOVA with Turkey-HSD to test whether demographic variables make any significant difference in job involvement. Reasons for using ANOVA were presented in chapter five section 5.5.

Table 6.2.2 presents ANOVA results between job involvement and the sample characteristics. Clearly, demographic variables have no association with job involvement. It was surprising to observe that not even company membership showed significant differences between groups in relation to levels of job involvement given that organisations may pursue different structures of governance. Similarly, organisations may follow different strategies such as market-orientation that may develop different expectations and needs in employees. Results in Table 6.2.2 show that there are no variations within this Kenyan sample with regard to job involvement. One cannot predict job-involvement in this sample by simply referring to demographic variables.

Table 6.2.2  
Comparison of Means by Demographic variables with Job Involvement  
Demographic Variables

Group <sup>1</sup>	Age	Education	Occupation	Tenure	Gender	Ethnic group	Firm Membership
1	4.14	4.42	4.08	4.24	3.96	4.41	4.00
2	4.11	4.15	3.97	3.97	4.11	4.05	4.32
3	3.99	4.25	4.09	4.14		3.85	3.99
4	4.07	3.93	4.32	4.08		4.21	4.15
5	4.18	4.05	3.88	4.29		3.98	3.91
6	3.83	3.56	3.66	3.99		4.13	3.95
7	4.68	4.43	3.93	4.34		3.63	4.23
8	4.15		4.12	3.50		3.81	3.96
9	3.90		4.08				
10			4.66				
F Ratio	1.01	1.94	1.38	1.00	.84	1.78	1.51

*Note.* No two groups are significantly different at the 0.50 level using Turkey-HSD test.

<sup>1</sup>For the different groups refer to earlier analysis of ANOVA with either HRM Preferences or Cultural Value Orientations (for example age group 1 = respondents aged < 25 years).

Since, there are a number of studies with results indicating that there is virtually no relationship between job involvement and demographic variables, researchers (e.g., Brown, 1996) conclude that the link between job involvement and demographic variables does not appear to be a promising avenue for future research. This study too has also indicated that there is no simple relationship between organisational membership and job involvement. In the following sections I examine whether fit influences job involvement.

### 6.3 ACTUAL ORGANISATION HRM POLICY AND PRACTICE

To recapitulate on how these data were collected, the same items contained in the measure assessing individual preferences were rephrased and administered to the Chief Executive Officers (CEOs) or their designates. This enabled collection of Person and Environment components that reflect the same theoretical dimensions. To confirm the organisations' actual HRM practice, interviews with the same managers were conducted and other documents like personnel policy manuals (where available) were examined after going through the CEOs' or their designates' responses. After tabulating these data I was able to check for consistencies or inconsistencies between what the manager said during the interview or what is written in the manual regarding a particular HRM policy and the choices made on quantitative data. Findings indicate that in most cases top managers' responses converged with the policy manual or interviews in general,



although I was not allowed access to policies categorised as “sensitive” (see Chapter Four for more detail).

Actual HRM policy practice data were analysed to conform to employee preferences that factored together. In accordance with employee preferences analysis the 24 items were selected from the managers’ data to match those that formed the four scales. Since these data were from single respondents it was not possible to use techniques like component analysis. Therefore, the exact items and components that were identified as employee preferences are used to examine for fit. The senior manager’s responses to an item are taken as the overall score of actual policy practice. These are then used in subsequent analyses to examine fit with preference. Fit, if any, is used as an independent variable to examine whether congruence impacts employee job involvement in this sample. This will enable understanding whether fit matters in influencing levels of job involvement in this developing country sample and by extension other developing countries in the region. Table 6.3 presents the scores of the policy practices of the eight companies across all the four components that were ascertained earlier under employee HRM preferences analysis in the previous chapter.

**Table 6.3**  
**Scores of Organisations’ Actual HRM Policy and Practice**

Company	HR Involvement- Participation	Predictable Rewards	Performance vs. Loyalty HRM Practice	HR Empowerment
1. MNC	2.75	3.33	3.40	3.00
2. Local-Private	3.25	3.50	2.20	2.20
3. MNC-Plc	3.63	3.50	2.00	4.20
4. Joint Venture	3.88	3.83	3.40	4.40
5. Joint Venture	3.50	3.33	3.40	3.60
6. State Owned	2.75	2.33	2.60	2.40
7. Local-Plc	2.63	2.33	3.20	2.80
8. Public-Plc	4.13	3.83	2.80	3.81

Note. Scores are averages of all items in a Policy Practice Component.

For a detailed description and interpretation of interviews with senior managers and examination of personnel policy manuals of the eight companies (see Appendix 5.0). Conclusions on convergence of managers’ rating and other data are also drawn. In general, these results are reliable because managers who willingly participated in the study and provided some secondary data including interviews that confirmed their responses.

These analyses as presented here and detailed in Appendix 5.0 enabled me to provide a picture of HRM policy practice in this sample. On the surface, I can conclude that most profit oriented companies like Multinationals, Joint Ventures, and Local Private firms that are profit oriented show a pattern that is almost similar in their HRM policy practices with minor differences that may be reflecting different organisation cultures. Generally, different types of organisations pursue different forms of governance and HRM systems that may create different types of needs and expectations in employees. It is possible that organisations with a market-type structure expect more of their employees, and the employees also expect more of them. This could be one of the reasons for differences in HRM policy and practices pursued by different company types. I now turn to analyse fit.

In the theoretical chapters I indicated that two forms of fit were to be analysed in this study. The first form of fit is between actual organisation HRM policy practices and employee HRM policy practice preferences. The second form of fit is between individual cultural value orientation and those of others in the organisation. More complex statistical techniques are employed at this stage of analyses as described in chapter four. Employee preferences for HRM policy practice and cultural value orientations reported in chapter five are used here to analyse for congruence or fit with actual company policy practices and others' values respectively. The influence these forms of fit have on job involvement is also investigated.

#### **6.4 HRM PREFERENCE-POLICY FIT**

One of the research questions I have been concerned with is whether in a developing country environment, job involvement is related to HRM preference-policy practice fit (for detail refer to Chapter Three Section 3.4.4).

To recap, this study adopts Edwards (1994) format of assessing fit using polynomial regression. The three regression equations used here to examine for fit are:

$$\text{Simple difference: } Z = b_0 + b_1X + b_2Y + a$$

$$\text{Absolute difference: } Z = b_0 + b_1X + b_2Y + b_3W + b_4WX + b_5WY + a$$



$$\text{Squared difference: } Z = b_0 + b_1X + b_2Y + b_3X^2 + b_4XY + b_5Y^2 + a$$

It was pointed out in the methods chapter that when the terms  $X$  and  $Y$  in the absolute difference model are entered before  $W$ , and  $W$  entered before  $WX$  and  $WY$ , a simple difference model ( $X-Y$ ) in which there is no transformation is entered automatically. Similarly, simple difference fit is tested automatically in tests of squared difference fit if the squared and interaction terms ( $X^2$ ,  $Y^2$ ,  $XY$ ) are entered after the linear terms ( $X$ ,  $Y$ ) in a hierarchical analysis (for more detail on statistics used to examine for fit in this study refer to Chapter Four, Section 4.4.4).

The first fit analysis considers the relationship between HRM preferences and actual organisation policy on job involvement. The findings show that this type of fit *can* predict the level of job involvement of Kenyan employees, but only partially in that only two of the four HRM variables reflect a fit solution. Table 6.4 shows that neither preference for HR involvement or preference for predictability of rewards was significant at the preference or actual policy level in any of the steps for absolute difference results.

**Table 6.4**  
**Absolute Difference Regression for Preference-Policy fit on Job Involvement**

VARIABLE	Step 1	Step 2	Step 3	R <sup>2</sup>
	$\Delta$ in R <sup>2</sup> B	$\Delta$ in R <sup>2</sup> B	$\Delta$ in R <sup>2</sup> B	
	.01	.00	.00	.01
Preference for HR involvement	.07	.08	.05	
HR involvement actual policy	-.01	-.02	-.03	
Preference * policy transformation <sup>1</sup>		.04	.01	
Preference * transformation			.06	
Actual policy * transformation			.03	
	.00	.00	.01	.01
Preference for predictability of rewards	.00	-.00	.07	
Predictability of rewards actual policy	-.03	-.02	.04	
Preference * policy transformation <sup>1</sup>		-.01	.11	
Preference * transformation			.22	
Actual policy * transformation			-.27	
	.03*	.00	.03*	.06
Preference for performance HR practices	-.11**	-.08	.11	
Performance actual HR practice	-.14	-.16	-.08	
Preference * actual policy transformation <sup>1</sup>		-.10	-.11	
Preference * transformation			-.36**	
Actual policy * transformation			-.13	
	.03**	.00	.00	.03
Preference for HR empowerment	-.04	-.06	-.01	
HR empowerment actual policy	-.16**	-.14	-.17	
Preference * actual policy transformation <sup>1</sup>		-.06	-.08	
Preference * transformation			-.13	
Actual policy * transformation			.09	

**Note.** Significant B at P<. 05\*; p<. 01\*\*; degrees of freedom are 2/268.

<sup>1</sup> This transformation corresponds to the term  $W$  in the absolute fit equation, where  $W = 0$  if preference  $\geq$  policy and  $W = 1$  if preference < policy.



In the absolute fit equation, preference for performance related HR practice reported a significant B effect at the first step ( $p < .01$ ) and at the third step where preference interacts with transformation ( $p < .05$ ), indicating a fit solution. Actual empowerment policy also indicates a significant negative B effect on the first step at  $p < .01$  in absolute difference regression equation. No higher order terms were significant at subsequent steps in the absolute fit equation. These results answer research question three whether in a developing country environment; job involvement is related to HRM preference-policy fit?

Table 6.4.1 shows the regression of individual HR preference, actual HR practice, and the fit indices on levels of job involvement using squared difference multiple regression. Results also indicate that neither preference for HR involvement or preference for predictability of rewards are significant either at the preference or actual policy level on any of the steps for squared difference results (see Table 6.4.1).

Table 6.4.1  
Squared Difference Regressions for Preference-Policy Fit on Job  
Involvement

Variable	Step 1		Step 2		R <sup>2</sup>
	Δ in R <sup>2</sup>	B	Δ in R <sup>2</sup>	B	
	.01		.01		.02
Preference for HR involvement		.07		.33	
HR involvement actual policy		-.01		1.77	
Preference * actual policy				-.09	
Preference squared				-.04	
Actual policy squared				-.22	
	.00		.01		.01
Preference for predictability of rewards		.00		.09	
Predictability of rewards actual policy		-.03		-.14	
Preference * actual policy				.07	
Preference squared				-.05	
Actual policy squared				-.02	
	.03*		.03*		.06
Preference for performance HR practices		-.11**		-.82	
Performance actual HR practice		-.14		.18	
Preference * actual policy				.05	
Preference squared				.11**	
Actual policy squared				-.09	
	.03**		.01*		.04
Preference for HR empowerment		-.04		-.41*	
HR empowerment actual policy		-.16**		-.58**	
Preference * actual policy				.12*	
Preference squared				.48	
Actual policy squared				.88	

Note. Significant B at p < .05\*; p < .01\*\*; degrees of freedom are 2/268.

Preference for performance related HRM practice shows significant effects for individual preference but not actual policy practice using squared difference regression scores. Higher order terms for individual preference squared are also significant (p < .05) on the third step but this does not provide support for a fit hypothesis. However, this preference shows curvilinear effects. Plotting this curve for the range of values in the sample (-2 to +2), the curve shows a negative gradient from -2 to 0 for preference, which becomes shallower at higher values for this preference (see Figure 6.1)<sup>1</sup>.

<sup>1</sup> Following Cohen & Cohen (1983), the two-dimensional plots were derived from equations including just linear and squared terms for preference for performance related HRM practices.



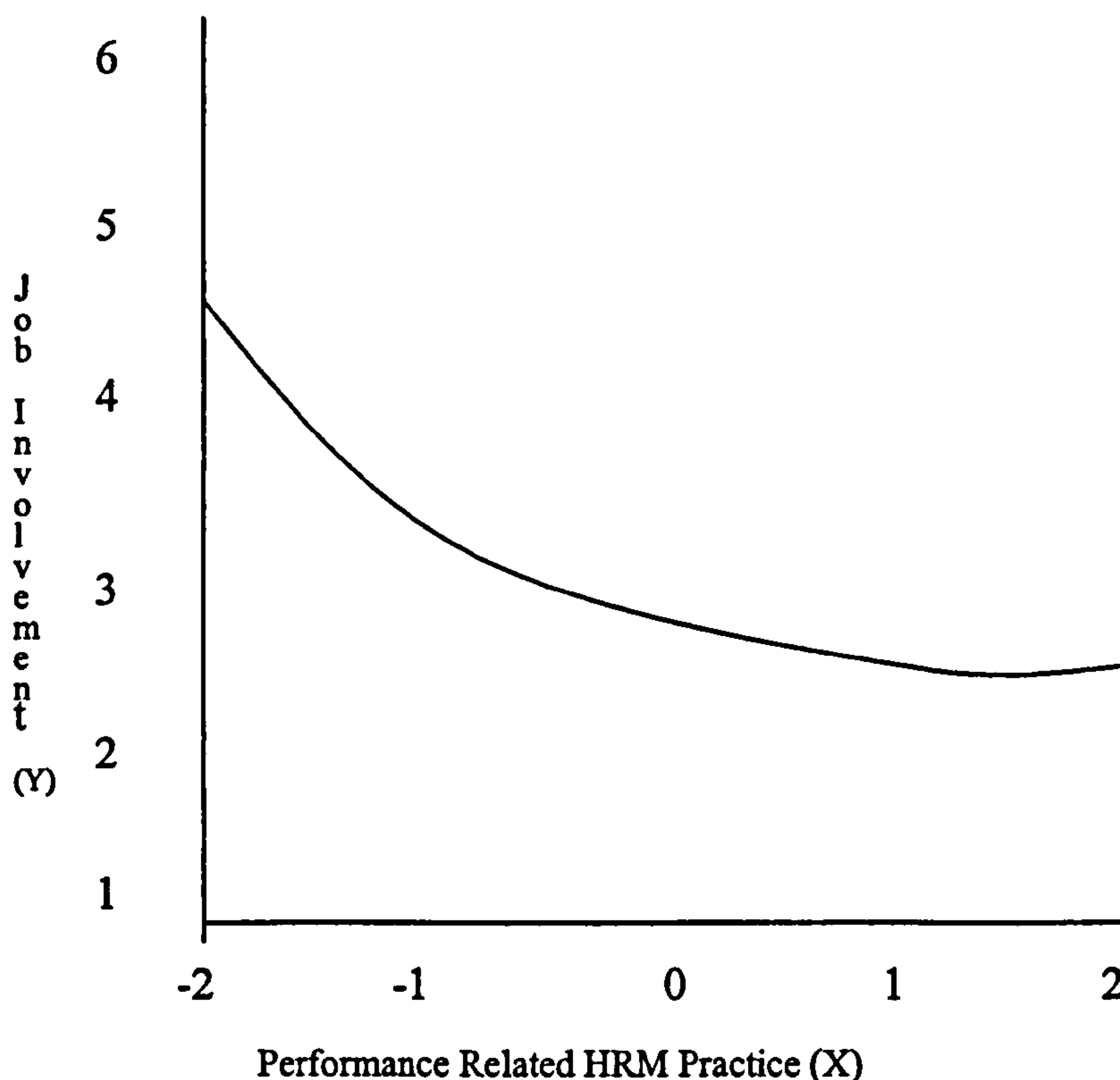


Figure 6.1: Curvilinear effects of preference for performance squared on job involvement

This sample is characterised by an overall preference for performance related HRM practices (see Chapter Five Section 5.6). Therefore, we can conclude that for the majority of this sample, there is a negative relationship between preference for performance related HRM practices and job involvement which becomes weaker at higher levels of preference. However, Table 6.4 indicates that overall the nature of this relationship between preference and job involvement is dependent on the actual practice of performance related HRM.

Actual empowerment policy also indicates a significant negative B effect on the first step ( $p < .01$ ) in the squared difference regression equation. On the second step of the squared difference equation, both individual preferences for empowerment and actual policy show significance  $p < .05$  and  $p < .01$  respectively. Also significant here is the interaction between individual preference and policy ( $p < .05$ ).

As noted earlier, Edwards (1994) outlines that results of significant coefficients containing  $X$  and  $Y$  terms be interpreted in terms of a three-dimensional surface relating



$X$  and  $Y$  to  $Z$ . If only terms containing  $X$  or  $Y$  are significant, then the regression plots can be restricted to two dimensions of  $X$  on  $Z$ , or  $Y$  on  $Z$ . Such terms may indicate linear or curvilinear plots as already plotted for preference for performance squared (see Figure 6.1). Preference for performance related HRM practice and preference for HR empowerment indicated fit solutions and surfaces were therefore plotted using three-dimensional solutions. Theoretically, such surfaces can be interpreted as evidence for a fit hypothesis. Calculating the values for the range of values for both  $X$  (Individual preference) and  $Y$  (Actual policy) from the coefficients in the regression equations, and connecting the points plots these surfaces by a surface on  $Z$  (Job involvement). Figure 6.2 shows the surface for performance related HRM practice for the absolute fit equation.

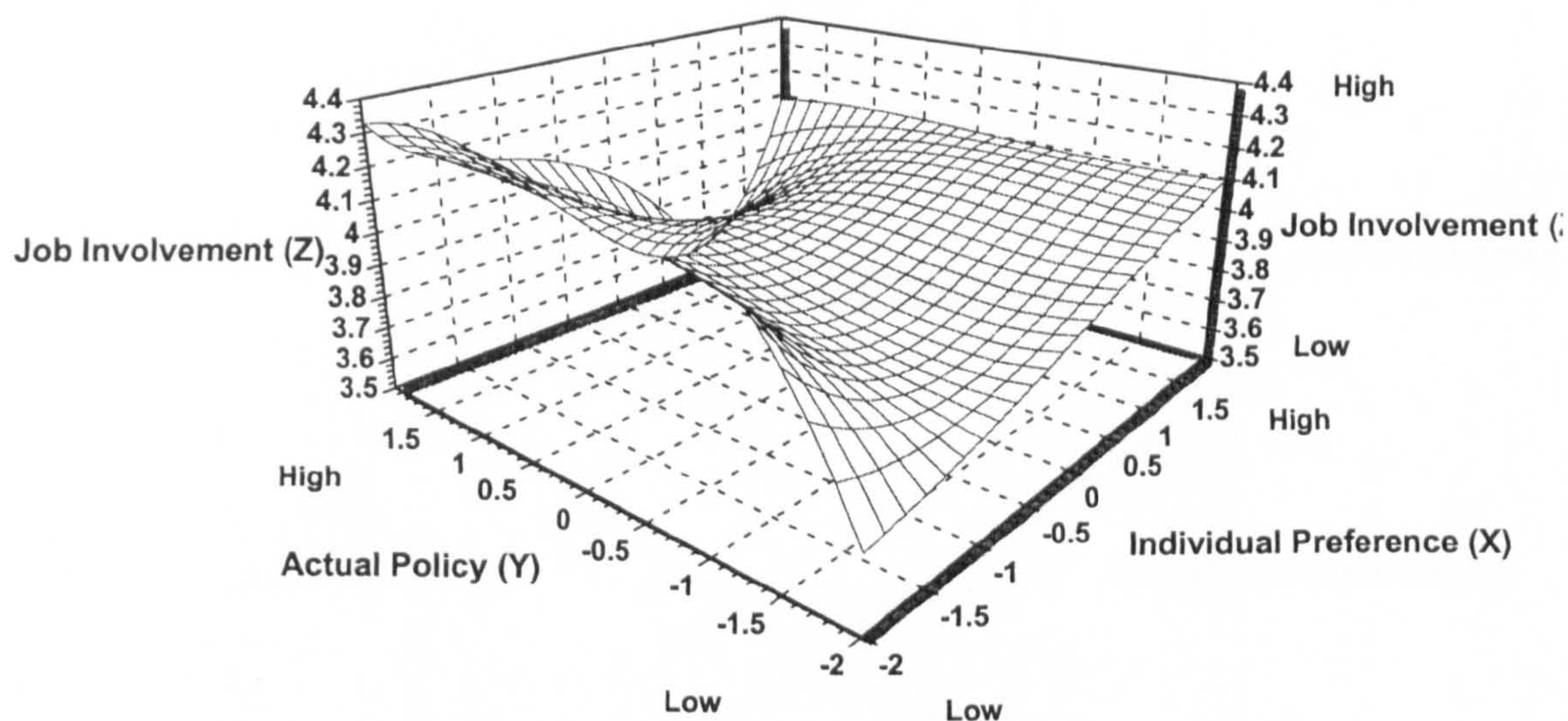


Figure 6.2: Fit solution for preference for performance HRM practice on job involvement

The surface depicts three basic effects. Job involvement is actually highest when the firms' performance-related HRM policy practices are high, but the individual has a low preference for this type of HRM. Kenyan firms seem capable of maintaining a fairly high level of job involvement in these "anti-performance" driven HRM individuals as long as they have some degree of performance emphasis in their actual practice. It is



only when there is a very low emphasis on performance in actual HRM practices that individual job involvement falls away. So, high job involvement can be created in anti-performance minded employees. It can also be created in those employees who have a strong preference for this type of HRM. For these individuals, however, the actual practice does not matter. They maintain their job involvement no matter whether actual practice is performance-driven or not. One last feature deserves comment. The presence of performance-driven HRM practices does not suit everybody. It leads to high job involvement in those who have a strongly positive or negative preference for this type of HRM but reduces the involvement a little for those who have only a moderate preference for this type of policy. Figure 6.3 represents the resulting surface for preference for HR empowerment for the squared difference equation.

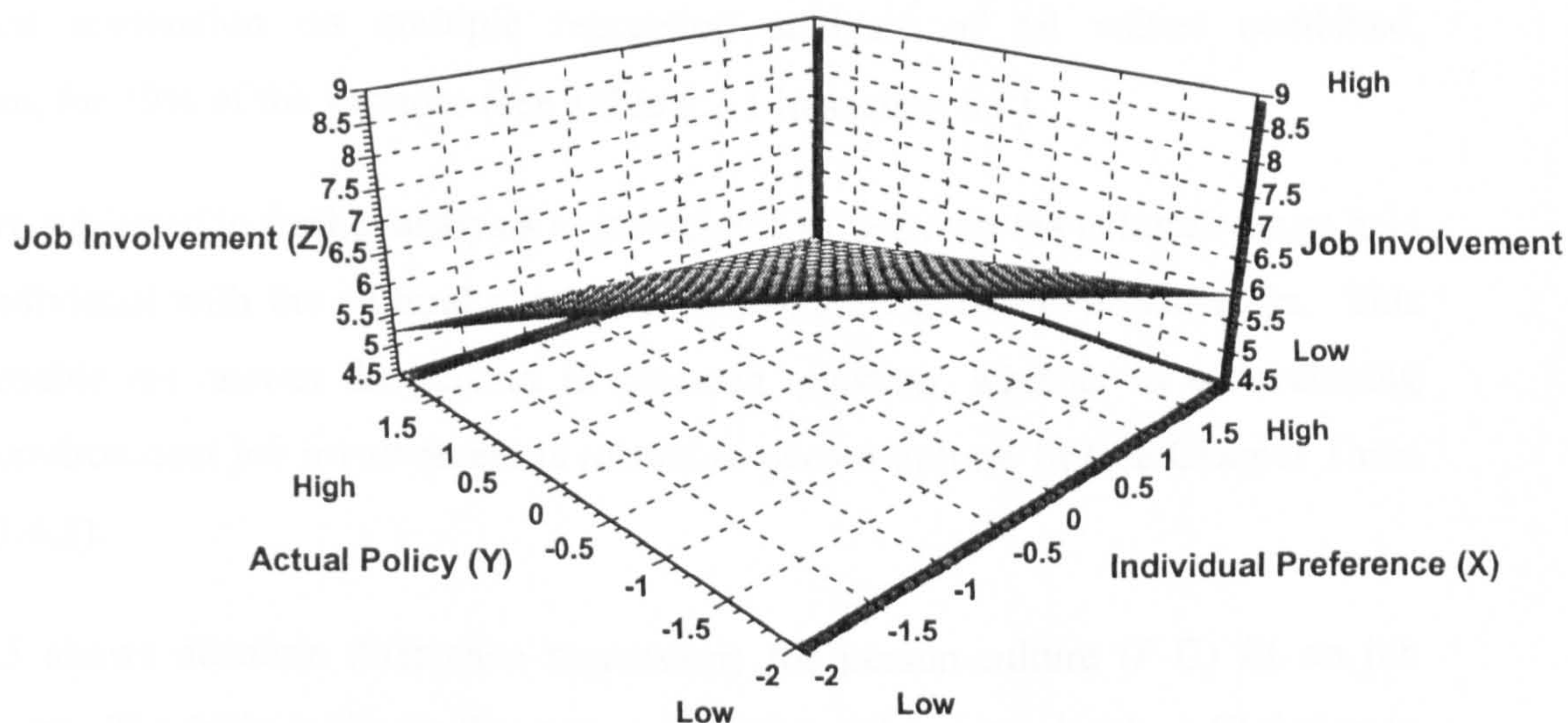


Figure 6.3: Fit solution for preference for HR empowerment on job involvement

The relationship seems quite simple, but counter-intuitive. Overall, it appears that job involvement decreases as individual preference for empowerment and actual policies are both high. Those who do not have an individual preference for empowerment are only involved when they do not get empowerment-based HRM. When actual HRM policy



creates empowerment, job involvement is always low. For this Kenyan sample then, it appears that fit between policy and individual preferences for high empowerment-based HRM reduces job involvement. Greatest involvement occurs when preferences for low empowerment match policy.

## 6.5 PERSON-CULTURE FIT

The other question I have been concerned with in relation to fit is whether in a developing country environment, job involvement is related to person-culture fit (refer to Chapter Three Section 3.4.5 for detail). The same equations adopted for measuring HRM preference-policy practice fit are adopted here to measure for person-culture fit.

As noted, Western conceptions about empowerment and performance-based HRM do not translate into actual job involvement in the way we might expect. Do cultural components play a role? Clearly, they do as already shown earlier in section 6.2. Six out of the eight cultural values indicated a significant association ( $p < .01$ ) with job involvement at the zero-order level (see Table 6.2). However, only three reported significant association on multiple regression analysis of all values combined, accounting for 19% of the variance (see Table 6.2.1 in section 6.2).

Data were subjected to further analysis to investigate fit between the cultural values held by the individual with the cultural values of other members of the organisation. This was to enable me answer the second fit research question, whether in a developing country environment job involvement is related to person-culture fit (see Chapter Three Section 3.4.5).

Table 6.5 shows absolute difference regressions for person-culture (P-C) fit on job involvement. The table indicates that only two of the eight cultural values (Relation to Nature: Harmony and Relation to Nature: Subjugation values orientation) reported a significant fit solution that could be plotted on a 3-D surface. The table also shows that not all-cultural value orientations reported a fit solution. Some of the value orientations were restricted to two dimensions meaning that their regression plots were restricted to two dimensions of  $X$  on  $Z$ , or  $Y$  on  $Z$ . These cultural value orientations are Activity doing; Activity thinking; Human nature good or evil; Relational: Hierarchical; and Relation to Nature: Mastery.



Cultural value orientations showing three dimensions indicate that  $X$  and  $Y$  can be plotted on  $Z$ . One such cultural value is Relation to nature harmony. This value orientation report significant coefficients indicating a fit solution (see Table 6.5), when personal harmony values interact with harmony values transformation ( $\Delta R^2 = 0.03$ ,  $p < .01$ ).

Table 6.5  
Absolute Difference Regressions for Person-Culture Fit on Job  
Involvement

Variable	Step 1		Step 2		Step 3		R <sup>2</sup>
	$\Delta R^2$	B	$\Delta R^2$	B	$\Delta R^2$	B	
<b>Activity: Doing</b>	<b>.14***</b>		<b>.00</b>		<b>.00</b>		<b>.14</b>
Person activity doing values		.29***		.25**		.22	
Organisational activity doing values		.22		.24		.32	
Absolute fit transformation for activity doing values <sup>1</sup>				-.10		.11	
Person doing values * activity doing transformation						.06	
Organisational doing values * activity doing transformation						-.22	
<b>Activity: Thinking</b>	<b>.04**</b>		<b>.00</b>		<b>.01</b>		<b>.04</b>
Person activity thinking values		.18***		.23***		.56**	
Organisational activity thinking values		.35		-.05		.12	
Absolute fit transformation for activity thinking values <sup>1</sup>				.18		.30	
Person thinking values * activity thinking transformation						-.29	
Organisational thinking values * activity thinking transformation						-.05	
<b>Human Nature: Good-Evil</b>	<b>.03**</b>		<b>.00</b>		<b>.02</b>		<b>.05</b>
Person human nature good-evil values		.08*		.13**		.24**	
Organisational human nature good-evil values		.13				-.01	
Absolute fit transformation for human nature good-evil values <sup>1</sup>				.11		.09	
Person good-evil values * human nature good-evil transformation				.11		-.26*	
Organisational good-evil values * human nature good-evil transformation						.29	
<b>Relational: Hierarchical</b>	<b>.05***</b>		<b>.00</b>		<b>.01</b>		<b>.06</b>
Person relational hierarchical values		.13***		.15*		.20*	
Organisational relational hierarchical values		.11		.09		.17	
Absolute fit transformation for relational hierarchical values <sup>1</sup>				.05		.04	
Person hierarchical values * relational hierarchical transformation						-.13	
Organisational hierarchical values * relational hierarchical transformation						-.23	
<b>Relational: Individual</b>	<b>.01</b>		<b>.00</b>		<b>.00</b>		<b>.02</b>
Person relational individual values		.07		.05		.10	
Organisational relational individual values		-.23		-.21		-.26	
Absolute fit transformation for relational individual values <sup>1</sup>				-.04		-.08	
Person individual values * relational individual transformation						-.08	
Organisational individual values * relational individual transformation						.13	
<b>Relation to Nature: Harmony</b>	<b>.01</b>		<b>.01</b>		<b>.03**</b>		<b>.05</b>
Person relation to nature harmony values		.08		.20***		.50***	
Organisational relation to nature harmony values		-.08		-.14		-.03	
Absolute fit transformation for relation to nature harmony values <sup>1</sup>				.33		1.37	
Person harmony values * harmony transformation						-.47**	
Organisational harmony values * harmony transformation						-.20	
<b>Relation to Nature: Mastery</b>	<b>.05**</b>		<b>.00</b>		<b>.01</b>		<b>.05</b>
Person relation to nature mastery values		.16***		.11		.23	
Organisational relation to nature mastery values		-.15		-.11		.05	
Absolute fit transformation for relation to nature mastery values <sup>1</sup>				-.12		1.32	
Person mastery values * mastery transformation						-.15	
Organisational mastery values * mastery transformation						-.64	
<b>Relation to Nature: Subjugation</b>	<b>.05***</b>		<b>.00</b>		<b>.01</b>		<b>.06</b>
Person relation to nature subjugation values		.08*		.14*		.19**	
Organisational relation to nature subjugation values		.27**		.21		.01	
Absolute fit transformation for relation to nature subjugation values <sup>1</sup>				.17		.47	
Person subjugation values * subjugation transformation						-.12	
Organisational subjugation values * subjugation transformation						.38	

Note. Significant B at  $p < .05$ , are shown,  $p < .05^*$ ,  $p < .01^{**}$ ,  $p < .001$ ; Degrees of Freedom at Step 1 = 2/268, Step 2 = 3/267, and Step 3 = 5/265

<sup>1</sup> This transformation corresponds to the term  $W$  in the absolute fit equation, where  $W = 0$  if personal values  $\geq$  organisational values and  $W = 1$  if personal values  $<$  organisational values.



The other such value orientation showing a fit solution that can be plotted on a 3-D surface is Relation to nature subjugation. Relation to nature subjugation is significant on the first step of absolute difference regression indicating a simple difference solution. This value orientation shows significant effects for personal and organisational values ( $\Delta R^2 = 0.05, p < .001$ ).

Table 6.5.1 shows squared difference regressions for person-culture fit on job involvement. Examination of Table 6.5.1 also indicates that only two of the eight cultural values (Relation to Nature: Subjugation value orientation and Relation to Nature: Mastery) reported a significant fit solution that could be plotted on a 3-D surface. Relation to nature subjugation could be plotted for a simple difference solution. This value orientation's significant effects are for personal and organisational values ( $\Delta R^2 = 0.05, p < .001$ ) as was the case in the absolute difference table. However, when plotting the surface for relation to nature mastery, I found the values derived were greater than the range reported in the sample indicating the possibility of multicollinearity (Kristof, 1996). Hanushek and Jackson (1977) argue those correlation coefficients among the independent variables higher than 0.70 reduces the appropriateness of the tests. If  $r = 0.90$  or above, then multicollinearity may exist to render some results insignificant or unnecessarily significant due to the large size of standard errors (Berry, 1993). This was probably the case for the squared term of organisational mastery value orientation with individual mastery orientation.

Table 6.5.1  
Squared Difference Regressions for Person-Culture Fit on Job Involvement

Variable	Step 1		Step 2		R <sup>2</sup>
	$\Delta R^2$	B	$\Delta R^2$	B	
<b>Activity Doing</b>	<b>.14***</b>		<b>.02</b>		<b>.16</b>
Person activity doing values		.29***		-.01	
Organisational activity doing values		.22		-10.39	
Person doing values * organisational doing values				.26	
Person activity doing values squared				-.00	
Organisational activity doing values squared				.88	
<b>Activity Thinking</b>	<b>.04**</b>		<b>.03*</b>		<b>.07</b>
Person activity thinking values		.18***		-3.01**	
Organisational Activity thinking values		.35		-10.68	
Person thinking values * organisational thinking values				.92	
Person activity thinking values squared				.11**	
Organisational activity thinking values squared				.42	
<b>Human Nature Good-Evil</b>	<b>.03**</b>		<b>.02</b>		<b>.09</b>
Person human good-evil values		.08*		-.27	
Organisational human good-evil values		.13		-2.80	
Person human good-evil values * organisational human good-evil values				-.08	
Person human good-evil values squared				.04	
Organisational human good-evil values squared				.40	
<b>Relational Hierarchical</b>	<b>.05***</b>		<b>.02</b>		<b>.07</b>
Person relational hierarchical values		.13***		-.11	
Organisational relational hierarchical values		.11		.10	
Person hierarchical values * organisational hierarchical values				.18	
Person relational hierarchical values squared				.03	
Organisational relational hierarchical values squared				-.21	
<b>Relational Individual</b>	<b>.02</b>		<b>.00</b>		<b>.02</b>
Person relational individual values		.07		-.23	
Organisational relational individual values		-.23		-3.34	
Person relational individual * organisational relational individual values				.11	
Person relational individual values squared				.02	
Organisational individual values squared				.28	
<b>Relation to Nature Harmony</b>	<b>.01</b>		<b>.03*</b>		<b>.04</b>
Person relation to nature harmony values		.08		-1.28**	
Organisational relation to nature harmony values		-.08		-10.03	
Person harmony values * organisational harmony values				.33	
Person relation to nature harmony values squared				.08*	
Organisational relation to nature harmony values squared				.74	
<b>Relation to Nature Mastery</b>	<b>.05**</b>		<b>.03*</b>		<b>.08</b>
Person relation to nature mastery values		.16***		.56	
Organisational relation to nature mastery values		-.15		73.23**	
Person mastery values * organisational mastery values				-.34	
Person relation to nature mastery values squared				.02	
Organisational relation to nature mastery values squared				-6.24**	
<b>Relation to Nature Subjugation</b>	<b>.05***</b>		<b>.01</b>		<b>.06</b>
Person relation to nature subjugation values		.08*		-.21	
Organisational relation to nature subjugation values		.27**		-2.13	
Person subjugation values * organisational subjugation values				-.11	
Person relation to nature subjugation values squared				.02	
Organisational relation to nature subjugation values squared				.48	

Note. Significant B at <. 05, are shown, p<. 05\*, p<. 01\*\*, p<. 001; Degrees of Freedom at Step 1 = 2/268, Step 2 = 3/267.



Cultural values that could only be plotted on a two dimensional plot show the same effects as in the absolute difference table. These are Activity: doing; Activity: thinking; Human nature: good-evil; Relational: hierarchical; and Relation to nature: harmony. Two cultural values (activity: thinking and relation to nature: harmony) showed significant curvilinear effects for personal cultural values at ( $\Delta R^2 = 0.03$ ,  $p < .01$ ) and ( $\Delta R^2 = 0.03$ ,  $p < .05$ ) respectively. Figure 6.4 and Figure 6.5 show curvilinear plots for activity thinking value and relation to nature harmony orientation respectively.

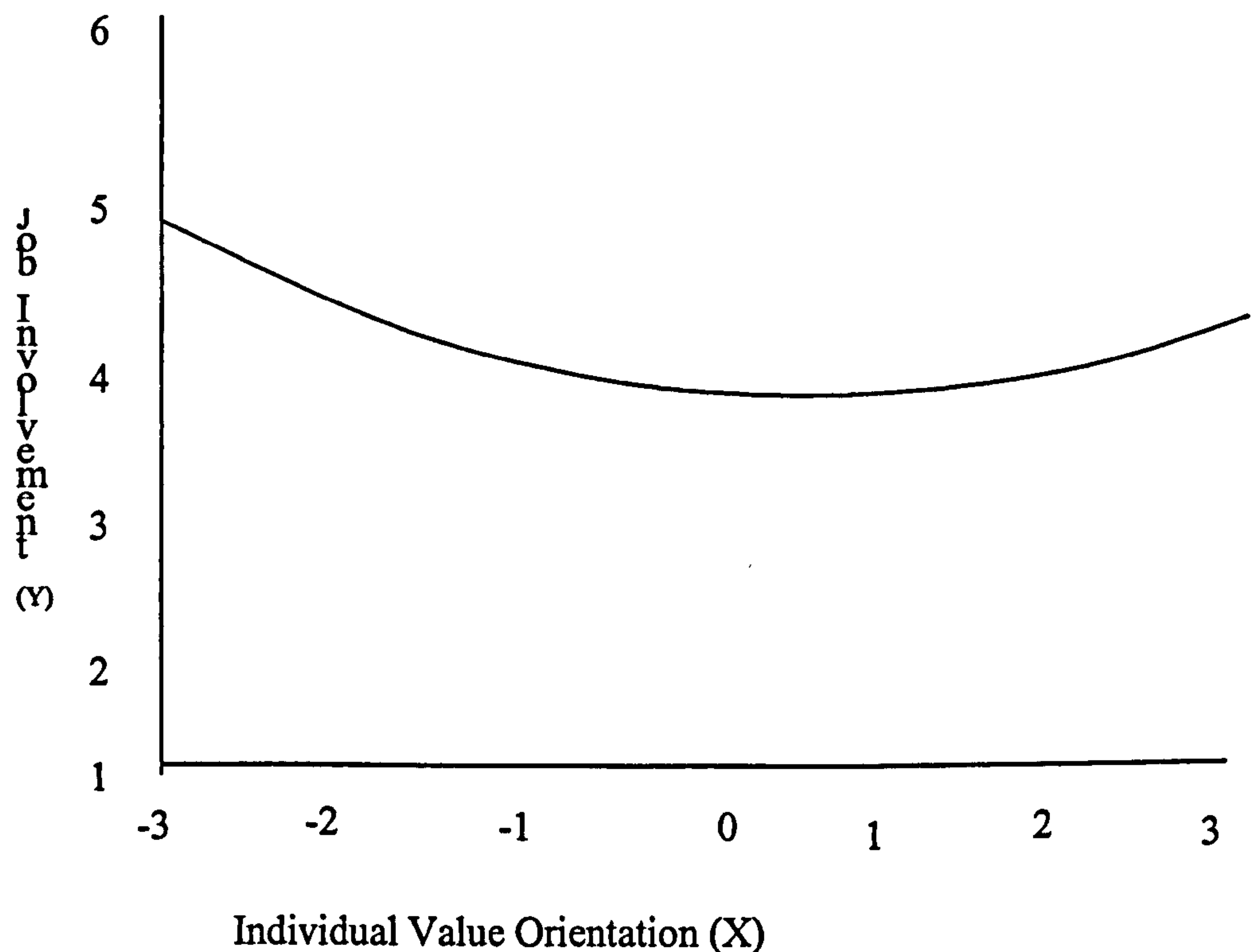


Figure 6.4: Curvilinear effects of activity-thinking value orientation on job involvement

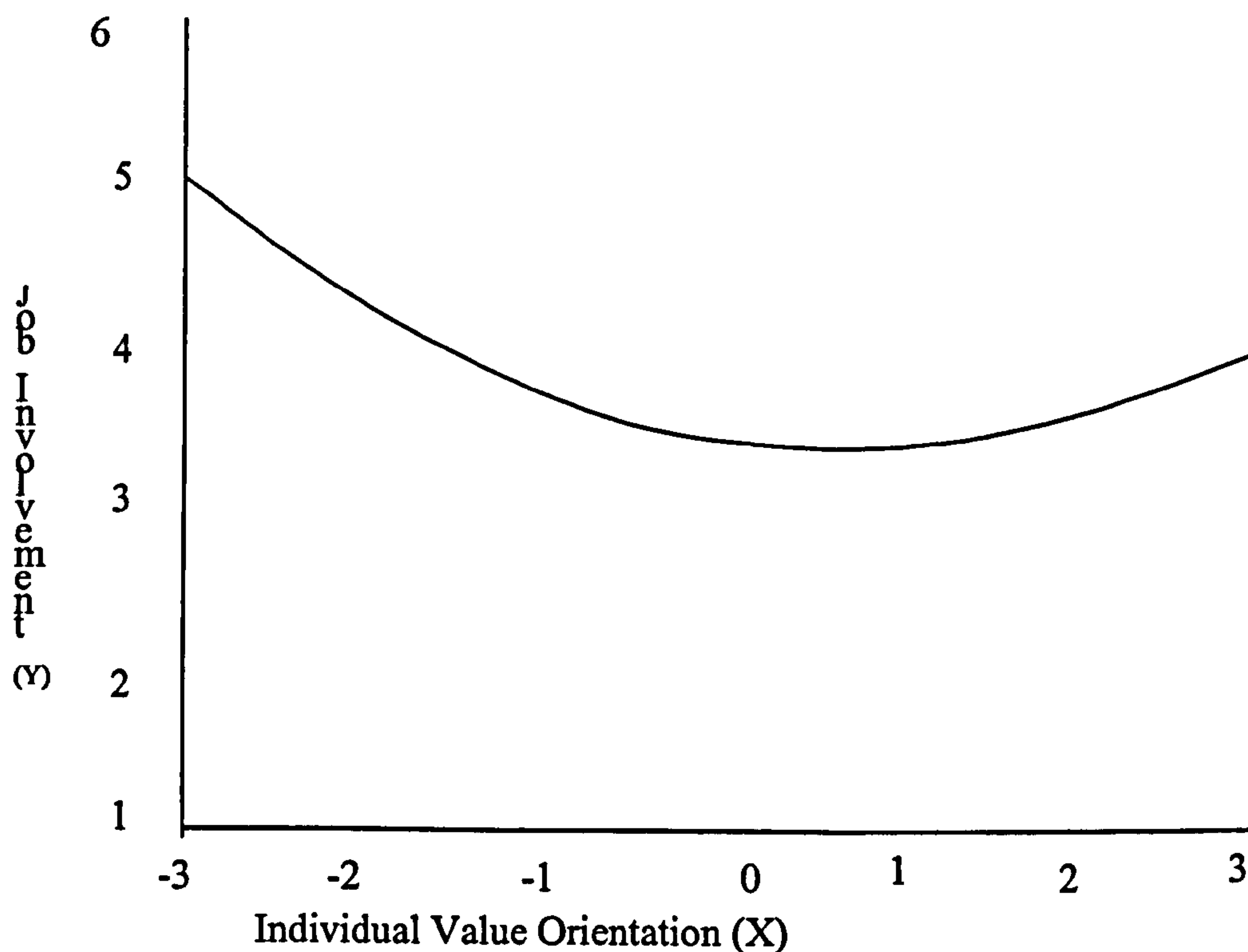


Figure 6.5: Curvilinear effects of relation to nature harmony values on job involvement

Both Figure 6.4 and Figure 6.5<sup>2</sup> show job involvement generally decreases until around the mid-point of the scale, and then there is a subsequent increase towards high scores on each value orientation. At zero-order level, a significant positive correlation characterises the relationship between activity thinking and job involvement, and a weak non-significant positive correlation characterises the relationship between relation to nature harmony and job involvement (see Table 6.2 Section 6.2 Chapter Six). It will be recalled that this sample scores high on both activity thinking and relation to nature harmony (see Table 5.2.5 Chapter Five Section 5.2). From the zero-order correlations, Figure 6.4 and Figure 6.5 then, we can conclude that the majority of this sample, a significant positive relationship characterises the relationship between activity thinking and job involvement, and a weak positive relationship characterises the relationship between relation to nature harmony and job involvement.



In order to confirm that values fit is important in job involvement, and not just affiliation to one of the majority ethnic groups in the organisations, I examined this by matching majority ethnic groups in the firms with job involvement and subjected them to ANOVA. This was done by first, determining the main ethnic group (e.g., most frequent ethnic group in each organisation) for each company and calculating a new variable to represent whether each individual belonged to the main ethnic group and also controlling for ethnic group affiliation. The results indicated that ethnic affiliation to major tribes in the organisation had no effects at all, confirming the importance of values fit in determining job involvement ( $F < 1$ ,  $df = 1/258$ ) (see Table 6.5.2).

Table 6.5.2. Matched Ethnic Groups with New Variable on Job Involvement

Variable	F Ratio	Sig.	df
Ethnic group	1.15	.334	7/255
Affiliation to majority group	1.52	.125	1/258

This result is replicated when examining for variations in job involvement levels of Kenyan employees (see Table 6.2.2 Section 6.2.1).

Edwards (1994) recommends that results of significant fit solutions can be interpreted in terms of a 3-D surface relating  $X$  and  $Y$  to  $Z$ . This was done for the HRM preference policy fit and now I depict the person-culture fit on such surfaces. Figure 6.6 shows the relationship between individual harmony value orientations ( $X$ ), others' harmony value orientations ( $Y$ ) and job involvement ( $Z$ ) for the absolute difference solution.

<sup>2</sup> Following Cohen and Cohen (1983), these two-dimensional plots were derived from equations with just the linear and squared terms for individual values.



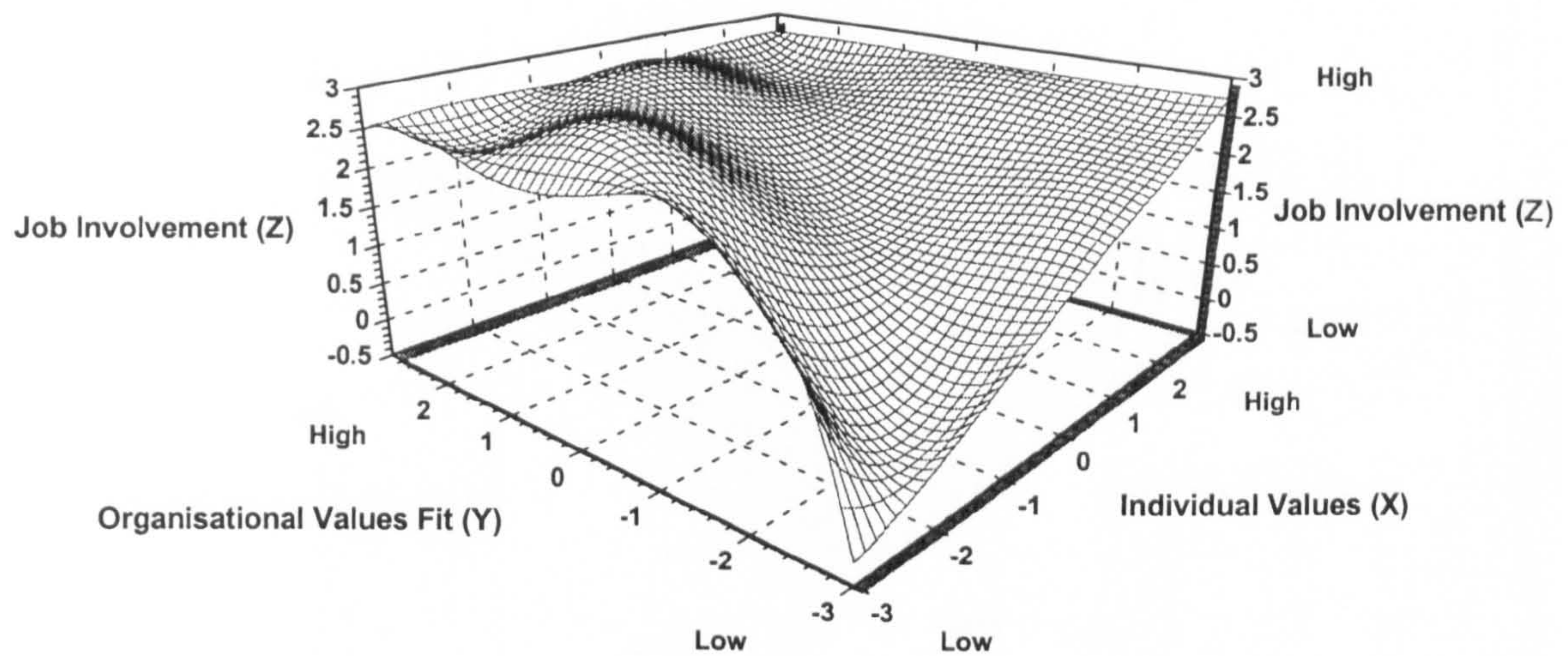


Figure 6.6: Fit solution for relation to nature-harmony values orientation on job involvement

The surface indicates that personal value orientations are positively related to job involvement: If the individual has a high value for this, then job involvement is high regardless of the level of fit with everyone else in the organisation. Those with low relation to nature: harmony values appear to be more influenced by their environment: where the organisational value is low, then job involvement too is low. Where the organisational value is greater however, job involvement appears to increase. The results then indicate that socialisation may play a role in high relationship to nature climates and overrides the impact of individual values.

The second cultural value fit that is important for job involvement is Relation to Nature: Subjugation. Figure 6.7 depicts the relationship between personal relation to nature subjugation values ( $X$ ), others' subjugation values in the organisation ( $Y$ ) and job involvement ( $Z$ ) for a simple difference solution. As indicated earlier this value had significant effects on both the absolute and the squared difference equations showing simple difference solutions.



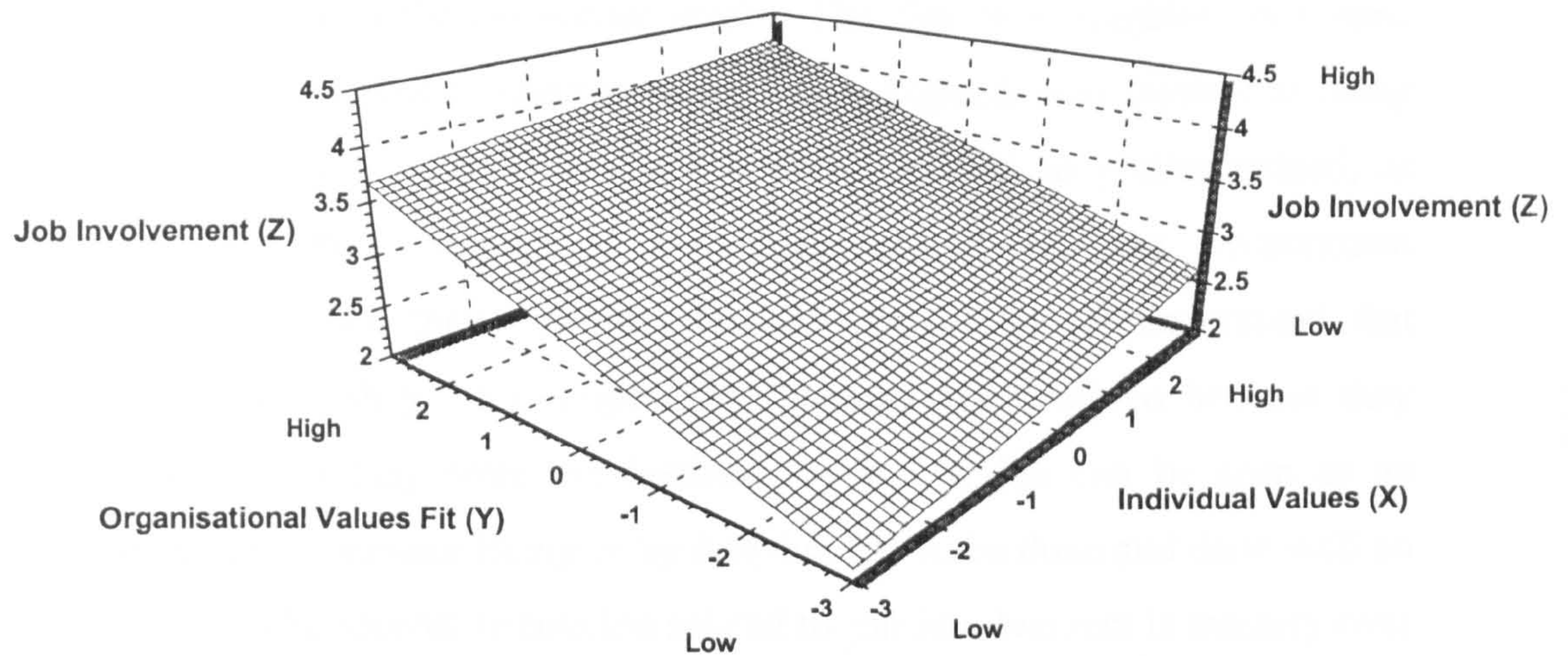


Figure 6.7: Fit solution for relation to nature-subjugation values orientation on job involvement

The highest level of job involvement is seen when individuals see themselves as subjugated to nature, and this value is shared with others in the organisation. However, even if the individual personally does not see himself as subjugated to nature, but this value is high amongst all others, then fairly high levels of job involvement result. Job involvement is low in two instances. First, when individuals do not see themselves as being subjugated to nature, and nor do all their colleagues in the organisation. Second, if the individual does feel subjugated to nature but no one else does, job involvement remains relatively low. Subjugation to nature individual values or organisational climates create high job involvement. However, high subjugation to nature individual values will not produce high involvement in low subjugation climates. Individuals might be socialised into low involvement.

## 6.6 SUMMARY OF RESULTS

Job involvement for this sample is related to six of the eight cultural values ( $P < .01$ ) at the zero-order level. The following summary throws some light on why these values might link to job involvement.



The first orientation with sub-orientations that are significantly related to job involvement is "People's relationship to nature". This orientation reflects how people in a particular society ought to orient themselves to the world around them and to nature. There are two variations of this category of human experience that were significantly related to job involvement at the zero-order level<sup>3</sup>. The first is subjugation to nature, whereby people see themselves as dominated by forces beyond their control or being subject to a Supreme being. Consequently everything is seen as predetermined, or things happening by fate. Subjugated individuals accept that the environment surrounding them is beyond their control. Furthermore, if people understand that everything is predestined, they for example, may become job involved because they believe that it is the job they were pre-destined to do. A job can be seen as an assignment planned by a Supreme Being or by fate that has to be done and done well no matter how stressful. The second orientation related to job involvement is mastery over nature, which contained items suggesting that people strive to master the environment and control it. It is reflected in the belief that given enough resources everything is possible. Mastery oriented people value work and the good things that work brings. For such individuals changing their present situation is of great importance and this can be achieved through their jobs. Therefore, there is then likelihood that they will get job involved.

"Basic nature of human beings" reflects one's belief about the inherent character of the human species. One belief that was significantly related to job involvement is whether human nature is primarily good or evil. This sub-dimension (people are good or evil) may explain job involvement for example, believing that people are good makes one trust superiors because they are giving what is deserved for the job done. The possibility of manipulation is very small when people are seen as inherently good whereas, there are high possibilities of manipulation when they are seen as inherently evil.

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<sup>3</sup> NB- as noted earlier, for the majority of the sample, relation to nature harmony and job involvement have a weak positive relationship



“Human activity” had two sub-dimensions that were significantly related to job involvement. The activity orientation contained items, which refer to the desired focus of activity. This category affects how people view work and leisure, how preoccupied they are with work and the extent to which work related concerns pervade their lives. Activity thinking is one of the sub-dimensions related to job involvement. People with a ‘thinking’ orientation become job involved because work is central to their very existence. They think rationally and carefully implying they understand that the avenue for career advancement and meeting their salient needs is hard work<sup>4</sup>. The ‘doing’ orientation is the other sub-dimension that was significantly associated with job involvement. A doing oriented individual relentlessly tries to achieve and accomplish something. This orientation may influence job involvement because individuals with it work hard. Their lives gain meaning from working. These are the employees who will maximise their time at work in order to achieve specified goals.

The “relational orientation” had one sub-dimension that indicated significant relationship with job involvement. This orientation is concerned with the responsibility one has to and for others. The orientation that was examined for relationship with job involvement and indicated significance is relational hierarchical (RH). In this sub-category, society defines the proper relation to others in the group. Hierarchical cultures emphasise both vertical and horizontal differentiation in terms of structures, communication and influence patterns. They value status and structures that are hierarchically organised. Jobs that recognise this differentiation may be more likely to make people in such cultures become more job involved.

These data were examined for combined linear effects of cultural variables on job involvement using multiple regression analysis. However, only three cultural values retained significant association with job involvement (Activity: doing, Relational: hierarchical and Relation to nature: subjugation) showing that they are the most important values. Together, the linear effects of individual cultural value orientations accounted for 19% of the variance in job involvement. This relationship could not be explained by demographic characteristics of individuals. However, it is evident that

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<sup>4</sup> As noted earlier, this interpretation of results holds only for the majority of the sample.

each of the significant effects in the multiple regression belongs to a different overarching theme in the Kluckhohn and Strodtbeck's (1961) framework. Arguably then, for Kenyans, each of these significant effects characterises the relationship between job involvement and activity orientation, relational orientation and relation to nature orientation respectively. These values have been imparted through primary and secondary socialisation predisposing individuals to job involvement. Therefore, it is possible for organisations to use these basic cultural values to identify the kind of employees that are likely to be job involved.

From the analysis of actual organisation HRM policy practices, it is evident that Kenyan organisations especially those pursuing market-oriented strategies, practice HRM that might maximise organisational objectives and goals. The results of the actual organisations HRM policy practice data and the interviews suggest the following commonalities across the sample:

- To some degree employees have say in the workplace, especially those working for foreign owned and partly foreign organisations. The environment they operate in and the nature of the organisations themselves opens avenues for the 'right to get involved or participate' in issues that touch on employee welfare. According to most managers there are participative schemes that are intended to raise levels of employee performance and commitment to the organisation.
- Most organisations are not able to offer HRM rewards that are predictable. However, those that can afford it try to offer more predictable rewards. Again, this is the case in foreign owned organisations and to some extent some local private profit oriented firms. The dynamism in developing country environments is not suitable for predictable rewards to be offered by most organisations despite the fact that this is the preference of the majority of employees.
- Performance related HRM practices are the most common across most companies but some practice HRM practices that favour both performance and loyalty HRM.
- Human resource empowerment is practised in organisations that are profit oriented and require skills that are not readily available in the local labour market. In order for these firms to stay competitive and survive they have embraced policies that give



power to the employee. State companies do not bother with empowerment other than that invested in the hierarchical structures of the firms.

From the fit analyses findings indicated that HRM preference-policy fit model does not fully predict job involvement in the Kenyan context. The findings indicate that this type of fit could reflect only two out of the four HRM preferences that emerged from PCA analysis. The preferences that were predicted are preference for performance related HRM practice and preference for HR empowerment. Person-culture fit also did not fully explain job involvement. Five cultural values (activity: doing, activity: thinking, human nature: good-evil, relational: hierarchical, and relation to nature: harmony) reported linear or curvilinear effects on job involvement. However, relation to nature: harmony reported a fit solution using absolute difference equations and a curvilinear effect using squared difference equations. Relation to nature: subjugation reported a simple difference fit solution both with absolute and squared difference equations.

Overall, the results of this study indicate that Person-Organisation fit partially predicts job involvement in a Kenyan context, but that individual values generally seem more important than Person-Organisation fit.

## 6.7 CONCLUSION

This part of the study has demonstrated that cultural values influence job involvement. There is evidence of zero-order relationships for activity: thinking, activity: doing, human nature: good evil, relational: hierarchical, relation to nature: harmony, relation to nature: mastery, and relation to nature: subjugation. The findings suggest that some employees in Kenya are culturally predisposed to job involvement.

The eight companies' HRM policies and practices have been briefly examined under the four components that emerged from preference analysis. It is established from the descriptive results and interview responses obtained from senior managers that in Kenya (see Appendix 5.0) there are variations in the HRM strategies pursued by different organisations. However, there are similarities in some aspects across the sample. Most clearly:

Human resources involvement/participation is a strategy that is practised by organisations that are profit oriented and mostly foreign owned. This is because most of

their employees are enlightened of their rights and the skills they possess are scarce and in high demand. State and some local companies don't bother with involvement as most decisions are centralised.

Predictability of human resource rewards also reports the same picture that the practices are not homogeneous across organisations. Some organisations try to use more predictable HR rewards than others do. Again, foreign (market-oriented) organisations tend to provide more predictable rewards compared to state or local indigenous firms.

Performance vs. loyalty related HRM practices is more varied as some companies tend to use more performance HRM policy practices while others tend to use more loyalty HRM practices. However, there are those firms that practice both performance and loyalty HRM. It is to be noted that since most items that could reflect an exact picture of these practices were not included; some companies could be practising other HRM policies that tend to make employees loyal. Furthermore, most employees are not very well qualified hence, organisations don't bother with loyalty instead are more concerned with performance as there are no many opportunities elsewhere for such workers.

Regarding human resource empowerment, organisations that require highly skilled labour tend to use policies that empower their employees. However, some profit oriented companies report that empowerment is not in their menu of HRM policies.

The results show that HRM fit can predict the level of job involvement of Kenyan employees, but only partially. This is because only two of the four components examined bring out a fit solution. It is clear from the analysis that cultural values play a role because six out of the eight cultural values indicate a significant relationship with job involvement. For two of the cultural values held by the individual and the cultural values of others in the organisation there was also a fit solution, indicating association with job involvement.

Overall, these findings have enabled me to answer some of the research questions raised in the theoretical chapter (Chapter Three):

- Is job involvement related to cultural value orientations?



- In a developing country environment is job involvement related to HRM preference-policy practice fit?
- In a developing country environment is job involvement related to individual culture fit?

In the next chapter I discuss the issues raised in previous chapters and the results that have emerged from the analyses of these data.

## CHAPTER SEVEN

### DISCUSSION

#### 7.0 INTRODUCTION

This chapter discusses the results of this thesis covering key findings of the research. The thesis is about cultural value orientations of Kenyan employees and the impact of these values on preferences for HRM policy and practices. Further, the thesis covers two forms of fit namely preference-policy and person-culture fit. The influence of these two forms of fit on job involvement is also part of the thesis. To briefly restate, the approach to the thesis was essentially quantitative, with some input from some qualitative approaches. In order to reveal the cultural value orientations of the sample, Kluckhohn and Strodtbeck's (1961) conceptualisation was adopted using Maznevski and DiStefano's (1995) operationalisation. Employees' HRM preferences and actual organisation policy practice were ascertained by adopting Schuler and Jackson's (1987) conceptualisation. I utilised Kanungo's (1982) conceptualisation and operationalisation to measure job involvement. To examine for fit Edward's (1994) approach was deemed appropriate and adopted for this study (see Chapter Four for detail).

The thesis is that cross-cultural researchers have tended to concentrate effort in comparing cultures of different countries especially using samples of managers in developed economies, thus ignoring human resource management practices in developing economies. The argument is that different countries present different contexts, more so, in developing countries. Hence universal HRM prescriptions might not necessarily work-especially at the behavioural level. With HRM still being a fairly new field of study, scholars have recommended that it would be useful for research to uncover patterns of HRM in other countries especially developing countries. Such a contribution would aid understanding of the concept, especially how context impacts on HRM. This study has attempted to bring such a contribution from a developing Sub-Saharan African country. In their focus on Western Europe and Asia, researchers have found culture to play a major role in human behaviour. This study too focuses on this construct's (culture) impact on employee preference for HRM policies and practices in this context. However, studies' have often used scales of cultural values that do not



comprehensively cover the concept. Further, the thesis shows that studies under the label of 'work-related preferences' might provide more valid descriptions of these preferences by focusing on wider sampling frames of relevant populations. By using cultural values (as a proxy of culture) based on the work of Kluckhohn and Strodtbeck (1961), assessment is enabled of the influence of culture on employees' preferences for HRM practices and work attitudes, for this case job involvement. The framework encompasses a wider array of cultural values that bring out more meaningful cultural value orientations, which were related to HRM preferences and job involvement. Furthermore, the transitional nature of cultural values emerged by employing this cultural scale. It was also possible to reveal the role of ethnicity within this sample in shaping values, which then plays back on preferences and work-related attitudes like job involvement.

The other side of this thesis has questioned whether fit of HRM policies with employees' preferences in Kenya, impacts on levels of job involvement. Again, the thesis is that the contextual variables in developing countries are varied and complex leading us to question the notion that 'fit' always matters, especially in determining levels of job involvement in these organisations. Further, it is argued that individual values may initially fit, or change to fit, cultural values of others in the organisation (a representation of organisation culture). Such fit between the individual's culture and that of others may influence work attitudes, in this case job involvement. Using simple difference scores in the measurement of congruence was deemed inadequate due to its notable methodological problems. Hence, I adopted Edwards (1994) regression technique to analyse fit. As already seen in the previous chapter this procedure reported richer results and helped reduce the methodological problems often associated with person-environment fit research using difference scores.

This chapter unfolds as follows. First, it discusses the identified patterns of cultural value orientations within this Kenyan sample. Second, the influence of individual cultural value orientations on preferences for HRM in this sample is described. Third, HRM and cultural value's fit on job involvement are discussed. Finally, in the summary of the chapter, some key messages and conclusions are related.



## 7.1 CULTURAL VALUE ORIENTATIONS IN KENYA

One purpose of this study as explained in the theoretical framework of this research is to identify the existing cultural value orientations in Kenya. Researchers and anthropologists alike have shown that cultures are not static. They change with emerging economic and social currents (see for example Cray & Malory, 1998; Allvesson, 1993). This issue of change and stability within cultures, and the case Kenya, was highlighted in earlier chapters. I argued that some cultural value orientations held by Kenyans have given in to influences from foreign contacts but others have survived. In general, my aim was to unearth current cultural value orientations of Kenyans and examine any change or stability within the sample. Value change can be understood in different ways. First change can occur within the value profile of a country, group, or individual (Roe & Ester, 1999). Values within a profile may score a higher or lower mean. For example, Inglehart (1990) has demonstrated an overall shift in values among successive generations in the West, which were labelled as a transition from materialist to post-materialist values. Similar results on value change have been reported in various countries in Europe, North America and Taiwan (see for example Ester, Halman, & De Moor 1993; Sparrow & Wu, 1998; Aycan et al., 2000). There is no empirical literature to guide me in predicting specific relationships between Kluckhohn and Strodtbeck's value orientations and the dependent variables in a Kenyan context. Nevertheless, I use similar values suggested by traditional African cultures (for example Bascom & Herskovists, 1959; Ochieng', 1979) to explain the changes and stability in this Kenyan sample. This way then, I will be able to describe current value orientations of Kenyans. I recognise the fact that my sample is not large enough to confidently generalise my findings to the whole of Kenya hence, my use of the term 'Kenyan' or 'African' refers only to my sample of employed adults.

Other than change and stability in cultural values a more complex relationship was observed in this sample between the different ethnic groups and cultural values and HRM preferences. In spite of the fact that some form of homogeneity was discernible in Kenya's national culture, it was intriguing to observe that ethnicity plays a role in shaping values and preferences. This points to the importance of understanding the role of ethnicity in value and preference formation. Jesudason (1989) argues that ethnically homogenous countries are the exception rather than the rule, and in more than 30% of



all the countries the largest ethnic group does not even constitute the majority of the population. In Kenya the largest ethnic group constitutes only 21% of the total population. Most ethnic groups in Kenya are unique and practice customs and rituals for different reasons albeit with some similarity. For example, initiation to adulthood takes different forms but its essence is passage from childhood to adulthood (see Chapter One Section 1.4 for ethnic profiles). Religion is an aspect of culture that may create different value orientations in Kenyan people. About 70% (40% Protestants and 30% Roman Catholics) are Christians, 10% have Indigenous beliefs and 20% are Muslim. Such practices in themselves create “differences” between different groups.

The fact that some ethnic groups have been exposed to more resources that gave them power through education and wealth due to an advantaged position of having their kind in the government system may also have contributed to variations in national cultural values. Ongoing globalisation processes challenge indigenous people’s lives in various ways and at different rates depending on exposure of a particular individual to advantages such as education. Ethnicity has been the organising principle of Kenyan politics both before as well as after independence. Those in power have tended to manipulate ethnicity in order to establish control over the population. Colonisers used the strategy of divide and rule. They made some ethnic groups feel superior by allowing them to enjoy particular privileges such as employment. Even Christian missionaries played a role in ‘inventing’ some African languages when they created a written dialect-based on one or more vernacular(s)-into which they translated the Bible (VandenBersselaar, 1997).

All these intrusions affected the cultural value orientations of the ethnic group(s) in question. In Kenya, the Kikuyu were the majority and lived around the place that was made the administration centre (Nairobi). Little (1998) shows how colonialism forged identities and boundaries that scarcely existed in the 19<sup>th</sup> century which are now fiercely defended on the basis of ‘tradition’. One of the factors that sharpens identities is power (Little, 1998). Consequently, the value differences in Kenya have been reinforced by pervasive social cleavages, in terms of among other factors ethnicity and levels of access to power and wealth. Evidence from some African countries supports this, in so far that democratic openings have intensified ethnic competition and led to protracted transitions or outright conflict (Ndegwa, 1997). Spalding (2000) gives a cultural



explanation of tension in Nigeria, arguing that ethnicity and incompatible value systems are responsible for explaining preferences and may show why events or ideas may be acceptable or unacceptable by a people. Furthermore, different economic, social and political circumstances do play a role in shaping values and preferences in people. When those circumstances are affecting ethnic groups differently, arguably then, values and preferences tend to differ. This study shows that other than the value change which has been reinforced by changing economic and social currents, ethnicity is playing a role in preference and value formation.

### 7.1.1 Human nature orientation

The first value orientations discussed are with regard to *Human-nature orientations*. Earlier it was revealed that due to the communal nature of bringing up children in an African society (a child belonged to the whole community) whereby any adult in the society was allowed to discipline a child, people were seen to be good. Strangers were readily welcome within a community. Bad people were regarded as lacking in discipline or possessed by evil spirits and if discipline didn't change them, the community turned to using libations and sacrifices to appease the bad spirits in order to leave the man or woman. Given this scenario I suggested that Kenyans would see people as basically "good" but would accept that there was a chance of having "bad" ones within the community. This was supported in this study. The average mean scored for this value orientation (human nature: good-evil, 4.45) shows that Kenyans view people as good but not strongly that there is chance of evil people existing side by side (refer to Table 5.2.5 in Chapter Five for value orientation mean averages). The inherent character of "bad" people is manipulative and this comes out when one encounters such people. They believe that people might be good but they harbour some doubts as their belief may be falsified. When Kenyans want something done, for example a business deal, they usually come into the deal with the assumption that they are dealing with a genuine person but with some probability of dealing with an evil person. Most people will not enter into a serious deal at first sight but will take time to prove that the other party is genuine and can be trusted. Usually this requires creating some form of friendship or acquaintance. This was not the case in the earlier days when anyone was regarded as good and people were welcome even in places they did not know. There was room for finding out whether the stranger was good or bad as the



association progressed. In most cases people were found to be good. Kenyans of traditional Africa have not changed much in terms of their view of the basic nature of the human species. A traditional African believed that all people are good unless they prove to be the opposite while associating with the person. The only difference is the source of an evil person. A traditional African believed that an evil person is/may be lacking in discipline or possessed by evil spirits whereas, the African of today feels that most evil people have become evil due to the present materialistic environment that has made money the source of most 'good' things. Those who develop a love for money never have enough hence, becoming evil, corrupt, dishonest or manipulative. The other form of evil is in terms of morality. Immoral people, for example those, who commit incest, are seen to be bewitched or abnormal because such actions are abominations in most Kenyan ethnic groups.

However, some variations were observed within this Kenyan sample according to various demographic characteristics. For example, it was observed that those individuals with primary education scored highly toward the belief that people are evil as compared to all the other groups. Significant differences were observed between this group and those who have postgraduate level of education (see Table 5.5.1). The reason behind this could be that employees with lower education levels occupy lower level jobs and are not in a position to engage in corrupt practices, which have made those at the top enjoy better lives. It is possible that the highly placed in society have the power and resources to influence decisions including hiring and firing. Some people while using those powers might have staffed organisations with their kith and kin at the expense of the lowly educated that may not influence such decisions. It is also possible that the status gap created by education and levels in the structure has increased the sense of 'us' and 'them' hence, seeing people with education and status as bad. Analysis of ethnic group also indicated significant differences between the Kikuyu and the Luyha (see Table 5.5.4). The Luyha seem to score high in the belief that people are evil while the Kikuyu are more neutral. There is no simple explanation for this phenomenon. However, some tentative suggestions are possible. The Kikuyu are the largest ethnic group and most of them benefited from the fact that the first president of Kenya was from their ethnic group enabling them to access most of the resources including education. As pointed out earlier most countries have tried to manipulate ethnicity to establish control (e.g., Waetjen, 1999; Jesudason, 1989; Bhopal, 1999). In the process



they benefit those close to them in all manner. Arguably, then Kikuyus in Kenya might be comprised of a high number of well-educated and wealthy people in salaried jobs and businesses. The Luyha comprise the second largest ethnic group but have not had a chance to benefit their kith and kin. Such a state of affairs might mean that with such large numbers of people, the majority might be uneducated or in possession of minimal levels of education who end up taking lower level jobs.

Some inferences may also be drawn from organisation affiliation, which also indicated differences in good-evil value orientations. Company one is significantly different from companies two and seven. Company two employed mostly manual labourers that are likely to feel disadvantaged. Again, these people possess low levels of education and already I have shown that low education might have an association with seeing human nature as basically manipulative in Kenya. On the other hand, company one (MNC) had a very high number of well-educated people who see human nature as basically good. Company seven, is a State company where all the influences of ethnicity and corruption are apparent (see Appendix 5.0 or Chapter one for details about these companies). This value orientation basically emerges from life experiences that make one believe that people especially, those he/she is dealing with, are corrupt, dishonest and manipulative. Usually, those who become manipulative are those with authority and power over resources because in a hierarchical society that respect (fear) of status cannot allow a lower person in status manipulate those highly placed in society as they are well aware of the consequences.

### 7.1.2 Man-nature orientation

The second types of value orientations examined in this study are in regard to *Man-nature* referred to in this study as *relation to nature*. For this value dimension I suggested that Kenyans would hold values of harmony, subjugation and to some degree mastery. The reasoning was based on the beliefs held by earlier Kenyans and the changes that are visible due to foreign influences apparent in present day Kenya. For example it was seen that traditional Africans believed in a high god and creator who is the paternal guardian and disciplinarian manifesting himself in natural phenomena. In other words, they depended on this god when things were right and turned to him when things went wrong by offering prayers and sacrifices through their ancestors. Blessings



were seen as coming from god and after a good year's harvest thanks-giving ceremonies were held to thank the supernatural for such good things. Again, misfortunes were taken as they came and it was common for an African to plead with god to take away the misfortune mainly through-departed ancestors. They depended on their environment for food and saw it as part of their survival. They even believed that god lived in mountains like Mount Kenya or in big trees where they offered their sacrifices. These beliefs are more tuned toward subjugation and harmony values.

From the results, harmony values were supported as the sample scored on average a mean of 5.66. However, it was surprising to observe that subjugation values were not held by this sample (average mean of only 2.88). These are in contradiction to the common belief that people from developing countries, and more so Africa, are fatalists and subjugated to nature. This is a change that may have taken place due to external influences like education and internationalisation. People have come to believe that human beings were endowed with the ability to reason and judge for themselves the consequences of their actions. Recently, studies have shown that cultural values are changing. Sparrow and Wu (1998) reported that Taiwanese culture no longer exhibits subjugation values. To some extent ANOVA results (see comparison of means by educational level in Table 5.5.1) supported the fact that employees in the sample who possessed less education (i.e. Primary certificate or Ordinary certificate) scored slightly higher on the subjugation to nature scale than people who were highly educated (Advanced certificate, Advanced or Ordinary certificate with a Diploma, Undergraduate or Postgraduate degrees).

The other demographic variables that indicate differences are occupational levels, ethnic group and organisation affiliation. Some interpretations are possible. For example, Table 5.5.2 shows that machine operators and security guards score higher for subjugation than other occupations, meaning that they may not have many openings for their type of job hence they see their external environment to be a major influence of their future and their inability to control outcomes. The high unemployment rates in a country like Kenya may make some people exhibit greater fatalism because of fewer opportunities, more especially those with skills not in much demand or with skills easily available in the local labour market. There are significant differences in average means between particular ethnic groups but still none of them reported high subjugation value



orientations (see Table 5.5.4 the means are below the mid-point of 4 showing that these ethnic groups don't report subjugation value orientation). Again, the Kikuyu score quite low for subjugation values as compared to those two ethnic groups (Kalenjin and Luyha) significantly different with them. As already indicated the Kikuyu are the largest group and were advantaged in a way that might have influenced their value systems. It can be seen that company two and company seven score slightly higher in subjugation values and are significantly different from company one and six. Company two is a local private firm that utilises mostly non-skilled labour in packing and arranging crates of soda or distributing the sodas to the market. Again, environmental factors could be at play here. These employees may see their employer as the one who is in control of their fate. They can only manage to earn money that is desperately needed for their upkeep if they stay employed: without many openings increased fatalism is possible. The same applies to company seven, which is government owned and as indicated earlier was at the point of collapsing and was put under receivership almost immediately this study was completed. Many employees had already gone through strain as at times they could go without pay but still stayed on hoping that their company would recover and continue employing them. From experience of how other employees were treated when their State corporations were put under receivership these employees had every cause to be fearful of their future. According to a feature article appearing in the *Daily Nation* (2000, 16<sup>th</sup> January) the workers of some State corporations that were put under receivership received only Ksh 4,000 (about £35) in benefits regardless of how long they had worked for the corporation.

Mastery orientation was scored surprisingly high, perhaps due to the composition of my respondents who are employed young and educated. The age of most of the respondents (69%) was less than 40 years. It is possible that those who have gone to school have acquired secondary values that engender them toward mastery values as most (89.1%) possessed at least fourth form level of education. Again, in their search for a better living, those who have a job, and can afford things that most Kenyans can't, might develop this belief that they are in control of nature. It is no small achievement to be in a salaried job in a country where more than half of the population are unemployed (Economic Survey, 1999). Maquet (1971: 30) argues that 'the power over nature is the capacity to produce desired effects. Attributed to a purposive being, this capacity can be exercised over nature'. It is clear from the correlation between these values at the zero-



order level (see Table 5.8) that Kenyans that hold mastery values (RNM) also tend to hold harmony (RNH) values ( $r = .28$ ,  $p < .001$  between RNM and RNH) rather than subjugation values (the correlation between them is  $r = -.06$  for RNS and RNH and  $r = -.10$  between RNS and RNM, all non-significant).

### 7.1.3 Activity orientation

The third group of cultural values dimension is *Activity orientation*. In chapter three I suggested that for sub-dimensions of this value orientation (Doing and Thinking), Kenyans would rank both doing and thinking quite highly. This is because as things were in traditional Africa people did not sit around and wait for manna from heaven. They had to work for their 'daily bread' whether it was to go and hunt for meat or catch fish, they had to meet their goal (killing an animal or catching fish). Activities were divided between husband and wife but when work was too much, the community's close friends or relatives came to assist. In modern Kenya there is an elite comprised of people from different ethnic backgrounds. Most of these people have acquired their education from abroad or from schools founded by foreigners. Many are now educated with college or university degrees. The influence of education might also have acculturated many to value orientations like thinking rationally before acting (activity: thinking) or striving toward goals and working hard (activity: doing). Also ongoing globalisation processes seem to be fuelled by 'agents' whose practices are informed by the systems of representations, values and beliefs of so-called 'developed' Western societies, those of the US, Canada and Western Europe. Such exposure to these societies' systems and beliefs for example, hard work and logical thinking might have enhanced doing and thinking values in this country. There is also a reflection of Kenya's history in these values. The British who colonised Kenya cultivated capitalistic values of hard work and to some extent rational thinking as people strive to own property. In general, Kenyans tend to display a more competitive nature compared to for example, Tanzanians who were earlier on exposed to socialist ideologies. The results reported that Kenyans prefer to think things through before acting (Activity: Thinking, with a mean of 6.23), and on average strive to achieve goals and work hard (Activity: Doing, with a mean of 5.47). People in this sample don't work on feelings or spontaneity (Activity: Being). Both doing and thinking value orientations are dominant among this Kenyan sample. There is also a relationship between the two values of



doing and thinking ( $r = .35$ ) ( $p < .001$ ) [see Table 5.8].

#### 7.1.4 Relational value orientation

The fourth group are *relational value orientations*, also comprised of three sub-dimensions namely hierarchical, collateral and individualism. My suggestion was that Kenyans would prefer both hierarchy and collectivism. I also hypothesised that since culture is dynamic, significant influences from foreign ideologies and the process of globalisation might have brought into some people especially the elite, individualistic values. However, from the literature it is clear that Africans respect authority and power. These values are imparted in a child from very early days. It is important to know that elders in society are to be respected and can discipline any child behaving inappropriately. Initiation rituals were part of this process of instilling in young people the idea that authority is to be respected. Group orientation is also a virtue in African societies. People live in communities and identify with clans and tribes. These are values also taught from a very early age. The need to share with other children and helping in communal projects like cultivation and harvesting were some of the things that taught an African child the need for depending on one another. Most people used to share food or drink from the same plate or pot, which instilled in children the essence of unity, and sharing. However, the results of this study show that values are changing, and certainly for this sample.

The suggestion that Kenyans would show preference for hierarchical values has not been fully supported whereas, there is support for collectivist and individualist values. The respondents show that they are not overly concerned with hierarchical relations, as the average mean score is almost neutral (4.15). Recent surveys (e.g., Aycan et al., 2000; Wu, 1999) have reported that power distance values have changed in Romania and in Taiwan, a reflection of a quest for reduced status difference and equal distribution of power. Individualistic and collectivism values are observed in this sample. Hofstede (1980) predicted that a society's values might become more individualistic as national wealth increases. It is evident that the Kenya of today is richer than the Kenya of old: as people try to improve their conditions, individualistic values may set in. However, the kind of individualism observed in this sample may be the kind that can be paralleled with traditional collectivism whereby the main breadwinner of the family has to



improve him/herself for the benefit of his or her extended family. Table 5.2.5 shows that Kenyans hold collectivist values scoring an average mean of 5.14 (although this variable was dropped from further inferential analysis due to low alpha coefficients) and also individualism values scoring an average mean of 5.00. In their scoring the respondents ranked collateral or collectivism values first, followed closely by individualistic values and neutral on hierarchical relationships.

Overall these results do suggest that values have changed and continue to change in the Kenyan society. Changes in values may also be attributed to enlightenment of employees and the quest for reduced status differences and equal distribution of power. Also there is support for the role of ethnicity in value formation. It is also important to note that groups that on average contained the majority of Europeans scored highest on relational individual values, consistent with individualistic values found most especially in the former colonial power Britain.

Earlier, results indicated that most Kenyans prefer empowerment in their work relations (see Chapter Five Table 5.2.1). However, many organisations in developing countries, including Kenya, practice authoritarian and bureaucratic work relations (Blunt, 1980). Such management styles are more likely to make subordinates feel powerless because the success of their job efforts to achieve desired results depend on their managers, as they have the requisite power and resources. This fact might engender employees' detest hierarchical relations that foster bureaucratic management. Writers (e.g., Burke, 1986; Kinlaw, 1995) assert that empowerment is possible when managers decentralise some of their power to subordinates for making decisions. Such requirements are not compatible with high power distance values. Kamoche (1992) observed a 'them' and 'us' attitude in Kenyan organisations; a practice that might not be preferred by enlightened employees in a quest for reduced status difference and equal distribution of power. Also, it was observed that both good and evil human nature (see Chapter Five Table 5.2.5) exists in the Kenyan society. The possibility that even managers may possess evil values might make employees prefer low power distance that enables them to question some of the ills committed by evil managers in organisations. Individualistic values might have set in the Kenyan society due to high levels of unemployment and low real wages at the disposal of those in salaried employment. It is a fact that when a person cannot afford to care for his or her family other dependants



might have no room in sharing the little one earns. The influx to urban centres in search of employment might have put so much pressure on people that they can no longer house or provide for kith and kin that come to such urban centres for assistance. In a recent census it was reported that for the last ten years (1989-1999) alone the population of Nairobi increased by 57% (Daily Nation, March 1<sup>st</sup> 2000). Kenya's collectivist values instil in people the idea that relatives should come to their rescue when in need hence when they go to towns they expect to be housed and provided for by their relatives already in such towns. Thousands were retrenched during the recent liberalisation of the economy and subsequent privatisation of most organisations. All these pressures that have set in (such as high levels of unemployment, low wages, rural-urban immigration, and high levels of inflation) might have increased the dislike for the collateral dependency syndrome. There are too many relatives in need of help both financially and in kind leading to most able Kenyans assisting only very close relatives or just the nuclear family. Even those who have 'enough' have developed very expensive life styles and acquired self-centred values akin to individualism.

It is important to note that some value orientations, like activity thinking and relation to nature mastery, did not show significant differences between groups in relation to any demographic factors. This is an indication that these values may be more universal for this sample. Respondents showed consistency in the way they answered meaning they may be "*generic transition values*". Hierarchical values only showed differences between organisations and not with any other demographic value indicating that in Kenya this value is more pronounced in some organisations than others suggesting that it could be an "*organisational value*". This might indicate that some organisations prescribe to hierarchical structures and management values. For example, the State and local public company in the sample tended to score higher toward hierarchical value orientation. These organisations might have socialised their employees to still value hierarchical styles of management. The manager who represented the government corporations explicitly indicated that theirs is a bureaucracy that still values that may probably be used to hierarchical arrangements (see Appendix 5.0 company Six's actual policy practice). Subjugation values reported more differences between groups in most demographic values showing that despite the fact that Kenyans are not subjugated to nature there are variations across demographics ranging from ethnic affiliation to



organisational affiliation. These then, may be classified as “*circumstantial or situational values*”.

### 7.1.5 Lessons from the analysis of Kenyan values

This discussion has shown that value orientations are deep pre-existing structures developed in early socialisation but which may also be subject to change. Ethnicity has implications for values because different ethnic groups do not have exactly identical processes of instilling values in children. Other forces such as colonisation and politics have tended to create ‘differences’ by manipulating ethnic identities. As time passes by people are confronted with life styles that were not existing during their earlier days. Such life currents impart in them new values or alter the *status quo* in existing values. However, it is worth noting that even if changes occur they do not appear to totally sweep away pre-existing values, but rather bring about some modifications. The values evident in this sample are activity thinking and activity doing; relationships collateral and individualism, with a dwindling preference for conventional attitudes of hierarchy of authority and power. The others are relation to nature harmony and mastery values. Subjugation values exhibiting fatalism are no longer dominant. With respect to basic human nature, Kenyans hold values of good or bad. This is why even in most dealings with strangers, Kenyans prefer to create a relationship first. It is not an issue of ‘down to business’ as is the case in countries like America where things are mostly contractual, but a provision is necessary for creating a relationship which would enable a person to know whether the other party is in the ‘bad’ category of human beings.

The picture emerging is that Kenyans’ value orientations are in a *transitional* process due to economic and social currents sweeping across the globe. These currents are more pronounced in individual rather than national values as demographic variables clearly play a role in the on-going changes. The findings in Chapter Five suggest that demographic variables play a role in cultural value orientations though not uniformly. As already seen there are some cultural values that do not indicate any significant difference between groups while others do indicate differences. It is also clear that there is a possibility that some value orientations co-exist (for example, individualism and collectivism, good and evil, mastery and harmony). According to Kluckhohn and Strodtbeck (1961) this occurrence is possible when a society is in transition. Other



researchers (Trompenaars, 1993; Sinha & Tripathi, 1994) argue that values like individualism and collectivism can be complementary or can co-exist within a society depending on context. Overall, Kenyans on average are rational and goal oriented; more group than individually oriented, but not overly concerned with hierarchical relationships; oriented towards harmony with their environment, but with a preparedness to control nature for their benefit; seeing people as good whereas, others are bad. Whether value orientations are in transition or whether they depend on a subtle understanding of context, they clearly have a heightened role at present. Values as a significant source of individual differences, might then play a significant role in shaping HRM preferences. The results of this analysis are now discussed.

## **7.2 CULTURAL VALUES AND HRM PREFERENCES**

After revealing those cultural value orientations present in Kenya, the next task is to find out whether these value orientations impact on individual employee HRM preferences and if so, to what extent. I have argued that value orientations are deep pre-existing structures that begin to develop in early socialisation, whereas the preferences for specific HR policies (attitudes) develop at a much later stage in life. In this context it is reasonable to infer that values predict the HR preferences, though I accept that correlation alone cannot conclusively prove this. In this section I discuss the implications of my prior analysis of this link. The hypothesis that cultural value orientations influence individual HRM preferences was supported. However, not all HRM policies and practice preferences are influenced by cultural value orientations. From the four factors that emerged human resource involvement, predictability of HR rewards, and human resource empowerment were related to cultural values while the performance vs. loyalty related HRM practices came out perhaps surprisingly, as being values-free.

The study then shows that overall HRM preferences do indeed reflect a cultural interpretation, as there were significant associations between cultural values and three HRM factors. This finding indicates that HRM models with an Anglo-Saxon base are not adaptable to international research. Presuming developing countries' peoples value orientations without delineating the cultural and physical domain is inappropriate. Furthermore, those comparative HRM studies that portray cross-national differences as a total product of static cultural differences are also inappropriate. Rather, as Sparrow



and Hiltrop (1997) recommend, it is important to consider the role of transition when trying to understand factors that bring about distinct HRM patterns in each country.

### 7.2.1 Involvement and Participation

The activity thinking sub-category value orientation had the highest influence on preferences for HR involvement/participation and the value analysis indicates in general the sample scores high on activity thinking. There is a growing body of literature indicating that employee involvement techniques have increased in Europe (Bean, 1994: 183) and the United States (e.g., Deutsch & Schurman, 1993) while it has been in practice in Japan since the 1960's (Hyman & Mason, 1995). However, developing countries of Africa are seen as not yet ripe for implementing techniques of employee involvement or participation. For example, earlier writings recommend detachment of employees in developing countries from the decision formulation and making process (e.g., Jaeger, 1990). The scope of involvement/participation that most employees in these societies would prefer is that which gives them say in events which could disrupt or otherwise affect their working lives. Such involvement may be located within reach of individual employees or their immediate workgroups, but may not extend to high level corporate decision-making. Kanungo and Jaeger, (1990: 13) make even more sweeping comments about developing country employees: 'within organisations in developing countries, human capabilities are often viewed as more or less fixed with limited potential...thus the internal work culture in the developing countries is more conducive to the Theory X (carrot and stick) model of management of McGregor (1960), whereas, in developed countries the Theory Y (participative) model is relatively more suitable'.

However, results of this research indicate that decisions touching on the welfare of the employee might fit well with the employee's preference, if she/he is involved or participates in the process. This is in line with Negandhi's (1975a) finding that workers in developing countries too, desire 'quality employment' by (among other things) being given participative leadership and involvement in decision making within their organisation. Sentiments like those expressed by Kanungo and Jaeger, (1990) are not conducive to the move towards HRM in these economies. Some researchers have indicated that the presence of employee involvement projects would in itself be



indicative of a move towards an HRM approach (Guest, 1989; Sisson, 1994; Hyman & Mason, 1995). It is important to recognise the transitional nature of cultural values (Sparrow & Hiltrop, 1997) which these commentators give as reasons necessitating the low or non-involvement of developing country employees in decision processes. *Characterising workers in developing countries as for example, high in uncertainty avoidance or high in power distance and therefore unsuitable for participative management (Mendonca & Kanungo, 1994) is a static if not retrogressive analysis.*

The argument in the developing economy HRM literature to date has been that in developing countries' acculturation makes people passive and reactive to tasks (Jaeger, 1990). This study's result questions this. It shows that in general Kenyans would like to think through issues (Activity: Thinking) before acting. They view work as central to their existence (Activity: Doing), a value that again, correlates with HR involvement. This could be explained by the fact that jobs are viewed as being critical not only to the individual's well being but also for the well being of kith and kin. Furthermore, there is a stigma attached to the unemployed, as they can not contribute to their extended family financially. Relation to nature mastery also demonstrated a significant zero-order correlation with human resource involvement or participation, which is a reflection of their high scores on activity thinking and activity doing. A mastery oriented people, such as those studied in this sample, would prefer to be involved in issues that affect them as they may not believe in external forces acting for them. Furthermore, their involvement could lead to management making more informed decisions especially those that are task related. Results from the analysis of actual organisation HRM policy practice (see Chapter Six Section 6.3 and Appendix 5.0) indicate that those companies whose objective is to attract individuals with the knowledge, ability and talents demanded by specific organisational tasks involve their employees in organisational decision processes.

### **7.2.2 Reward Predictability**

Three value orientations had a significant relationship to preference for predictability of rewards both at the zero-order level and in the multiple regression analysis, namely: activity: doing; relational: hierarchical; and relational: individual. The intrinsic-extrinsic dichotomy of rewards popularised by Herzberg's (1966) two-factor theory, is



completely at variance with the fact that, in developing societies, economic and social security is considered more salient in life than are freedom and control at the workplace (Kanungo, 1979). Consequently, predictable extrinsic rewards, that offer an employee both economic and social security are more preferred in this society. In a society like Kenya, a kind of individualism is evident whereby the one who is employed is seen as the cream of a group/family and he/she should be the one to provide such economic and social security. This calls for improvement of the individual in order to meet such obligations. If one is looked upon as the sole provider, there is no doubt that one would prefer predictable rewards as this individual might not look to anyone for provision yet he/she is expected to provide for kith and kin. When rewards are predictable, they assure such an employee some form of economic security for himself and those who depend on him/her. Trompenaars (1993) points out that in some societies individualism and collectivism are complementary, whereby, the collectivist culture sees the group as its end and improvements to individual capacities as a means to that end. Again, as pointed out earlier, Sinha and Tripathi (1994) argue that it is possible to find both collectivist and individualistic cultures depending on context, a result reported in this sample. Lane, DiStefano and Maznevski (1997) indicate that among the characteristics of hierarchical societies is the definition of relationships as group oriented, which might explain this value's association with predictable rewards. Predictable rewards and incentives are preferred in this sample as they can assure the employee of a future, given the obligations in a collective society like Kenya, where responsibility to kith and kin are real. Group rewards are not preferred, as it may not be easy to predict when group effort is going to bear fruit. Individually one is able to set targets and exert enough personal effort to meet them. People who are high on activity doing have their focus on work, they do not spend time in unnecessary leisure and would like to be sure of the benefits that accrue from hard work, especially given the uncertain environment in developing countries.

### **7.2.3 Empowerment**

Relational hierarchical was negatively related to policies that depicted human resource empowerment. Empowerment, conceptualised as the process that leads people to discover new competencies, to create new competencies and to find new ways to apply these competencies across the entire range of tasks and processes associated with



company's enterprise (Kinlaw, 1995), would not work in organisations that are hierarchically structured. Empowerment needs organisation restructuring or downsizing, which cuts costs and removes hierarchical bottlenecks. According to Kinlaw (1995) the traditional behaviours of directing and overseeing associated with hierarchies are less appropriate and less frequent within the context of an empowered workforce. In addition, there was a significant negative zero-order correlation with human nature good or evil and relation to nature subjugation. Given earlier results showing a preference for empowerment, the negative association indicates that the sample resents centralised arrangements to some extent, especially if those in authority manage by fear. Most managers in African countries may be using bureaucratic and autocratic management styles that encourage the use of fear to intimidate workers to perform (see for example, Blunt, 1980). Such management styles are not conducive for employees who prefer empowerment HRM policy practices. In such circumstances employees prefer to be empowered probably to help reduce the fear created by those in authority. Therefore, this negative association with empowerment may be a reflection of employees' quest for reduced status and power differences. The negative association between human nature good or evil at the zero-order level shows that employees believe that some superiors are not honest, hence the quest for empowerment. Moreover, the negative significant relationship between relation to nature subjugation and HR empowerment at the zero-order level indicates that Kenyans' non-dependency on the supernatural or some other external force leads them to seek empowerment to enable them to change situations that affect them. One feature of people in need of empowerment is thinking analytically and rationally in problem solving situations (Kinlaw, 1995: 43). This is a characteristic of people high in activity thinking, a value orientation that was demonstrated by this sample.

There is a tendency towards the mid-point in the relational hierarchical sub-category and human nature good or evil. The results show that hierarchical relations are accepted but not appreciated totally. The main reason would be that many in authority have mis-used those positions mostly by staffing the organisation with relatives, people from the same ethnic group or those who are politically expedient, to the extent that those who don't have such an opportunity tend to resent those in authority. Kamoche (1992) notes that ethnicity in the workplace might manifest itself in various forms including; straight favouritism in recruitment and promotion, or in the search for ethnic homogeneity as



observed by Blunt (1980). Further, this being a collective society, practices of favouritism are on ethnic and kinship lines, which one indulges in as a way of discharging obligation to kith and kin. It was apparent from this study that some organisations employed a very high proportion of particular ethnic groups, especially if the top managers belonged to a specific ethnic group or the organisation was located in an area inhabited by a particular ethnic group. This could point to why the present generation of Kenyans in this sample wants to be empowered to question some practices without fear of intimidation. One condition according to Kinlaw (1995) for exerting influence is to have the freedom to challenge the value, accuracy and usefulness of everything.

There is agreement that most people are either good or evil. The reason we can attribute the negative relationship between this value orientation and empowerment is that since not all people are good, bad managers can misuse their authority for selfish ends. Employees prefer to participate in the job evaluation process, as managers alone can use the exercise to intimidate some employees by overloading them with unnecessary work or even putting their very employability at risk. Empowerment would require that managers involve people most directly involved in every work process with the continuous improvement of those processes. A look at some of the items loading on the empowerment factor shows for example, that tall organisation structures are not preferred because the higher the structure the more likely you are to meet evil (manipulative) managers who are able to pass blame to others. Furthermore, managers can use the tall structure to frustrate subordinates, as they can become very bureaucratic when one wants a decision taken quickly. Rewards considering qualifications and skills are more quantifiable hence not easily abused by evil minded superiors. These could be the reasons for non-significant relationship between HR empowerment and human nature good or evil, when relational hierarchical is controlled in multiple regression analysis.

#### **7.2.4 Performance related HRM**

The only factor which came out as 'values-free' is preference for performance related HRM practices. Overall, there is individual variation among respondents on this preference. Consequently, I can not claim to give a full explanation of why some HRM

policies and practices are and others are not culture specific, other than via a linkage to demographic and internal labour market factors or accepted best practice. This is because some demographic variables (see Chapter Five Section 5.7) indicated significant differences among some HRM preferences. Again, actual practice indicated that in spite of variations in HRM strategies of organisations, they all seemed to favour performance based HRM practices.

### **7.2.5 Lessons from the analysis of the values-HRM preference link**

These findings answer my second research question, i.e. which cultural value orientations influence HRM policy and practice and to what extent. I have been able to empirically support the aphorism in the international management literature that ‘some practices are culture specific while others are culture common’. This last point is slightly problematic, given the association observed with ethnic group. However, three of the four HR factors each have a clear cultural values root. HR involvement preferences are related to activity thinking values. Predictability of rewards is related to high activity doing values. Empowerment HR is related to low relationships hierarchical values. However, one of the factors - preferences for performance versus loyalty based HRM - was intriguingly a values-free judgement by individuals.

Ethnic factors however, play a role here. The issue of ethnicity is often ignored in the field of comparative and international HRM: It was membership of certain ethnic groups that was associated with the desire for more loyalty-based HRM systems (see Table 5.9) – presumably because in such situations the elite of the organisation also reflects the same ethnic membership and so loyalty is seen to be a relevant performance criterion. Ethnicity outweighs the set of generic cultural values examined in this study when questions about the philosophical focus of the HRM system (and its judgement about the basis of performance – i.e. individual competence or loyalty) come into play. However, I would stress that this interaction between ethnicity and cultural values as an explanation of HRM in a developing country context is a finding that should inform the design of future studies carried out in this area and is discussed, again later in the chapter.



It was pointed out that the field of international and comparative HRM is relatively new (e.g., Frenkel, 1995). The issue of ethnicity is one aspect of cross-cultural research that is perhaps very important despite the fact that it is a neglected aspect of an organisation environment. As already noted elsewhere, in Kenya, ethnicity in the workplace manifests itself in various forms including straight favouritism in recruitment and promotion (Kamoche, 1992). Blunt (1980) also observed that organisations in this country use ethnicity to create homogeneity in the workplace. This might be explained by the fact that people fit well when surrounded by those with similar values (Schneider, 1987). It is possible that some form of ownership is created when the same ethnic group works for an organisation. It creates coherence and solidarity due to the simple fact that those concerned have common origins. As will be seen in the next section, to some extent fit between individual values and organisation values (others' values) reinforces high job involvement. Bhopal (1999) argues that ethnicity is a potentially important constraining and enabling factor in the management of subsidiaries in Malaysia. Furthermore, when well used, ethnicity might be a resource to multinational corporations operating in Malaysia. It is possible that variations in HRM preferences due to ethnic group reported in this study may be beneficial to an organisation. For example, employing homogeneous ethnic groups may create loyalty and performance. Results indicate that some ethnic groups prefer more involvement and empowerment HRM practices. If such practices were the strategies of an organisation, it would be beneficial to employ people from particular ethnic groups that have strong preference for such practices and vice versa. Some small firms in Kenya prefer employing people from particular ethnic groups that do not question the power and authority of employers. Most small and medium firms practice management paternalism, a style that is largely authoritarian and normally associated with a social system that gives employees a low status while demanding unquestioning personal allegiance to the employer or manager (Akinnusi, 1991). Such firms might benefit from employing people with subjugation and or hierarchical value orientations. People with high preference for empowerment and involvement HRM policies and practices might not fit well. However, ethnicity is a sensitive issue and there is not enough evidence of the use of ethnicity as a strategy of management to be sure of its role. However, we should not ignore its implications. It was apparent from this study that some respondents did not indicate their ethnic affiliation and right now most leaders in Kenya are 'demonising' ethnicity (popularly



known as tribalism) while effectively manipulating it for their own ends (Adar, 1998). It is important that future cross-cultural studies include this aspect of an organisation's environment in order to enable conclusive evidence of the implications of ethnicity in HRM policy and practice.

There is evidence that some demographic variables also indicated significant differences between groups. Some comments are made about the role of education, occupation, ethnicity and organisational affiliation. Results (see Table 5.7.1 in Chapter Five) show that those that have spent more years in education prefer to be involved or participate in decisions that affect them compared to those who have spent fewer years in education. This result is reinforced because again, those who have spent more years in education indicate preference for empowerment compared to those who have spent fewer years. These results may point to the fact that people who spend more years in education acquire a sense of democratic practice and when they join organisations they feel that these values should be part of the organisation's practices. Furthermore, they might believe that they are competent to contribute informed ideas to management. Another reason could be that those who have spent longer time in education might have acquired their higher degrees from foreign institutions abroad where systems of education might encourage participation as a virtue to be cherished in the work organisation.

Occupation also accounted for some significant differences. There were differences between supervisors and salespeople with regard to performance related HRM practices. Results show that supervisors prefer performance related HRM practices while sales personnel prefer more loyalty related HRM practices. Perhaps this is because sales people have already been placed under intense pressure to perform well and even their pay has been pegged to levels of performance. This might have made them dislike performance related pay as at times it can be impossible to sell particular products that are no longer popular in the market or where there is severe competition. On the other hand, supervisors prefer performance related HRM practices because it is easier for a supervisor to demand high performance from employees in harsh labour market conditions so that the supervisor can reap the benefits. The role of occupation in explaining the findings is not a strong one but it serves to illustrate that HRM preferences do not just follow culture-specific patterns. Common occupational patterns may still be evidenced beneath the mask of culture.



As discussed earlier, ethnicity plays a role in value and preference formation. Gaining a sense of the relative level of variables has been an important part of this study. For example ethnicity is not strongly reflected in the cultural value orientations of Kenyans, but is reflected in their HR preferences. ANOVA results support this observation in so far as there are differences between groups with regard to HRM preferences (see Table 5.7.3 in Chapter Five). Of the four HRM preferences only preference for performance related HRM practices showed no significant differences between ethnic groups. For HR involvement/participation the Akamba score lowest compared to the Kalenjin, Kikuyu and the Luo who score highest for preference for this HRM policy practice. It was also observed that for predictability of HRM rewards the Kisii score lowest compared to all other ethnic groups and are significantly different from the Kikuyu and the Luyha. Ethnic group 8 (Other) which may have on average majority Europeans are significantly different from the Luhya and show that they score lower for preference for predictability of rewards. The Kikuyu score highest preference for HR empowerment and are significantly different from the Luo while the rest of the groups show no significant differences between them. There is no simple explanation for this result as several variables might be at play. This finding that ethnicity bears influence at the level of preference may require further studies and analysis to reveal the exact nature of these differences. However, at this stage the possible explanation may be related to the uniqueness of each ethnic group, exposure of individuals within ethnic groups and for some, allegiance to top management of particular organisations who might belong to the same ethnic group. Also differences in economic and social circumstances of individuals within ethnic groups may offer some explanations.

Similarly, by considering the role of organisational affiliation, I have been able to examine the interplay between individual culture, and patterns of values and preferences at the organisational culture and climate level. Organisational affiliation indicated significant differences in all the four HRM preferences. Members in company 8 indicated significant differences across companies for all the HRM preferences. These differences may be related to organisation culture and climate. For HR involvement, company 8 scored lowest compared to all other companies. This indicates that while the company encourages employee involvement/participation (see Table 6.3 in Chapter Six or Appendix 5.0 Section 6.8), the employees do not prefer such a policy. This company is located in the Coast province a region inhabited mainly by the Swahili (people with



Arab origins). This may shed some light on this result as values may be playing a role. As is the case in Kenya where several ethnic groups reside, organisations located in an area where a particular ethnic group is the majority; there is a tendency to employ people from that group for various reasons. For example, the company has a social responsibility to economically empower such a community or to create a sense of belonging by offering them employment. Consequently, that ethnic group's values might be reflected in the organisation. For example, if majority Swahili people are high in power distance, HRM policies that require involvement/participation will not be appreciated (Kanungo & Jaeger, 1990). Again, this may be traced to lack of ability to effectively perform the duties that result from involvement/participation. When environmental demands (job) do not match personal abilities there is a likelihood of increased stress (French, Caplan, & Harrison, 1982).

Predictability of rewards also indicates that company 8 is significantly different from the rest of the sample. On average this company scores lower than the other companies. Again, the organisation's actual policy is to provide predictable rewards but the question of why employees don't prefer them is a complex result that is not readily interpretable with current data. Company 6 members also indicated significant differences with members of companies 2, 4 and 8. This result might be explained from the ownership structure and management style. The company is owned by the State while company 2 is private, company 4 is a joint venture and company 8 is a public limited company. Perhaps not surprisingly employees in the State Company score highly toward preference for predictable rewards. As already explained in Chapter One Part Five, also in Appendix 5.0 Section 6.6, State companies are faced with uncertainty as many are mismanaged and most are under receivership or closed down. Arguably, then, employees in this company are reflecting their desire for predictable futures because of what they have seen befalling their colleagues. It was clear from the actual policy that this company does not bother to provide predictable HRM rewards. From experience then, employees have tended to value predictable rewards. The other companies that are significantly different from this one tend to practice predictable rewards and are more stable.

For performance related vs. loyalty related HRM Practices Company 8 seems to be neutral. This may be explained by the fact that this company encourages employees to



be partners by buying company shares, which then builds a sense of ownership in these employees. This makes employees prefer compensation for work done but at the same time be loyal to the company as they are shareholders. Preference for empowerment indicates that company 3 employees' score higher than the rest. Company 3 is a joint venture engineering company that requires highly skilled employees with rare skills. It is possible that these are well-educated employees. It was shown that there is an association between empowerment and time spent in education (see Table 5.7.1). This company's employees also indicated that they prefer involvement/participation HRM practices (see Table 5.7.4).

HR involvement/participation indicated significant differences in relation to age of respondents. Those aged between 26 and 30 were different from those aged 25 years and below. It is possible that this latter group of employees is young and has just joined the organisation. They still feel the need for involvement/participation which is part of their psychological contract, while those who have spent some time in the organisation have understood the company culture and accepted the prevalent values, while they shop around for new openings.

Finally, experience (number of years spent in the same job) reported significant differences for predictable rewards between those who have more than 21 years and those who have less than five years service. It is more than likely that those who have spent 21 to 25 years are in no hurry to change organisations and are spending their last years before retirement hence, in need of more predictability in rewards for an assured future. Whereas, those who have joined the organisation have not yet made full commitment to their present jobs hence, predictable rewards might really not matter. This group of employees could still be in the process of developing their careers giving them a feeling that they still have a chance of an assured future elsewhere.

Although I have just outlined a number of differences caused by demographic factors, it should be remembered that these are peripheral factors. On average in spite of these variations, overall tendencies in preferences are discernible from the sample under study and cultural values have a more significant impact than does education, service and organisational affiliation.

### **7.3 HRM AND CULTURAL FIT'S IMPACT ON JOB INVOLVEMENT**

The final task of this study was to investigate the employee HRM policy preferences-actual organisation HRM policy practice fit and to consider whether such fit (if any) is related to job involvement. Broadly, two questions needed answers from the investigations carried out in this part of the study. These were:

- 1) Is job involvement related to fit between HRM preferences and policies in Kenya?
- 2) Is job involvement related to fit between an individual's cultural values and values of others in the organisation in Kenya? In addition, a related question was,
- 3) Which, if any, individual values are related to job involvement in a Kenyan environment?

#### **7.3.1 Relationship between Preference-Policy Practice Fit and Job Involvement**

Overall, the results of this study indicate that a person-organisation (HRM policy preference with actual practice) fit model can partially predict job involvement in a developing country context, for this case Kenya. However, even where fit exists it does not have the impact that theory would suggest. The findings show that job involvement is partially a function of the fit between HRM preferences and actual organisation practice. This is because person-organisation fit could only explain two out of the four HRM preferences that were analysed. These preferences are: preference for performance related HRM practice and preference for HR empowerment (accounting for a variance of between 1-3%). However, the low variance explained does not necessary negate the significance of the findings, especially since higher order terms in multiple regression are constrained in terms of variance they can explain (cf. Wall, Jackson, Mullarkey, & Parker, 1996). Nonetheless, it does indicate that individual cultural value orientations are more important in job involvement than fit with HR policy and practice.

Western theories of organisational behaviour suggest that performance is a consequence of a set of three factors:



- (a) the employee's attributes such as his/her aptitudes and abilities, training, experience and psychological make up;
- (b) his/her inclination or motivation to expend the necessary effort to perform; and
- (c) the organisational support system, which includes the physical and social environment in the work place, technology and administrative policies and practices (Kanungo & Mendonca, 1994: 29).

Kanungo and Mendonca sum up these factors as dispositional *capacity*; *willingness* and *opportunity* to perform. To some extent this study has tapped willingness (preferences) and opportunities (actual practice). Assuming that the employees have the capacity and the willingness to perform they would be expected to prefer performance-related rewards that may induce high performance in the future. Employees rewarded for their performance are more likely to be job involved which is a necessary attitude for high performance. However, the surface (Figure 6.2) indicates that some individuals do not actually prefer performance-related rewards, but are still job involved. The distinction between willingness and opportunity does not apply to these Kenyan employees. Therefore, these employees will get involved if the systems only reward performance. Preference is irrelevant.

Preference for HR empowerment showed a negative effect for actual organisation policy and job involvement at all the steps of analysis. This implies that low empowerment is related to high involvement. Perhaps this is because empowerment is merely theoretical in Kenya, as empowering employees may mean losing some of the power through for example, minimising layers of management (restructuring). Many organisations in developing countries, and for this case Kenya, practice authoritarian and bureaucratic work relations (Blunt, 1980). Such practices are less democratic making employees experience powerlessness. Furthermore, according to Kinlaw (1995) such management styles are impediments to the process of empowerment. Kanungo (1982) points out that employees develop a sense of powerlessness when job or organisational conditions cause them to believe that their salient needs are not likely to be satisfied so long as these conditions persist. For example, in order to ensure that employees perceive a reward system to be salient, valued and contingent, they need to be involved in its

design and implementation, particularly in the techniques and processes that can affect the fairness or equity of the system (Mendonca & Kanungo, 1994: 62). However, it is important to recognise that individuals differ in respect of their salient needs, which implies that not all individuals develop a belief of powerlessness from the same set of organisational conditions. This was apparent in this study as some individuals show high job involvement, despite the fact that empowerment reduced involvement.

Some theorists in industrial and organisational behaviour tend to look at empowerment as a relational construct (e.g., Blau, 1964; Homans, 1974). The relational construct postulates that subordinates are more likely to feel powerless because the success of their job efforts to achieve desired results depends on their managers, as they have the requisite power and resources. This means that empowerment is only present when managers decentralise some of their power to subordinates for making decisions (Burke, 1986; Kinlaw, 1995). Elsewhere, one of the meanings attached to empowerment is self-determination or a belief of personal self-efficacy as one tries to cope with the demands of his or her environment (Deci, 1975; Bandura, 1986). However, the results indicate that when there is a match between preference for HR empowerment and the opportunity (practice) is there for those who want it, job involvement remains low. When empowerment is given to those who don't want it, either it reduces involvement or it does not make any difference. In this case the use of empowerment to induce involvement has to be carefully administered because people's salient needs differ or they are not competent enough to cope with extra responsibilities that may accompany empowerment. As Kinlaw, (1995: 59) points out 'empowerment is a process for improving organisations by developing and deploying competent influence. The goal of empowerment is to bring the best mental resources to bear upon each aspect of the organisation's performance'. Kinlaw asserts that competent influence has three related elements whereby being capable is one of them. My results show that factors other than the match between preference and actual HRM policy practice are responsible for job involvement for this sample, as only 9% of variance is explained by these associations. Additional studies are needed to determine whether this finding is consistent in other developing country samples.



### **7.3.2 Relationship between Person-Culture Fit and Job Involvement**

In the theoretical framework chapter, I argued that job involvement might result from a high or low position on each cultural value. I also argued that once an individual is hired, he or she comes into the organisation with pre-existing values, which influence behaviour. These values even shape expectations about life in the organisation and on the job (Wanous, 1977). Several behavioural scientists have reported that individual differences in job involvement are influenced by orientations toward work learned early in a person's socialisation process (Lodahl, 1964; Siegel, 1969; Hulin & Blood, 1968, Wanous, 1974; Rabinowitz, et al., 1977; Kanungo, 1982). The organisations that these individuals join also have ways of doing things, their organisational culture. We might then expect strong pressure to adapt one's own value orientations to others in the organisation in order to conform to organisational norms hence, maintain one's employability, especially given harsh employment conditions in a Kenyan context. One method that management uses to impart their organisation's values is socialisation, which might take the form of explicit induction programmes and activities or rewards and punishment systems, or through existing employees (Harrison & Carroll, 1991). Organisational socialisation is defined by some writers as the process by which an individual comes to understand the values, abilities, expected behaviours, and social knowledge that are essential for assuming an organisational role and participating as an organisational member (Louis, 1980). Research has shown that group and peer pressure effects play a role in socialising new recruits (e.g., O'Reilly & Caldwell, 1979). The desire to 'fit' with others is a powerful social pressure (Asch, 1951), which may stem partly from a desire to be liked (Insko, 1985). As people are attracted to those similar to themselves (Brewer, 1979; Moreland, 1985), working in organisations where others' values are similar to one's own may help fulfil this need to be liked and also contribute to a feeling of attraction and attachment to the organisation.

Brown (1996) asserted that job involvement has only been considered as an individual phenomenon and suggested that researchers explore whether it can be contiguous under the right circumstances. This study has to some extent shown that given the right circumstances job involvement can be contiguous if for example, those in the organisation hold values that enhance levels of job involvement. Chatman (1991) points out that past research has indicated that occupational socialisation affects individual



values, implying that organisational socialisation may similarly influence individual values. Further, the more organisations attempt to influence their members, the more similar members' values become to those of the organisations. So, if an individual joins an organisation with people socialised into particular values for example, those of harmony or ascription, then it is reasonable to expect that in the normal course of interaction and work with these persons, that the individual will become more socialised toward those values. Therefore, this aspect of fit is likely to foster job involvement, related attitudes and behaviours. What actually appears to be the case? The cultural value results suggest that they are likely to facilitate or hinder job involvement for this sample.

The variance explained by the linear effects of individual cultural value orientations together is 19% of the variance in job involvement. This is of similar order to the proportion of variance in commitment explained by cultural values in a recent study of Taiwanese employees (Sparrow & Wu, 1998). Value orientation is clearly important. However, only two value orientations indicated a fit solution. These are relation to nature harmony and relation to nature subjugation. The other five cultural values reported linear or curvilinear shapes in some cases in association with job involvement. However, when analysed together only activity doing, relational hierarchical and relation to nature subjugation remained significant, although activity thinking and relation to nature harmony had curvilinear relationship with job involvement. Activity: doing is characterised by people who in their daily living concentrate on striving for goals and keeping busy. They value work and are preoccupied with it. Work related concerns pervade their lives. Such people may then show high job involvement, as work is a means to achieving goals. The relationship between job involvement and activity: doing might be consistent across cultures. However, job involvement's relationships with relationships: hierarchical and relation to nature: subjugation might be especially strong in the Kenyan context. Those with a hierarchical orientation value strong vertical and horizontal demarcation of influence patterns. Subjugated individuals believe that they are not in control of their environment. Such hierarchical and subjugated views might be especially suited to the Kenyan context, where hierarchical and paternalistic authority structures pervade most social institutions (Akinnusi, 1991; Blunt, 1980): Paternalism makes managers or employers demand unquestioning



allegiance from employees and complete subservience to their will and judgement (Akinnusi, 1991).

Relation to nature harmony and relation to nature subjugation seem to be related. In this Kenyan sample, individuals high in harmony values are job involved. They tend to maintain a balance with their organisational environment and tend to be peaceful, not ready to destabilise the *status quo*. They believe that everything including their job has a purpose of which they are a part, disposing them to high job involvement. To the same degree subjugated individuals believe that they are not in control of their environment. They believe that a job is a duty given by the one mighty or supernatural being and their duty is to unquestioningly try to fulfil the 'will' of the supernatural. For the case of developing countries this could even be a reflection of how senior managers treat their employees, because power and resources are in their control. Kamoche (1992) reported that Kenyan managers, especially the old ones like to be called 'boss' as an expression of awe and respect. There is a sense of a 'them' and 'us' demarcation that brings about a dependency attitude. This can make employees believe that their future depends on high authorities in the organisation. Furthermore, environments in many developing countries are unstable and unpredictable due to harsh economic and political circumstances. Levels of unemployment are high and many organisations are closing down due to lack of market and cut throat competition after liberalisation. Many State companies have declared employees redundant due to privatisation and even the civil service (which has been cushioning unemployment) is in the process of being trimmed down as required by major donors. Such contextual factors could explain the relationship between job involvement and subjugation value orientation. Under such situations one cannot afford to be fired because of poor performance resulting from low job involvement.

Whilst this may explain the relationship at the individual level, it does not explain how others' cultural values may affect individual values in relation to levels of job involvement. In high relationship to nature climates, socialisation may override individual values. As noted earlier organisational socialisation is the process, by which an individual comes to understand the values, abilities expected behaviours, and social knowledge that are essential for assuming an organisational role and participating as an organisational member. Furthermore, the desire to 'fit' with others is a powerful social



pressure. It is then possible that when an individual is surrounded by people who believe that they should harmonise (holding relation to nature: harmony values) with their environment may be an especially powerful form of expectation to exhibit high job involvement (see Figure 6.6 in Chapter Six). It was also noted that, subjugated individuals in this environment might come to believe high job involvement is expected of them by organisations and they must fulfil their expectations. Subjugation to nature value orientations exhibited an asymmetrical effect whereby high subjugation climates are much more strongly related to high job involvement than individual subjugation values (see Figure 6.7 also in Chapter Six). As Kenyan managers might reinforce their power over employees through their actions (Kamoche, 1992), the more powerful effect of a climate of subjugation than individual values may reflect relative power of individual groups. It is clearly easier to act against a manager's wishes if one is acting in concert with others. On the other hand, where an individual is acting alone, it is more difficult to resist the power of managers, and exhibiting the same behaviours and attitudes as others might be the only course of action open.

It is apparent that the role of organisational culture manifests itself in the concept of fit in this study. My sample comprised of organisations varying in ownership structure from multinationals to state owned (see Chapter Five Table 5.0). These organisations dealt in different products and may have been faced with different circumstances at the time of this study. Despite these differences, cultural values' influence was evident in general across the sample. There is evidence that some HRM practice preferences such as HR involvement/participation, predictability of rewards, and HR empowerment were value linked whereas, performance vs. loyalty HRM practices were value free in spite of the fact that ethnicity played a role. Values also did vary across organisations pointing to the role of organisation culture. For example, activity thinking value orientation is significantly different between employees of different organisations. Human nature good-evil value orientation also varies across organisations (for details refer to Chapter Five Table 5.5.5). These variations imply that organisation culture, which is different between organisations, might influence individual value orientations. Therefore, another way that organisational culture manifests itself in this study is through values espoused by employees (Schneider, 1987).



Organisations select people they think possess values that are compatible with the existing organisation culture (Chatman, 1991). Further, socialisation processes ensure that newcomers fit into the organisation and behave in ways acceptable to the organisation (Louis, 1980) (for detailed evaluation see Chapter Three Section 3.9 and for detailed analysis see Chapter Six Section 6.5).

#### **7.4 SUMMARY AND KEY MESSAGES**

Before the final conclusions from this study are presented, some key contributions that it has made are summarised (details of key contributions and implications are presented in the next chapter). Empirical evidence to date from the field of Comparative HRM (CHRM) has focused largely only on the factors predictive of CHRM practices. Most have attributed these practices to technological and environmental variables (e.g., Cohen & Pfeffer, 1986; Shaw et al., 1993; Brewster & Larsen, 1992; Fisher & Shaw, 1992; Hendry & Pettigrew, 1992; Budhwar & Sparrow, 1997). Researchers have argued that whilst these contingencies exist national HRM practices are also determined by cultural variables because management techniques are ‘socially reconstructed’ in each society (see for example Brewster, 1995; Budhwar & Sparrow, 1998; Easterby-Smith et al., 1995; Hofstede, 1993; Laurent, 1993; Schneider, 1993). These researchers have seen in ‘culture’ a main source of resistance in transferring HRM techniques to other countries and recommended that it is crucial for the growth and development of CHRM. However, there are methodological issues raised in this area of cross-national or cross-cultural research as already indicated in earlier chapters and summarised here.

- HRM as a discipline has traditionally lacked contextual embeddedness. This feature has rendered HRM conceptually incapable of addressing international issues in general (Adler et al., 1995).
- Most studies have focused on values or groups of values that are prevalent in one or a number of cultural settings, which is an important contribution. However, there is a need in theory development to examine values in terms of their centrality and importance within the relevant cultural setting (Lanchman, Nedd, & Hinnings, 1991).

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- Cross-cultural research on values has often been aggregated at a national or societal level. The most widely used scales developed by Hofstede (1980) have shown considerable methodological limitations in the literature. Most measures do not take into account the dynamism inherent in cultural values and do not reveal the totality of relevant cultural value dimensions.
  - Research has also not addressed the issue of populations under study. Most make use of convenience samples such as students, captive groups of managers on education courses selected by MNCs, or employees from single organisations within a country (e.g., McGaughey, 1994).
  - ‘Cultural differences’ have been used as a ‘background information factor’ to explain differences/similarities in management systems or work behaviours across countries (see for example Brewster & Hegewisch, 1994; Peiper, 1990). However, culture has been used to explain some unexpected or unexplainable issues within studies.
  - ‘Country of origin’ has been used as a proxy measure of ‘culture’ in comparative studies in predicting cultures influence on HRM between local and foreign firms. However, without closely examining cultural values, studies have reported results that position culture as a residual factor whose impact is minimal in determining HRM systems.
  - Previous research has sought after a reflection of culture in HRM using an item by item basis without checking whether various items might group or cluster together because of some similarity in responses. Similar values may engender people to particular HRM preferences.
  - Some previous research has only examined ‘macro’ level HRM leaving out ‘Micro’ level HRM hence, concluding that HRM is culture-free. Some scholars have suggested a marriage between the two levels of analysis and even links to other disciplines (see for example, Negandhi, 1975b). In essence, studies should include both levels for appropriate inferences to be drawn.



The present study was an attempt to overcome these shortcomings by among other things: first, recognising the vital role of culture among the contextual variables influencing HRM preferences. The study used measures of individual value orientations as a proxy for national culture. Culture was not treated as a residual explanatory variable, but instead was analysed to see how it exerts a significant influence on management and employee behaviour in Kenyan organisations. Underlying patterns of African culture value orientations were examined as well as the extent to which they explain employee work preferences. The study determined how much variance in individual preference for HR system design was attributed to the influence of value orientations and examined which values influenced which work-related preferences in Kenya. The study managed to disentangle the separate constructs that have been brought together under the work-related preference approach to national culture, and revealed values' separate impact on important HRM-related behaviours. I used cultural value items that tap a wider domain of life based on the conceptualisation of value orientations by Kluckhohn and Strodtbeck, (1961). The study took a more representative sample of multinational companies and other firms with a wider, more representative sampling frame. By using Principal Components Analysis with oblique rotation various HRM items that reflected the same domain grouped together and were analysed as factors reflecting a cultural interpretation.

The study examined the linkage between the fit of employee HRM policy preferences and actual organisation HRM policy practice. Preferences were operationalised as the person component while actual policy was operationalised as the organisation component of P-O fit in the HRM fit. Further, individual cultural value orientations were operationalised as the person component and cultural values of the others in the organisation as the organisation component in the cultural fit. However, it was made clear that previous research has continued to use questionable methods that are also briefly recapped here.

Elsewhere it was shown that difference scores have been the main technique of analysis (e.g., Gresov, 1989; Vancouver & Schmitt, 1991). However, the reliability and validity of difference scores has been questioned (Cronbach, 1958; Johns, 1981; Edwards & Cooper, 1990; Edwards, 1993). Edwards (1993, 1994) criticises the method for the conceptual ambiguity that results from concealing the individual contribution of each



element to the overall score. Difference scores discard information about the absolute level of the person and the environment (organisation) variable and the direction of the difference with “symmetric” indices. Restrictive constraints are also placed on the sign and the size of the coefficients when reducing person and organisation measures into a single index. Edwards (1994) suggests polynomial regression as an alternative method for measuring fit. Polynomial regression is seen as a better alternative to difference scores because it is based on the assumption that the relationship (i.e. person and organisation) between two entities and an outcome and the analysis should be considered along a three-dimensional response surface. This method addresses some of the problems inherent in difference scores. As already demonstrated in this study, analysis across a three-dimensional surface also enables identification of a range of conceptually different theoretical relationships in terms of fit and the outcome of job involvement.

## **7.5 CONCLUSION**

This chapter has enabled interpretation and discussion of the results outlined in Chapter Five and Six and the thesis in general. In addition to the brief discussions that followed each of the two chapters, it is clear from this chapter that cultural value orientations are in transition albeit though there is some resistance for some values that featured in traditional Africa. The results have also shown that cultural value orientations are not clear cut, as there are some values that are co-existing (e.g., collectivism, individualism, harmony, mastery, good and evil). Some values that were seen as a characteristic of people from developing countries (like subjugation) are no longer dominant whereas, those associated with people from developed economies (like doing, thinking and even mastery) were exhibited by this sample.

It was also apparent that HRM is not an exogenous phenomenon as preferences reflected a cultural interpretation. Three of the four HRM preferences (HR involvement or participation, predictability of HR rewards, and HR empowerment) showed significant associations to cultural values. However, performance vs. loyalty related HRM practices came out as values free. Although cultural values reflected significant relationships to HRM preferences at the individual level, it was noted that other contextual variables played a role as is clear throughout the discussion. For example, organisations also showed variations in the HRM strategies they adopt in practice



despite the fact that there was some similarity across the sample. Profit oriented companies that depend on highly qualified personnel indicated that they practice policies that involve and empower employees. Their objective is to retain the most valued and productive employees so, they practice both performance and loyalty based HRM. They tend to provide rewards that are predictable assuring employees of economic and social security. On the other hand, some private local firms follow a mixed form of HRM. Some try to involve their knowledgeable employees, they prefer performance related HRM while some indicated that they practice loyalty based HRM. Empowerment is not in the agenda of most local companies but those that are profit oriented and in competitive businesses are moving towards empowering employees. The only fully government owned firm in the study indicated that state organisations do not bother with involvement, predictable rewards nor performance. Many State owned corporations are performing poorly and most are now under receivership. Empowerment is not an issue as theirs is a bureaucratic and autocratic system of management with hierarchical relations running up to the highest office in the land. It was also evident that most employees in government owned firms are believers in ascription, especially due to the uncertain environment that has surrounded these types of organisations in recent years.

Finally, the results have shown that HRM and cultural fit is important in impacting job involvement in a developing country context, but only partially. Cultural values on their own play a role in inhibiting or increasing levels of job involvement. This support other social researchers' findings that job involvement can be a product of earlier socialisation and can differ cross-culturally from country to country. The study confirmed what earlier studies have reported, that demographic variables are very weak predictors of job involvement. It is not possible to identify job involved individuals from their demographic variables. Not even ethnic affiliation showed a significant relationship with job involvement. It was surprising to observe that for this sample organisation affiliation has nothing to do with levels of job involvement. Perhaps, organisations only assist in matching employee preferences and abilities with actual practices that influence job involvement.

In the next chapter I move to a higher level of synthesis by relating the discussion of my results and empirical conclusions to the literature as a whole. Conclusions are drawn

accordingly against the research assumptions and objectives. The final chapter then presents this study's implications for theory and practice. Finally, the discussion highlights directions for future research.



## **CHAPTER EIGHT**

### **CONCLUSION**

#### **8.0 INTRODUCTION**

This last chapter provides a conclusion to this research. I have presented several conclusions that we can draw in terms of the study's contribution to knowledge in the area of HRM in developing economies. How should our understanding of the field be changed by this study? The chapter starts with a quick summary of the research followed by key findings and implications for theory and practice by considering the results in this broader context. Finally, the chapter ends this thesis by offering directions for future research and concluding remarks with regard to the study's contributions.

#### **8.1 BRIEF SUMMARY OF THE RESEARCH**

The main purpose of the research was to establish existing cultural value orientations and the extent of their influence on HRM preferences in the Kenyan context. The study undertook analyses of value orientations at the individual level to enable a better understanding of the role of cultural values in predicting HRM preferences. Essentially, the study determined how much variance in individual preference for HR system design can be attributed to the influence of value orientations and examined which values influence which work-related preferences in Kenya. Further, the study explored the extent to which fit between HRM preferences and actual policy practice impact levels of job involvement in a developing country context. The study also focused on the fit of individual values with organisational culture, as represented by the value orientations of others in the organisation.

Chapter one introduced the study. The rationale of the study was presented pointing out the need for empirical evidence of HRM system designs from other contexts especially Sub-Saharan Africa. This is because of the present interdependence of economically developed and developing countries in an increasingly global world economy. Furthermore, a review of the literature on HRM revealed that the study of the concept and the phenomena it represents has a recent history dating back to the 1980's. More recent is the extension of the HRM concept to the international and comparative arena.

Unfortunately, many of the existing human resource management tools have been developed primarily within a context of economically developed economies, most of which have never been tested for their appropriateness for use in developing countries. The context of Kenya in which the study is conducted was provided with a brief description of the profiles of sample organisations and major ethnic groups in the country.

In the second chapter of the thesis, I described the theoretical debates that have been advanced so far in the field of HRM. The field having originated in America, researchers have concentrated on understanding how its cultural boundedness affects its universal applicability: Some researchers have seen it as a universal concept while others have seen it as being culture bound. The aphorisms 'culture free' and 'culture bound' are apparent in international and/or comparative HRM literature. I have argued that of the main contextual factors (i.e. institutions, business structures, political-legal, and national culture), national culture has taken centre stage in the debate. It is seen as the main factor that influences the design of HRM policies and practices in a particular country or region especially at the behavioural level. In this study I concentrated on this variable (national culture) at the individual level, though I do recognise the role played by the other variables.

Chapter Three presented the theoretical framework of the study. The role of culture as an explanatory variable in the other two main areas of study namely, HRM preferences and job involvement was presented. Recognising the fact that there is a dearth of empirical literature in this area, I postulated some general suggestions about the rank order of cultural values in Kenyan employees based on historical and anthropological literature of African traditional values. A number of research questions that needed to be answered by the results of this study were also presented. The possible link between the four cultural orientations (man-nature; human-nature; activity; and relational) by Kluckhohn and Strodtbeck (1961) with five HRM functions were presented. It was also argued that these cultural value orientations might influence levels of job involvement. The chapter further borrowed from the Person-Environment (P-E) fit literature and proposed that fit between individual employee HRM preferences and actual organisation HRM policy may or may not have any impact on individual levels of job involvement. Another element of the P-E (Person-Culture) fit was operationalised to examine fit



between the values of an individual and those of others in the organisation in influencing job involvement, reflecting further the importance of cultural values in the study.

The study adopted an essentially quantitative *survey/correlational* design, with some input from qualitative approaches for data collection. Chapter Four was dedicated to covering the research method. The data collection process after getting permission from the government took the following procedure: 1) gaining access and piloting the study; 2)-instrument design and refinement, and 3) data collection proper. The main instrument was the questionnaire containing three main parts: cultural perspectives, HRM policy choices, and job involvement including a section on demographics. 500 questionnaires were administered to 8 organisations and 290 were returned of which 274 were found to be useful indicating a response rate of 55%. In order to examine fit between employee responses and actual policy, the items contained in the HRM policy part of the main questionnaire were reframed and administered to senior managers or their designates. Interviews were conducted with the same managers or designate and personnel manuals examined where available to confirm the consistence of managers' responses to the quantitative instrument.

The results of this study were presented in two chapters (Five and Six). Chapter Five first examined the cultural values and HRM preference data to determine the construct validity and reliability of the measures. Principal Component Analysis (PCA) with oblique rotation was used to unearth the number of factors in cultural values and HRM preference data. Cronbach alpha was used to test for reliability. Three of the cultural value scales had alpha's less than 0.60 (activity: being, relational: collateral, human nature: changeable). These were dropped from further analysis. Rather than the conventional 0.70, I opted for a more liberal cut-off of 0.60 which is the minimum limit acceptable for research (Nunnally, 1967) and the exploratory nature of the research. Eight scales (activity: doing, activity: thinking; human nature: good-evil; relational: individual, relational: hierarchical; relation to nature: harmony, relation to nature: mastery, relation to nature: subjugation) were then retained. HRM items were also subjected to PCA with oblique rotation to determine whether they group responses. Four meaningful groups emerged reflecting four HRM factors. Cattell's scree plot was also used to examine the number of components in a measure. The four factors reported

alpha coefficients above 0.70 and were named from the most important items in a group. Factor one reflected high human resource (HR) involvement/participation; factor two, high predictability of HR rewards; factor three, performance versus loyalty HRM practices; and factor four, high HR empowerment. The data were also screened for multivariate assumptions. The chapter presented cultural values and HRM policy practice preferences held by the Kenyan sample under study. Variations in cultural value orientations and HRM preferences of Kenyans were also examined and presented. The chapter then presents these cultural values' influence on HRM preferences and the variance explained by each cultural value.

Chapter Six presented results of cultural and HRM fit on job involvement. Job involvement was assessed using a well-established measure developed by Kanungo (1982). The reliability coefficient of the job involvement scale was above the conventional 0.70 alpha level. The impact of individual cultural values on levels of job involvement at the zero order level and multiple regression level were then presented. Examining variations in job involvement of Kenyan employees followed this. The data were examined for consistencies or inconsistencies and were also examined and described after comparing the managers' quantitative data with interview responses and some secondary data from personnel manuals that were available. The descriptions of convergence or non-convergence results were presented in the appendix section (Appendix 5.0). The chapter then presented the fit results on job involvement i.e. the HRM preference-policy fit and the person-culture fit. For both chapters, a brief discussion summarising results was provided before drawing conclusions.

Chapter Seven concentrated on presenting the general discussion of the research, drawing on the results and the thesis as a whole. In the following sections I recapitulate what I see as the main findings of this study. These are followed by this study's implications for theory and practice and in particular the study's contributions to the field of international/comparative HRM, organisational behaviour, and organisational psychology. Finally, I end the thesis by suggesting directions for future research with concluding remarks on the overall contributions of the study.



## **8.2 KEY FINDINGS AND IMPLICATIONS OF THE STUDY**

I have been concerned with a number of questions throughout this research:

- 1) which cultural value orientations are held by this Kenyan sample;
- 2) which cultural value orientations influence HRM policy and practice preferences and to what extent, including the overall pattern of HRM policy and practice preferences exhibited by the Kenyan sample;
- 3) is there a relationship between cultural values and job involvement in Kenya;
- 4) is job involvement related to fit between HRM preferences and policies in Kenya;  
and
- 5) is job involvement related to fit between an individual's cultural values and those of others in the organisation in Kenya?

I examine each of the questions in turn in order to show key findings and their possible implications.

### **8.2.1 CULTURAL VALUE ORIENTATIONS OF KENYAN EMPLOYEES**

I found evidence that on average, the sample held the following cultural value orientations: activity thinking and doing values characterising Kenyans as rational and goal oriented; relationship values emphasised both collateral and individual values and also to some extent hierarchical values. In this regard Kenyans can then be characterised as more group oriented than individually oriented, but not overly concerned with hierarchy. Other dominant values are relation to nature harmony, and mastery values having features of being peaceful with the world around them, but with a preparedness to control the environment for their benefit. Kenyans see basic human nature as neither good nor bad, because there are people that are good and others who are bad.

Value orientations are central to many widely known approaches to culture (e.g., Hofstede, 1980; Schwartz, 1992, 1994). However, this study exposed some drawbacks

of previous cross-cultural studies in examining cultural values. The first concerns the measures used for research and the level of analysis. To recap, cross-cultural researchers have aggregated values at the national or societal level, using bi-polar scales developed by Hofstede (1980, 1991). However, the use of aggregated national data can be misleading when applying societal characteristics to individual behaviour. For example, Hofstede aggregated work preferences across what are in practice discrete psychological variables or levels of analysis, each of which differ in key properties such as level of stability or resistance to change over time, and linkage to, initiation of, and predictability of other behaviours. There is an apparent mix of the cultural dimensions that are largely established on the basis of aggregated attitudinal data about a series of work-related preferences. The items in the scale reflect general attitudes; some are work-value statements, some tapping into outcomes such as sources of satisfaction and commitment. Therefore, although widely used Hofstede's scales have been heavily criticised in terms of the validity and usefulness of the four dimensions at the individual level of analysis (see for example, Sondergaard, 1994). Furthermore, most psychometric approaches to the measurement of cultural values use scales that do not reveal the totality of relevant cultural value dimensions (Cray & Mallory, 1998), or tend to tap only work contexts. Therefore, I suggest that in order to understand the constraints that national cultural values might place on international management, there is a need to disentangle the separate constructs that have been brought together under the work-related preferences approach to national culture, and reveal their separate impact on important HRM-linked behaviours at the individual level.

Kluckhohn and Strodtbeck's (1961) conceptualisation of value orientations contains specific properties that are able to tap the transitional nature of values especially at the individual level. The CPQ4 which was operationalised using this conceptualisation is useful in this regard, but given that some alpha coefficients were  $< 0.70$  it still needs developing. Nevertheless, the CPQ4 desegregates values from work-preferences and can reveal their influence on significant HRM-linked behaviours. The scale has also enabled me to demonstrate that values are changing and they can coexist in the same community depending on the context. There is a transition that is taking place in Kenya similar to other societies that are changing with time (see for example Allvesson, 1993; Aycan et al., 2000; Wu, 1999; Roe & Ester, 1999). For example, values such as



individualism were evident in this sample, although Kenya generally is believed to be a group-oriented society. Further employees in this sample are not overly concerned with hierarchy in a society generally understood to exhibit high power distance. The sample also indicated that subjugation values are no longer dominant and that human nature is basically good with a certain proportion of bad/evil elements (that is evil values were shown to exist side by side with good values). However, values like collectivism have not completely given in to individualistic values, hierarchical values to low power distance nor viewing human nature as basically good to see it as basically evil. These findings then indicate change, co-existence and stability within cultural values. Previous research has ignored this fact that values are changing and have continued to demarcate societies for example as individualistic or collectivist. This change was also evident across some demographic data. Ethnicity was also seen to play a role in cultural values as the sample reported significant differences between values such as subjugation and human nature good-evil. Therefore, since Kenyan culture is in transition as a whole, it was/is problematic to use traditional aggregation approaches of culture measurement. Further, those comparative HRM studies that portray cross-national differences as a total product of static cultural differences are inappropriate. The results show that Kluckhohn and Strodtbeck's (1961) framework enables examination and interpretation of complex mindsets of cultures in transition from 'traditional' to 'modern' values by ranking them according to existing preferences. Although I gathered cross-sectional data and so cannot prove transition in the value sets of Kenyan employees by positioning the data against previous literature it is clear that new patterns of values are emerging. Given the links I have established between values and both HRM preferences and the outcome of involvement being able to position the value orientations of the workforce clearly will carry some practical benefits for organisations.

I would argue that I have produced a more valid insight into the role of national culture within the workplace. Another important issue from previous research that is questionable is the type of population under study. The existing individual difference literature under the label of 'work-related preferences' has attempted to glean relevant messages for the field of international HRM from the study of national differences based on the socio-cultural characteristics of individual employees (McGaughey, Iverson & de Cieri, 1997). However, the frequent use of convenience samples such as



students, captive groups of managers on education courses selected by MNCs or employees from single organisations within a country (e.g., McGaughey, 1994) raises questions over the validity of the resulting description of these work-related preferences. This study overcomes such shortcomings by taking a more representative sample of multinational companies and other firms with a wider, more representative sampling frame. This way, my study has reported richer and more meaningful results. I have also been able to examine the interplay between value orientations as they pattern at the national level, and differ between organisations.

### **8.2.2 VALUES' IMPACT ON HRM PREFERENCE FOR POLICY PRACTICE**

The impact of culture on HRM preferences is examined from a theoretical framework that considers cultural values as part of an input-process-output relationship (Sparrow & Wu, 1998; Nyambegera, Sparrow & Daniels, 2000). This way researchers are able to answer the question *how* culture matters instead of just addressing the earlier concerns of *whether* culture matters (e.g., Barrett & Bass, 1976). The input-process-output framework that I used as a theoretical basis for this research, has shown the complexity of organisational processes as the organisation environment has substantial effect on managerial assumptions and organisational practice (e.g., Mathur, Aycan, & Kanungo, 1996). However, an attempt was made to control for other factors in the organisation environment by the sampling design adopted (see Chapter Four).

By identifying which HRM preferences are value-free or value-linked, researchers can gain insights into both the efficiency of a local HRM process and the transferability of the process. As organisations continue to realign their co-ordinations and control systems across a global and local divide, they should learn from the understanding that studies like mine can yield. For example, findings from this study indicate that on average Kenyan employees prefer some degree of involvement and participation in some, but not all, policy matters that are likely to affect their employability. The sample also prefers HRM policies that provide some form of predictability of rewards. Regarding performance vs. loyalty HRM practices, the tendency is toward preference for performance related HRM practices compared to loyalty based practices. Human resource empowerment is also preferred in a sense that it gives employees some form of power that might counter the authoritarian and bureaucratic systems apparent in most African countries.



The pervasive value-linked nature of the HRM process was also evident. Overall, HR involvement was associated with three (activity: thinking, activity: doing, and relation to nature: mastery) out of eight cultural value orientations. Predictability of HR rewards correlated with activity: doing, activity: thinking, relational: individual and relational: hierarchical. Human resource empowerment correlated negatively with human nature: good-evil, relational: hierarchical and relation to nature: subjugation. The findings also indicate that preference for performance versus loyalty related HRM practices have no association with cultural values. However, many of these zero-order level relationships become insignificant in multiple regression analyses. Having noted that cultural values pervade much of attitudinal stance that employees have towards HRM (their preferences) I would argue that its effects are manageable. Overall, cultural values account for 13% of an individual's score for 'HR involvement', 9% of variance in 'predictable HRM rewards' and 8% of variance in 'human resource empowerment'. The cultural process becomes manageable as follows.

This study shows one way in which employee preferences for HRM policies and practices could be predicted from cultural value orientations. I have shown that culture (via its proxy of value orientations) can be studied separately from other national elements. When this is done I am able to see which value orientations are held by Kenyans and which of these value orientations impact on HRM policy and practice and to what extent. This finding indicates that HRM models with an Anglo-Saxon base are not adaptable to the Kenyan context. Further, presuming developing countries' peoples' value orientations without delineating the cultural and physical domain is inappropriate.

Clearly, the findings indicate that one factor is 'values free' whereas, three of the four HR factors each have a clear cultural values root. The reasons for this observation are not simple. However, I was able to establish that ethnic factors played a role here. There is also an element of 'best practice' as most companies are seeking high performance practices. No market-oriented organisation will downplay the role of high quality performers. It is also worth noting that membership of certain ethnic groups was associated with the desire for more loyalty-based HRM systems-presumably because in such situations the elite of the organisation also reflects ethnic membership and so loyalty is seen to be a relevant performance criterion. Although in general cultural values are more important than ethnicity where HRM preferences are concerned this



relationship was reversed for one of the four HRM factors. Ethnicity outweighs the set of cultural values examined when the questions about the philosophical focus of the HRM system (and its judgement about the basis of performance - i.e. individual competence or loyalty) come to play.

There is another way in which this study has hopefully changed our understanding of the cultural process. This study has revealed that previous research wrongly assumed that one specific value orientation might lead to one specific pattern of HRM policy preference. The study shows that values coexist and may complement each other in leading to preference for a particular HRM policy system design. Values may shape the HRM preferences together albeit on different strengths as for example is evidenced from this study that activity doing, activity thinking, relational to nature mastery are associated with preference for high HR involvement policy practice. Furthermore, individual values have been associated with demographic variables like education, occupational level and so forth. This suggests that cross-cultural studies (research in more than two countries) should consider or control for demographic variables. For the organisations (both local and foreign), there is a need to be aware of the direction employee values are taking and their long and short term implications to the design of the HR system, as continued use of traditional personnel techniques may not elicit required behavioural or attitudinal outcomes.

The study also revealed that it is possible to group HRM items responses into factors which in a sense reflect employees' preferences because similar responses tend to group together. Even though the value items and the HRM preferences were shown to be independent constructs, here, HRM preferences still reflected a cultural interpretation, leading to the conclusion that adapting American models with US-based values to developing economies is not appropriate. It is important to note that even for HRM preferences that seemed to be values free, ethnicity played a role. The message for international HRM researchers seems clear we should be arguing that it is important for the international manager to know that value orientations are changing at the individual level due to individual differences rather than aggregating culture at a societal level and to what extent those value orientations influence work preferences. Then the international manager operating in a particular country will know how to realign management policy practice with preference especially for core employees. If they



chose not to realign policies (because global directives override the latitude for local customisation of practices) then at least they will know which particular inefficiencies in the HRM process that will need to be managed through other means.

### **8.2.3 RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN VALUES AND JOB INVOLVEMENT**

A growing number of studies have argued from a theoretical perspective that either basic human values or work values can have a positive or negative influence on work behaviour and activities (Erez & Earley, 1993). I found evidence of zero-order relationships or curvilinear relationships effects for seven (activity: thinking, activity: doing, human nature: good-evil, relational: hierarchical, relation to nature: harmony, relation to nature: mastery and relation to nature: subjugation) of the eight cultural value orientations. However, when considering the linear effects of all value orientations together in multiple regression analysis, only three (activity: doing, relational: hierarchical and relation to nature: subjugation) value orientations appear to be the most important predictors of job involvement for this sample. Each of these three values is positively related to job involvement. Together, the linear effects of individual value orientations account for 19% of the variance in job involvement. This finding fits in with those from other studies in what seems to be an emerging field of study. Important linkages at the level of individual behaviour between cultural values and HRM have emerged recently (e.g., Aycan et al., 2000). The findings from this study suggest that employees aren't only culturally predisposed to preferences and perceptions of HRM policies, but also to important work outcomes such as job involvement. Consequently, Western assumptions about the creation of such outcomes through the design of HRM systems are unlikely to apply in certain cultural contexts.

Overall, these results are consistent with arguments that individual differences in job involvement are influenced by orientations toward work learned early in a person's socialisation process (e.g., Kanungo, 1982; Rabinowitz, et al., 1977; Wanous, 1974). However, there is a need to explain why three value orientations had an especially reliable relationship with job involvement. First, it is noticeable that each of the significant effects in the multiple regression belongs to a different overarching theme in the Kluckhohn and Strodtbeck's (1961) framework. Arguably then, for Kenyans, each of these significant effects characterises the relationship between job involvement and activity orientation, orientation to relations among people and orientation to nature.



International managers intending to design HRM systems to elicit high levels of job involvement in a Kenyan context may consider these individual culture value orientations. Further, this study confirms earlier studies' findings that demographics are not good predictors of individuals who are job involved. This has implications for those managers intending to select an individual likely to exhibit high levels of job involvement using demographic factors like age or gender.

#### **8.2.4 RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN JOB INVOLVEMENT AND PREFERENCE-POLICY FIT**

Having outlined the main conclusions that we should draw about the cultural HRM process, what about the assumption that we make about person-organisation fit? The results indicate that HRM policy-preference fit is related to job involvement for only performance related HRM practices and HR empowerment. The variance accounted for by the fit terms was not large (1-3%), perhaps a reflection that higher-order terms in multiple regression are constrained in the amount of variance they can explain (cf. Wall, Jackson, Mullarkey, & Parker, 1996). However, at a more practical level it has implications for HR managers in Kenyan organisations. For example, in attempting to enhance job involvement it is better that they focus on selecting or developing individual value orientations rather than the match between preferences and actual policy.

My results reported mixed signals regarding influences of job involvement. For performance related HRM practices, high job involvement can be created in anti-performance minded employees, as long as there is some degree of performance emphasis in actual HRM practice. Again, I would draw attention to the way in which adopting a person-organisation fit alters our understanding of the HRM process in a developing country context (Nyambegera, Daniels, & Sparrow, in press). It is only when there is a very low emphasis on performance in HRM practices that individual job involvement falls away (see Figure 6.2 in Chapter Six). Those with a strong preference for this type of HRM, actual practice does not matter. They maintain their job involvement no matter whether actual practice is performance-driven or not. However, results show that strong performance-driven HRM practices may not suit everybody. It leads to high job involvement in those who have a strongly positive or negative preference for this type of HRM but reduces the involvement for those who have only a



moderate preference for this type of policy. For those with a moderate preference, job involvement appears to be highest where there is a tendency to performance related HRM practice, but not in extreme forms. Indeed, a moderate emphasis on performance related HRM practice might be optimal in the Kenyan context. Contrary to theory, the results from this study indicate that some individuals do not actually prefer performance-related rewards, but are still job involved. The distinction between willingness and opportunity (Kanungo & Mendonca, 1994) does not apply to these Kenyan employees. Therefore, these employees become involved if reward is contingent on performance: Preference is irrelevant.

High job involvement is associated with low preference for HR empowerment and low empowerment practice. For this Kenyan sample then, it appears that fit between individual preferences for empowerment and actual policy for empowerment-based HRM reduces job involvement. Greatest involvement occurs when preferences for low empowerment match policy as discussed in the previous chapter.

### **8.2.5 RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN JOB INVOLVEMENT AND PERSON-CULTURE FIT**

Similar to HRM policy-preference fit, person-culture fit appears to be related to job involvement but for only two cultural values (relation to nature: harmony and relation to nature: subjugation). Again, the fit terms explained only a small proportion of variance in job involvement (3-5%). Like HRM policy-preference fit, the results with person-culture fit do not indicate that job involvement is related simply to the convergence of an individual's values with those of others in the organisation.

Rather, job involvement is associated with higher values of either personal or organisational relation to nature harmony. Individuals high in harmony values are job involved due to the characteristics of such orientations. Although my observation that actual individual values are more important than fit of values with those of others may explain the relationship at the individual level, it does not explain the organisational effect. Again, by adopting a design that enabled measurement of the organisational climate (as evidenced by the values normed across others in the organisation) more accurate insights into the development of job involvement could be gleaned. In high relationship to nature organisational climates, socialisation may override individual

values. Surrounded by people who believe that people should harmonise with their environment may be an especially powerful form of expectation to exhibit high job involvement.

For subjugation to nature, it is interesting to note an asymmetrical effect: high subjugation climates are much more strongly related to high job involvement than individual subjugation values. As Kenyan managers might reinforce their power over others through their actions (Kamoche, 1992), the more powerful effect of a climate of subjugation than individual values may reflect relative power of individuals to groups.

Overall, the results of this study indicate that P-O fit partially predicts job involvement in a Kenyan context, but that individual values generally seem more important than P-O fit. Further, these findings indicate higher job involvement is not necessarily related to P-O convergence. However, this aspect of operationalising the O component as the cultural values of others as conceptualised by this study may be useful because ‘people make the place’ (Schneider, 1987), but then needs further empirical investigation.

### **8.3 SUMMARY**

Having outlined some of the theoretical and methodological contributions made by this study, some practical conclusions can be drawn. The following lessons are suggested for HRM managers wanting to enhance high levels of job involvement in Kenyan employees:

- Adopt a moderately strong performance management led set of HR policies (control-based HRM). It generally creates high job involvement whether individuals value it or not
- Do not bother with empowerment-based HRM for a majority of Kenyans (other than those educated, possessing skills not abundant in the local labour force). It does not produce the theoretical benefits
- Understand that job involvement has a strong cultural value orientation base indicating that they can be invoked during selection decisions. Cultural value orientations explain 19% of variance in job involvement



- High harmony values at the level of the individual or organisation climate results in high job involvement. Even individuals low in harmony but working in harmonious climates will be socialised into higher job involvement (values that enhance levels of job involvement can be contiguous)
- Depending on type of organisation and competence of employees, create organisational climates based on the value that people are subjugated to nature. On this evidence such values or climates appear to generate high job involvement, but this suggestion must be applied with an understanding that subjugated climates may create more stress.

#### 8.4 DIRECTIONS FOR FUTURE RESEARCH

To arrive at some understanding of what is going on is hard enough, without having also to meet the demand that we anticipate what will happen next.

Abraham Kaplan, 1964, cited in Kanungo, 1982.

It remains for me to make some comment on the directions for future research. This empirical examination of the Kenyan cultural values, work-related preferences, fit and its influence on job involvement raises a number of issues for future research. First, a better, understanding of HRM policy preferences can be gained by examining employees' cultural values. Second, the findings question the applicability of US models of HRM to international research in general, and developing countries in particular, as the HRM preferences were predicted by cultural values. This is because the traditional US based HRM theories lack of contextual embeddedness means they miss much of what is most salient about the nature of work and human systems in developing economies. This suggests an agenda for future research in developing countries, in that it is important to determine the likely consequences of mis-match between HRM policies, preferences and cultural values. Further, it was observed that ethnicity outweighs the set of cultural values examined when the questions about the philosophical focus of some HRM systems come to play. Ethnicity is a deeply embedded reality in most developing countries' peoples' psyche and might exist long into the future. The interplay between ethnicity and cultural values as an explanation of HRM in this sample is a finding that should inform the design for future studies carried out in this area. Further, more evidence of the implications of ethnicity in HR management is needed to support its invocation as a strategy. The findings show that to

develop the area of comparative HRM, it is necessary to understand HRM from an African context. This calls for more studies in other African countries especially, Sub-Saharan Africa.

Third, another important issue that arises from this research is why job involvement is related in this Kenyan sample to some individual orientations, some aspects of HRM policy preference-practice fit and some aspects of person-culture fit. To address this issue, my interpretation of the results has highlighted the very context specific nature of the findings. Whilst these findings might generalise to other sub-Saharan African contexts, I would not expect then that the findings would necessarily generalise to other developing contexts. These findings then highlight the importance of studying P-O fit in its wider societal context and issues an important challenge to P-O fit theorists to begin to understand how social contexts influence the outcomes of P-O fit. Certainly, more studies such as this one will help determine when and to what extent person and environment variables predict behaviour in developing countries. Furthermore, as earlier indicated there is need for further research in the area of P-O fit operationalising the O component as the cultural values of others in the organisation.

Finally, the present study can be replicated in different industries using a wider sample framework either, in Kenya or in other Sub-Saharan Africa countries. Findings may illustrate different strengths derived from the cultural value orientations toward the design of HRM systems. Notwithstanding, the present study suggests the need for further refinement of the cultural perspectives questionnaire (CPQ4) in that some constructs showed poor reliability and validity. Moreover, future research may employ longitudinal panel designs as this is a better way of establishing relationships over time (Moser & Kalton, 1993) and trends of behaviour or attitudes.

In conclusion, these analyses indicate that this research has contributed to theory and practice. It is evident that some of Kenya's cultural values are changing, while others are still stable leading to coexistence of value orientations. Kenyans are high in activity: thinking, activity: doing and in relation to nature mastery. These values were believed to be a preserve of people from developed economies, but this study shows that even people in developing countries possess such values. Developing countries' people are believed to value hierarchical relations but this study showed evidence that values are



moving toward preference for reduced status and power distance. Subjugation values are no longer dominant in this society as the sample scored very low on this value orientation. Kenyans are becoming more individualistic at the same time retaining their belief in collectivism. Human nature is no longer seen as basically good, but views on human nature as evil are co-existing with the more optimistic. People still value harmonious relations with their environment. This transition suggested that traditional aggregation measures of cultural values are inappropriate in measuring cultural values and the focus of analysis should be at the individual level due to individual and circumstantial differences.

These values do impact HRM preferences of employees. Of the four preferences (HR involvement/participation, predictability of rewards, performance vs. loyalty HRM practice, and HR empowerment) all were related to cultural values except for performance vs. loyalty related HRM practice. The sample indicated that they prefer some form of involvement in HR issues, they prefer predictable rewards, and some form of empowerment. They also prefer performance based HRM practice compared to loyalty. However, variations were evident in both cultural value orientations and HRM preferences. Variations were also evident in the HRM strategies pursued by organisations. It was also shown that ethnicity might be a useful tool in the design of HRM systems in this context as it is related to values and preferences. Ethnicity is a reality whose potential should be examined and if possible tapped instead of 'demonised'. Nevertheless, there is an ethical dimension to such ethnic issues, and this area should be researched with sensitivity.

There is a link between job involvement and cultural values and fit. HRM preference-policy fit in this sample has a partial impact on job involvement. Similar results were reported from the person-culture fit perspective. The interaction between individual values and the values of others in an organisation may impact levels of job involvement. However, the study revealed that fit is not a complete explanation of job involvement in this context, as cultural values had significant linear effects on job involvement.

This study has contributed to the understanding that culture is not just a residual explanatory variable in international and comparative HRM. Cultural value orientations impact employee preferences and job involvement. International and local managers

need to understand employee preferences for HRM policy and practice to enable them realign actual policy and practice. Foreign HRM policies are not necessarily applicable in host countries. Therefore, it is imperative that researchers and managers understand country to country contexts influencing HRM patterns. The study has also shown that focusing on individual cultural value orientations can enable more subtle understanding of national cultural values and variance within national cultures. Furthermore, culture is dynamic hence aggregating it and demarcating countries as for example, collectivist or individualistic is misleading. The study has also contributed to understanding that fit as presented by Western models does not always explain job involvement in the Kenyan context and by extension to Sub-Saharan Africa. The study has also shown the relationship of fit to job related attitudes might also be dependent on factors embedded in national context too.



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## APPENDICES

### APPENDIX 1.0

Dear Sir/Madam,

#### CULTURAL PERSPECTIVES AND WORK PRACTICES SURVEY

You are participating in an International project to assess values and work practices in Kenya, compared to other countries. Several firms in Kenya are participating.

The aim of this Survey is to seek your views about issues related to your organisation and your job and also to identify your preferences for particular work practices. There are **three** parts to the survey. The first seeks views about your **values**, the second contains items on your **preferences for different work practices** and the third has items on **job involvement**-You need to complete all the parts for us to be able to complete the research.

Your views are **very** important. They will provide us with a greater understanding of people's preferences for work practices in Kenya. It will also provide valued feedback to assist your company in its plans for continued improvement in the topics addressed in the survey.

You are not to give your name and complete **confidentiality** is assured as the questionnaires will be coded and analysed anonymously. Please answer all the questions by following the brief instructions given at the beginning of each part. If you would like to add any additional comments on particular questions or the questionnaire as a whole, feel free to do so.

There are no right or wrong answers to the questions in this survey. What does matter is that you give your honest opinion in answering each of the questions. Even though it may be hard to decide for some of the questions, please be sure to answer all the questions and remember that it is **your** honest opinion that matters. The usefulness of the research depends upon the number of completed responses received.

Place the completed questionnaire in the envelope provided and put it in the locked box marked **Research** at the reception area. If you have any questions regarding this survey please feel free to contact any of the undersigned at the address given above. During the data collection period Mr Nyambegera can be contacted at Daystar University, PO Box 44400 Nairobi, Telephone (02) 723002/3/4.

Thank you very much for participating in this study.

Yours sincerely,

Mr Stephen M. Nyambegera  
PhD Programme Researcher

Prof. Paul R. Sparrow  
Professor in International  
Human Resource Management

Dr. Kevin Daniels  
Lecturer in Organisational  
Behaviour



**PART ONE: Cultural Perspectives**

Different people have different perspectives on how we relate to the world around us. All of these perspectives are valuable. Differences in perspectives have the potential to bring new and better solutions to organizational problems. In this survey, you will see a series of statements. Please show how strongly you agree with each one by *circling a number from 1 to 7*. Here are two examples:

	Strongly Disagree Agree	Disagree Somewhat	Disagree A Little	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Agree A Little	Agree Somewhat	Strongly Agree
Ex. A piano is a musical instrument.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Ex. The drum is the most important musical instrument.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

This person "Strongly Agrees" that pianos are musical instruments, and " Disagrees a Little" that the most important musical instrument is the drum.

***There are no wrong responses for any of these statements; it is most important that you record your own true agreement with each one.*** We have found that for each of these statements, there are some people who agree strongly, others who disagree strongly, and still others who fall between these two extremes. ***All of these perspectives add value to organizational decision-making.***

	Strongly Disagree Agree	Disagree Somewhat	Disagree A Little	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Agree A Little	Agree Somewhat	Strongly Agree
1. All living things are equal and deserve the same care and consideration.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2. Every person on a team should be responsible for the performance of everyone else on the team.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3. It is important to think things through carefully before acting on them.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4. It's natural to put your own interests ahead of others.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5. Given enough time and resources, people can do almost anything.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

	Strongly Disagree Agree	Disagree Somewhat	Disagree A Little	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Agree A Little	Agree Somewhat	Strongly Agree
6. Organizations should have separate facilities, such as eating areas, for higher-level managers.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
7. We have little influence on the outcomes of events in our lives.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
8. It's human nature to place more importance on work than on other activities.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
9. If you don't like your working environment you should quit your job.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
10. Hard work is always commendable.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
11. One's responsibility for family members should go beyond one's parents and children.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
12. The performance of one's work group or unit is more important than one's own individual performance.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
13. It's best to leave problem situations alone to see if they work out on their own.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
14. A good manager should take control of problem situations and resolve them quickly.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
15. It's important to achieve balance among divisions and units within an organization.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
16. People at higher levels in organizations have a responsibility to make important decisions for people below them.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
17. It is best to live for the moment.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
18. If employees don't have to submit receipts for their expenses, they're likely to lie about how much they spent.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
19. Society works best when each person serves his or her own interests.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7



	Strongly Disagree Agree	Disagree Somewhat	Disagree A Little	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Agree A Little	Agree Somewhat	Strongly Agree
20. Anyone's basic nature can change.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
21. It is always better to stop and plan than to act quickly.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
22. People who work hard are the ones who make society function.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
23. We can have a significant effect on the events in our lives.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
24. People at lower levels in organizations should carry out the requests of people at higher levels without question.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
25. It's important to achieve harmony and balance in all aspects of life.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
26. Ultimately, you are accountable only to yourself.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
27. It's important to get work done before relaxing.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
28. It's important to do what you want, when you want.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
29. Some amount of corruption is inevitable in any organization.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
30. An employee's rewards should be based mainly on the work group or unit's performance.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
31. People should always think carefully before they act.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
32. People should not try to change the paths their lives are destined to take.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
33. It's possible for people whose basic nature is bad to change and become good.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
34. The highest-ranking manager in a team should take the lead.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

	Strongly Disagree Agree	Disagree Somewhat	Disagree A Little	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Agree A Little	Agree Somewhat	Strongly Agree
35. Whatever is going to happen will happen, no matter what actions people take.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
36. It's possible for people whose basic nature is good to change and become bad.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
37. With enough knowledge and resources, any poor-performing business can be turned around.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
38. You should be suspicious of everybody.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
39. Good team members subordinate their own goals and thoughts to those of the team.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
40. Once you set a goal, it's important to work towards it until it is achieved.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
41. The outcomes of a business decision can be predicted accurately by a logical analysis of that decision.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
42. Quality of life is more important than financial accomplishment.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
43. When considering the design of a new building, harmonizing with the environment surrounding the proposed building is an important consideration.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
44. We should try to avoid depending on others.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
45. Even if it takes more time, business decisions should always be made based on analysis, not intuition.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
46. Most things are determined by forces we cannot control.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
47. A hierarchy of authority is the best form of organization.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7



	Strongly Disagree Agree	Disagree Somewhat	Disagree A Little	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Agree A Little	Agree Somewhat	Strongly Agree
48. It is our responsibility to conserve the balance of elements in our environment.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
49. People should take time to enjoy all aspects of life, even if it means not getting work done.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
50. Society works best when people willingly make sacrifices for the good of everyone.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
51. If someone is essentially a good person now, she or he will likely always be good.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
52. Effective managers use spare time to get things done.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
53. Adults should strive to be independent from their parents.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
54. Good performance comes from taking control of one's business.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
55. In general, you can't trust workers with keys to the building they work in.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
56. One should live to work, not work to live.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
57. An employee's rewards should be based mainly on his or her own performance.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
58. You shouldn't worry about working when you don't feel like it.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
59. It is important not to stand out too much in a team.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
60. In general, bad people cannot change their ways.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
61. You can't trust anyone without proof.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
62. The most effective businesses are those which work together in harmony with their environment.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

	Strongly Disagree Agree	Disagree Somewhat	Disagree A Little	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Agree A Little	Agree Somewhat	Strongly Agree
63. One's success is mostly a matter of good fortune.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
64. People at lower levels in the organization should not have much power in the organizations.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
65. Sitting around without doing something is a waste of time.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
66. Humans should try to control nature whenever possible.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
67. All business decisions should be analyzed from every possible angle before they're implemented.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
68. One should work to live, not live to work.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
69. It's important to try to prevent problems you may encounter in your life.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
70. It's better to be lucky than smart.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
71. Employees should be rewarded based on their level in the organization.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
72. Every person has a responsibility for all others in his or her work group or unit.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
73. People tend to think of themselves first, before they think of others.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
74. Many of the world's problems occur because of our attempts to control the natural forces in the world.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
75. Accomplishing a great deal of work is more rewarding than spending time in leisure.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
76. A logical argument is as persuasive as visible evidence that something will work.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
77. If supervisors don't always check when workers come and go, workers will probably lie about how many hours they work.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
78. People who work very hard deserve a great deal of respect.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
79. No matter what the situation, it is always worth the extra time it takes to develop a comprehensive plan.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7



**PART. TWO: Human Resource Management Policies and Practices Profile**

For this part you are presented with a list of several pairs of alternative work practices. The numbers 1 - 5 on the line between the pairs will help you indicate which policy practice you would like the company to use. Please circle one of the numbers to show which policy practice you would prefer. In many cases it may be difficult to decide one way or the other, but give your honest preferred policy practice on either side of the two ends of each pair. For example the number 1 indicates that you strongly agree with the statement on your left whereas, the number 5 indicates that you strongly agree with the statement on your right. The numbers in the middle vary your agreement depending towards which side of the pair the number you choose lies, taking the number 3 as the middle range whereby, you neither agree nor disagree with any of the statements in the pair.

*Planning and Nature of the Job choices*

- |   |  |  |
|---|--|--|
| 1. Tight formal planning of most work issues by sophisticated control and information systems.          | 1      2      3      4      5<br>←—————→ | Loose informal planning, heavy dependence on informal relationships and co-operation.                  |
| 2. The company should try to design jobs to attract and retain the best people, regardless of the cost. | 1      2      3      4      5<br>←—————→ | The company should consider the cost issues before recruiting the best people.                         |
| 3. Emphasis on short - term goals ( 1 year or less) .   | 1      2      3      4      5<br>←—————→ | Emphasis on long - term goals (greater than 5 years).  |
| 4. Provide jobs where you would be on your own most of time.  | 1      2      3      4      5<br>←—————→ | Provide jobs where you would have a lot of contact with other people.                                  |
| 5. Provide jobs that enable you to become an expert/specialist on one or two areas.                     | 1      2      3      4      5<br>←—————→ | Provide jobs which require you switch jobs with others for the sake of a variety of different skills.  |
| 6. Minimise layers or levels of management to the least number possible.                                | 1      2      3      4      5<br>←—————→ | Maintain the present number of management layers / levels because this is the most appropriate number. |
| 7. Provide many opportunities that allow workers to determine how they do their job.                    | 1      2      3      4      5<br>←—————→ | The company determine the one best way to do the job so employees views are not necessary.             |





**Salary/Wages Choices**

20. Determine an employee's overall wage primarily by market rates for similar jobs.	1    2    3    4    5	Determine employee's overall wage primarily by comparison to similar jobs within the company/division.
21. Encourage employees to become shareholders of the company.	1    2    3    4    5	Do not expect or require employees to become shareholders of the firm.
22. Determine pay increases mainly by the individual's job performance.	1    2    3    4    5	Determine pay increases mainly by the group/division's work performance.
23. Provide a very strong guarantee of job security (i.e. you can always do the same work).	1    2    3    4    5	Provide a strong guarantee of employment security (i.e. in very rare circumstances one will be fired).
24. Keep employees' personal pay levels secret.	1    2    3    4    5	Allow employee's pay levels to be a matter of public knowledge.
25. Ensure the individual needs and expectations are always taken into account when determining salary.	1    2    3    4    5	Ensure the company's needs and expectations are always taken into account when determining salary levels.
26. Reward special achievement through financial incentives (such as gifts).	1    2    3    4    5	Reward special achievement through non-monetary incentives (such as praise, more influence or special privileges).
27. Determine salaries by the age and seniority of the employees.	1    2    3    4    5	Determine salaries with no regards to the age and seniority of the employee.
28. Take specific qualifications and skills of the employees into consideration when deciding reward levels.	1    2    3    4    5	Do not pay for specific qualifications and skills of the employees but focus solely on performance.

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**Training Choices**

- |   |                               |  |
|---|-------------------------------|--|
| 29. Ensure the average employee spends more than one week in 'off - the - job' training each year.                                  | 1      2      3      4      5 | Do not require the average employee to spend more than one week in 'off - th - job' training each year.                                |
|   |                               |  |
| 30. Offer training programmes that improve an employee's skills or knowledge for his /her present job within the firm.              | 1      2      3      4      5 | Offer training programmes that enable an employee to learn more general & transferable knowledge (i.e. relevant for jobs in the firm). |
|   |                               |  |
| 31. Allow most training to take place at the request of the employees.  | 1      2      3      4      5 | Allow most training to take place at the request of the immediate supervisor of the firm.  |
|   |                               |  |
| 32. Provide a formal, systematic training policy that covers all employee levels.   | 1      2      3      4      5 | Provide a training policy that allow employees to be trained on an <i>ad ho</i> basis.   |
|   |                               |  |
| 33. Enable individual employee to have a significant say on his/her preferred career paths and identify his/her own training needs. | 1      2      3      4      5 | Only let the individual employee have minimum say on his/her preferred career paths and identify his/her own training needs.           |
|   |                               |  |
| 34. Provide continuous training/retraining opportunities for all employees as a matter of policy.                                   | 1      2      3      4      5 | Provide training/retraining opportunities for employees when there is a clear business need.   |
|   |                               |  |

**PART THREE: Job Involvement Items**

For this part, we would like to get your personal evaluation of your job. Please indicate the degree of your agreement or disagreement with each statement by putting a cross [x] mark in one of the boxes representing the answer categories (strongly agree; mildly agree; mildly disagree; disagree; strongly disagree) that appear against the statement.

<u>Statement</u>	<u>Answer Categories</u>					
	Strongly Agree	Agree	Mildly Agree	Mildly Disagree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
1. The most important things that happen to me involve my present job	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
2. To me my job is only a small part of who I am	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
3. I am very much involved personally in my job	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
4. I live, eat, and breathe my job	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
5. Most of my interests are centred around my job	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
6. I have very strong ties with my present job which would be very difficult to break	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
7. Usually I feel detached from my job	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
8. Most of my personal life goals are job oriented	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
9. I consider my job to be very central to my existence	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
10. I like to be absorbed in my job most of the time	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>



The final few questions ask you about elements of your life that are often related to culture.

1. Are you female or male? (Please circle):

Female

Male

2. To which age category do you belong? *Please circle the appropriate number:*

1. 25 or Less

5. 41 to 45

8. 56 to 60

2. 26 to 30

6. 46 to 50

9. 61 to 65

3. 31 to 35

7. 51 to 55

10. 66 or over

4. 36 to 40

3 Which among the Kenyan ethnic groups do you belong to? -----, if not Kenyan please specify nationality-----

4. Which of the following classifications best indicate the level of education you completed

1. Primary level

2. 'O' Level

3. 'A' Level

4. Diploma level

5. Undergraduate

6. Postgraduate

7. Other, please specify-----

5. Which of the following categories best describes your occupation? *Please circle only one:*

1. Upper-level Manager

6. Accountant

2. Middle-level Manager

7. Secretary

3. Operator

8. Technician

4. Supervisor

9. Support staff

5. Marketing or Sales

10. Security

6. How many years have you worked in the same job? *Please write number of years:*-----

7. Finally how many years have you worked in the organisation you work for now? *Please write number of years:*-----  
-----

Do you have any further comments about your work, personnel policies or this questionnaire?

-----  
-----  
-----

*Thank you for taking the time to complete this questionnaire*

**APPENDIX 1.1**

Dear Sir/Madam,

### **WORK PRACTICES SURVEY**

You are participating in an International project to assess work practices in Kenya, compared to other countries. Several firms in Kenya are participating.

The aim of this part of the Survey is to seek your views about issues related to your organisation and also to identify your organisation's preference for particular work practices.

Your views are very important. They will provide us with a greater understanding of organisations preferences for work practices in Kenya. It will also provide valued feedback to assist your organisation in its plans for continued improvement in the topics addressed in the survey.

Complete confidentiality is assured as the questionnaires will be coded and analysed anonymously. Please answer all the questions by following the brief instructions given at the beginning. If you would like to add any additional comments on particular questions or the questionnaire as a whole, feel free to do so.

There are no right or wrong answers to the questions in this survey. What does matter is that you give your honest opinion in answering each of the questions. Even though it may be hard to decide for some of the questions, please be sure to answer all the questions and remember that it is your honest opinion that matters. The usefulness of the research depends upon the number of completed responses received.

The researcher will collect the questionnaire after a brief follow up interview, which will be arranged at your convenience. If you have any questions regarding this survey please feel free to contact any of the undersigned at the address given above. During the data collection period Mr Nyambegera can be contacted at Daystar University, PO Box 44400 Nairobi, Telephone (02) 723002/3/4.

Thank you very much for participating in this study.

Yours Sincerely,

Mr Stephen M. Nyambegera  
PhD Programme Researcher

Prof. Paul R. Sparrow  
Professor in International  
Human Resource Management

Dr. Kevin Daniels  
Lecturer in Organisational  
Behaviour



## Human Resource Management Policies and Practices Profile

You are presented with a list of several pairs of alternative work practices. The numbers 1 - 5 on the line between the pairs will help you indicate which policy practice your organisation uses. Please circle one of the numbers to show which statement best describes the policy practice in your organisation. In many cases it may be difficult to decide one way or the other, but give your honest used or closer to used policy practice on either side of the two ends. For example the number 1 indicates that you strongly agree with the statement on your left whereas, the number 5 indicate that you strongly agree with the statement on your right. The numbers in the middle vary your agreement depending towards which side of the pair the number you choose lies taking the number 3 as the middle range whereby, you neither agree nor disagree with any of the statements in the pair.

### *Planning and Nature of the Job choices*

- |   |                               |         |   |
|---|-------------------------------|---------|---|
| 1. Tight formal planning of most work issues by sophisticated control and information systems.          | 1      2      3      4      5 | ←—————→ | Loose informal planning, heavy dependence on informal relationships and co-operation.                         |
| 2. The company should try to design jobs to attract and retain the best people, regardless of the cost. | 1      2      3      4      5 | ←—————→ | The company should consider the cost issues before recruiting the best people.                                |
| 3. Emphasis on short - term goals (1 year or less).   | 1      2      3      4      5 | ←—————→ | Emphasis on long - term goals (greater than 5 years).   |
| 4. Provide jobs where employees would be on their own most of the time.                                 | 1      2      3      4      5 | ←—————→ | Provide jobs where employees would have a lot of contact with other people.                                   |
| 5. Provide jobs that enable the employee become an expert / specialist on one or two areas.             | 1      2      3      4      5 | ←—————→ | Provide jobs, which require an employee switch job with others for the sake of a variety of different skills. |
| 6. Minimise layers or levels of management to the least number possible.                                | 1      2      3      4      5 | ←—————→ | Maintain the present number of management layers / levels because this is the most appropriate number.        |
| 7. Provide many opportunities that allow workers to determine how they do their job                     | 1      2      3      4      5 | ←—————→ | The company determines the one best way to do the job so employee's views are not necessary.                  |

**Recruitment and Selection Choices**

- |   |   |   |   |   |   |  |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|--|
| 1. Make the criteria used for selection very clear to all job applicants.   | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | Not reveal all the criteria used for selection to every job applicant                        |
| 2. Fill all job vacancies with insiders before any outside candidates are recruited.  | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | Let job vacancies be filled by the best people (whether from within or outside the company). |
| 3. Use a wide range of sophisticated selection tools for jobs (e.g. interviews, psychological tests, task simulation, etc.) | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | Rely on a simple selection process for jobs (such as just interviews).                       |
| 4. Make current performance and competence the top priority for important promotions  | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | Make loyalty and seniority the top priority for important promotions.                        |
| 5. Create a climate in which people at work organise a variety of social activities   | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | Treat work in the company and social activities as separate matters.                         |
| 6. Announce or officially publish employee promotion.   | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | Keep promotions more as a private issue and only announce major job promotions.              |

**Performance Evaluation Choices**

- |   |   |   |   |   |   |  |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|--|
| 1. Focus performance evaluation on how the job is being done (i.e. what manner the job is performed)  | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | Focus performance evaluation on what was achieved (i.e. results).  |
| 2. Treat performance evaluation as a joint problem solving discussion (employees negotiate the criteria on which their performance is evaluated). | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | Treat the performance evaluation, as a chance for the manager to determine what best should be done by the employee. |
| 3. Create formalised evaluation systems in which forms are always filled out and processed  | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | Create informal evaluation systems in which emphasis is put on face - to - face feedback.                            |
| 4. Ensure his or her supervisor evaluates an employee's performance.  | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | Ensure their subordinates or peers evaluate an employee's performance.   |
| 5. Focus performance evaluation on the personal achievements of the individual  | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | Focus performance evaluation on the results of group or division to which the individual belongs.                    |
| 6. Only make performance evaluations once in a while  | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | Make very frequent performance evaluations   |



*Salary/Wages Choices*

- |   |   |   |   |   |   |  |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|--|
| 1. Determine an employee's overall wage primarily by market rates for similar jobs                          | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | Determine employee's overall wage primarily by comparison to similar jobs within the company/division.             |
| 2. Encourage employees to become shareholders of the company.   | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | Do not expect or require employees to become shareholders of the firm.   |
| 3. Determine pay increases mainly by the individual's job performance.                                      | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | Determine pay increases mainly by the group/division's work performance.   |
| 4. Provide a very strong guarantee of job security (e.g. one can always do the same work).                  | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | Provide a strong guarantee of employment security (e.g. in very rare circumstances one will be fired).             |
| 5. Keep employees' personal pay levels secret.  | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | Allow employee's pay levels to be a matter of public knowledge.  |
| 6. Ensure individual needs and expectations are always taken into account when determining salary           | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | Ensure the company's needs and expectations are always taken into account when determining salary levels.          |
| 7. Reward special achievement through financial incentives (such as gifts).                                 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | Reward special achievement through non-monetary incentives (such as praise, more influence or special privileges). |
| 8. Determine salaries by the age and seniority of the employees.  | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | Determine salaries with no regards to the age and seniority of the employee  |
| 9. Take specific qualifications and skills of the employees into consideration when deciding reward levels. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | Do not pay for specific qualifications and skills of the employees but focus solely on performance.                |

*Training Choices*

- |  |   |   |   |   |   |  |
|--|---|---|---|---|---|--|
| 1. Ensure the average employee spends more than one week in 'off - the - job' training each year.                    | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | Do not require the average employee to spend more than one week in 'off - the - job' training each year.                               |
| 2. Offer training programmes that improve an employee's skills or knowledge for his /her present job within the firm | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | Offer training programmes that enable an employee to learn more general & transferable knowledge (i.e. relevant for jobs in the firm). |
| 3. Allow most training to take place at the request of the employees.  | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | Allow most training to take place at the request of the immediate supervisor or the firm.  |





## **APPENDIX 2.0**

### **Permission to Conduct Research in Kenya**



**OFFICE OF THE PRESIDENT**  
**PROVINCIAL ADMINISTRATION AND INTERNAL SECURITY**

Telegraphic Address: "RAIS"

Telephone: Nairobi 227411

When replying please quote

Ref. No. OP/13/001/27C 179/2  
and date

P.O. Box 30510  
NAIROBI

20th November, 19.....97

Stephen M. Nyambegera,  
Daystar University,  
P.O. Box 44400,  
NAIROBI.

Dear Sir,

RESEARCH AUTHORIZATION

Please refer to your application for authority to conduct research on "The Impact of National Culture on Human Resource Policies and Practices:- Analysis of MNCs and other firms in Kenya". I am pleased to let you know that your application has been considered and approved. You are therefore authorized to conduct research in Nairobi, Mombasa, Nakuru, Kisumu, Uasin Gishu and Thika Districts as from November, 1997 to June, 1998.

You are advised to pay courtesy calls to the Provincial Commissioner, Nairobi and the District Commissioners of the respective Districts of your research before embarking on your research project. You are further advised to avail two copies of your final research report to this office upon completion of your research project.

Yours faithfully,

  
A. G. KAARIA  
FOR: PERMANENT SECRETARY/  
PROVINCIAL ADMINISTRATION

cc: The Provincial Commissioner,  
NAIROBI.

The District Commissioners;  
- Mombasa  
- Kisumu  
- Nakuru  
- Uasin Gishu  
- Thika

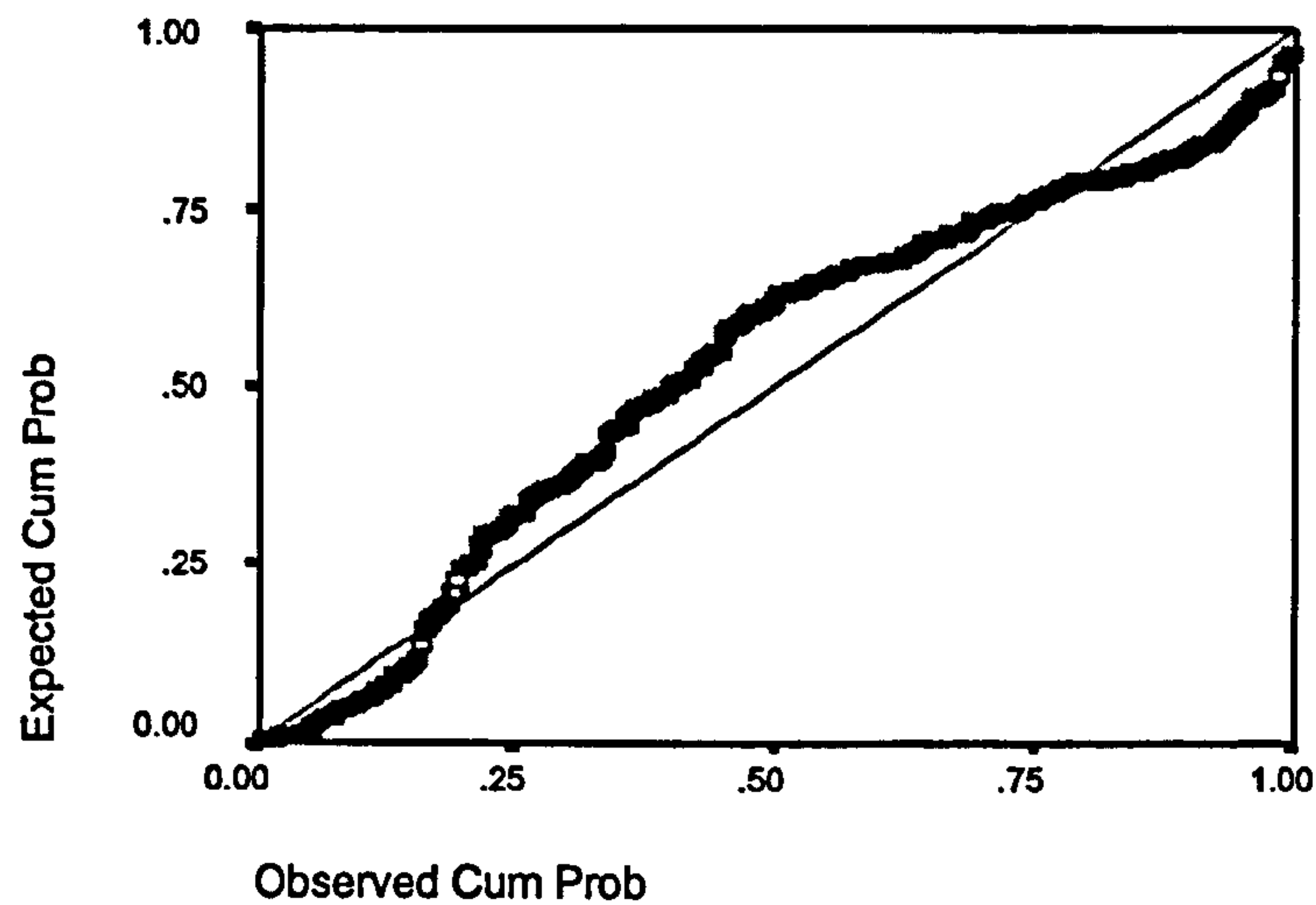
The Chairman,  
Dept. of Commerce,  
Daystar University,  
P.O. Box 44400,  
NAIROBI.



**Appendix 3.0: Normal Probability Plots of Regression Standardised Residuals and Scatter Plots**

Appendix 3a: Normal Probability Plot of Cultural Values<sup>1</sup> with Preference for HR Involvement/Participation

Normal P-P Plot of Regression Standardized Residual  
Dependent Variable: Human resource Involvement



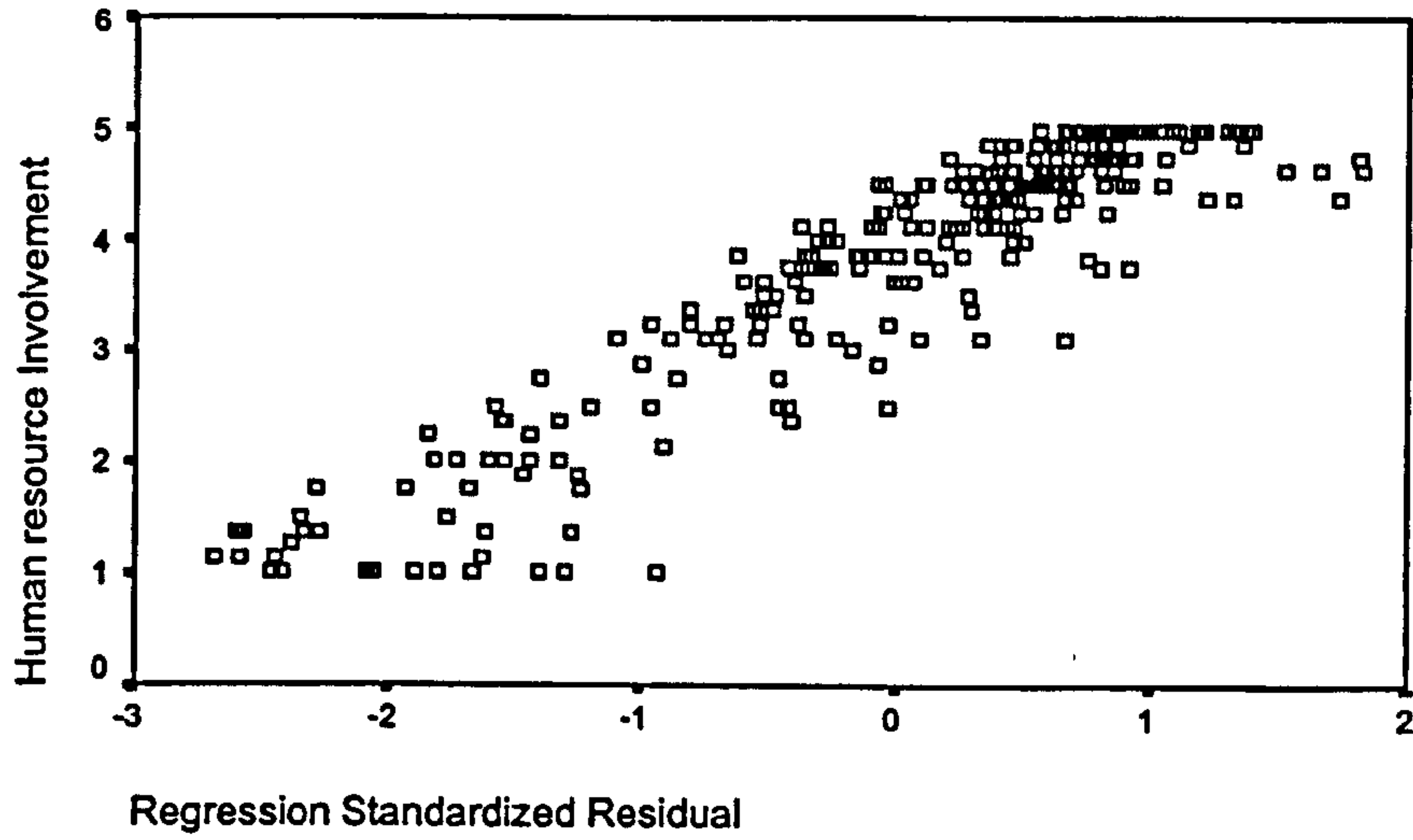
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<sup>1</sup> Cultural Values comprise the eight (Activity: Doing, Activity: Thinking; Human Nature: Good-Evil; Relation to Nature: Harmony, Relation to Nature: Mastery, Relation to Nature: Subjugation; Relational: Hierarchical, and Relational: Individual) values used in the analysis. These are used as predictor variables to examine for normality and linearity. The dependent variables are indicated on the plots.

Appendix 3b: Scatter Plot of Cultural Values with Preference for HR Involvement/Participation

Scatterplot

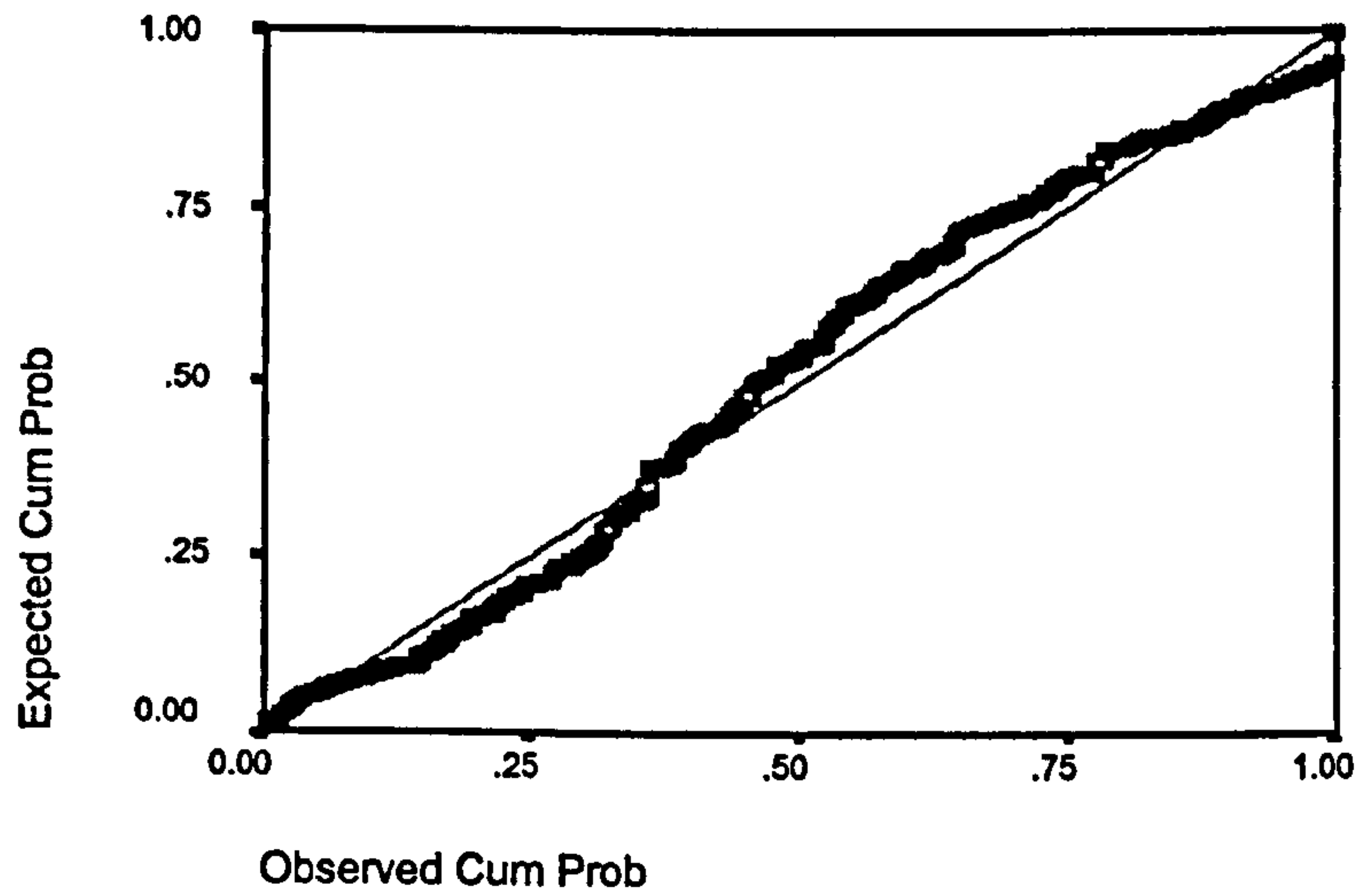
Dependent Variable: Human resource Involvement



Appendix 3c: Normal Probability Plot of Cultural Values with Preference for Predictability of Rewards

Normal P-P Plot of Regression Standardized Residual

Dependent Variable: Predictability of HR Rewards

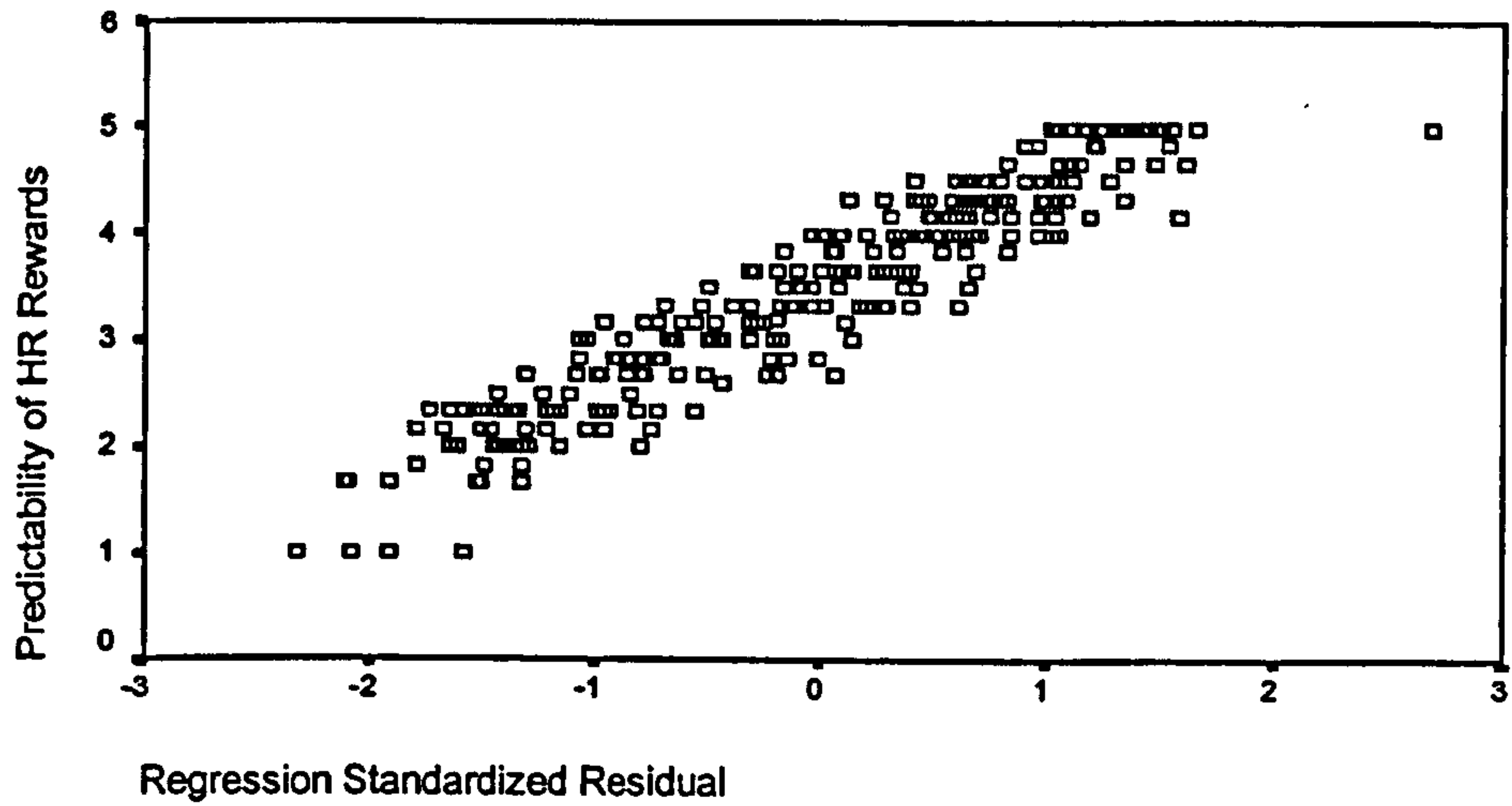




Appendix 3d: Scatter Plot of Cultural values with Preference for Predictability of Rewards

Scatterplot

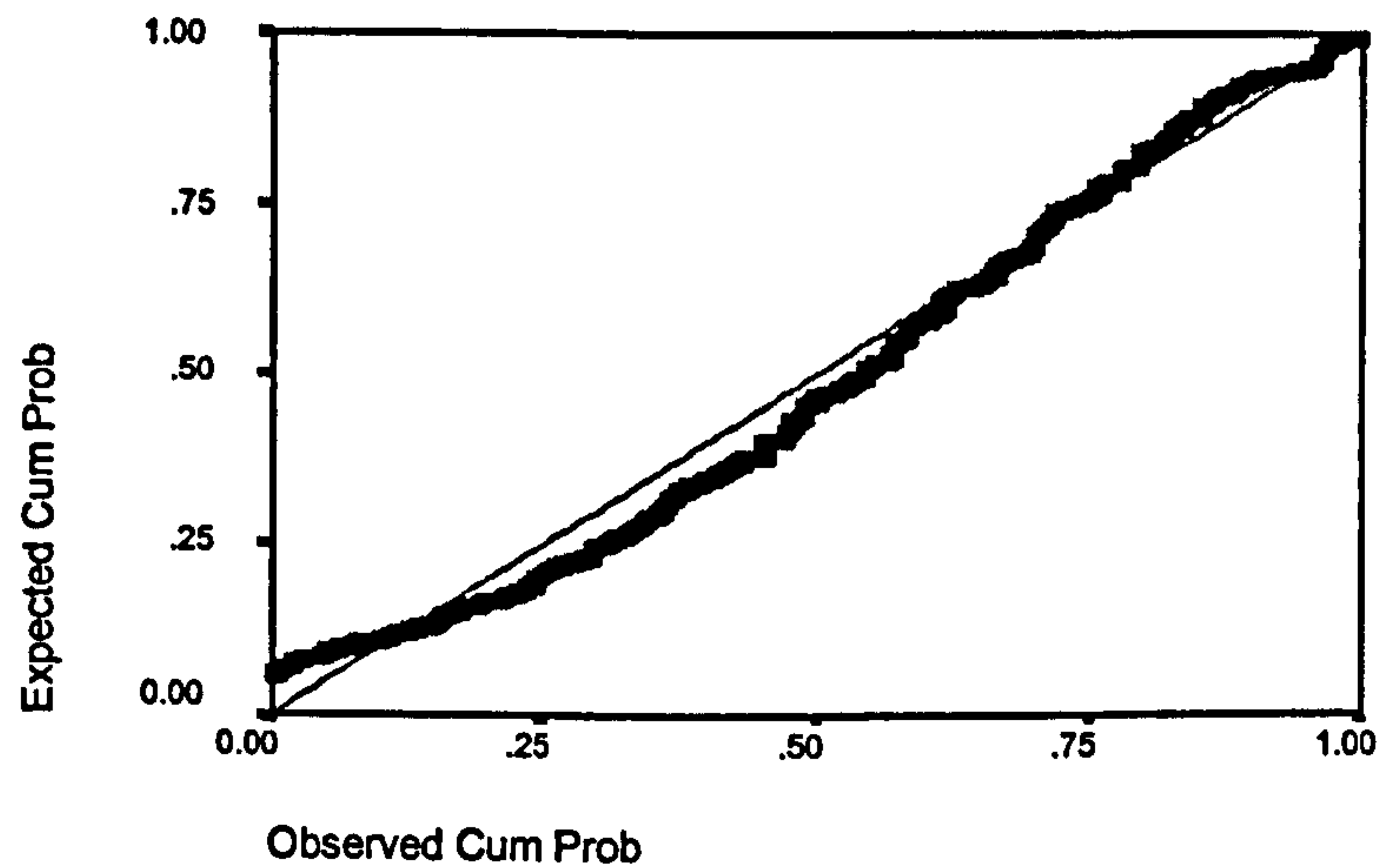
Dependent Variable: Predictability of HR Rewards



Appendix 3e: Normal Probability Plot of Cultural Values with Preference for performance vs. Loyalty Related HRM Practices

Normal P-P Plot of Regression Standardized Residual

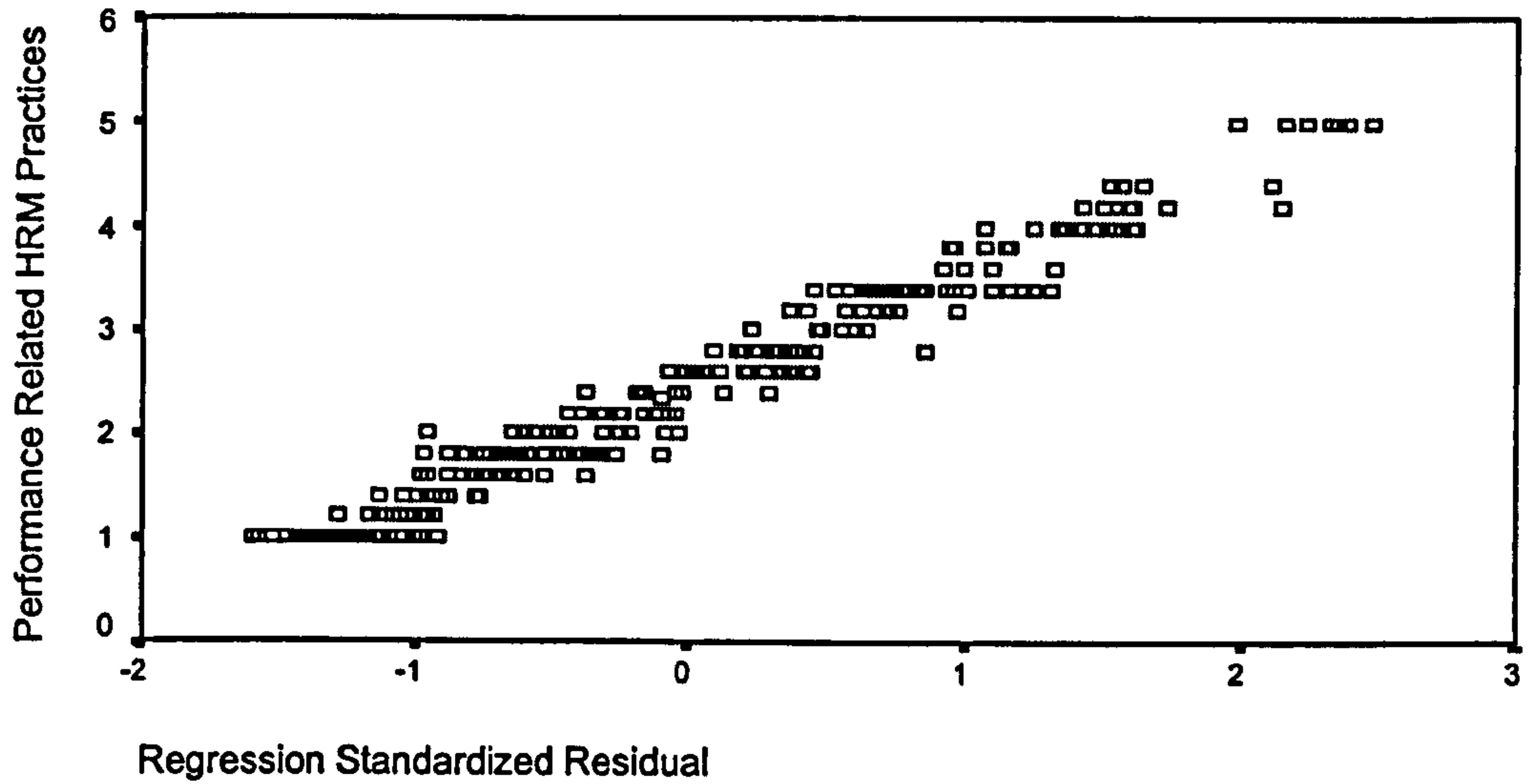
Dependent Variable: Performance Related HRM Practices



Appendix 3f: Scatter Plot of Cultural Values with Preference for performance vs. Loyalty Related HRM Practices

Scatterplot

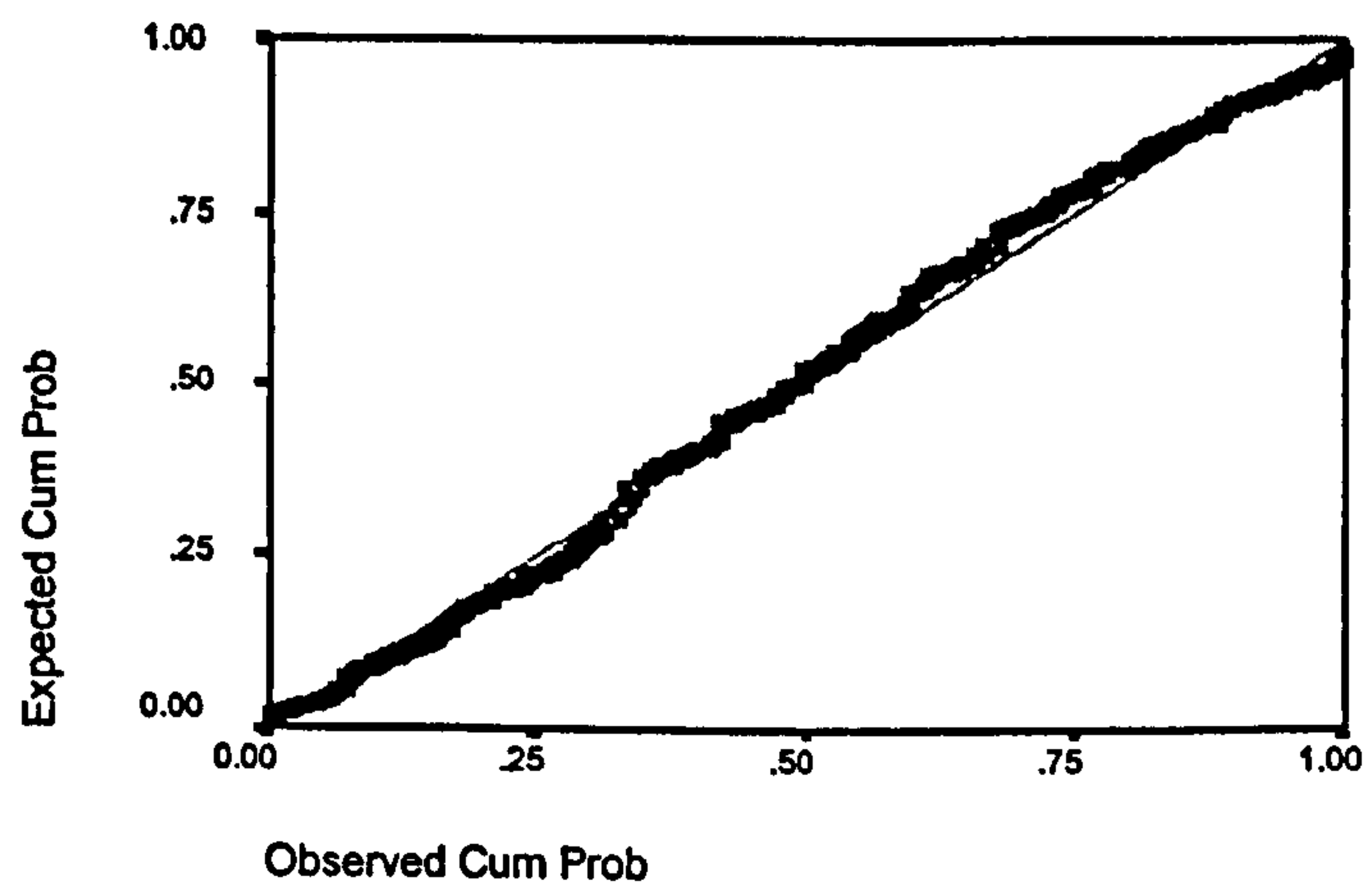
Dependent Variable: Performance Related HRM Practices



Appendix 3g: Normal Probability Plot of Cultural Values with Preference for Human Resource Empowerment

Normal P-P Plot of Regression Standardized Residual

Dependent Variable: Human Resource Empowerment

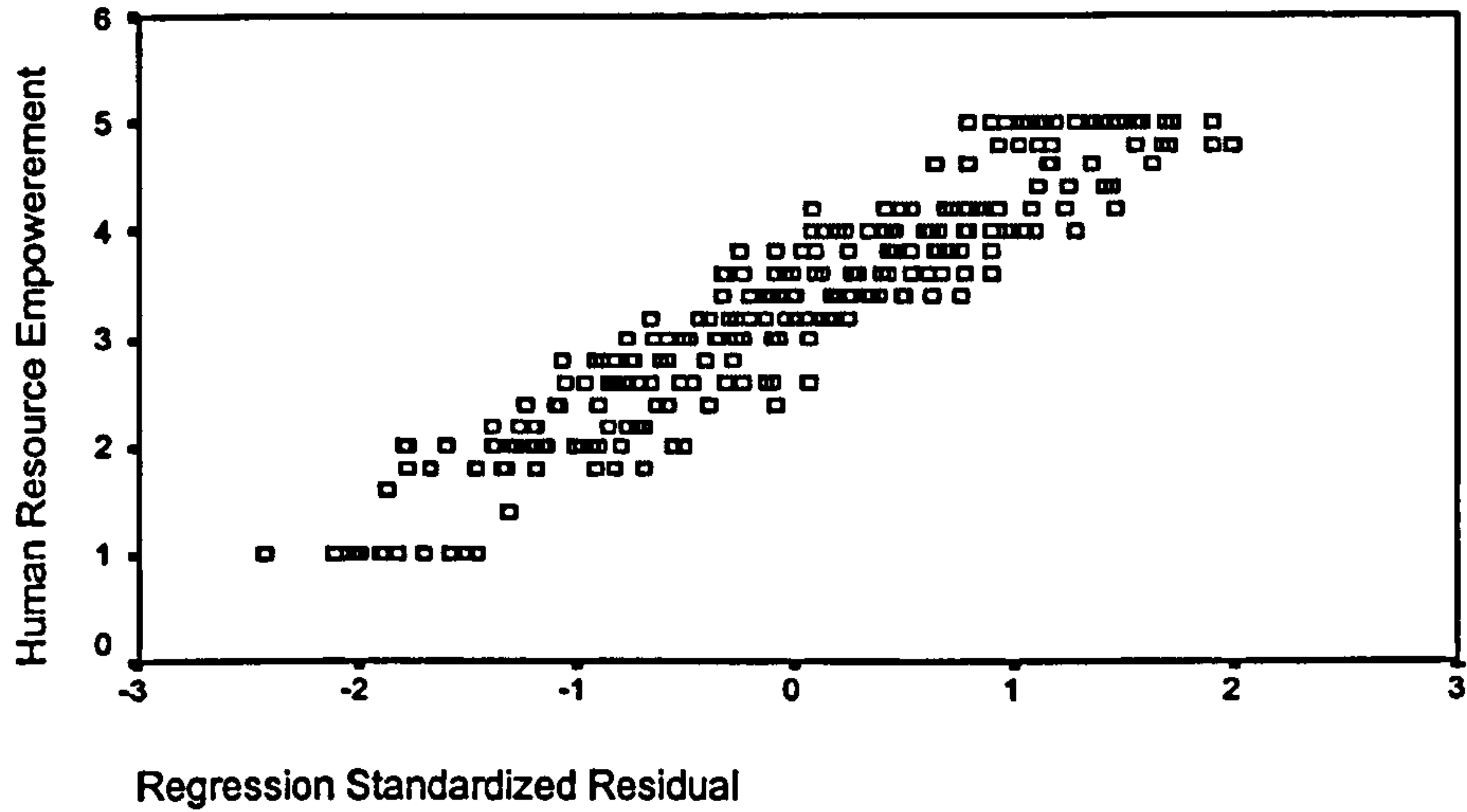




Appendix 3h: Scatter Plot of Cultural Values with Preference for Human Resource Empowerment

Scatterplot

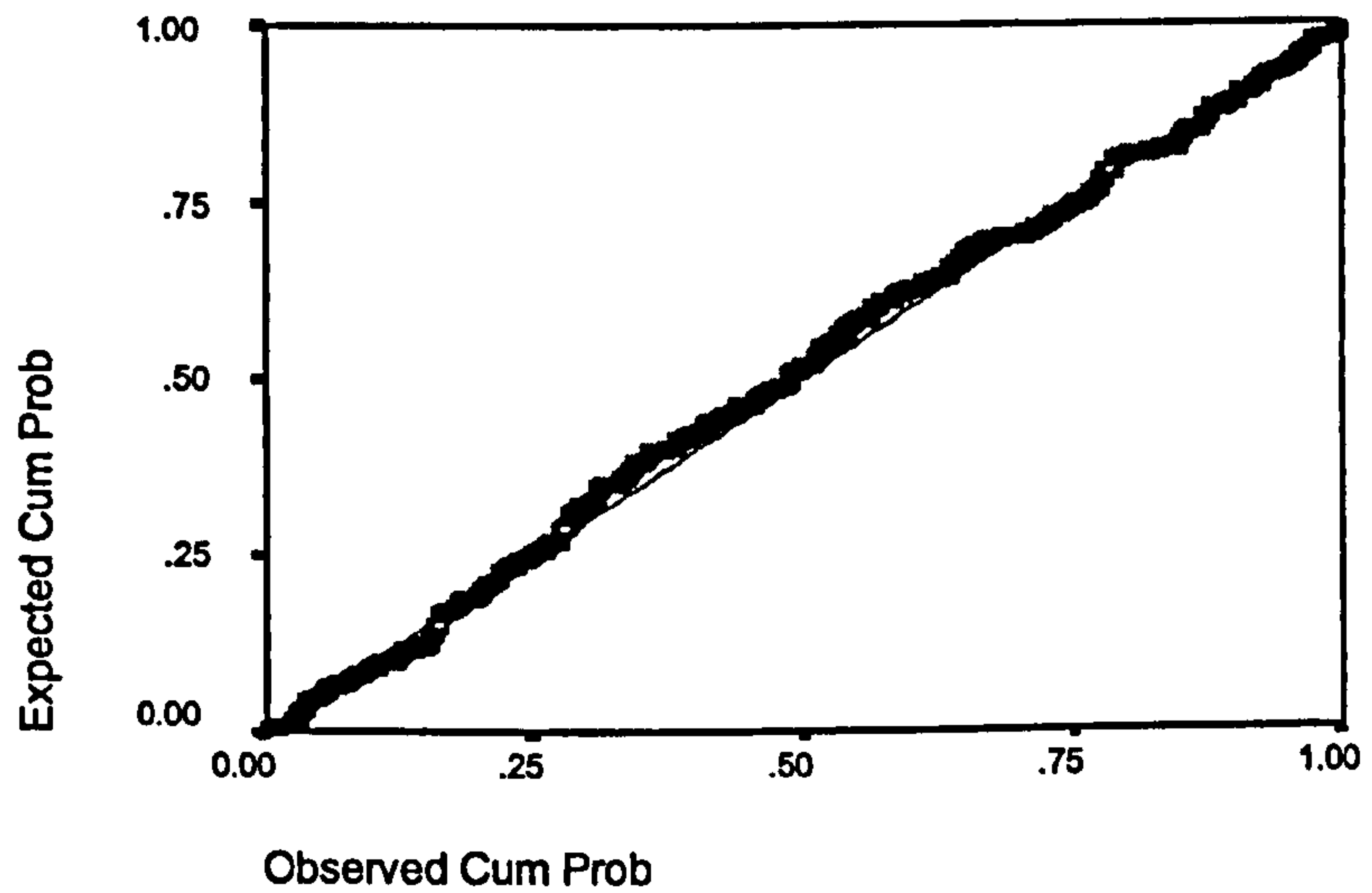
Dependent Variable: Human Resource Empowerment



Appendix 3i: Normal Probability Plot of Cultural Values with Job Involvement

Normal P-P Plot of Regression Standardized Residual

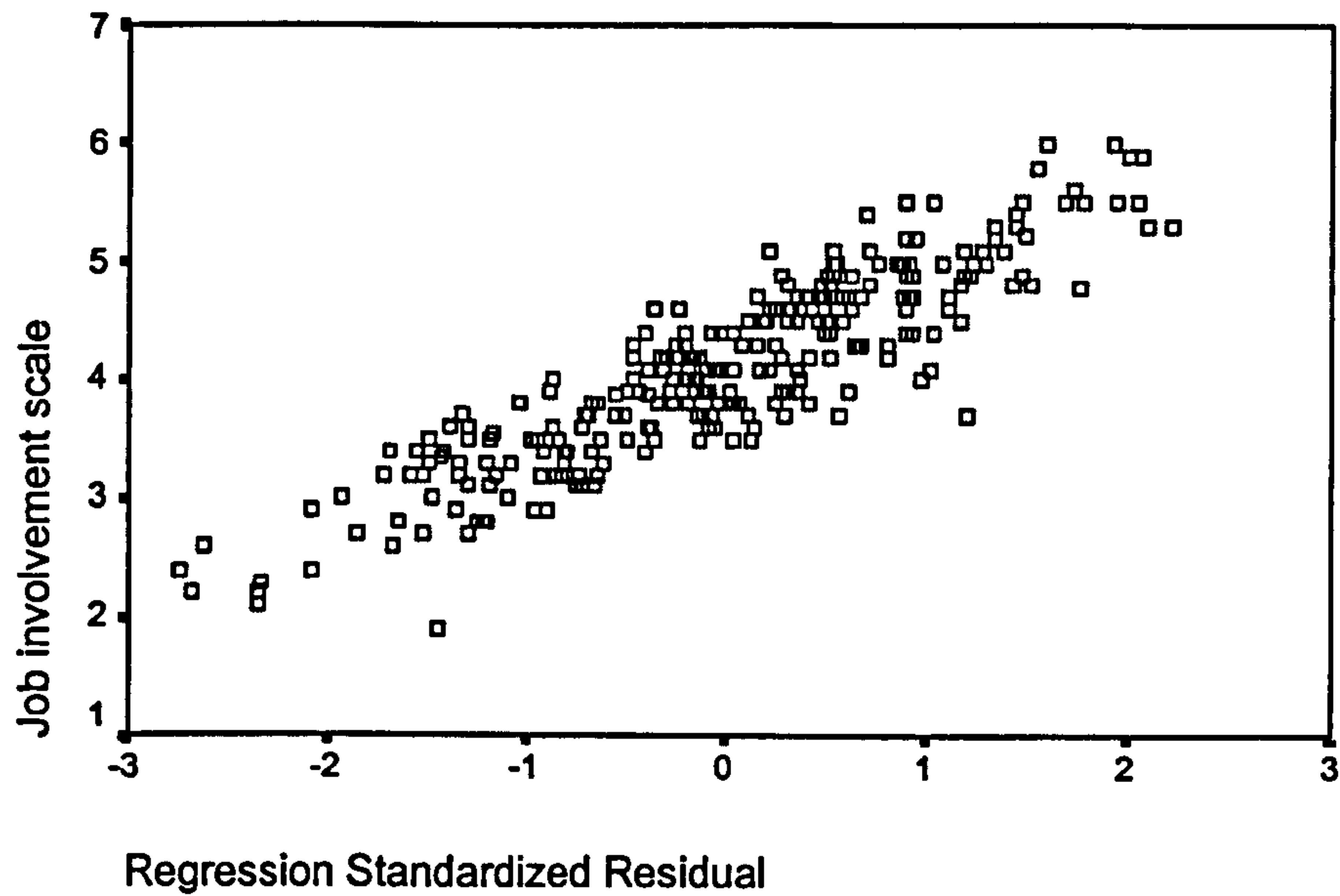
Dependent Variable: Job involvement scale



Appendix 3j: Scatter Plot of Cultural Values with Job Involvement

Scatterplot

Dependent Variable: Job involvement scale



**Note.** The above evaluations indicate that examined multivariate assumptions were not unreasonably violated hence the data is taken to be useful for analyses.



**Appendix 4.0: Pattern Matrix Showing Components Extracted from the HRM Preference Scale**

**Pattern Matrix<sup>a</sup>**

	Component									
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
HRM17	.773									
HRM18	.759									
HRM13	.753									
HRM12	.750									
HRM14	.748									
HRM11	.742									
HRM16	.659									
HRM15	.650									
HRM44		.723								
HRM45		.669						.347		
HRM41		.645								
HRM42		.623								
HRM43	.331	.588								
HRM32			.712							
HRM35			.704							
HRM33			.668							
HRM31			.655							
HRM34			.614							
HRM23				.660						
HRM21				.610						
HRM22				.569						
HRM24				.545						
HRM25				.538						
HRM26	.318			.422						
HRM6					.790					
HRM5					.556					
HRM4					.456					
HRM3				-.411	.449					
HRM9						.743				
HRM8							.697			
HRM7								-.859		
HRM2									.804	
HRM10										-.850
HRM1							-.404		.353	.447

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.  
 Rotation Method: Oblimin with Kaiser Normalization.

a. Rotation converged in 19 iterations.

## **Appendix 5.0: Actual Organisation Policy and Practices from Interviews with senior Managers and from Secondary Data**

### **6.1 Company 1's Actual HRM Policy Practice**

This is the first company whose actual HRM policy and practice are presented. The company is a Multinational Corporation (MNC) in the food processing business. The company's actual policies were provided by the Administrations Manager (ADM) who is second in rank to the Managing Director. The ADM invited the company's HR Manager to attend the interview session that followed completion of the actual policy questionnaire to clarify some of the issues that I raised during the meeting. The following is the picture provided as this company's actual HRM policy and practice.

Factor one, which reflected HR involvement/participation indicate that on average this company does not involve its employees in most of the HR decisions. The score of this variable is 2.75. This score is below the neutral score of 3, which clearly shows that this company does not involve its employees in decision making. Most of the decisions are a management issue and the employee is just informed of what the management has decided and intends to implement. However, probing this matter further from some items during the interview the ADM's arguments indicated that there is some form of involvement in the organisation like union representation, though this is not very active due to general apathy from the side of employees. These representatives collate employee grievances or ideas and air them during meetings with top management or through their unions. The manager' score on the item 'appraisals by subordinates/peers vs. appraisals by superiors indicate that the actual policy practice is to ensure that employee's performance is evaluated by his/her superiors.

The second item in the factor (make the criteria used for selection very clear to all job applicants vs. not reveal all the criteria used for selection to every job applicant) is scored toward 'not revealing all the criteria used for selection to every job applicant'. During the interview I asked a question with this regard to know why the criteria used for selection to every job applicant, the ADM pointed out that some jobs require negotiated contracts and cannot be made clear to every applicant especially if there are no prospects for selecting the applicant. The personnel policy was not clear in this area as it stated:



**'All vacancies shall be advertised in the relevant sources with all the requirements of the job and the right person spelled out'.**

The HR manager commented that it is not possible to reveal most issues to an applicant who has not been confirmed or who has not signed an employment contract. On the issue of training, item 3 provided the manager with two alternatives to choose from like all the rest. The item stated that 'Ensure the average employee spends more than one week in 'off-the-job' training each year vs. the alternative, "do not require the average employee to spend more than one week in 'off-the-job training"'. The manager completing this questionnaire indicated that the practice is toward 'do not require the average employee to spend more than one week in 'off-the-job' training each year'. The personnel policy section on training indicated that most employees are trained on the job mainly by their supervisors or those who have better knowledge of the job in question. It stated that 'the company will endeavour to reduce the cost of training by recruiting people who are already well qualified in the job. Only in circumstances when new technology or machinery has been introduced and no one is available to train employees on the job that an employee can be sent to train off his or her job'. The company's policy regarding the best way of working is that the company determines the one best way to do the job so employees' views are not necessary. During the interview the ADM argued that:

**'It is for the company to determine what is best for it and how best it should be carried out. The employee only needs directions and instructions on what already is determined as the best way to do a particular job because this creates order in the organisation and allows performance to be evaluated on set out ways of doing work'.**

The next item that formed this factor is item five 'Employees to have minimum say in their career vs. employees to have a major say in career'. The Manager indicated that the company's policy on this is neutral, meaning that the actual policy is either of the two. The training policy 'on an *ad hoc* basis vs. a formal, systematic training' policy for all employee levels was scored by the manager showing that the actual policy was to train on an *ad hoc* basis. The company does not invest much in a systematic training policy as already stated in the personnel manual. The item 'Encourage employees to become shareholders of the firm vs. do not expect employees to be shareholders of the firm'. The Administrations Manager scored strongly toward 'do not expect employees to become shareholders of the firm'. The last item on this factor on HR

involvement/participation is 'Employees pay be made public knowledge vs. Employees pay be kept secret'. The score indicates that the company's actual policy is to keep employees pay levels secret. This issue was also raised with the HR manager who was present in the meeting and the reaction was:

'Pay is a personal matter and it would be wrong to let every one know what each of us earns. Furthermore, some employees' contracts are negotiated and the firm would not like to make such pay public as it might kill the moral of some employees'.

What comes out of this analysis is that this company' actual HRM policy does not favour involving its human resources. The decisions seem to be centralised at the top management level and employees are there to do there job and get paid at the end of the month. Since preference for this Kenyan sample was to involve employees in decisions that affect them, it is then right to conclude that there is no full convergence but since there is some form of participation through representatives some form of slight convergence is apparent.

The second HRM factor deals with predictability of HR rewards. The first item (Item 1) in this factor states that 'Wage determination be compared with the group vs. Wage be comparable with the market rates'. This company's actual policy is neutral on this item indicating that it uses either policy depending on particular criteria. During the interview the ADM made it clear that the company makes use of both, depending on the job and what the Government minimum wage is for the industry. Some employees have skills that are very competitive hence, the company has to stretch to keep them otherwise they will be poached. Item 2 states that 'Offer training for more transferable skills vs. offer training that improves the employees present skills or knowledge of the job within the organisation'. The manager's score on this item is neutral as the company can implement either. On whether pay increases are based on group or individual performance (Item 3) the administrations manager scored towards the alternative 'determine pay increases mainly by the group or division's work performance'. This particular issue was of interest because I thought it had some cultural connotations. So, I wanted to know the rationale behind such a policy and asked the manager for the reason for such a policy. His answer was:

'Most of our work is done in teams within the factory and requires teamwork so the company's policy is to ensure that the teams are



rewarded as teams rather than individuals. However, for some jobs that may be the minority the company pays on an individual basis’.

For item 4 ‘Focus performance on group achievement vs. Focus performance on personal achievement’ the ADM scored toward focus performance on personal achievements of the individual. When I argued that this contradicts his earlier indication that pay increases are by group performance he asked his HR manager to respond who said:

‘It isn’t a contradiction because here the company is able to gauge poor performers and decisions requiring individual employees like promotion can be assessed adequately unlike performance that requires group or team work’

Another item is ‘Reward special achievement through financial incentives (such as gifts) vs. Reward special achievement through non-monetary incentives (such as praise)’ the company’s policy is neutral. The Manager indicated that this is because there are different types of rewards in the company, some are financial and some are non-financial. The company’s actual policy on planning is ‘Tight formal HR planning instead of loose informal HR planning’.

In summary, then, this company’s actual policy regarding predictable rewards is neutral. The company can provide some policies that ensure predictability while others are not (see Chapter Six Table 6.3). The average mean score for this factor from the employees’ perspective is 3.51 while the manager’s average score is 3.33. There is some form of convergence because the manager’s average score and employees’ average mean score do not deviate so much from each other in spite of the fact that employees’ score slightly higher than the manager.

Table 6.3 shows that company one’s actual policy, on performance vs. loyalty HRM practices are middling with a slight tendency toward loyalty HRM practice. The average score is 3.40, which seems to be neutral as score of 3 is taken to be the mid-point. An item by item look of this factor may provide a clearer picture of this company’s HRM practice with regard to performance vs. loyalty HRM policy practice.

The first item is ‘Pay regardless of age and seniority vs. Pay based on age and seniority’. The manager’s score indicate that the company’s HRM practice is neutral

when it comes to whether to base pay on age and seniority or not. This would imply that the company does not strongly support this policy nor reject it. The second item in the factor is whether performance appraisals should be done frequently or once in a while. The score reported for this item is toward performance appraisals to be done once in a while. Consulting the personnel policy this practice was confirmed because it stated regarding this policy that 'employee performance appraisals shall be carried out once a year or when there is need to consider an employee for promotion or an award'. Again, during the interview the managers indicated that appraisals might be carried out when there seems to be a potential problem in a particular team in spite of the fact that the company keeps a close watch on daily happenings within the firm. The third item, 'Ensure individual needs and expectations are taken into account when determining salary vs. Ensure company needs and expectations are always taken into account when determining pay' shows that this company practices mostly the one where they ensure company needs are taken into account. Fill job vacancies with the best people vs. Fill job vacancies with insiders first, the score shows that the company tends to fill job vacancies with the best people first whether from inside or outside the company. The company's personnel policy also converged with this score as it states that 'Vacancies shall be advertised both internally and externally and potential applicants encouraged to apply from where the best person shall be selected after a formal interview'. The last item loading on this factor is 'Provide jobs that make one switch jobs vs. Provide jobs that make one an expert' shows that the company's actual policy is to provide jobs that enable one to become an expert on one or two areas.

Human Resource Empowerment is the fourth factor analysed for this firm's actual policy. The average score of 3.00 shows that the company's policy regarding HR empowerment is neutral. A look at the items loading on this factor reveals that the scores for these items are all neutral except for one item. This is the first item 'The company should consider cost issues before designing jobs to attract the best people vs. The company should design jobs regardless of cost', which the manager scored towards, the company should consider the cost issues before designing jobs to attract the best people. Therefore, it is clear that the company is completely neutral regarding empowerment practices. Again, it seems that there is slight tendency toward convergence rather than full convergence with regard to empowerment of human resources.



Overall, the company's actual HRM policy and practice is not to involve or require employee participation, provide predictable HR rewards when it is feasible, implement both performance vs. loyalty HRM practices, and practice HR empowerment or don't. This indicates that this company tries to provide HRM practices that support strategy and preference. However, when that is not feasible they don't mind about whether policy practice converges with preference or not.

## 6.2 Company 2's Actual HRM Policy Practice

The actual policies of this company were provided by the HR Manager of the company both quantitatively and by interview. I was not allowed to examine the personnel policy manual as they argued that the HR manager is conversant with all policy issues and whatever I wanted to clarify could be handled in an interview. I now examine the manager's responses to the questionnaire and interview statements where sought and provided.

The company's policy on HR involvement seems to be neutral with an average score of 3.25. Responses to questionnaire items give the following picture. On whether appraisals are to be carried out by subordinates/peers or by superiors, the manager indicates that this should be done by the superiors and not the subordinates or peers. This was confirmed during interviewing, where the HR manager argued that 'the policy here is for the supervisors to monitor employee's performance and give feedback to top management who uses it to make various decisions. Subordinates are likely to be biased and favour their colleagues. Furthermore, they do not know what is exactly needed from the appraisals'. The HR manager continued to argue that 'even employees feel that their superiors are the ones who know better what is required of them when it comes to evaluating their performance'. Item two states that 'Make the criteria used for selection very clear to all applicants vs. not reveal all the criteria used for selection to every job applicant'. This HR manager's response was neutral to this item. 'Not require off the job training for employees for one week each year vs. Employees go for off the job training for one week each year' is the third item in this first factor on HR involvement or participation. The HR manager of this company indicated that the actual policy is, 'do not require employees to go for off the job training for a week each year'. When I asked the HR manager the reasoning behind this policy he hinted that most of the company's work is manual or does not require any complex training. All

forms of training are carried within the company if need arises but it is not necessary. I asked the manager what the company does when new technology is introduced to which he replied:

**‘The company’s machinery has been the same for a long time now and those who are experienced train those who come in if they are to work as machine operators. So, when the company introduces new machines requiring new technology, I think the technology provider will be asked to train those who are to run them within the firm’.**

Item four ‘Management determine the best way to work vs. Workers determine how they work’ was scored neutral indicating a middle way response. Employees to have a minimum say in career vs. Employees to have a major say in career was scored towards the ‘employees not to have a major say in career. This company’s HR manager had a response to this issue when I raised it during the interview. I asked him why the company does not favour employees to have a major say in their career to which he replied:

**‘Employees can be considered for career progression if and when job promotions arise and they qualify. As I said, the company’s policy on training is not very pronounced and it is for the individual employee to take his or her own initiative to train for career advancement, an area outside company policy when done outside working hours’.**

Item six also loading on this factor is ‘Informal training policy on an *ad hoc* policy vs. Formal systematic training policy’. The manager’s response to this was strongly toward ‘Informal training policy on an *ad hoc* basis, which was clear given the company’s attitude toward employee training. On the issue of making employees partners of the firm (Not expect employees to be shareholders of the firm vs. Encourage employees to be shareholders of the firm), the manager scored strongly toward ‘Do not expect employees to be shareholders of the firm’. Item eight stating that ‘Employees pay be made public knowledge vs. Keep employees personal pay secret’, was scored by the HR manager toward ‘keep employee’s pay secret’. When I asked the HR manager why this is the company’s practice he argued:

**‘In theory most employees would like to know what other employees earn, but in practice they even don’t want anyone to know how much they earn. ...you know salaries in such a company are not huge and most of us would rather save face that we are doing great but in reality things are really bad. Therefore, the company keeps employees’ salaries secret only known by those who prepare the payslips’.**



Therefore, this analyses when compared with the company's average score (3.25), interview responses and employee preference shows that there is some form of convergence, though not total. In some cases the company tries to match preference with policy practice whereas in some cases there are inconsistencies.

The second group of actual HRM policies dealt with predictability of rewards. To what extent company policy provides rewards that are predictable. This company's actual policy seems to be toward more predictable rewards but lingering around the neutral point. The average score is 3.50. The following is the picture from the manager's responses to the various items in this factor.

Item one 'Wage determination compared with the group vs. Wage comparable with market rates', indicates that this company's actual policy practice is neutral. The second item is 'Training for more transferable skills vs. Training for improving present skills'. The HR manager's score is toward training for improving present skills within the firm. Item three is about whether pay increases are based on group performance or personal performance. The score for this policy practice is determine pay increases based on individual performance. I posed a question related to this policy practice. I asked why this is the case yet it seems that most of the work is done in groups and the manager's reply was:

'The company is profit oriented and does not have that much money to consider group increments hence, the tendency to encourage people to work hard on their jobs and be rewarded accordingly. A group increment will not be fair as some people may benefit from other people's hard work or even encourage laziness because one knows that at the end of the day if increments are given, I will also be given. So, from experience rewarding individual performance is more motivating to our employees'.

The other related item to the foregoing one is 'Focus performance on group achievement vs. Focus performance on personal achievement'. The HR manager's response to this item is scored towards focus performance on personal achievement. Item four states that 'Rewards be by non-financial incentives vs. Rewards by financial incentives'. This item is scored neutral indicating that the company's practice is either way. The last item loading on this factor is 'Loose informal HR planning vs. tight formal HR planning'. The score for this item shows that this company's practice is neutral allowing for some flexibility in planning. This question was put to the HR

manager about how they practice both loose and tight formal planning at the same time and his reply was that some plans in the company are made and could be changed as circumstances allow. He indicated that the environment the company operates in is at times dynamic that it can not afford tight planning in spite of the fact that at times it requires tight plans to deal with some issues.

This company seems to provide some predictability in the HRM policy and practices regarding rewards indicating convergence between policy and preference. Table 6.3 indicates that there is no difference between employees, average mean (3.51) and this company's manager average score (3.50) do converge on average.

The company's actual policy on performance vs. loyalty HRM practices indicate that there is a tendency to favour performance related HRM practice rather than loyalty related HRM. The average score for this HRM practice is 2.20 indicating that this firm's policy practice is that of performance HRM. The items in this factor provide the same picture. Item one 'Pay regardless of age and seniority vs. Pay based on age and seniority', is strongly scored toward 'Pay without regard to age and seniority' meaning that the employee has to perform to deserve the pay. This result is consistent with others where the manager argued that individual performance is most important for this organisation. Item two 'Performance appraisals done frequently vs. Performance appraisals done once in a while' is scored strongly toward, 'make frequent performance evaluations'. The HR manager scores item 3 in this factor (Consider company needs when determining pay vs. Consider employee needs when determining pay) as neutral indicating that they take both into consideration. The other item is item 4 'Fill vacancies with the best people first vs. Fill vacancies with inside people first'. The manager's score for this item is strongly toward fill vacancies with the best people first. I wanted to know how they manage to balance the regional preference of locals to work for a company operating from their area, to which the manager responded:

'This is not a problem as this city is the provincial headquarters with people from different ethnic groups. So, the company tries to recruit from all these groups provided one is qualified but mostly we find people from this area looking for jobs because they belong here and naturally they are the majority. These people normally fill none skilled jobs'.



I further inquired whether this causes resentment from other ethnic groups but his response was that: 'it is not because of the fact that the firm is in this area and they are only a majority in non-technical jobs. Furthermore, 'it is the common practice for regional companies to fill non-technical jobs with locals', said the HR manager. The last item in this factor is 'Provide jobs that make one switch jobs vs. Provide jobs that make one an expert'. The manager's score was toward the alternative, 'Provide jobs that make one an expert in his or her job'.

In general, this company's policy and practice (2.20) seem to converge with employee preference (2.43).

The HR empowerment factor was scored on average toward the practice not to empower the company's human resources. The average score was 2.20, which tends toward the policies that do not encourage HR empowerment. The following is the picture of the item by item scores by the HR manager of this company.

The first item was 'Always take cost into consideration when designing jobs vs. Design jobs regardless of cost'. The HR manager scores this item toward 'Always take cost into consideration when designing jobs'. The second item 'Managers to determine what is best vs. Employees participate in job evaluation', was also scored toward the practice 'Managers to determine what is best in job evaluations'. This indicates that the company's policy is not to involve employees in any way while evaluating jobs. During the interview session with the HR manager, I asked how this is possible because employees are the people who do the work and know what it entails, he said:

'The jobs in the company are not very technical and most of them are routine jobs which the management knows about. Therefore, if any changes are to be made the management is usually well informed mainly from the supervisor on what needs to be done'.

The other HR empowerment policy was on whether the organisation should maintain the present level of the organisation structure or minimise the layers of the organisation structure. The score indicates a tendency towards maintain the present level. This being a local private firm most of the decisions are centralised in the top management that is comprised of the owners of the firm and a few other managers. On whether rewards should focus only performance or qualifications and skill, the manager's score

indicated that the company's actual policy practice is to focus reward on performance rather than qualifications and skill. The last item loading on this factor is 'Guarantee employment security vs. Guarantee same job security'. For this item, the manager's score is neutral indicating they tend to go for both policy practices.

On average the analysis indicates that there is no convergence regarding preference (3.31) for empowerment and policy practice (2.20) for empowerment.

It has been established from the scores assigned various items in the factors that this company's actual policy practice is either to involve or not to involve its human resources in issues that affect them, to provide predictable rewards but not always, practice HRM policies that are performance oriented rather than loyalty oriented, and not to bother with human resource empowerment.

### 6.3 Company 3's Actual HRM Policy Practice

The results indicate that company 3's average score for HR involvement is 3.63, which is neutral but then tends to slightly favour involvement of employees. The actual policy seems to involve employees but not in all policy areas. The company chooses to involve employees when its interests are not being jeopardised. It seems that some policies are centralised and employees are left out from any kind of participation whereas, some have been decentralised or rather employee participation is sought most probably on those affecting them. Item by item analysis gives the following picture of this company's actual policy and practice on issues of HR involvement or participation. On the policy of appraisals by either, superiors and peers or by superiors it shows that this company's policy is to ensure that an employee's performance is solely an affair of his or her supervisor. This company's actual policy on whether to reveal its selection criteria or not, indicates that it makes the selection criteria very clear to all applicants. The company's actual policy requires that average employees do not spend more than one week on off the job training each year. Item four' (Management determine best way for employees to work vs. Employees determine the best way to work), score shows that the company's actual policy is to provide many opportunities that allow workers to determine how they do their job rather than the company determining the one best way to do the job so employees' views are not necessary. Regarding employees having a say in career or not, the managers score indicates that the



company's policy is neutral. On whether the training policy should be formal, systematic covering all employee levels vs. a policy that allows employees to be trained on an *ad hoc* basis, the company's policy seems to be providing a policy that is formal and systematic covering all the employee levels. Item seven covered the issue of employee partnership stating 'Do not expect or require employees to become shareholders of the firm vs. Encourage employees to become shareholders of the firm'. The manager's score indicate that they encourage employees to be shareholders of the firm. This is so because this is a Public limited company that is open to anyone who can buy shares and be a partner. The company's policy regarding keeping employee's pay secret or public knowledge is scored toward keeping employees' personal pay secret.

In general, some of these actual policy choices converged with what was in the company's personnel manual. For instance, the company is to advertise any job vacancies making clear the job and person requirements of the job to enable applicants judge whether they match the requirements. On training, the personnel manual had several guidelines on training issues. For example, there has to be a clear training need as can be recognised from the need for new skills due to introduction of new technology, or the performance appraisal indicate that the employee falls short of the job requirements and shows signs of improvement. Employees, personal pay must have been secret as scored by the HR manager as he declined to allow me access to pay documents of the company. However, pay is paid according to grade.

Predictable HR rewards also shows that this company's actual practice is in the middle way but toward more predictability because the average score is 3.50. This shows that not all policies provide employees with predictable HR rewards but some do for example, the company do not provide pay that is comparable with the market but with company performance. The company varies its pay with profitability, even though this is not guaranteed, from the interview I had with the HRM Manager when he said:

'Pay is based upon how productive the employee and the company were during that period. There are periods when the company faces slumps due to several reasons and cannot afford to give any increments. However, at other periods the company does well and we consider some form of reward like yearly bonus. The pay can be higher than the market or below the market but we consider our policy reasonable'.

Another item, which the manager scored slightly toward the middle, was the issue of providing financial incentives. When I consulted the personnel manual it indicated that employees are entitled to financial incentives like long service awards. After an employee has served the company for up to a minimum of five years he or she receives a certificate and a financial reward varied across the job grade. In some circumstances they had only recognition rewards like salesman of the year whereby the employee's picture is displayed at the reception and recommended verbally in front of his colleagues during end of year parties. It was clear that financial incentives can be expensive for the firm and it does not fully pursue that policy.

On whether this company's actual training policy is on transferable skills or allow training for improving current skills or knowledge for his/her present job within the firm, the manager's choice is neutral on this issue indicating that the company goes for either policy. This was confirmed from the company's personnel manual, which stated that:

'The company shall endeavour to provide training whenever a need is identified and funds for the training needed are available. Training needs are to be identified from performance appraisals and job evaluations, which are carried out yearly'.

This company seems to practice reward HRM policies that are predictable to some extent. Most of the items tend to converge. The manager's average score is 3.50 whereas, employees, preference for predictable rewards is 3.51. This difference on average is quite minimal indicating convergence.

Regarding performance focus, whether the focus is on group performance or individual performance, the manager's choice was also neutral meaning that it depends on the type of job. If the job required group effort and team work then, the company focuses performance on the team. On the other hand, if the job required individual input that will call for individual performance focus.

In general, predictability of HR rewards for this company tends to be in the middle or rather neutral with a tendency toward predictability.

Responses to the third factor that is performance vs. loyalty HRM practices, the HR manager assigned scores to the items on the lower side of the factor which shows that



the actual policy tends to be related to performance HRM practice. The average score, for this factor for this company is 2.00, which is very much toward performance HRM practices. For example, pay regardless of age and seniority or pay based on age and seniority, the score is 'determine pay or salaries regardless of age and seniority of the employee'. However, this did contradict what the personnel manual indicated about the actual policy. The policy was to pay on the basis of grade and experience of the employee. Usually the high grades are held by people advanced in age essentially by those who have gained experience from the number of years in the job and the longer one stays on he moves up the grades. Another item in the performance HRM practice factor is considering company needs rather than employee needs when determining pay increments. The management's score indicated that the company's policy is to determine pay by considering what company needs rather than the employee's needs. The manager of this company strongly agrees that the company's actual policy regarding filling jobs is to fill them with the best people available. During the interview it was clear that the company has policies guiding the filling of jobs. The jobs have to be filled by people who fulfil the laid down job and person description of the organisation. They must possess the required ability to perform. The actual policy on job provision is to provide jobs that make one to switch jobs in order to gain a variety of skills. While interviewing the HRM manager of this company on how they train employees for this switching of jobs he said:

'The company has an in door training programme whereby employees rotate around working in different sections on related jobs. This enables them to acquire skills as they work under people already experienced in the jobs they have been rotated to perform'.

Overall, the company's policy on the performance vs. loyalty HRM practices factor recognises performance based HRM practice rather than those that make employees loyal to the firm. However, such performance-based policies can be the best for some employees as we saw from the employee preference analysis that may result in loyalty. In general, as seen from this analysis and from table 6.3 there is some form of convergence given that the manager's average score is 2.00 while that of employees is 2.43.

Analysis of the factor on human resource empowerment indicates on average a tendency toward HR empowerment actual policy. The responses to the items in the factor are for

example, always take cost into consideration while designing jobs vs. design jobs regardless of cost. The HRM manager scores a very positive response toward design jobs regardless of the cost. This is intended to attract and keep the best people. There is an indication that the actual policy is to treat job evaluation as a joint problem solving discussion rather than leaving the whole exercise to managers or employees. The HR manager in this company scores toward actual policy with regard to structuring the organisation to minimise layers of management to the minimum number possible. When asked why this is the case he argued that:

‘Many layers of management actually increases unnecessary costs to the company and creates communication bottlenecks and that is why the company is thinking of restructuring to improve efficiency in this areas and others which I cannot discuss with you’.

It was also clear from the score on the item ‘rewards to focus only on performance rather than considering qualifications and skill’ that the actual policy is to focus solely on performance rather than considering qualifications and skills. On this policy the HR manager argued that:

‘Qualifications and skill are an important consideration during selection, but when it comes to rewarding an employee he or she must show that he/she can perform. Essentially, what is important at this stage is not qualifications but proving that one is worth the papers he or she holds’.

Another item that clustered on this factor is ‘guarantee employment security vs. job security’. The HR manager’s score shows that the company’s actual policy is neutral on this policy. The company’s personnel manual reflected this score when perusing through issues regarding dismissals and other disciplinary actions against employees, it states that:

‘The company endeavours to provide a life long job on condition that the employee’s performance is satisfactory. However, in case of misconduct necessary action will be taken which might lead to dismissal’.

The policy listed all shorts of actions regarded as misconduct like drunkenness while on duty, regular lateness, insubordination, etc. There where laid down procedures for handling grievances before any drastic decision that may lead to dismissal is taken. The company also made it clear that it hopes to keep its employees as long us it is economically viable to do so. When I put this issue of economic viability to the HR



manager during the interview he indicated that these are periods when the company loses major sections of its market share and cannot sale what the employees produce or during a recession when production goes down necessitating closure of some units and declaring some employees redundant. Again, he hinted that the company tries to ensure job security (working on the same job) only if there is no need to move the employees because the company's aim is to provide training on a rotational basis. The skills they acquire would help move employees to do other jobs within the organisation. The picture emerging from this analysis is that this company practices human resource empowerment. This company's executive scored on average 4.20 toward empowerment policy practice, which is more than average employee mean score for empowerment of 3.31.

From the analysis it can be seen that company 3's actual HRM policies and practice tend to favour HR involvement to some degree. The same picture comes out regarding predictability of rewards. The organisation strongly favours performance instead of loyalty HRM practice and on average uses HR empowerment policies.

#### 6.4 Company 4's Actual HRM Policy Practice

The actual HRM policies and practice of this company where provided by the Managing Director (MD) who completed the questionnaire and gave an interview thereafter. The interview gave me insight into the different HRM policies the company is using and the opportunity to check for convergence of the responses to the questionnaire. The following is analysis of the responses to the various items in the four HRM factors.

The average score (3.88) for HR involvement or participation indicates that this company tends to involve its human resources in issues that affect them and the company. The MD's score for item one 'Appraisals by subordinates/peers vs. Appraisals by superiors' indicates that the company's actual policy is to use superiors in performance appraisals. When I asked why the company does not prefer the other alternative or a mixture of both, the MD's response was that:

'Most Africans respect those in authority and feel that they are not cheated because someone knowledgeable has evaluated him or her. Again, part of the job descriptions of the supervisors required that they appraise their subordinates and provide them with feedback'.

The second item 'Not to reveal selection criteria to all applicants vs. Selection criteria be made clear' was scored strongly toward making the selection criteria clear to all applicants. During the interview with the MD, he argued that the company's policy is to advertise in national newspapers and the criteria for individual applicants is clearly spelled out. Therefore, he said, there is no way the company can recruit without specifying the requirements to be met by potential applicants. On the policy of requiring employees to go for off the job training or not, the MD scored toward 'do not require employees to go for off the job training. The reason he gave was the skills required for this kind of organisation can only be learnt on the job and not off the job. Item 4 'Management determine the best way to work vs. Workers determine how they work' the MD scored strongly toward 'Employees determine how they work'. On whether employees have minimum say in their career vs. have a major say in their career, the score indicates that the company's actual policy is to enable employees to have a significant say in their career. This issue was raised during the interview, as I wanted to know how this is implemented, and the MD's response was:

'Well, this is a highly technical oriented company that requires employees who are highly qualified in their trade whose skills are in demand. So, the company's policy is to involve them in most issues that affect them and foremost in their mind is career progression. The company can not afford to be undemocratic with such highly qualified technicians whose skills are not plenty in the market...therefore, we have to be flexible in dealing with them so long as company goals are not compromised'.

What came out was that the company needs highly trained people mostly holders of engineering degrees and the company has to provide opportunities for growth, otherwise they might move on to other companies. The company's actual policy on whether they provide a formal, systematic training policy that covers all employee levels or provide a training policy that allows employees to be trained on an *ad hoc* basis, is that it practices both. Item 7 inquired whether the company's policy encourages employees to be shareholders of the firm or not. The MD's score was 'Do not expect employees to become shareholders of the company. During the interview session, I asked the MD to give a reason for this attitude. The MD indicated that the company is State owned and other big names in the industry who haven't decided to float the company's shares in the market from where the employees or the public can buy them. The last item is item 8 in this factor. The item states 'Employees pay be



made public knowledge vs. Keep employees pay secret'. The common practice it seems for most companies is to keep employees salaries secret as this company's MD scored strongly toward this choice. This analysis and the manager's average score in Table 6.3 for this factor (3.88) and employee's preference in Table 5.2.7 (3.81) imply convergence.

The second HRM policy practice examined for this company is predictability of HR rewards. This company's average score of 3.83 indicates that its actual policy is to provide predictable rewards. A one by one analysis of the items in this factor and some interview responses reveal this fact. Item 1 'Wage determination compared with group or division vs. Wage determination comparable with the market' was scored strongly toward wage determination comparable with the market. Again, the MD argued that this is the case because of the kind of employees the company needs hence, it cannot offer lower wages than the rest of the market as it might not keep such employees. Training for more transferable skills vs. Training for improving present skills was scored towards training for improving present skills. The third item 'Pay increases by group performance vs. Pay increases by personal performance' was scored strongly toward pay increases by individual performance. On whether the actual policy practice is to focus performance appraisals on group achievement or on personal achievement, again, the manager's score was strongly towards performance based on personal achievement. Item 5 'Rewards by non-financial incentives vs. Rewards by financial incentives' was scored neutral. The last item on this factor is 'Loose informal HR planning vs. tight formal HR planning' that was scored by the MD as neutral meaning; the actual policy is to practice both. There seem to be a tendency toward an in between policy regarding this policy showing that to some extent there is some form of convergence (see Table 5.2.7 and Table 6.3).

Human Resources Management policy and practice for factor three referred to as Performance vs. Loyalty HRM practice shows that this company practices policies that recognise both performance and enables employees to be loyal to the firm. From the earlier analysis this position can be understood because this is a highly engineering oriented company which depends on very skilled employees whose skills are not readily available in a developing country. Therefore, it is plausible to infer that they want their employees to perform and at the same time remain loyal to the company. The average

score for this factor is neutral with a slight tendency toward loyalty at 3.40 but showing support for both HRM practices. The following picture is obtained from the items in the factor.

The manager's score is neutral for almost all the items except for the item 'Performance appraisals done frequently vs. Performance appraisals done once in a while'. The score here was toward performance appraisals done regularly. From the interview with the MD it was made clear that performance appraisals are done regularly after every six months. The other item that was not neutral was item 5 'Provide jobs that make one switch jobs vs. Provide jobs that make one an expert'. This item's score was toward 'provide jobs that make one an expert'. The MD stressed during the interview that these are highly specialised jobs that cannot allow switching around hence, the company's preference for such a practice. This analysis shows that there is convergence of some sort but Tables 5.2.7 and 6.3 indicate that whereas employees prefer performance the company gives both performance and preference. Again, showing that they get more than what they prefer, which is not a bad position for the employees hence, I would not be wrong to say that there is convergence.

The factor on HR empowerment concurs with earlier findings that the company wants to involve employees in company affairs and those that affect their welfare as much as possible. The company's actual policy practice scores an average score of 4.40, which is strongly toward employee empowerment. As argued earlier, by the MD and responses to items in this factor, it seems that this company's employees are highly qualified and nothing less than a democratic HRM policy practice is going to make them work for this company as many others are ready to hire their skills hence, the practice to empower the employees. There seem to be convergence here as the employees prefer empowerment and the company practices such policies. Table 5.2.7 and 6.3 indicate that on average preference matches policy.

#### 6.5 Company 5's Actual HRM Policy Practice

This company's HRM policy practice was provided by one of the company's directors holding the position of financial controller. Overall, the company's actual policy on the four factors presents a picture that it practices HR involvement/participation to some degree. It provides HR rewards that are predictable but not all, practices policies that are



performance based but with an element to elicit loyalty from employees, and tends to practice policies that empower their human resources. This company's actual HRM policy respondent was interviewed on phone as efforts of meeting him personally revealed that his job is very sensitive and he is always travelling to the company's headquarters and sales offices located in the capital city Nairobi. So, a short telephone interview was arranged where he responded to a few issues considered necessary for clarification during the interview.

Human resource involvement scores an average score of 3.50, which tends to be neutral but more toward the higher side of involvement. The item by item analyses shows almost the same picture. Item 1 'Appraisals by subordinates or peers vs. Appraisals by superiors' indicates that the company's actual practice is to use superiors in appraising subordinates. The company's selection policy seems to be, 'reveal all selection criteria to all applicants'. On whether to require employees to go for off the job training or not, the company's actual policy was scored towards 'require employees to go for off the job training'. This issue was followed up during the interview conversation with the financial controller (FC) who indicated that they actually do send their employees for off the job training to some technology polytechnics and have established their own training unit which provides some essential training to employees. The FC's response to the issue of whether management determines the best way to work or workers determine how to work was scored as neutral. Item 5 inquired whether employees have minimum say or a major say in their career matters; the FC's score was again neutral. Item 6 'Informal training policy on an *ad hoc* basis vs. Formal systematic training policy', was scored toward formal systematic training policy. Whether the company encourages employees to become shareholders of the firm or not, the FC's score indicated that they do not encourage their employees to become shareholders. The Financial controller indicated during the interview that the reason for this is due to the company's present form of ownership. On whether employees pay should be kept secret or public knowledge, the FC scored toward a policy that keeps employees personal pay secret. This analysis and the results in Tables 5.2.7 and 6.3 indicate some form of convergence.

The company's policies that provide predictability of rewards show that firms' actual practice is neutral. The average score for this factor is 3.33 which is at the neutral point

meaning that almost all the items were scored towards this mid point. Analyses of the items confirms the neutrality of the choices in this group except for item 2 'Training for more transferable skills vs. Training for improving present skills' and item 3 'Pay increases by group performance vs. Pay increases by personal performance,' which were scored toward the lower side. This indicated that training was for specific skills and pay was individual-performance based. These results show that convergence is not total but there seems that preference tends to match policy.

The respondents scores to factor three, performance vs. loyalty HRM practices indicates that the average score is 3.40 which is middling but with a tendency toward the higher side. It is then, possible to infer that the company's policies are performance and loyalty based. The item by item analyses provides the following picture. Item 1 'Pay regardless of age and seniority vs. Pay based on age and seniority' is scored as neutral. Item 2 'Performance appraisals done frequently vs. Performance appraisals done once in a while' is scored toward performance appraisals done frequently. Regarding consideration of company or individual needs when determining pay the FC's score is neutral, meaning the actual practice is to consider both. The company's respondent scores item 4 'Fill vacancies with the best people first vs. Fill vacancies with insiders first' also as neutral meaning they practice both policies. The last item in this group is item 5 'Provide jobs that make one switch jobs vs. Provide jobs that make one an expert' scored strongly toward provide jobs that make one an expert. Regarding convergence between this policy practice and preference, this company scores the same as company four. Arguably, then, when employees prefer performance but they get performance plus loyalty there is some form of convergence.

Empowerment of human resources for this company indicates that the company tends to practice policies that empower its employees. The average score for this factor is 3.60, which slightly tends toward empowerment. A look at how the financial controller scores each item reveals the following picture. Item 1 'Always take cost into consideration when designing jobs vs. Design jobs regardless of cost' is scored as neutral. Item 2 'Managers to determine what is best vs. Employees participate in job evaluation' was scored toward employees participate in job evaluations. Whether to maintain present levels of structure vs. Minimise levels of organisation structure' was scored toward minimise levels of organisation structure. Item 4 'Rewards focusing



only on performance vs. Rewards considering qualifications and skill' was scored as neutral while the last item 'Guarantee employment security vs. job security was also scored toward guarantee job security. Again this company's average score is more than employee preference's average mean (3.31) indicating that they get what they prefer indicating some form of convergence.

#### 6.6 Company 6's Actual HRM Policy Practice

This is a state owned company and the only fully state run organisation in the sample. Responses to this company's actual policies were provided by the Principal Personnel Officer (PPO) in charge of state corporations at the Treasury. The picture emerging from his responses reflects means that are at the lower end (see Table 6.1). His views are typical of the kind of HRM strategies practised in state corporations in Kenya. The reason why I ended up in the PPO's office was because the factory manager who coordinated the study in this company implied that whatever HRM policy is in place is in the hands of the state machinery. Second, the Managing Director with whom I had an interview, told me he was not in a position to respond to the questionnaire on the personnel policies and referred me to the Directorate of personnel management from where I was referred to the PPO who completed the questionnaire. There is no convergence between employee preference and company policy practice in any of the factors analysed (see also Tables 5.2.7 and 6.3).

The picture from the scores is that this company does not bother with human resource involvement or participation, the HR rewards provided are not predictable, the HRM practices are not geared toward performance or loyalty, and empowerment issues are not part of the company's policies. The items in all the factors were scored towards the lower side of the alternatives confirming this picture. At the end of the questionnaire where any further comments were solicited, the Principle personnel officer gave the following comment:

'Ours is a bureaucracy and most things are written and static. However, the bureaucracy is being modified by the on going restructuring of businesses and by both global and professional effects'.

#### 6.7 Company 7's Actual HRM Policy and Practice

This company's actual HRM policy and Practice were provided by the Chief Executive Officer (CEO) of the firm. He is the one who sanctioned the study in this firm. He

completed the questionnaire and gave an interview on some issues raised in the questionnaire. The following is the picture of this company's HRM policies as provided by the CEO in the questionnaire and during the interview were available.

This is the oldest firm in the study with branches all over Kenya. The picture here is that of the Nairobi office where the study was conducted. Human resource involvement in this company seems to reflect a picture indicating that the company's actual practice is toward non-involvement of its human resources in HRM policies of the firm. The average score is 2.75, which shows that HRM policies are a top management issue and employees are there to work and be paid for their work. They have to be contented with whatever the management deems fit for them. There is no convergence between company policy practice and employee preference regarding this factor. During the interview I inquired into some items in this factor (HR involvement/participation) to which the CEO responded in general:

'...This is an old company which started when even Trade Unions were non-existent in Kenya and its culture has been to centralise most of the decision making organs and only the top management and the board of directors make almost all organisational decisions including HRM ones. It is not easy to change what is seen as the organisation's way of doing things that is now the normal culture'.

The average score of 2.33 for the second factor 'Predictability of HR rewards' presents the same picture that this company's management practices HR policies that are to the lower side of the choices. The company's policies do not provide predictability of HR rewards. An item by item response by the CEO reflects lack of predictability in the company's kind of HR practice. For example, item 3 'pay increases by group performance vs. Pay increases by personal performance' is scored toward pay increases by group performance that is not easily predictable especially when it is not easy to work as a team. Similarly item 5 'Rewards by non-financial incentives vs. Rewards by financial incentives' is scored towards rewards by non-financial incentives that are not as predictable as financial incentives. It is easy for an employee to expect (predict) a certain amount of money at the end of a job that is rewarded than a non-financial reward that one cannot predicate the form in which it will be given. Again, this company's managers scores on average less than employee preference mean (3.51) indicating none convergence.



Factor three shows that the company's Performance vs. loyalty HRM practices are in the middle way indicating that actual practice is for both performance and loyalty. A brief item by item analyses of the choices in this factor shows that this is the company's practice. During the interview the CEO observed that the firm is large and would like employees to perform and at the same time it should not spend time and money recruiting new employees all the time hence, the need to retain those who are already employed. It was apparent that the majority of this company's employees are not well educated and are in tree felling and timber cutting which means they are powerless in most company decisions. They have to do jobs that assure them continuous employment with the company. The analysis indicates that this company is more concerned with both loyalty and performance, which is fine on the surface but when all the other preferences do not match policy then, building loyalty may be not easy. However, one can conclude from results in Table 5.2.7 and Table 6.3 that there is convergence between policy practice and preference for this factor.

The last factor reflecting HR empowerment also shows that the company does not bother with HR empowerment practices. The average score (2.80) is toward the lower end indicating lack of empowerment for this company's employees. Analysing item by item responses indicate that the company takes cost into consideration while designing jobs, managers are the ones who determine what is best in job evaluations, the present structure that is highly centralised should be retained, rewards focusing only performance, and neutral in guaranteeing employment/job security. For this factor, one can conclude that there is no convergence from results in Tables 5.2.7 and 6.3 and from this analysis.

Overall, this company's actual HRM policy and practice is such that they reflect lack of HR involvement/participation, rewards are not predictable, performance and loyalty HRM are both in practice, and policies don't empower employees.

#### 6.8 Company 8's HRM Policy and Practice

This company's policies were provided by the Managing Director's designate (Human Resources Manager in charge of Training) for this study. The actual policy practice is not much different from profit oriented firms analysed earlier. The company presents the following picture from the Training manager's point of view.

This company seems to practice policies that encourage involvement/participation of their human resources. The Score average for this factor is strong towards the higher end of 4.13. This implies that most of the company's HRM policies are geared toward involvement or participation of employees. Item 1 'Appraisals done by subordinates vs. Appraisals done by superiors' was scored towards appraisals by superiors. Item 2, whether to reveal all selection criteria or not to reveal all selection criteria, indicates that the company's actual practice is to reveal all selection criteria to all applicants. The training manager posited that the company is a Plc therefore, accountable to the public that holds shares. All vacancies are advertised and transparency has to be guaranteed. He pointed out that the company recruits very qualified people hence the need to publish requirements widely and openly. Item 3 'Not require off the job training for employees vs. Employees to go for off the job training' is scored as neutral. Regarding this neutrality the training manager said that:

'The company has a very good training policy that covers both off the job training if such training cannot be provided on the job. Otherwise employees needing training can be trained off the job. The company also provides training that requires some skills to be acquired abroad'.

In this company workers determine the best way to work with management's input where necessary. The managers score to item 4 'Management determine best way to work vs. Workers determine how they work, was scored toward 'worker's determine how to work'. I asked during the interview why and how workers determine the best way to work and the manager's response was:

'Our employees get a sense of ownership when they are left to do their work and management only comes in when things are not right or the employee(s) get stuck. The employee is the one whose skills the company has employed and expects him/her to do the job he or she is best qualified to perform'.

The manager was even more dramatic when he metaphorically commented that:

'You don't buy a watch dog and you start barking yourself'.

On the same note item 5 stated 'Employees have a minimum or a major say in career', and was scored toward the high side indicating that the actual policy is to let the employees have a major say in their career paths. Item 6 'Informal training policy on an *ad hoc* basis vs. Formal systematic training policy' was scored toward the high side of a



formal, systematic training policy. This seems to be the case as the company has a Human Resource Manager in charge of training. Item 7 'Not to expect employees to be shareholders vs. Encourage employees to become shareholders of the firm' was scored toward the side 'Encourage employees to become shareholders of the firm'. The company being a public company floats shares and those who can afford invest by buying such shares. However, this company goes a step further to encourage employees by according to the training manager, some portion of employees' pay (optional) is retained by the company to buy the shares. Such a policy makes employees feel a sense of ownership and participation in company affairs. On whether the company's policy is to keep employee's salary secret or public knowledge, the manager's score was strongly toward keeping employee's pay secret. This seems to be the normal practice in all the companies in this study. In general, this company's actual policy practice for factor one is in favour of involving its human resources in decisions affecting them. On average then there is convergence between policy and practice regarding this factor.

The factor on predictability of HR rewards indicates that the company's actual policies are in favour of predictable rewards. The average score of 3.83 is more to the higher side. Item 1 'Wage determination compared with group vs. Wage determination comparable with market rates' is scored toward wage determination comparable by market rates. Item 2 'Training for more transferable skills vs. Training for improving present skills' was strongly scored toward training for improving present skills. Regarding pay increases, the training manager was to indicate whether the actual policy is to base such pay on group performance or personal performance. The manager's score indicates the basis is on personal performance. A related statement was item 4 'Focus performance on group achievement vs. Focus performance on personal achievement' which was also scored, focus performance on personal achievement. Item 5 'Rewards by non-financial incentives vs. Rewards by financial incentives' was scored neutral. The company's actual policy is to use both forms where applicable. On whether the company's HR planning is loose or tight, the designate manager's score was neutral. This factor also seems to converge as employees are getting what they actually want.

The training manager's scores to performance vs. loyalty HRM practice indicate that the company's HRM practice favours performance rather loyalty HRM practices. The

average score is 2.80 which slightly tends toward performance related HRM practices. Most of the items in this factor were scored toward the lower side except for item 5 'Provide jobs that make one switch jobs vs. Provide jobs that make one an expert' which was scored toward the higher side of provide jobs that make one an expert. In general the manager's sentiments were that this is one of the best companies in the country and employees tend to be loyal by being associated with the company. It is possible that there are many other policies that attract employees making them loyal to the company, for example, the sense of involvement or participation in company matters and share ownership. Scores for this factor and the foregoing analysis show that there is convergence here too between preference and policy.

Human resources empowerment indicates that the company's HRM policies and practice tend to empower employees. The company's average score (3.81) for this factor is toward the higher side of the choices. This concurs with the scores (4.13) for factor one (HR Involvement/Participation). This company's HRM policies clustering on this factor show that empowerment is not a threat to the management but part of its strategy to make employees perform.

## 6.9 SUMMARY

Overall, this analysis has provided a picture of actual organisation's HRM policy practice in this sample. The results show that some HRM policies are not universal even within companies in the same country. However, there are some practices, which imply best practice tending to be similar in most organisations. Regarding the four factors that were analysed for this sample, HR involvement shows that some Kenyan organisations that are market-oriented and require high skilled labour force tend to democratise their management practices by allowing employees' views in organisational decision making. Examples of these companies are multinationals and joint ventures. Predictability of HR rewards of the different companies also show variations. Most companies are not in a position to offer predictable HR rewards probably due to the uncertain environment they operate in. However, some that need skilled personnel tend to fit employee preferences with actual practice. Performance vs. loyalty HRM practice was either for both performance and loyalty or for performance or loyalty. Most firms practice performance related HRM whereas, others practice loyalty related HRM. There are those however, that practice both performance and loyalty



related HRM. Regarding, HR empowerment it is seen that only those companies that are market-oriented and require well educated personnel like engineers tend to empower employees. Again, such are the companies that practice HR involvement/participation. The rest seemed to centralise power and authority in the hands of top management and may be classified as authoritarian and bureaucratic. Examples, of such organisations are State run and local private ownership.

## **Appendix 6.0**

**Map of Kenya showing the different Provinces and Cities/Towns in which the research was conducted.**



