

**ORGANISATIONAL CULTURES AND MANAGEMENT STYLES
IN FOUR AFRICAN COUNTRIES:**

A Cross-Cultural Study

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MSc by Research in Business Management

THE UNIVERSITY OF ASTON IN BIRMINGHAM

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Formal economic organisations and the work culture are alien phenomena to traditional African society. Managers in Africa have thus adapted to the whole concept of the organisation in the way they see best. Generally most previous research has found management in Africa to be reflective of a conflict between ‘traditionalism’ and modern industrial practice. Previous research has also shown that differences exist in the ways African managers adapt and relate to their organisations when compared with managers from the west. This research set out to identify those organisational cultures and management styles currently prevailing and those preferred by managers of organisations in Cameroon, Nigeria, Zimbabwe and South Africa. With the use of *factor analysis, one way analysis of variance tests* and *t tests*, this study examines whether differences exist in current and preferred organisational cultures and management styles among the four countries despite a certain degree of cultural homogeneity among them. Due to ethnic diversity in the countries of study, this research also looks at possible differences between African and European ethnic groups as they are seen as having fundamentally different values. Differences across management levels are also briefly investigated. These investigations provide information that helps explain some differences among the countries. Results of this empirical study indicate the existence of organisational cultures and management styles with a combination of both traditional African society, and modern industrialised society characteristics in all the four countries. On comparison of the four countries, differences observed are mainly in the extent to which these organisational cultures and management styles are prevalent in each country. The findings of this research on the whole indicate that, existing differences are more a result of factors other than cultural factors. Such factors include the overall histories of the countries and conditions in the political and economic environments among other factors. The role played by national culture however cannot be ignored. It is evident that future deeper qualitative research is needed to reveal more cultural influences on organisational cultures and management styles in the four countries.

Key Words: **African management; Cross-Cultural Business Management;
Management in Zimbabwe; Management in South Africa;
Management in Nigeria; Management in Cameroon**

“Dedicated to all my family in Zimbabwe”

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1.0 INTRODUCTION

1.1 Cross-cultural Management Research

Cross-cultural management research is a field that is fast gaining in importance. Given the global nature of competition there is a need for managers to interact with those who possess different values and work orientations (Trompenaars, 1993) thus, 'The reconciliation of cross-cultural differences is a challenge facing global managers that must be met unless competitive advantage is to be sacrificed.' (Smith. M 1998, p60) '...those who do address the question of culture will gain substantial advantages, (Smith P.B in Hickson 1997, p535). This highlights the increasing importance of cross-cultural management research, and is an especially important message to investors as they seek business expansion opportunities both outside, and within their own countries.

For most social scientists cross-national research is thought of as a method for 'establishing the generality of findings and the validity of interpretations derived from single nation studies' (Kohn 1987, p713). Cross-cultural research enables comparison across cultures in different nations, within a nation, between organisations and so on. The importance of such knowledge cannot be overemphasised, it helps to explain and account for similarities and differences in various aspects of every day and business life. Organisational culture and management styles for instance, are influenced by national cultures (Hofstede, 1980; Trompenaars, 1993) among others.

Organisations in different nations may have different cultures, also within each organisation may be sub-cultures, (Schein, 1990) depending on perhaps the ethnic

and/or cultural diversity of its members. Cultural differences may be a major contributing factor to some of the labour problems that are rife in organisations particularly in Africa as, 'Often Africans feel they are stepping out of their culture into an alien one when going to work in the morning.' (Jackson, 1998). Understanding cultural differences between the different cultural groupings is thus essential for more effective interaction and perhaps the development of more acceptable organisational cultures and management styles for different societies.

1:2 Research Focus

The study of management and organisational behaviour as they relate to less developed countries (LDCs) has been receiving increasing attention in recent years. However this attention has been largely culture-bound reflecting only national interests and problems (Zeffane and Rugumbina, 1995). Although some research has been done with regard's management in Africa as from the eighties, 'There is little systematic information about the nature of African management and organisations (current styles, culture, competencies, and future requirement),' (Jackson, 1998). Also, there is need for continuity in management research given the transitional nature of the African economy hence changing conditions and its growing attractiveness to investors.

Most literature and previous management research in Africa has been on public sector management with a view on general management, employee attitudes and managerial thinking (Montgomery, 1987; Abudu, 1986; Seddon, 1995; Nzelibe, 1986; Kiggundu, 1991). Previous research has however also shown that despite the adoption of western

type organisational management with different underlying values, some African managers have maintained their core values in the work place (eg Jones, 1988; Seddon, 1985). The importance of organisational culture in the achievement of success and sustainable competitive advantage has been emphasised by Peters and Waterman (1982) among others. Management in Africa has been conceptualised as 'an antithesis between the humanism of non-western cultures and the instrumentalism of western cultures' (Jackson, 1999) and as, 'a conflict between traditionalism and modern industrial practice', (Kamoche, 1997). This research examines the presence of these conflicts in the countries of study. It also focuses on the cross-cultural differences in African management specifically organisational culture and management style. Given the diversity of opinion as to what organisational culture is, and most appropriate management styles it is interesting to investigate these aspects in the different countries.

Given the tribal and ethnic differences, as well as the western influences on African culture and management, it is the aim of this research to generate information that facilitates a greater understanding of African management. This is important for future research agenda as it helps in the setting and development of informed hypothesis in view of the current lack of systematic knowledge about management in Africa. The research also highlights the different levels of cultural interaction and cross-cultural differences in African organisations. This will in turn help in the planning of future changes in terms of appropriate management styles and organisational cultures.

This research avoids the general point of reference to ‘developing countries’ or ‘African countries’, to a more specific focus on specific countries, thus providing more specific information to enable future much deeper research. The purpose of the research is not to impose which is the best organisational culture or style of managing but to provide information to aid managers in understanding the different perceptions existing in organisations towards the organisations culture and management style. This may help in the development of more appropriate organisational cultures and management styles. Based on the individual answers given a comparative analysis will be done to determine whether similarities or differences exist along different dimensions and whether culture can be attributed to these similarities or differences. A study of this nature is however better conducted with an understanding of African culture, organisations and the challenges faced by management. These have been discussed in see section 1.5.

1.3 Objectives of the Study

The general objectives of the study are to develop an understanding of African organisations, management styles and organisational culture, current situation, and preferences for future effective organisations through systematic questionnaire research. Though organisational culture and management style may vary along various significant dimensions such as management position, size of company and sector of activity this study is mainly interested in the cross-cultural variation. Specifically this study looks at how managers of in different nations (who are taken to represent different cultural backgrounds) view their organisations in terms of current and desired organisational culture and management styles. The major question the

research seeks to answer is whether or not there exists any differences in perceptions of organisational culture and management style among managers in different nations. The aim is also to see if these differences can be explained in terms of different cultural orientations put forward by various researchers (to be discussed in Chapter 2).

1:4 Significance of Research Problem

The research problem is of significance for both academic and management practice purposes. It has application locally within the countries of study, regionally within Africa and internationally for companies seeking to invest in the countries of study.

The study is of relevance to management practice in the increasingly global economy in that it facilitates a greater understanding across cultures of variations in organisational culture and management practice. On a regional level, the findings may be of significance to other African nations particularly those characterised by diverse tribal groups and with multi-ethnic populations of both western and non-western origin. While most black Africans are referred to by the common name 'bantú' they are not easily integrated due to the close knit nature of their individual communities. An understanding of cultural differences on a regional level is thus essential as local companies move towards regional expansion. On an international level the study is relevant for foreign investors already engaged in, or intending to engage in business operations in the countries of study as it will provide useful information on the understanding of management in Africa and the formulation of more effective cross-cultural management strategies.

Academically most management research that has been carried in Africa has been mainly on countries like South Africa, and to a lesser extent Nigeria and Kenya. Little research has been done in Zimbabwe and Cameroon and this makes this research academically significant as it includes these countries and will provide the basis for further research through new and informed hypothesis testing. The study also provides valuable insight on how different managers view their organisations and run them.

1:5 General Background to the study

Management research in Africa is rapidly gaining in importance as an increasing number of western companies are beginning to do business on the continent as its huge potential begins to be realised. The vast majority of the management issues prevalent in Africa are manifestations of its social, political, economic history and current transition (Hickson and Pugh, 1995; Blunt and Jones, 1992). Some management issues in Africa revolve around cultural differences and they include: the management of cultural diversity, managing inter-cultural enmity, cross border inter-regional management, managing change and managing transitionality from state control to free market economy, amid pressures from both indigenous and foreign interest groups (Jackson, 1998). Transition is a prime issue in Africa as nation states battle to reform their economies in order to qualify for financial aid from organisations such as the International Monetary Fund (IMF) and World Bank. In reforming economies the change required at times requires drastic action such as downsizing and retrenching, as in the transformation of a parastatal into a private

company. This change impacts on the organisational cultures and management styles of organisations, as a significant overhaul of the established management culture of the parastatal¹ is required in-order to transform into a lean, mean, publicly accountable, globally competitive profit making organisation. On the other hand actions such as downsizing and retrenchments may be met with hostility particularly by black employees whose cultural conditioning is that it is the organisation's duty to look after the welfare of its employees (Zeffanne, 1995). Workers therefore do not easily accept losing their jobs. Organisations need to find ways of resolving these contradictions arising from the change process despite the varying levels of rigidity and inflexibility that may be experienced. Also, in creating new cultures for more profitable organisations differences may arise among the different managers, in terms of how they interpret the new rules that are more often than not based on western management thought and practices.

Race interaction poses another management challenge as different races are bound to have different values, hence different cultures. According to Abudu (1986) the colonial and apartheid eras may have to some extent led to the formation of attitudes towards each other by, black and white people. The black person was viewed as untrustworthy and incompetent as a worker. The white race was, and in some cases may still be viewed as the employer or oppressor while its members may see its race as more competent. To the black person in some countries the white race may still represent the hated colonial and apartheid eras. Therefore in the organisational situation the tendency is always, 'to do the white person down', meaning that in some white owned companies' employees may tend to have an instrumental attitude

parastatal¹ a nationalised/state controlled company

towards their organisations. Furthermore Bendixen and Burger (1998) and Koopman (1991) see a fundamentally different culture paradigm between black African managers and western system of management (at times represented by white managers). This they say is likely to result in a mismatch between individual and organisational characteristics and thus tend to affect the level of efficiency at which organisations operate.

Regional expansion facilitated by trading blocks such as the Preferential Trade Area (PTA), Common Market For East And Southern Africa (COMESA), Southern Africa Development Community (SADC) presents another cultural challenge. This is due to the fact that most African countries are culturally heterogeneous due to the artificial borders cutting across cultures, created as a result of colonisation. When managers of different nationalities are appointed to work in cross-border subsidiaries they may face problems in their endeavours to be accepted given the differences in culture, language and the close knit, sometimes impenetrable nature of African communities. This scenario presents further need for an understanding of how different cultural groups may view their organisations, in order to take account of these differences in the organisation.

Also of significance in the African organisation is the interaction between western and non western cultures with at times conflicting values especially with their views towards human nature and the organisations. This is seen by (Jackson, 1999) as 'an antithesis between instrumental and humanistic views of people in organisations, ...which is crucial for the way in which change is being managed'. The western values have mostly been found to be individualistic (Hofstede, 1980) and to have an

instrumental regard towards people (Jackson, 1998) where people are seen as a means to an end. Non Western values have been seen as more collectivist (Hofstede, 1980) and to have a humanist regard for people, where people are viewed as an end in themselves (Jackson, 1998). Such differences are likely to be seen in the way managers of different cultures run their organisations and relate to with their employees. A knowledge of such differences, helps the understanding of how organisations in Africa function thus perhaps providing an understanding of the labour problems prevalent in African organisations (Jackson, 1998).

Although management education is based on western theories in Africa as in most countries, differences in management may still arise. Trained black managers for instance in implementation of these western theories, practices and systems, may encounter difficulty as the theories may be in conflict with their own traditional values and values of employees, whereas their white counterparts may experience dissimilar or no problems. Also due to the nature and importance of relationships in African society it is found that in implementing policies, and rules there may be exceptions to the rule. At times there may also be resistance on the part of the workers depending on the situation and sometimes the individuals involved (Seddon in Hammond, 1985). Having thus far given a general background to the study, it is evident that the areas of research are numerous.

1.6 Definition of Terms

African management, Refers to management practice in Africa as a whole. It refers to management as it exists in Africa today, inclusive of western and local influences.

African managers, Refers to black African managers unless otherwise stated.

Parastatal, a nationalised / state controlled company.

Organisational culture, Jackson (1993, p150) sees organisational culture as, *'those explicit and implicit rules within an organisation that influence the way individuals act...'*.

Management style, the ways in which key individuals within the organisations interpret those explicit and implicit rules. How the members of an organisation interpret rules in their organisations will determine how they act (Jackson 1993 p 150).

1.7 Outline of Chapters

Chapter two, reviews the literature relevant to cross cultural business research, initially focusing on the work on national values as these form the basis of national cultures which have been seen to have great influence on organisational culture and management styles (e.g Hofstede, 1980) and form the basis of most cross-cultural management research. The next part of the Chapter centres on a discussion of the concepts of organisational culture and management style. Chapter two ends with a discussion on the relationship between national culture, organisational culture and management style. Chapter three reviews current and previous work related to cross cultural research on organisational culture and management style. As a very small amount of relevant literature specifically for Africa is in existence this chapter begins with a generally global review of relevant existing literature. The second part of the chapter then narrows down to research in Sub-Saharan Africa in general. Chapter four contains the literature most relevant to the countries of study. It initially sets the setting by providing the social and economic backgrounds of the countries of Sub-Saharan Africa. It however pays particular attention to Zimbabwe, Nigeria, Cameroon

and South Africa. This chapter is also important in explaining the findings of this research. Chapter five is a discussion of the methodological issues of this research. It touches on sampling issues and on data analysis methods. Data analysis procedures are discussed in greater depth in chapters six and seven. These two chapters also present the findings on organisational cultures and management styles respectively. Both chapters six and seven contain a presentation analysis and discussion of findings. Chapter eight provides a discussion of the relationship between, national culture, organisational culture and management styles in the countries of study and gives the conclusion.

Literature Review

Chapter Two

2.0 Research on National Values, Organisational Culture and Management Style

A study of the cross-cultural differences of organisational cultures and management styles can be best conducted with an understanding of the concepts of culture, organisational culture, and management style. This chapter discusses the concept of culture then reviews the relevant academic literature relating broadly to cross-cultural research on national values, organisational culture and management styles and how these relate to each other. At the end of the chapter a comment is also made on the relevance of the various theoretical propositions.

2.1.1 The Essence of Culture

The concept of culture is attractive to both those who seek to understand world variations in organisational behaviour (eg Ronen, 1986; Adler 1990), and those who seek to delineate contrasts between different organisations in the same part of the world (Schein 1985). Schein (1990, p111) defines culture as: 'a) a pattern of basic assumptions, b) invented, discovered, or developed by a given group, c) as it learns to cope with its problems of external adaptation and internal integration, d) that has worked well enough to be considered valid and, therefore e) is to be taught to new members as the f) correct way to perceive, think and, feel in relation to those problems.'

Other definitions of culture include that of (Mead, 1951 in Darlington. G 1995, p4) who describes culture as, 'a body of learned behaviour, a collection of beliefs, habits and traditions, shared by a group of people, successfully learned by people who enter society'. Society here may be termed to mean a nation, an organisation, a profession or even a department. In as far as organisations are concerned research has shown that organisations in the same nation and with the same societal culture will differ in their own cultures and sub-cultures within them again (Hickson and Pugh, 1995; Hofstede, Neuijen Ohayv and Sanders, 1990). Trompenaars (1993) views culture as 'a way in which people solve problems.' While (Hofstede, 1991) describes culture as, 'the collective programming of the mind which distinguishes the members of a category or group of people from another,' and also that culture is, 'learned not inherited'. Also while in many instances a person's nationality may be sufficient indicator of their culture in reality nations contain a variety of ethnic groups, and individuals may be influenced by cultures other than their own nationalities (Tayeb, 1988 in Darlington 1995, p8). Culture is a broad concept, and national values have been taken as a starting point to understanding cultures in many studies.

2.1.2 Cross Cultural Research On National Values

The study of national values is central to cross-cultural studies (Jackson, 1995). Following the work of Kluckhohn (1951) and Rokeach (1973) human values have been defined as desirable goals, varying in importance that serve as a guiding principle in peoples' lives (Schwartz and Sagiv, 1995). Value studies of significance are developments on the six original basic cultural orientations influencing behaviour by Kluckhohn and Strodtbeck (1961) who proposed six basic cultural orientations

influencing cultural variation that form the basis of the work of many later theorists (see Mead, 1994). Other important value studies are Hall's (1976) distinction between high and low context cultures and Hofstede (1980) individualism/collectivism index.

Following the work of Kluckhohn & Strodtbeck (1961) and Hall (1976), four large scale studies that aimed at identifying cultural dimensions of value, are those of, (Hofstede 1980, 1983, 1991; Bond, 1988: *The Chinese Culture Connection*; Schwartz 1990, 1994; Schwartz and Bilinsky 1987, 1990; Trompennars 1985, 1983). The dimensions that shall be discussed in this review will help provide support and explanations for the results of this study. Of all the studies conducted thus far Hofstedes work has been widely influential in many studies exploring cultural dimensions of management values (Smith, Dugan and Trompenaars, 1996).

Hofstede's work based on studies of employees of a large MNC in 67 countries, primarily deals with differences in national cultures. Hostede (1980) showed that cultures differed along four dimensions (1980) namely **a) individualism-collectivism**, were in an individualist society individuals are raised to look after themselves and their immediate family, while in collectivist societies individuals expect their clan or in-group to look after them in exchange for loyalty. **b) power distance**, the extent to which members of a society accept that power in institutions and organisations is unevenly distributed. **c) uncertainty avoidance**-the extent to which a culture expects its members to feel either comfortable or uncomfortable in unstructured ambiguous situations **d) masculinity-femininity**, how gender roles are perceived in a culture, where the former takes on more assertive, competitive, achievement oriented characteristics. In his later studies Hofstede (1991) incorporated

a fifth dimension of 'Confucian Work Dynamism' based on Bonds (1988: Chinese Culture Connection) he called it, **e) long term orientation**, were values associated with short term orientation are thrift and perseverance, and values associated with long term orientation are respect for tradition fulfilling social obligations and protecting 'ones face'.

Individualism-Collectivism. The individualism-collectivism dichotomy may be useful in explaining some of the findings of this study. It is important for explaining cultural differences because, 'Cultures differ in the extent to which co-operation, competition or individualism are emphasised' (Mead 1967 in Harry, Triandis, Bontempo, Villareal 1988 p323) Schwartz (1990) makes a distinction between individualism and collectivism.

'...collectivist or communal societies are characterised by extended primary groups (kinship, neighbourhood, and work groups) in which people have diffuse mutual obligations and expectations based largely on their enduring ascribed statuses. So called individualist or contractual societies are characterised by narrow primary groups (nuclear families) and by secondary social relations in which people develop specific obligations and expectations largely through negotiation in the process of achieving and modifying statuses.' Schwartz (1990 p152).

Harry et al. (1988) provide an analysis of the individualism-collectivism construct. From a cross-cultural perspective they conclude that the global characterisation of collectivism is inaccurate as the direction in which it is applied differs. (Jackson, Hill and Tamangani 1999) for instance characterise African collectivism as being based in the community (horizontal collectivism) rather than in the organisation (vertical collectivism). The collectivism-individualism dichotomy is relevant to this study given managers of differing ethnicity's whom previous research in South Africa for instance has shown differ in cultural orientations (e.g. Coldwell and Moerdyk 1982). It is likely that differences in perceptions of organisational culture and management style in African organisations may be explained by this dichotomy among others.

This dichotomy although criticised for its lack of explanatory adequacy and confusions in literature owing to its width of application and target specific nature has its merits as it is fairly robust and not overtly judgmental (Smith et al. 1996).

Hofstede validated his constructs through establishing the significance of their correlation's with geographic, economic and social indicators. Hofstede (1994) showed that country scores on the five dimensions statistically correlated with a lot of data about the countries. Power distance for instance correlated with the use of violence in domestic politics and with income inequality within a country. Individualism correlated with per capita GNP and mobility between social classes from generation to generation. The association between individualism and economic development was particularly strong with collectivist nations tending to have lower per capita GNP. Hofstede (1980) reported a high correlation between power distance and individualism, his factor analysis suggests that empirically these dimensions are likely to be manifestations of the same underlying dimension (Smith et al.1996). By means of selected historical examples Hofstede (1980) showed that national cultures did not change greatly over time, thus implying that attempts to change another culture through external means such as monetary resources or arms of war would most probably fail (Darlington G: 1995). In the African scenario there is bound to be conflict between organisations mostly modelled along western lines and African cultures that though exposed to the western world have not changed greatly over time.

Although influential to many succeeding studies Hofstede's work has not gone without criticism. The range of countries from which Hofstede got his samples and the values sampled were not comprehensive such that the dimensions identified may

not be exhaustive (Smith et al. 1996). Further criticism has been on the basis of the type of samples drawn from the national cultures, because all respondents shared a common corporate culture, which distinguished them from the broader national populations from which they were drawn (Smith et al. 1996). However (Schwartz, 1994) argues that 'in the absence of random population samples, a sample matching strategy is a necessity.' Despite the criticism levelled on Hofstede's model his dimensions 'make sense' (Triandis, 1982) and provide a good framework (Hunt 1991).

Bond (1988) tested for the possibility of western influence in Hofstede's findings by testing a different domain of values derived from the Chinese culture. Given that the measures used were derived from two different cultures and that they used two different samples there was an impressive convergence in the findings of the two studies (Hill 1998). An ecological factor analysis of Bonds findings yielded four factors namely: **a)** integration, **b)** confucian work dynamism, **c)** human heartedness and **e)** moral discipline. Hofstede's (1980) power distance/individualism dimensions and the Chinese Culture Connection, integration/moral discipline indices respectively showed moderate correlation; these four put together and loaded into a second order analysis, possibly suggested that they represented a single underlying dimension (Smith et al.1996).

Of greater relevance to the African scenario is the work of Schwartz (1992,1994) which gives 'an up-to-date view of culture,' and includes more 'transitional,' and 'emerging,' countries (Jackson, 1998b p: 14). It is fortunate that Zimbabwe, one of the countries of this study was included in Schwart's analysis. Schwartz (1992)

studied the value preferences of individuals in 25 countries explaining variation in terms of two bipolar dimensions, **openness to change versus conservation** and, **'self enhancement' versus 'self transcendence'**. Openness to change embraced the 'self direction' and stimulation value types, whereas conservation included the security conformity and traditional value types. Conservatism values are most likely to be predominant in societies based on close knit harmonious relations, where interests of the individual are similar to those of the group. 'Self enhancement', expresses values that promote the individuals own interests regardless of the interests of others. 'Self transcendence' consisted of the universalism and benevolence value types that promote the interests of other persons and the natural world, such as, social justice and unity with nature (Schwartz, 1994 p101). He further divided the dimensions into seven value types, which are, conservatism, intellectual autonomy, affective autonomy, hierarchy, egalitarian commitment, mastery and harmony. Schwartz correlated his value types with the country scores on Hofstede 1980's dimensions, and the strongest concordance between the dimensions of cultural orientation identified by Schwartz (1994) and Hofstede (1980) was between the former's openness to change versus conservation and the latter's power distance and individualism collectivism index (Smith et al, 1996). These dimensions can also be related to the (Jackson, 1999) humanism versus instrumentalism construct.

Trompenaars (1985, 1993) in his value questionnaire addressed seven hypothesised dimensions of cultural valuing drawing from the work of Parsons and Shils (1951) for the first five (Smith et al., 1996) 1996). The dimensions were as follows: (a) universalism-particularism, (b) achievement-ascription, associated by Smith et al. (1996) with Hofstede's (1980) individualism versus collectivism index, though a

complete overlap is not posited. Universalism - particularism refers to the extent to which societal codes determine action (universalism), versus the influence of social obligations of relationships and unique circumstances on action (particularism). The achievement ascription dualism refers to whether status is accorded to an individuals primarily on the basis of his or her achievements (achievement) or primarily on the attributed on the basis of factors such as birth, kinship, demographic characteristics and social connections (ascription). The other values identified were (c) individualism- communitarianism, (d) affectivity-neutrality, (e) specificity-diffuseness, (f) internal versus external locus of control (drawn from Rotter 1966) and (g) measure of time perspective (drawn from Cottle 1968).

Trompenaars & Hampden-Turner (1994) explain the differences between cultures by focusing on seven valuing processes and framing these into dilemmas that force the respondents to, 'take sides.' The seven valuing processes are, individualism versus particularism, analysing versus integrating, individualism versus communitarianism, inner versus outer orientation, time sequence versus time synchronisation, achieved versus ascribed status and equality versus hierarchy. According to (Trompenaars and Hampden-Turner, 1994) people from the same country will try to resolve dilemmas in the same way, as they view cultural cohesion as being a pre-requisite for stability in a society. They view co-operation as leading to longer term success as opposed to competition.

The work of Allinson (1993) and Koopman (1991) among others suggests that major differences may exist between the instrumentalism of western style management and the humanism of many non-western cultures, (Hill 1998). Allinson (1993) points to

the view of people being regarded as a means to an end in western organisations; whereas in non-western cultures such as Japan, people in organisations are seen as having an end value in themselves. In South Africa, one of the countries of focus in this study, Koopman (1991) sees the ideologies of the two worlds of white and black as totally mismatched. He sees them as being at totally opposite ends of individualist versus, group co-operative pursuits and institutionalisation respectively. As value systems of black and white are at opposite ends this causes polarisation and misunderstanding in organisations. Inclusive values are seen as being inherent in African culture and no person can exist at the expense of the other. Koopman (1991) advocates pragmatic humanism that is aimed at the liberation of the worker from over bureaucratised work places. This is so that the worker can pursue his social purpose by having a direct say in his workplace, and putting pressure on his upward mobility for greater economic involvement. The singular motive of pragmatic humanism he argues is the creation of wealth through allowing people to live a full productive life. People reap the benefits through participative involvement in the affairs of their lives. Its focus is on people relationships and not on powers, for it is only from the peoples' collective endeavours that power can come. Pragmatism is a holistic, inclusivist culture which allows individuals to be creative and enables them to realise their full human potential as people, and humanism is the freeing of the human spirit which has to be pragmatic as it can be achieved only through wealth creating processes (Koopman, 1991 p76). Jackson (1998) is optimistic about the potential of a humanism-instrumentalism construct to predict and explain cultural differences in organisational behaviour, as it may avoid some of the pitfalls of employing a 'developing-developed' duality in explaining organisational behaviour cross-nationally, as well as potential pitfalls of the individualism collectivism construct

(Hill, 1998, p6). Please see **appendix A** for Jackson', 'a priori model of instrumentalism and humanism in the management of people'(1998).

The dimensions of cultural valuing discussed above highlight the different orientation's people from different cultures may hold hence the different perceptions, preferences, behaviours and responses in similar circumstances. Such differences occur in organisations and affect the way different people behave and view different situations. This may result in clashes, but an understanding of the differences provides the information and ideas needed to create harmony. The concepts of organisational culture and management style, and how these relate to national culture shall now be discussed.

2.2.0 Cross Cultural Research on Organisational Culture and Management Style

A brief discussion of the concept of organisational culture and management style will be conducted. The discussion helps in the operationalisation of these two concepts making them easier to measure and assess. Thereafter a pre-eminent view on the relationship between national culture and the former variables will be outlined. Cross-cultural research on organisational culture and management style will then be reviewed.

2.2.1 Organisational culture

There is a great diversity of opinion concerning what the concept of organisational culture refers. "In popular management literature organisational cultures have often

presented as a matter of values and this causes confusion, as this literature does not distinguish between the values of the founders and leaders and those of the country of employees. Founders and leaders create the symbols, the heroes and the rituals that constitute the daily practices of an organisation's members while members have to adapt their personal values to the organisations needs, to a limited extent only''(Hofstede, 1994 in Jackson 1995 p158).

Jackson (1993) views organisational culture as, 'those explicit and implicit rules within an organisation that influence the way individuals act, and which are derived from the interaction between the social order (social arrangements in organisation) and the 'mind sets' (beliefs, perceptions and attitudes, derived from the wider society) of significant individuals in the organisation'(p50). According to Schein (1990, p111) since any group with a shared history can have a culture, within an organisation there can therefore be many subcultures. Schein (1990) also outlines several dimensions underlying organisational culture. (see appendix B for, some underlying dimensions of organisational culture) which incorporate findings from value studies already discussed. Jackson's 1998 questionnaire (appendix D) used in this study takes most of these dimensions in to account.

Based on the work carried out by the Institute of Research on Intercultural Cooperation in The Netherlands Hofstede (1994), showed that organisational cultures differ mostly on at the level of the more superficial practices: symbols and rituals. His study found significant differences among units, in practices, but only modest differences in values, beyond those due to basic factors such as nationality, education, gender and age group. Hofstede (1994) proposed six independent dimensions that can

be used as a framework to describe organisational cultures, but cautions that their research base is too narrow to consider them as universally valid. Other dimensions may be necessary for describing organisational cultures in other countries and other organisational types, also some among the proposed six dimensions may be less useful (in Jackson 1995, p160).

The dimensions of organisational cultures proposed by Hofstede (1994) are **(1) process oriented versus results oriented cultures**. Process oriented cultures are dominated by technical and bureaucratic routines and results oriented cultures by a concern for outcome. The study confirmed that strong cultures are more results oriented than weak cultures (Peters and Waterman, 1982). **(2) job oriented versus employee oriented cultures** were the former assume responsibility for the employees job performance only and the latter assume a broad responsibility for the well-being. The IRIC Study showed that job versus employee orientation is part of a culture and not only a choice for an individual manager. A unit's position on this dimension was seen to be largely the result of historical factors, like the philosophy of its founders and the presence or absence in its recent history of economic crises with collective layoffs. **(3) professional versus parochial cultures**. In professional cultures members are highly educated and identify primarily with their profession, while in the latter the members derive their identity from the organisation for which they work. Also known in sociology as local versus cosmopolitan, the contrast between an internal and an external frame. **(4) open system versus closed system**. This refers to the common style of internal and external communication and to the ease with which outsiders and newcomers are admitted. **(5) tightly versus loosely controlled cultures**, this dimension deals with the degree of formality and punctuality within the

organisation, **(6)pragmatic versus normative cultures**. This dimension describes the prevailing way (flexid or rigid) of dealing with the environment, in particular with customers. This dimension measures the degree of customer orientation.

2.3.0 Management Style

According to (Jackson 1993, p150), 'While organisational culture consists of those explicit and implicit rules which influence the way individuals act within the organisations, management styles are the ways in which key individuals within the organisations interpret those explicit and implicit rules'. Management styles are a combination of what the individuals bring with them into the organisation (such as national culture, family influence or peer pressure, the way the organisational culture (rules) is recognised, interpreted and adhered to, and the way the individual enacts his /her role' (Jackson 1993, p150).

Likert (1967 in Jackson 1993) subdivides concepts of management style into overriding management styles, learning styles and doing styles. Likert (1967) refers to management styles of organisations as management systems, identifying four management systems **(1)** Exploitative-authoritative systems, expected in high power distance cultures. (Hofstede 1991) **(2)** benevolent-authoritative systems, **(3)** consultative systems, **(4)** participative-group systems, expected in low power distance cultures (Hofstede 1991). Likert thus provides a useful guide to different leadership styles in different organisational systems. He describes situational styles rather than personal styles. Learning and doing styles are characteristic of the individual within a particular environment. These two styles have some overlap and encompass:

- the way managers learn
- the way managers work (plan and implement decisions)
- the way managers relate to others
- the way managers relate to the future
- the way managers regard performance (Jackson 1993)

Schools of management thought such as the Classical management theory provides frameworks for viewing the way managers relate to work and other people through McGregor's 1960 theory X (economic orientation), and theory Y, (people orientation). Another example is Blake and Moutons (1988) concern for production versus concern for people, which may be paralleled to humanism- instrumentalism.

2.4.0 The Relationship between, National Culture, Organisational Culture And Management Styles

'For many years researchers have argued about the impact of national culture on management. One group maintained that managers behaviour world-wide was becoming more similar (e.g. Cole 1973; Form 1979; Hickson et al 1974; Kerr et al 1952; Negandhi 1975,1985) while others concluded that it was maintaining its dissimilarity (e.g. Hofstede 1980; Laurent1983; Lincon et al 1981; Myer and Rowan 1977). As Adler and Bartolomew point out, the verdict now appears to be cast in favour of divergence'(Tayeb, M, 1994 p 429).

A relationship exists between national cultural values on one hand, and organisational culture and managerial style on the other but the cause of this is however little explored (Lachman, Nedd, and Hinnings, 1994). Their model in this regard appears to represent a somewhat middle-ground in the debate as to whether environmental factors or cultural values dominate in determining national,

organisational and management forms (Evans, Hau and Sculli 1989). According to Lachman et al. (1994) both environmental factors such as resource availability, and cultural values, are interactive co-determinants of organisational roles, structures and processes. In this study mainly the influence of different cultural values on perceptions of organisational cultures and management styles is being examined.

Hofstede (1994) views national culture as a higher order phenomenon than organisational culture, believing that organisations within a nation are not primarily differentiated by values but rather by differences at the more superficial level of practices. Values are socialised primarily in the family during childhood whilst work organisations serve to socialise organisational members to the organisations practices. In companies in the same country documented cultures may be similar as the ideal organisation tends to be based on similar western values in many parts of the world. Actual organisational cultures as seen by individuals may differ due to cultural factors thus emphasising the need for contact with individuals in deciphering cultures.

2.4.1 Theoretical position useful to this study

Various theoretical approaches to culture have been given and it is essential that one adopts the most relevant position in the study of African organisations. Values have been seen as the basis of study and comparison of culture at national and organisational level. Schein's definition of culture given earlier sums up the whole essence of culture.

In view of the criticism levelled on the various theoretical frameworks of cultural analysis and the very nature of the African setting the work of Schwartz (1994) appears to be the most relevant. This is because his dimensions are derived from transitional and emerging economies of which African countries are part of. His dimensions of conservatism versus openness to change and self enhancement versus self transcendence are both appropriate for the African environment and African cultures which value tradition and the good of the group. The dimensions for measuring cultural variation put forward by other theorists are however also relevant as they provide useful explanations for some of the findings of this study.

This study generally takes note of the complexity of African national cultures. African national cultures are seen to be complex being composed of influences from a multitude of tribal groups and various ethnic groups with at times conflicting values. African national cultures have also been influenced by colonialism and industrialisation. Due to this apparent complexity it is essential that national samples chosen for each particular study are representative of the various composition groups of a country so that samples are truly representative. In this study care was thus taken to capture as much ethnic and tribal diversity as possible in order to obtain representative samples in as far as possible.

CHAPTER THREE

3.0 Related Current and Previous Work on Organisational Culture And Management Style

Having in the previous chapter generally discussed values, organisational culture management style and the relationship that exists among them this chapter focuses mainly on the related current and previous cross cultural research with regards these dimensions. As most of the prominent research in this field has been done outside Africa the discussion will begin with a more global outlook and then narrow down on to the sub-Saharan African region.

Global Related Current and Previous Research on:

3.1.0 Organisational Culture

Various models identifying factors distinguishing different organisational cultures are in existence. In respect of national variation of organisational culture, the work of Laurent (1983), and Vertinsky, Tse, Lee and Wehrung (1990) is of particular relevance.

Laurent (1983) compared foreign employees working in a multinational organisation with employees working in organisations within their own countries and found that there were significant differences between employees within the multinational than there were between managers working for different companies in their native countries. Employees maintained their own national culture thus implying that national culture is a stronger force than organisational culture. It is thus anticipated that in this research differences will be found between managers of different

nationalities within and between countries in respect of several dimensions of organisational design identified by Laurent, namely: political systems, authority systems, role formalisation systems, and hierarchical systems. These dimensions have been incorporated in Jackson's (1998) questionnaire. (Appendix D)

Most African countries are becoming more developed and the question whether or not organisations and management systems will become similar to those of western countries which industrialised ages ago becomes relevant. While western forms of organisational design and management practice may have been mostly adopted due to the African belief that west is best, this may prove to be dysfunctional and the cause of conflict that is rife in the African organisations. Outside of Africa, Vertinsky et al. (1990) tested to see if norms of organisational design and management were subject to a process of convergence. He found some significant differences in forms of organisational design and management between samples from, China, Hong Kong and Canada, as well as a number of norms that appeared to be accepted more universally. They allege that, 'although forms of organisation may superficially converge, it is the basic values that are likely to fill these moulds with behavioural content' (Vertinsky et al. 1990, p854). The centrality of values is again emphasised. In Africa previous research (eg Seddon, 1985) has shown that despite the adoption of western systems of management with different underlying values, African managers have maintained their own values in the workplace. Since values affect organisational culture and management style it is likely that African managers will hold different views with regard these in comparison with their non-African counterparts.

Trompenaars (1993) proposes a heuristic distinguishing between organisational cultures on the basis of, person-task, and egalitarian-hierarchical orientations, identifying divergence's between different national cultures in terms of their location on the heuristic. He shows by means of dilemmas, better ways of dealing with other cultures and a more likely prediction of responses to given situations. Trompenaars model shows that differences can be observed in relationships between employees' attitude to authority, ways of changing, ways of motivating and rewarding, criticism and conflict resolution.

Given the findings of global research it is expected that organisational cultures will differ across the four countries and the other comparison groups in respect of the various organisational dimensions discussed above.

3.2.0 Global Related Current and Previous Research on Management Style

Academic literature and empirical research into cross-cultural dimensions of management suffers from the restriction of studies for the most part to comparison between a few countries (Boyacigiller and Adler, 1991) and research primarily in terms of 'etics' - in which a culture is analysed from the outside, 'looking in', (Pike, 1954 in Jackson, 1995)-rather than through inductive reasoning more appropriate to relatively under-explored domain. (Reiger and Wong-Reiger, 1988). The extent to which management styles are transferable between national cultures has been debated in cross-cultural management literature where Multi-National Companies (MNC's) seek to introduce their Western styles of management in local companies without due

consideration of the nature of indigenous management styles (Jaeger and Kanungo 1990).

Dimensions of management that have been explored cross-culturally include managerial motivations and perceptions, leadership styles, and management behaviours. The question often asked is whether or not current globalisation can be expected to push all countries towards more individualistic, low power distance structures which characterise the countries which industrialised ages ago (Smith P. B in Hickson 1997). According to Kerr et al. (1976) as societies move towards economic parity with western societies so their management styles will converge with those of the west. In this regard *it may be hypothesised that organisational cultures and management styles in South Africa and Zimbabwe which are considerably more industrialised than Nigeria and Cameroon will resemble western styles to a greater extent.* (Jaeger and Kanungo, 1990) however question the applicability of western styles of management that may have been adopted by practitioners in developing countries without due adaptation.

Vertinsky, Tse, Wehrung and Lee (1990) also look for evidence that organisational design and management style are subject to globalisation leading to the convergence of management practices. In a comparison of organisations from the Peoples Republic of China, Hong Kong and Canada they reach the conclusion that there are significant differences in orientation towards participation, internal competition, formal structure and risk but no difference in strategic adaptiveness, democratic organisation and centralisation. Orientation towards the first set of organisational characteristics is strongly influenced by the employees core values thus the existing differences. The

second set of characteristics consists of 'universally accepted norms' (Vertinsky et al. 1990) therefore do not account for much difference. Vertinsky et al. (1990), concluded that despite the existence of evidence supporting convergence, barriers created against outside influences (such as in China) inhibit the convergence process. In this research *it is hypothesised that there will be differences in terms of the most ideal characteristics for the managers of organisations depending on nationality and values that are core to each cultural grouping in the sample.*

Smith P. B (in Hickson 1997) reports an earlier study by Dunphy, (1987) on changes in Japanese managerial practice. This study contrasts Japanese, Hong Kong, China and the USA organisations, in terms of their views towards, human nature, time, family relationships and the relationship to nature. Dunphy (1987) concluded that, despite there having been enormous changes, these are not simply towards western practice but rather a series of pragmatic changes within a context that continues to be more collectivist in orientation. In this instance peripheral values have changed, but the core collectivist values remain. It is likely therefore *that, organisational cultures and management styles in all the four countries will display a collectivist orientation that is core to African cultures.*

(Evans Hau and Sculli: 1989) examine the way cultural differences appear to influence managerial style and concluded that, 'management style is a function of industrialisation tampered by cultural characteristics' (p12). They see industrialisation as producing wealth and changing lifestyles leading to a convergence of social environments, thus to some extent influencing culture. They view cultural beliefs as evolving rather than being abandoned. African economies are currently under-going

transition and the influence of industrialisation, education and changing lifestyles has led to the evolution of values. To this end in this *study it is hypothesised that organisational cultures and management styles observed, will have characteristics of both African and industrialised society more so in the case of the most industrialised countries.*

Motivation is another important factor in the study of management. Due to their differing cultural backgrounds and the differences in core values managers in the same company or country may be motivated by different factors. Alpander and Carter, (1991) in a study of intra-company differences in employee motivation found the need to control as the most dominant need in all the countries of study. They also found differences in motivational factors across managerial levels. Again along the lines of motivation England (1986) studied the concept of work centrality in the lives of individuals, basing his study on the data collected in the Meaning of Work project (MOW) of the early 1980's. He reports differences in work centrality for managers in the different countries of study. Although this study is mainly focusing on differences between countries in African organisations there are also bound to be differences between different ethnic groups with regards work centrality. Jackson (1998) for example contends that Africans feel as though they are stepping out of their shoes to an alien culture each morning as they wake up to go to work. This is bound to affect the importance they attach to their work as compared to their white counterparts who in a sense can be taken to represent the individualist western culture.

The extent to which management and leadership theories mostly originating from the west can be applied and the degree to which they can be generalised across cultures is

often questioned. Smith, Misumi, Tayeb, Peterson and Bond (1989) carried out a research to determine the generality of leadership styles across cultures. On comparison of data from four countries Britain, Hong Kong, USA and Japan they found for instance that what was seen as 'maintenance' behaviour and 'performance' behaviour actually differed from one country to another. Smith et al (1989) align this with Hofstede's 1980 dimension of individualism-collectivism. Their study shows a distinction between these two orientations of leadership style in four countries but the type of behaviour exhibited is different culture to culture with the degree of distinction varying from East to West. They conclude that it can for instance be assumed that coercive behaviour may be prevalent in high power distance countries, but then what constitutes coercive behaviour may be different in different countries.

In a study of work attitudes, leadership styles and managerial behaviours in different cultures and Hui (1990) asserts that, 'Although current research indicates few differences among cultures in their preference for leadership styles, actual managerial behaviours vary a great deal.' Hui sees the cultural environment is as being the primary agent for the formation of a manager's own values and beliefs, which in turn influence their choice of management styles. In the current study depending on each manager's orientation, whether collectivist or individualist differences are expected to occur in terms of current and desired organisational cultures and management styles. Hui, (1990) further proposes three categories for summarising what theorists have proposed to be the distinguishing characteristics of effective leaders as those adopting 'personalistic' approaches, those adopting 'behavioural' approaches and those adopting 'contingency' approaches. Hui (1990 p194) categorises leaders in the behavioural approach into two unrelated dimensions, one of 'person' orientation were

the leader is friendly, supportive, concerned with subordinates' welfare, is non punitive consults employees and delegates authority. The other category is 'production' orientation, where emphasis is placed on goal setting, planning, giving explicit instructions, evaluating subordinates and emphasising production. According to Hui (1990) western research, suggests that the most desirable leader is high on both dimensions. He parallels these findings with those in India by Sinha (1980), who found the most effective leader to be the nurturant task leader who is "active, strong, dominating, firm, independent, alert, encouraging, and extraverted. He is strict and can get work done...is democratic, respected, satisfying, secure and skilful" (Sinha, 1980 in Hui 1994, pp193-194). Hui concludes that countries are not too dissimilar in their most effective leadership style and that choices of leadership and management styles are affected and sustained by the cultural environment. It is thus hypothesised that, in this research, *there will be great similarity across the cultural groups in terms of required management styles.*

3.3.0 Related Current and Previous work: A Focus on sub-Saharan Africa.

'Most management literature on Human Resources [in Africa] limits its self to a narrow range of cross cultural management issues which generally reflect on the ethnocentric concern with the interests of multinational companies, what opportunities exist for them, how they can cope with political turbulence, corruption and other forms of environmental uncertainty, how best they can transfer managerial know how and technology to their subsidiaries and so forth' (Kamoche, 1997 p537). Also today there seems for various reasons to be a lack of empirical research into issues of African formal organisations (Blunt and Jones 1992).

3.3.1 African management and organisation characteristics.

It may be useful as a starting point to perhaps attempt to establish an understanding of the nature of African management. In their conceptualisation of African management, Mbigi and Maree (1995) unearth African cultural metaphors that expose the essential humanism lying at the heart of cultural practice (Swartz and Davies 1997). Mbigi and Maree (1995) draw on concepts, ideas and metaphors from African society, such as the 'collective fingers' theory (*'chara chimwe hachitswanye inda'*: a Zimbabwean Shona proverb meaning a thumb working on its own is useless). Another concept is that of the spirit of *'ubuntu'*, that has its roots in a South African Xhosa proverb which in the English language translates to, *'people are people through other people'*.

While there exists a good knowledge of western 'people' management styles and practices those of Africa are far less articulated. Predominant management practices in Southern Africa are seen by Bendixen and Burger (1998) as Anglo-American, while Kamoche (1997) views African management as 'a conflict between traditionalism and modern industrial practice'. Traditionalism in Africa as research has shown is in line with Hofstede's 1980 values of collectivism, high power distance and femininity, Trompennars (1993)'s particularism and external locus of control among others. The dominant forms of organisational behaviour in less developed countries have been found to be essentially traditional and relying heavily on social order. Where such order is based on kinship and fixed status whereas in the western societies it is either contractual or bureaucratic (Zeffane and Rugumbina, 1995 p35). Characteristics of traditionalism are in conflict with the values of modern industrial practice that is based more on individualism, high masculinity, and lower power

distances. Jackson (1999) conceptualises management in Africa as an antithesis between the instrumentalism of western cultures and the humanism of African cultures.

Jaegar and Kanungo (1990) distinguish between the management of organisations in 'developed' and 'developing', countries. Organisations in developing countries are seen to be high on power distance, low on individualism, low on masculinity, relatively high in uncertainty avoidance, having an external locus of control, having limited creative potential and being 'past' oriented. 'Guiding principles of behaviour in organisations tend therefore to reflect a proactive task orientation in developed countries, but a passive-reactive orientation in developing countries. Success orientation is pragmatic in developed countries but moralistic in developing countries. People orientation in organisations in developed countries tends to be more participative, yet authoritarian and paternalistic in developing countries (Jackson et al. 1999). Another writer, Nzelibe (1986p11) summaries African management as emphasising ethnocentrism, traditionalism, communalism and co-operative teamwork, as compared to western management thought advocating, Eurocentrism, individualism and modernity.

Despite various other influences, Leonard (1987) discusses the 'political realities of African management.' Management performance in Africa is seen to be constrained by, political systems, which are heavily dependent on patronage for their survival. Individual managers are subject to strong pressures from their relatives for support encouraging them to find sources of corrupt income and to use their hiring prerogatives for extra organisational purposes. Leonard (1987) emphasises that a

great deal remains to be learned about effective management in Africa, and that any simple attempt to transfer western managerial technology is unlikely to succeed. This is because as a lot of research is needed to help find administrative, reforms and managerial improvements that are consistent with the logic of African social reality (Leonard 1997 p 908).

Research has shown that in the urban centres which alienate workers from their tribal communities' workers establish groups in order to retain contact with their relatives and to secure a sense of ethnic identity (Zeffanne and Rugumbina, 1995). This means that in the organisational situation, kinship and personal relationships may come into play in human resources functions such as, recruitment and selection thus at times leading to less than desirable business practices such as nepotism and corruption (Seddon, 1985, in Hammond (Ed) 1985; Zeffane and Rugumbina, 1995). But is this viewed as unethical business practice or the norm (i.e. fulfilling social obligations to their families) in African societies? According to Nzelibe (1986), in many African settings considerable emphasises is placed on a leader's ability to honour his or her obligations to ethnic affiliates. Ceremony, ritual, inter-personnel relations, reciprocity and the distribution of scant resources to clan and ethnic affiliates are the responsibility of the leadership in Africa (Kolawole 1966; Nzelibe 1986; Warren et al. 1996). Due to the fact that people of different nationalities and cultures have different perceptions of the roles leadership should play, and how communities must be organised: depending on the cultural diversity of the sample, differences on perceptions of organisational culture and management style are bound to exist.

Onyemulukwe (1973), in Zeffane and Rugimbana (1995), asserts that a central aspect of African culture is service to the community and that an organisation trying to cultivate alternate values will be treated instrumentally and to its detriment. An organisation should thus look after the welfare of its employees, as employees (mostly lower level) see this as a right and not a privilege. Also similar to Chinese culture the maintenance of face is seen as central to the understanding of interpersonal behaviour in the African society. Feedback in the organisation should not be confronting because employees are sensitised to negative feed back. Ensuring that employees maintain their pride and self respect is essential as it prevents the creation of hostility which in turn increases the degree of the instrumental attitude employees have towards the organisation. (Seddon, 1985)

In an article drawing on data gathered in nine African countries in 1984, Montgomery (1987) investigates the images of African management as they are seen by the western world. The western world at that time saw African managers as being motivated by tribal and personal gain rather than improved institutional performance, preoccupied with internal problems to the neglect of external ones, private sector managers as being more efficient than public sector managers, and managers being generally risk averse. Most assumptions were partially confirmed. Although slightly outdated due to the rapid change and transitional nature of African economies, this article gives an insight into some management behaviours prevalent in African organisations.

While there does not seem to be much research specific to management styles, some aspects of it have been discussed in existing work. African management styles have

been viewed as being more, 'tell than join', implying that management styles are by no means participatory with the all decisions lying in the hands of the managers (Kiggundu, 1988). Management styles were also seen as 'emphasising ethnocentrism, communalism and co-operative teamwork' (Nzelibe, 1986). Nzelibe thus suggests that there is a lot of conservatism and maintenance of tradition in prevailing management styles. Abudu (1986) traces some of the prevalent management styles to the colonial past where colonial administrators had little faith in the ability of their African subordinates, 'They [colonial administrators] kept managerial authority in their own hands and menial work was given to subordinates closely supervised'. No authority was delegated, as a result typical African management style tends to concentrate managerial authority and functions in a small number of positions at the top. Theory X (McGregor, 1960) style of management was thus found to be dominant due to the high power distance and authoritarian, paternalistic people orientation.

Prevailing leadership styles are further explained in terms of characteristics of African culture and societies, which tend to be egalitarian within age groups and hierarchical between age groups (Liquist and Adolph 1996 in Blunt and Jones 1997), as a result leaders often behave and are expected to behave paternalistically (Jones et al. 1995). (Blunt and Jones 1997) further see African employees as preferring authoritative rather than authoritarian leadership where leaders are expected to use their authority only sparingly in a humane and considerate way. This is supported by the findings of (Jones et al. 1995) in which public sector managers in Botswana were found to perceive effective managers as those providing clear direction and targets accompanied by paternal and supportive management style. Africans were found to be more concerned about the relationship with their boss rather than for example with

organisational effectiveness. In their research, words such as 'teacher', 'father figure', were used to describe the ideal boss. The picture painted is thus one of authority exercised in a paternal way. It is expected that the existent management styles of African managers will be rather more authoritative compared to that of European managers. In a separate study in Malawi, Blunt and Jones (1988) find African managers who believed in their subordinates capacity for leadership and initiative, but are low on sharing information with subordinates among other factors.

Kiggundu (1988 in Nath 1988) holds the view that in Africa like other developing countries managing inter-dependencies with the external environment is problematic because of the asymmetrical relationship between the organisation and its environments. It is argued that neither the organisations nor the individual managers can influence the organisations outcomes with organisation members preferring to adhere to precedent and preserving the status quo than taking risks (Hickson and Pugh, 1995). Hickson and Pugh further summarise African management as being, high power distance (almost authoritarian) oriented, not overly concerned with time management, characterised by managing uncertainties in fluctuating political and economic environments and an intrusion of personal relationships into management. Kiggundu (1988) attributes a high degree of delegation and low participation to high power distance, associates a high uncertainty avoidance with the increasing rate of change in young democracies and beginning modernisation (Schwartz, 1994, holds the same view), and low individualism to close knit kinship. It is however pertinent to consider the impact of rural urban migration and western education among other factors that tend to erode collectivist values and to some extent cultivate masculinity values. Due to factors such as these although it expected that black managers will

display more collectivist and humanist orientations this may not actually be so or may be so to a lesser extent.

Blunt and Jones (1997) directly contrast African and Western approaches. In this contrast the western ideal is characterised by a concern for performance, a drive for efficiency & competitiveness and participativeness, with a relative equality of authority and status between manager and subordinate, delegation, decentralisation, teamwork and an emphasis on 'empowerment'. African organisational leadership is seen as highly centralised and hierarchical, with a high degree of uncertainty, and an emphasis on control, rules and procedures rather than performance. A high level of conservatism and resistance to change is also observed coupled with an importance of extended kinship networks, authoritarianism and paternalism. (Jackson et al 1999, p6) however contend that despite, the tendencies of an 'African' approach to organisational management to reflect a colonial legacy rather than an indigenous approach to organising, and a theory X rather than a theory Y set of principles (McGregor 1960), 'there are certain key values which can be isolated from academic and popular literature which might provide a clue to what an indigenous African organisational management might be, which is distinct from evidence about the nature of current organisations in Africa'(Jackson et al. 1999p6)

Having reviewed this literature general to sub-Saharan Africa which appears to show similarities of management characteristics in most of the countries of study, it is expected that in the countries under study similar characteristics will emerge. We can thus hypothesise that:

In all the countries of study, organisational cultures and management styles will display a mixture of conservative traditional and collectivist tendencies, modern industrialised society tendencies and a colonial legacy approach to organising.

In the absence of a substantial amount of literature relevant to the countries of study, care will be taken to avoid making generalisations about Africa, as 'empirical findings or prescriptive statements developed for one setting do not necessarily generalise to others', (Kiggundu, 1988; Arthur et al, 1995). There is need to specifically define each area of research. Chapter four succeeding this chapter gives a social and economic overview of the countries of sub-Saharan Africa. It then specifically focuses on the countries of study then reviews the relevant academic literature on each of them.

CHAPTER FOUR

Related Current And Previous Work On Nigeria, South Africa, Zimbabwe And Cameroon.

4.0 A Social, Cultural And Economic Over-View Of Sub-Saharan Africa

Hofstede (1980), recommends that researchers should indicate the national and cultural characteristics of their sample so that readers can recognise potential limitations (Boyacigiller and Adler 1991 in Jackson 1995, p26). Also because Africa is made up of traditional societies intimately connected to nature and land, the social political and economic organisations must be managed in accordance with the dictates of tradition and the relationship between the people and the laws of nature (Nath, 1988). For these reasons a social and economic over-view of Africa in general and the countries of study, shall be discussed before conducting a review of the relevant management literature. While studying African management it is also important to note that, 'Africa is by no means homogenous culturally, politically, economically and otherwise...' (Kamoche 1997, p538). It is thus likely that it will not be possible to generalise the findings in each country of study to other African countries.

4.1.0 SOCIO-CULTURAL OVER-VIEW

African Culture

'In Africa society dominates the organisation, therefore one cannot be of much help in the organisation without at least a working knowledge of the dominant environmental forces with which those inside the organisation must interact, and from whom they must protect the technical core of the organisation' (Kiggundu 1991, p 32). In order to

understand prevailing management practices in organisations in Africa today several aspects of traditional African culture and how these have been modified by external influences over the years are revisited. Traditionally African societies consisted of fairly large close knit tribal societies whose major activities included agriculture and warring (Malinowski, 1945). Although this has to a large extent changed over the years, today considerable emphasis is still placed on the following values:

- (1) **Respect for leaders**, Maveneka (1997) in Kileff C and Kileff P (1997), looks at the relationships between African people in Zimbabwe were traditionally people lived in family communities under a head. The head and the elders authority was accepted by virtue of their age hence wisdom.
- (2) The community was **consensus loving**, meetings were held to make decisions of communal importance. Similarly in the organisational situation consensus is highly valued and decision making within levels can therefore take a long time (Blunt and Jones, 1997; Cosway and Anakin 1996). Between levels (downwards) observance of hierarchy means that consensus can be achieved relatively quickly (Blunt 1978, 1983; Dia 1994, Blunt and Jones 1997). Going back to traditional African society, each community was however only concerned with affairs of its own community whereas this is somewhat changing today with new young scholars discussing international affairs. The degree of open mindedness however may still not be high thus explaining the characterisation of many African societies as being fixed in their ways of doing things, having an external locus of control and being passive and reactive. The Shona tribe in Zimbabwe for instance are seen to have been:

- (3) **traditionally superstitious** believing that sickness, death and other unpleasant phenomena were caused either by evil spirits or ancestral spirits as punishment for wrong doing.
- (4) **Identity and loyalty to one's group.** Many western societies including Africa are collectivist in nature, valuing the group over the individual (Ghoshal and Moran 1996; Hofstede 1993), as a result wealth in the African society is first extended family or clan wealth and often it can be acquired legitimately at the expense of the organisation (Dia 1994). Evidence of this can be seen in modern day African organisations. In Zimbabwe for instance there is a very large informal sector in existence (Jackson 1998). Some employees simply go to work in order to establish contacts for their own private business through which they can create wealth which is directed at themselves and their families, rather than at the organisations they work for.
- (5) **Communalism and Co-operation**, explained by the African metaphor, which in English translates to, 'A thumb working on its own is useless' highlights the collectivist nature of African society, as it is believed the individual belongs to the community. This 'collective fingers theory', is further evidence for the value placed on co-operation in African society. Although various historical factors have and still are leading to a change in African traditional culture some of the traditional traits continue to exist. African culture thus may probably influences organisational culture, management styles and attitudes towards these.
- (6) **Traditionalism**, is an aspect of African culture put forward by Nzelibe (1986) among others sums up the essence of African culture. Traditionalism encompasses adherence to accepted customs, beliefs and practices that determine accepted behaviour, morality and desired characteristics of the individual society.

4.1.1 Historical Influences on African Culture

African societies consist of diverse ethnic and tribal groups whose cultures no longer exist in their pure forms due to the influences of colonisation and industrialisation (Harris and Moran, 1991). Many cultural contradictions and tensions exist as new nations, go through tough transition from colonial dependencies to modern nation states (Blunt and Jones; 1992). Taking note of historical influences on African culture helps to explain the prevailing management behaviours and styles as well as the management employee relationship in African organisations. The aspects of present day African culture depicts a culture that is related to both Europe and Africa yet is not a mere copy of either (Malinowski, 1945; Hickson and Pugh: 1995) In South Africa for instance people are said to be guided by the spirit of 'Ubuntu' which has been described by Mbigi and Maree (1995) as, *'The sense of solidarity or brotherhood which arises among people within marginalised or disadvantaged groups. It describes the collective experience of the African people.'* Given the more or less similar colonial histories, the spirit of *ubuntu* could be applicable to a greater number of the countries in Sub Saharan Africa. The word *ubuntu* forms the basis of a Xhosa proverb, *'Ubuntu ungamntu ngabanye abantu'*, which in the English language translates to, 'people are people through other people' a humanist philosophy which reaches its ideal in 'ubuntu' and expresses itself in a sense of collectivism or communalism (Davies, R and Swartz, E, 1997). In the organisational situation, the origins of 'ubuntu' however direct the resulting collectivism at the group rather than the organisation (Davies, and Swartz, E, 1997). Employees thus have an instrumental attitude towards their organisations, seeing them mostly as a means of making money (Blunt and Jones, 1992).

4.2.0 GENERAL ECONOMIC OVERVIEW

Countries in regions such as, Western Europe and countries such as the United States and Japan have been intensifying their investment focus on emerging markets throughout the 1990's. These emerging countries in themselves however present a mixture of opportunity and both political and cultural risk (Beraho, 1997). The significance of emerging markets is rising and increased globalisation has led to the opening up of borders of emerging markets to foreign investment. As an illustration of the importance of emerging markets, in 1995 the ten big emerging markets accounted for 10% of the worlds economic output, and in 1997, emerging markets accounted for 40% of global production (Garten,1997). Companies in the industrialised world depend on overseas markets for both economies of scale and increasing profits. The rising interest in these emerging markets has also led to increased concern on managing across cultures as often investments may be accompanied by expatriates and a tendency to duplicate the companies culture in the subsidiary.

In economic terms sub-Saharan Africa has been characterised as the poorest region of the world. Collier (1997), Ibru (1997), and Mbaku (1998) highlight the factors hindering poverty eradication in Africa as including, bureaucratic and political corruption, excessive population growth, political violence, destructive ethnic conflict, racial intolerance, military intervention in politics, unmanageable external debt political violence and poor infrastructure. Infrastructure includes both social overhead and physical capital. Lack of social capital has led to high transaction costs

and poor and inefficient public services. Social overhead capital is also needed for hospitals, shelter and education of labour resources. Lack of the ability to educate labour resources has resulted in shortage of human capital for development (see also Jackson 1999). Physical capital on the other hand is needed for building structures and equipment used in industry, such as railroads, highways and communication systems among others. In Africa these are however inadequate and this has hindered development. The economic hardships experienced by African employees may result in their being motivated by means simply meeting their basic needs, and relationship with the organisations may be instrumental (Blunt and Jones, 1992), they see it mainly as a means of making money to survive. All these factors may have an influence on this research. Furthermore if management styles and organisational cultures are a factor of the level of industrialisation and development (Kerr et al. 1976) tampered by cultural characteristics (Evans, Hau and Sculli, 1989) among other factors, if the most developed countries invest in Africa, differences are bound to arise due to the differences in these. Also, the characteristics of African societies presented in most literature and economic records correlate with Hofstede's (1994) assumptions about societies characterised by collectivism. Modern industrial practice is associated with individualism, thus again perceptions of managers of differing national backgrounds are therefore bound to differ depending on level of industrialisation.

Most countries in Sub-Sahara Africa have high debt levels. In the last ten of years more than two-thirds of the countries in Africa have undertaken Structural Adjustment Programmes (SAPS) designed and promoted by the International Monetary Fund and The World Bank in an effort to improve economic performance

and reduce dependency on external financing (Mbaku, 1998). This however does not seem to have improved macro-economic performance, as debt levels continue to rise and poverty continues to be pervasive. Mbaku (1998, p302) however singles out South Africa, Algeria and Mauritius as having the most viable manufacturing sectors, with South Africa being termed a strategic market and Zimbabwe, Nigeria and Cameroon being termed problem markets in an earlier analysis by Beraho (1997). It is thus likely that the findings from South Africa may differ considerably with those from Zimbabwe, Cameroon and Nigeria. Hofstede (1994) associated collectivism, (which is in conflict with the values underlying western theories of management) with countries with a lower per capita GNP thus it is expected that South African managers will be the least collectivist in orientation compared to managers in Zimbabwe, Cameroon, and Nigeria.

Regional integration characterised by formation of trading blocks such as SADC and COMESA has been a significant occurrence in the last quarter of the 20th century in sub-Saharan Africa. Through regional integration the small African economies can increase their effective sizes and allow themselves to benefit significantly from more enhanced exploitation of technological economies of scale. High quality of produce is however essential for success. But then managers and employees attitudes with regards the need for production of a high quality product may be influenced by their cultures. Regional integration also brings together a multitude of different cultures with differences that need to be understood if appropriate methods of managing are to be engaged.

4.2.1 Overview of the specific countries of study and relevant literature

Although there is a growing literature on organisational management on South Africa and Nigeria, there is still a lack of information on Zimbabwean and Cameroonian management, and this is true of other individual sub-Saharan African countries generally. A considerable amount of literature on work attitudes and behaviour of the African employee in some of the countries of this study is however in existence. This section provides a general overview of each of each of the countries of study followed by a review of the relevant literature.

NIGERIA

Nigeria is an interesting country of study in itself with its numerous tribes with diverse cultures. Despite its history of military repression, civilian corruption and ethnic tensions, it has enormous economic potential. For instance Nigeria lies in the worlds top ten exporters of oil. Nigeria's estimated GDP in 1998 for instance stood at, US \$106.2 billion growing at a rate of 1.6%. GDP per capita was however a low of US\$960. Nigeria is among the most culturally complex societies in Africa with 250 languages and over 4000 dialects. The four major ethnic groups Hausa, Yoruba, Ibo and Fulani make up over 65% of Nigeria's population. The population is further divided on the basis of religion into Muslims (42.2%, mostly in the north and west), Christians 34,5% (predominantly in the South, of which half are Catholics and the other half are Protestant), and traditional religions accounting for 18%. The diversity of tribal groups, in a rather politically unstable environment characterised by rapid change provides an important cross-cultural setting in Nigeria. Also given the ratio of black to white in the Nigerian population which is also reflected in the management composition, the results should form the basis of an interesting comparison with

Zimbabwe and South Africa, whose management ratios are the opposite of those of Nigeria.

As far as relevant management literature is concerned in a discussion centred around work attitudes of Africans with special reference to Nigeria, Abudu (1986) blames the absence of an industrial culture in Africa as being responsible for the what has come to be known as the 'negative behaviour' of the African workforce. According to Abudu (1986, p34) with the introduction of wage labour, Africans feared being separated from their families and contracting illnesses in the urban centres and the Europeans failure to appreciate these fears resulted in their mistakenly labelling the African as 'lazy'. Instead Abudu attributes unsatisfactory work attitudes to both work specific and societal factors such as nepotism, corruption, and the cultural influx in which the contemporary Nigerian worker is caught. In as far as organisational systems are concerned, in a comparative analysis of a the headquarters-subsidaries relationship, of a French organisation in England, Spain and Nigeria, Huault (1996) found that, 'organic linkage'(i.e. informal control processes, and organisational acculturation) dominate in Europe while, 'mechanical linkage', (i.e bureaucratic control mechanisms) are used more frequently in Nigeria.

Africa is not a mono-cultural society with many countries such as South Africa, Kenya, Zimbabwe and Nigeria among others owing their internal conflicts to inter-cultural misunderstandings (Kiggundu, 1991, p41). An investigation on possible cultural differences in job attitudes among three main cultural groups, the Hausa, the Ibo and the Yoruba in Nigeria by Adigun, (1995) reveals consistent cultural differences with regard to three motivational factors, namely interpersonal relations,

nature of work and supervision. The overall results indicated that cultural background had little impact on perceptions of job motivation, but a number of personal differences were found to affect responses. This study supports the view that cultural differences exist within a single country (Oreilly and Roberts 1973; Orpen 1978 in Adigun 1995).

Incompatibility of the employees' culture with the organisation's culture has often resulted in organisations in Africa being deemed dysfunctional. (Seddon, in Hammond, 1985) was prompted to carry out a study of African values in the work place because, as it appeared African managers 'simply did not consider it as normal to behave in the manner in which they were trained'. Work related values of employees in two companies in Kenya and Nigeria were measured using, Hofstede's Value Survey model and after discussing his findings with African managers working in their home country and in Europe, Seddon found several examples of lack of fit between cultural expectations and organisational behaviour. Seddon (1985) highlights the importance of the consideration of African values as a source of organisational strength that should be legitimised in the foreign owned organisations.

As previously discussed one of the causes of labour problems in Africa may be the differences between the instrumentalism of western styles of management and the humanism of non-western styles in the management of people (Jackson, 1999) and possibly the adoption of western systems of management without due adaptation. Arthur, Woehr, Akande and Strong (1995) carried out a survey in Nigeria and Ghana to determine the extent to which, human resources management practices were in place and the attitudes towards these practices and interventions. They found a

particularist orientation in human resources practices such as recruitment techniques, selection process, training and development. Further to this, in a comparative analysis of personnel management in Ghana, Kenya and Nigeria, Akinnusi (1991) discusses some of the problems encountered by the personnel function in these countries. This discussion helps in our understanding of African management, organisational cultures and management styles. Among the factors noted as causing problems were external factors such as, the nature of the society, culture, the state of the economy, government and technology and internal factors such as organisational climate, inter-group conflict and rivalry, and the integrity and professionalism of managers. These factors were seen as giving rise to problems such as use of particularism as opposed to universalism in the making of personnel decisions. The reason for prevalence of particularism given, are that the more successful and influential a manager is the more they are expected to share their good fortune with their kin. Ethnicity, tribalism and nepotism are quite high in African organisations and such that in order to forestall ethnic rivalry and jealousies arising from particularism a clause against it was inserted into the Nigerian Constitution (1979) for instance (Akinnusi 1991).

Having reviewed this literature, it is therefore expected that this study will find, *a control orientation as being dominant in Nigerian organisational cultures and management styles. It is also expected that particularist tendencies will be found with managers being concerned with serving their relations among other particularist practices.*

SOUTH AFRICA

With a GDP of US \$ 270.0 billion (1997 estimate) South Africa is the most economically advanced of the three countries under study. It provides an example of the cross-cultural dynamic between the predominantly western approaches to management and organisation, and non-western approaches. South Africa has a relatively long history of foreign investment with companies that are heavily influenced by western management principles (Jackson et al. 1999b). South Africa is considerably culturally complex, with eleven official languages and a historical legacy of apartheid (legal separation between the main ethnic groups), (Jackson et al. 1999). The majority of the population; 68% follow the Christian religion, with only two percent being Muslims and 28% being either Animists or following traditional religions. Also with a population ratio of white to black persons standing at 1:5, white managers are still overly represented in managerial ranks despite the current Affirmative Action. South Africa's history '...has led to distortions in social and economic developments within the country, as well as distortions in inter-ethnic relations.' (Jackson, 1999).

Prior studies of South African organisation suggest that management is conservative and traditional (Jackson et al. 1999). In a study by Viljoen (1987), dominant management styles in South Africa by percentage of the sample were found to be autocratic (46%), collaborative (33%), and participative (12%). The sample consisted of 199 companies. Despite organisations having also been found to be high on bureaucracy, external diplomacy, and commitment to quality, yet low on risk taking, innovation, openness and action orientation, the same study found that there was a desire for more goal orientation, management supportiveness, customer focus and

collaboration, and a lower desire for 'seriousness', risk taking, bureaucracy and cost consciousness.

In another study of South African organisations by Hofmeyr (1998), organisations were found to be generally 'generally over-managed and under-led'. Management styles were often seen as rigid bureaucratic, directive and task oriented. Sometimes decision making was over centralised, and leadership aspects such as direction, vision and effectiveness were often seen as lacking. Within their study managers from different cultural groups displayed different attitudes with regards equal opportunities and implementation of affirmative action, with respondents at higher levels of management being more positive than those at lower levels regarding their perceptions of organisational culture.

Recently in an exploratory study involving focus group methods, and a survey of 200 employees in three South African companies, Jackson (1999) found organisations to be hierarchical, centralised, fairly rule bound yet having an element of consultative management. Managers viewed their organisations as having a low priority towards employees, managers and the local community as stakeholders. Jackson (1999), concludes that cultural aspects should be taken into account in organisations by not overly stressing results focus. His findings reveal that it may be appropriate to maintain a balance with a people focus as a way of motivating managers and employees.

The literature reviewed on South Africa gives an indication of the type of organisational cultures and management styles the we expect to find in that country in

this study. *It is hypothesised that emerging organisational cultures and management styles in South Africa will provide the greatest diversity and conflict. We expect both a traditional conservative and control orientation and a modern democratic and highly participative orientation to emerge in both current and required management styles.*

ZIMBABWE

Although with an estimated GDP of only US\$ 26.2 billion (1998 estimate) Zimbabwe is among some of the most developed countries in Africa, and an important partner in SADC (Southern African Development Community). Having attained its independence in 1980, and gone through a decade of considerable social progress but limited per capita growth, in 1990 the Zimbabwean Government embarked on a programme of economic policy reform aimed at stimulating investment and removing impediments to economic growth. These IMF and World Bank proposed Structural Adjustment Programmes (SAPS) mark a period of transition in the Zimbabwean economy and business environment. Transition is characterised by among other factors, emergence of new modes of business operation such as mergers & acquisitions, franchising, joint ventures, foreign direct investment which have led to increased interaction of management cultures. Of late the Zimbabwean government faces a wide variety of difficult economic problems as it struggles to consolidate earlier progress in developing a market oriented economy. Its GDP per capita fell to US\$2400 and the growth rate to 1.5% (1998 estimate). Also, Zimbabwe has a legacy of legal segregation between black and white, but without the extremes of black marginalisation as in South Africa. There are two main language groups (Shona and Ndebele). Though constituting less than one percent of the population the white,

ethnic group is still overly represented in managerial ranks. Zimbabwe provides a cross-cultural setting in the context of rapid change, within itself and between its self and other countries.

Very little empirical information exists about organisations in Zimbabwe and it is fortunate that Schwartz (1994) includes Zimbabwe in his extensive international study of cultural values. Schwartz's Zimbabwean sample scored medium to high on conservatism and low on intellectual autonomy, high on hierarchy and low on egalitarian commitment, high on mastery and low on harmony. With a high score on hierarchy which stresses power relations and authority and the legitimacy of using powers to attain individual or group goals it may be concluded that applied to a Zimbabwean organisation we may find autocratic and hierarchical systems. Mastery correlates positively with Hofstede's masculinity, and relates to mastery of the social environment through self-assertion, and getting ahead of people (Schwartz, 1994). But it has mostly been assumed that African cultures display a high level of femininity (Perry 1997), or at times medium masculinity (Blunt and Jones 1992). Such conflicting assumptions may suggest that Zimbabwean cultures may be different from other African cultures, or lacking in the social nurturing values contained within Hofstede's concept of femininity (Jackson et al. 1999). Schwartz drew his sample from school teachers arguing that they are the custodians of culture and they provide the transfer of culture from one generation to the next thus it may thus be possible to draw some conclusions applicable to organisational management culture in Zimbabwe.

In an article based on interviews with senior officials and policy makers in Civil Service organisations, parastatals and their regulatory bodies, conducted in Tanzania, Kenya and Zimbabwe, Taylor (1992) looks at the problems and possibilities in public sector personnel management, with a view on the civil service and parastatal organisations. The personnel function is found to be a largely reactive administrative operation, characterised by non-personnel 'house keeping roles' and lacking a strategic role within the organisation (p193). He suggests a lack of alternative models of best personnel practice, the historical legacy of colonial administration, and the continuing need for administrative controls in the face of favouritism and corruption, as possible reasons for this restricted role of the personnel function. His work is based on impressions obtained in a short space of time by 'someone whose role in experiencing and managing the employment relationship is very different from that which exists in LDC's (p205). The perspective may thus suffer from being that reflecting an over-westernised approach.

Jackson et al. (1999) look at the management of people and organisations in Zimbabwe and South Africa specifically focusing on the differences in managers perceptions with regard to people, results and control orientation among seven cultural groups. Although managers from all cultural groups agreed to the need for more results focused organisations there were differences on the extent to which organisations should become so. Zimbabwean managers were found to desire more 'results orientation' than South African managers. All cultural groups agreed that organisations were to become less control oriented however with South African managers desiring more control than Zimbabwean managers. A general desire for

organisations to become more people oriented was found with black managers being less confident of the achievement of this than managers from other cultural groups.

Given the literature reviewed on Zimbabwe *we expect to find moderately autocratic and hierarchical systems to some extent reflecting a colonial legacy approach to organising. We also expect to find more results oriented and ambitious managers in this country.*

CAMEROON

Cameroon a former French colony with its offshore oil resources and favourable agricultural conditions attained its independence in 1960 (from UN trusteeship under French administration). Although it is one of the most endowed primary commodity economies in sub-Saharan Africa, it still faces problems such as political instability, a top heavy civil service and a generally unfavourable climate for business enterprise. As in most other African states with the help of the IMF and World Bank during the 1990-93 period the government introduced reforms to encourage business investment, increase efficiency in Agriculture and re-capitalise the nations banks. Political instability in 1992 however brought these structural adjustment programmes to a halt. With a GDP per capita of US \$2000 and a GDP growth rate of 5% (1998 estimate) today Cameroon falls amongst the countries with the most corruption in the world and mismanagement remains the main barrier to economic improvement. Despite all this considerable progress has been made towards privatising the remaining state industry and this is expected to support economic growth (CIA World Fact Book 1999). Only less than 1% of the population in Cameroon is non-African. It has two official languages (English and French), two hundred and eighty local languages

(twenty-four major), across at least seven African ethnic groups. These languages can be classified on the basis of geographical location into three broad categories. **a) Nilo Sahara** group of languages in the predominantly Muslim and French speaking North and North Eastern parts of Cameroon, comprising about 20% of the Cameroonian population, **b) Bantu group** in the predominantly Christian and French speaking central and southern parts of Cameroon comprising about 30% of the population, **c) Semi-Bantu**, in the predominantly Christian and English speaking west, south west, and north west regions of Cameroon. In all more than half the population (51%) practice indigenous religion, 33% practice Christianity and 16% are Muslims. Cameroon.

Very little exists in terms of management literature for Cameroon. Being a former French colony it is highly likely that a substantial amount of management literature written in French may be available for that country. It is unfortunate that no French literature could be reviewed due to the language barrier as the researcher is not familiar with the language. As the English language is also one of the official languages of the country some literature was available and the study was quite justified. The work of Kets De Vries (1999) highlights the possible positive contributions a Cameroon tribe- the pygmy's could make to the modern organisation. He also points out the problems that are inevitable in getting the pygmies to adapt to modern organisational forms. While research has shown power and observance of hierarchy to be of considerable importance in most African tribes, in pygmy society members subscribe to distributed power leadership, there is no single leader. All members of the group are empowered to make decisions, respect is based more on knowledge and experience and not wealth and status (Kets De Vries 1999, p 74).

Another interesting aspect revealed in the work of Kets De Vries (1999) is that in pygmy society the organisational system is based on informal rules and trust. Also that preferred leadership is authoritative rather than authoritarian, were authoritative leaders 'accept contrarian thinking and encourage people to speak their mind'(p75). The ideal leaders (Kets De Vries, 1999) are those that can play the role of 'mentor', 'coach' and cheer 'leader'. These assumptions of the most ideal leader are similar to those found in Botswana in a study by Jones et al. (1995), suggesting that the ideal manager in African society may be more or less similar in African society. The current perception held in Cameroon is therefore that those who will make effective leaders for the future should have the ability to communicate what has to be done in clear unambiguous terms leaving little room for misinterpretation. This is characteristic of African collectivist society.

In the absence of a substantial amount of literature for Cameroon it is quite difficult to give an indication of organisational cultures and management styles that will emerge. It is however expected the these will not differ a great deal from those of the other countries as research has shown that African cultures in most sub-Saharan countries are quite similar to an extent.

'The people of Africa are of diverse cultures both among themselves and with outsiders. One would expect to find differences across Africa in how the people understand the world around them, define their purpose of being, make moral judgements of right or wrong, communicate with one another and are willing to integrate foreign ideas and cultural practices' (Kiggundu, in Nath 1988, p170). The information obtained through secondary research further gives further impetus for

primary research. This is because though management styles and organisational cultures have been identified to an extent, there is still a lack of a substantial amount of empirical support these findings. Given the different histories and characteristics of the countries under study the findings promises to be interesting.

CHAPTER FIVE

5.0 METHODOLOGY

Literature review in the preceding chapters points to the existence of managing styles and organisational cultures with conflicting characteristics in the countries of study. These characteristics depict a culture related to both western culture and African culture yet, are not a mere copy of either. This research aims to find if support of these propositions can be found in the countries of study. Reviewed literature also suggests that organisational cultures and management styles that are in existence in the countries of study are similar but may only differ in the extent to which they are prevalent due to influences from various other factors various other than national cultures. Among these factors may be management position, whether it be junior, middle or senior management. This research thus also seeks to find if differences in organisational culture and management styles will exist at these levels. In choosing the best approach to the answering the research questions, various factors had to be considered. Given below is a debate on the use of either quantitative or qualitative approaches in research.

5.1.0 General Methodology Considerations

The conflict about which methodology is the best choice for a researcher is an old one. Quantitative researchers stress the shortcomings of qualitative research and argue that quantitative methods are better than qualitative methods and qualitative researchers do like wise. The answer to this is that there is no right methodology as either of the tools can be used ‘...according to the circumstances, that is according to

the research in question, the available resources, the research conditions and most of the type of information required' (Diamantopoulos and Schlegelmilch 1996, p55). The two methods are different, serving different research needs and producing equally useful but different forms of data. According to Rousseau (1990), qualitative methods such as interviews and observations are valuable because of their detail, descriptiveness and uniqueness, while quantitative methods such as questionnaires, are valuable because of their precision, comparability and objectivity. In this research quantitative methods of data collection were employed. All data collection methods are useful relevant and effective, and are considered to be supplementary to each other. While triangulation is generally thought to produce more valid and reliable results than the use of single methods, it is generally suggested that the number of methods that are most appropriate in each research design must be evaluated in the context of the project in question (Sarantakos, 1993 p156).

Initially a search was done for both academic and popular literature relevant to this research to try and answer the research questions. In this semi-exploratory study, a single survey method of questionnaire collection was used. The aim was to collect comparative data on aspects of organisational culture and management style in a cross-cultural context. Given time and financial constraints the questionnaire method was more appropriate than other methods as it is less expensive, allows wider coverage and produces quick results. Since this study involves managers revealing how they view their organisations, themselves and their colleagues it was likely that they would prefer to write rather than talk about certain issues as this provided greater assurance of anonymity as they did not have to disclose their names. The questionnaire method was also used in an attempt to minimise bias and errors caused

by attitude or presence of interviewer. In this study involving comparisons the questionnaire method was advantageous because it offers, a consistent and uniform measure. The questionnaire method is however not without its limitations. Generally speaking questionnaire research is a fairly new phenomenon for African organisations. It is likely that this would affect the quality and levels of responses. For instance managers occupying the higher levels of management are likely to realise the value of research and are thus likely to be more responsive. Evidence of this was seen in the study where middle and senior managers combined accounted for 79.2% of the total responses. Limitations of the questionnaire drawn up in English and French, may also pertain to language difficulty and interpretation as both these languages are not native to indigenous African managers. It is believed however that this limitation was not as great as the language used in each country was the official language of business in that country. Another limitation is that as researchers we can never be 100% sure whether the right person has answered the questionnaire. An attempt was made to reduce this error by clearly specifying who was to answer the questionnaire and the selection of professional collaborators to ensure that the right people got the questionnaire.

5.2.0 The Research Instrument

Having made a decision on the research instrument to be used a choice was made to employ the questionnaire designed by Jackson (1998). This questionnaire which is in two parts though drawn up by a non African was appropriate due to the fact that, during its design stage it was inspected by collaborators in Africa. This was in an attempt to assess cultural relevance and the extent to which the questionnaire was tapping into values of importance in the African culture. The necessary amendments

were made and it is the amended questionnaire that was used in this particular study (see appendix D for an amended copy of the questionnaire).

The first part of the questionnaire used in this study quite comprehensively addresses organisational culture issues while the second part deals with issues generally relating to motivation and management styles. The questionnaire is also appropriate because it is quite comprehensive and is predominantly based on prior cross-cultural studies of organisational factors such as those by Vertinski, Tse, Wehrung & Lee, (1990), Hofstede (1994), Reynolds (1986) and Laurent (1989). It includes items on strategy, structure, decision-making, control, and character, in terms of ethics, success and change, internal policies, climate, external policies, management expertise and people orientation. Jackson's questionnaire also proved to be very useful given the limited time for the researcher to draw up an own questionnaire. The questionnaire required managers to respond to items pertaining to organisational culture and management style on the basis of how these currently are, the way they are changing, and requirements for the future. The intention was that answers to these questions would provide clues as to whether there are any similarities or differences of organisational cultures and management styles. The next stage would then be to determine the possible causes for these differences, for instance, nationality, age, gender, ethnicity, or values?

In this current study the questionnaire was administered in English in South Africa, Nigeria and Zimbabwe as this is the official language for instruction and business. For the dominantly French speaking Cameroon with 80% of the managers being French speaking (Ngouo 1999, pers. comm), the questionnaire was administered in

French. The questionnaire was translated into French by native French speakers, also fluent in the English language. The translation back translation method (Werner and Campbell 1970, in Van de Vijver 1997, p 39) was employed in order to test for translation accuracy. Administrators in Cameroon were also involved in checking the accuracy of the translation and making necessary amendments.

Another of the questionnaire weaknesses was its length. Although the questionnaire items were all on one sheet of paper, with the first side measuring organisational culture and the second side measuring management styles the questionnaire may have been too comprehensive and intense. The questionnaire consisted of fifty questions in total and eleven variables of respondent information required. This may have been one of the factors causing non-response in respect of missing respondent information and partially completed questionnaires. Despite causing some negative consequences the length of the questionnaire had its merits. Where the questionnaires were adequately completed the information yielded proved to be very useful as it was quite comprehensive. Also although not all the information obtained was used in this analysis due to time and space constraints it can indeed provide the basis for better informed hypothesis testing in future research.

5.3.0 General Characteristics of the Study.

Four countries were chosen for this study on the basis that they would provide different aspects of African management thus revealing some cross-cultural differences and forming the basis of an interesting comparison. The reason why each country was selected for the study has been discussed in Chapter Four. A number of cold letters were sent to academics and Institutes of Management in several countries

across sub-Saharan Africa asking them to join an international team working on the Management of People and Change in African Organisations. Details of these academics and institutions were obtained from the (1998, World Dictionary of Learning). Thereon those interested in the subject area responded and agreed to administer the questionnaire in their countries. Out of correspondence to eleven countries, managers in four countries responded positively. Academic collaborators were had to distribute the questionnaires in the organisations in their respective countries, while Institutes of Management employed their databases of managers. A total of 745 questionnaires had been returned from the four countries by the time of analysis. Of the returned questionnaires, only five hundred and eighty four, were used in the final analysis. The remaining one hundred and sixty one questionnaires could not be used. This was because some of them had inadequate respondent information and some were incomplete with other items not having been responded to.

5.4.0 Sampling Frame

In cross-cultural research it is desirable for studies to include as many and as wide a range of cultures as possible hence the need for larger samples (Smith, Dugan and Trompenaars, 1996). The sample was drawn from practising managers in organisations in the country of study. Given below are the details on how data in each particular country were collected.

South Africa

The data was obtained mainly through an academic collaborator at the University of Natal Durban. Fifteen companies in the greater Durban and Kwazulu Natal Area were directly contacted. Nine companies responded positively and, two were still

outstanding and 4 companies responded negatively. A total of 106 questionnaires were collected and of these only 79 could be used in the final analysis. The difference could not be utilised for differences already stated above. Human Resource Directors in the companies were briefed on how the questionnaires were to be administered. They then distributed the questionnaire to their management teams on the basis of managerial level and in as far as possible culture, basing this on ethnicity and home language. These human resources managers were also in charge of collection of the completed questionnaires in their organisations. Data from this area of South Africa is invaluable as it provides an important cross section of the South African community with its black, white, and coloured ethnic groups surrounded by a strong concentration of Indian people who are an important minority cultural group in South Africa (Coldwell,1999).

Zimbabwe

Data in Zimbabwe were collected through the Zimbabwe Institute of Management, a management development organisation. Respondents were selected on the basis of geographic, cultural and sectorial spread as well as by managerial levels. Efforts were also made to select the managers on the basis of gender representation. The sample was drawn from the membership database of this Institute numbering up to 4000 across the whole country. Initially a total of 500 questionnaires were mailed out by post through out the country One hundred questionnaires were returned, and of these only 91 could be included in the analysis. A further round of 400 questionnaires were sent out, of these 110 were returned and only 100 could be used in the analysis. In all a total of 191 questionnaires from Zimbabwe could be used.

Nigeria

The idea in Nigeria was to capture as much as possible the four major tribes, in order to have a representative black Nigerian sample. The major tribes are the Yoruba, Hausa, Fulani and Igbo, located in the south, north, north western, east and south-east parts of the country respectively. Data from Nigeria was collected both through both academic collaborators and the Nigeria Institute of Management. The Nigerian Institute of Management was the most practical source with its database of managers from all the 'well established' companies across the whole of Nigeria (Olusanya, 1999 pers comm.). A total of 400 questionnaires were distributed. At the time of data analysis eighty responses had been obtained and more were still expected. Of the eighty returned questionnaires only 76 could be used in the analysis. A further one hundred and fifty questionnaires were collected through an academic collaborator from the University of Abuja. Two hundred and thirty questionnaires were distributed around the Abuja metropolis covering four urban cities in the Northern parts of Nigeria, (Jos, Kaduna, Abuja and Minna). This distribution did not simply focus on the most established companies but generally on all organisations thus to some extent removing the bias that a sample derived from 'elite' organisations such as an Institute of Management may have. Of the one hundred and fifty returned questionnaires only one hundred and twenty-three could be used in the final analysis. At the time of analysis more data were still expected to come in.

More questionnaires were sent out to managers in top Nigerian companies by an academic collaborator at the Rivers State University of Science and Technology in Nigeria. At the time of analysis 52 questionnaires had been returned and they were all used in the analysis. A further fifteen questionnaires were through collaborators at Jos

University in Nigeria, all questionnaires from this location were included in the analysis.

Cameroon

By virtue of it being a French speaking country a French version of the questionnaire was employed in Cameroon. Data were, collected through the Advanced Institute of Public Management (ISMP). One hundred questionnaires were mailed out by the Institute to its database of managers. Fifty two questionnaires were returned and of these 48 could be used in the final analysis.

5.4.1 Sample Size and Non Response

Determining ideal sample size is a subject of considerable debate. Various misconceptions exist that the sample size must be a certain proportion (e.g 5%) of the population or perhaps that it should total 2000. (Frankfort-Nachmias and Nachmias 1996). Since the subject of the research was to capture cross-cultural differences it was important that the sample should capture diversity in the population. According to Diamantopoulos and Schlegelmilch (1996), the more heterogeneous the population, the larger the sample size required to capture the diversity in the population. Since it was not possible to predict the type of respondents in terms of say ethnic differences a sequential random sample was used rather than drawing a fixed sample. According to Diamantopoulos and Schlegilmich (1998) a sequential sample is one whereby “... if the results are not conclusive after a small sample is taken, more observations are made. If the increased sample size still does not furnish conclusive results, more population elements are added to the sample and so on, (until the information is sufficient to permit a conclusion).” A ‘fixed sample’ on the hand is

one were the sample size is determined before data collection). A sequential sample was thus ideal as it allowed more observations to be made in the event of inconclusive results, and or unrepresentative initial samples until the information became sufficient to permit a conclusion.

Other practical considerations in determining sample size included, limited resource availability in terms of time, money and personnel. The non-response factor also needed to be taken into account as 'most surveys tend to attract non response'. To cater for non response collaborators were encouraged to send out a greater number of questionnaires of about 1000 per location on the grounds that approximately 75% would not respond. The kind of intended analysis was also considered. It was anticipated that factor analysis would be one of the data analysis techniques employed in this study. This was an important consideration in sample size as, the reliability of emerging factors depend on sample size to a great extent (Bryman and Cramer, 1994). Gorsuch (1983) in Bryman and Cramer (1990) proposes that there should be no less than 100 individuals per analysis. This was thus catered for in this study with 584 questionnaires being used in the analysis. It was also anticipated that analysis would involve the use of sub samples for cross tabulation purposes hence a larger sample was desirable. '...as a rough rule of thumb, 'the sample should be large enough so that there are 100 or more units in each category of major breakdowns and a minimum of 20 to 50 in minor breakdowns' (Sudman. S, 1976, p30 in Diamantopoulos and Schlegelmilch 1996). Other problems include partial response and non-response. The question about what constitutes an acceptable response rate cannot be answered easily, because scientists do not agree on a standard a minimum response rate. An attempt was made to increase response rates, over and above a mail

short of the questionnaire as international team members administered the questionnaires directly in companies and had Human Resources managers collect them. Another non-response error experienced in this research pertained to partially completed questionnaires and missing respondent details. To an extent the bias resulting from non-response may limit the investigator's ability to make generalisations.

5.4.2 Data Analysis Methods

Once the data had been gathered it was screened, coded, inputted using SPSS (Statistical package for social scientists). The aim in this research was to find out the organisational cultures and management styles in currently in existence and those required for the future. After this it was then sought to confirm or refute the assumptions of previous research that management in Africa presents itself as a conflict between traditionalism and modern industrial practice. Exploratory factor analysis was thus expected to group items that managers saw as being related thus forming a factor. In this research factor analysis however worked for the second part of the questionnaire dealing with management styles. For the first part of the questionnaire on organisational cultures, exploratory factor analysis failed to yield any meaningful factors even after Varimax rotation. An inspection of the correlation matrix however subsequently led to the formation three factors describing organisational cultures, and details of this process are given together with the presentation of the results in chapter six.

Exploratory factor analysis

Exploratory factor analysis involves the examination of the relationship between various variables without determining the extent to which the results fit a particular model (Bryman and Cramer 1994, p256). The idea behind factor analysis shall thus be briefly discussed. According to Bryman and Cramer (1994, p256), 'factor analysis refers to a number of statistical techniques which help us to determine them [factors]' Bryman and Cramer (1994) give three major purposes of factor analysis. The purposes of factor analysis that relate most to this study are that in the case of a large number of variables it can determine the degree to which these can be reduced to a smaller set. Factor analysis they contend, '...is also aimed at trying to make sense of the complexity of social behaviour by reducing it to a more limited number of factors' (Bryman and Cramer, 1994, p257).

The principal axis factoring method was used for the extraction of factors. This method is mainly concerned with describing the variation [*known as the common variance*] that is shared by the scores of people in the three or more variables (Bryman and Cramer, 1994). It was most ideal to use *principal axis factoring*, because it makes an attempt to exclude the unique variance as only the common variance is analysed. An inclusion of the unique variance as in principal components analysis means that there is an assumption that the test used to assess the variable is perfectly reliable (Bryman and Cramer 1994). In this case it was preferable not to make such assumptions. Factor analysis however only worked for the second part of the questionnaire dealing with management style. Details of the proceedings including an explanation of the variances are discussed together with the results in chapter seven.

Many concepts can be used to describe types of organisational culture and management style. When a manager describes a 'control' orientation in organisational culture for instance, he may do so using concepts that are completely different from the next manager. For this reason there is need to ascertain whether items measuring various concepts actually do so across all the comparison groups. The scales formed through inspection of the correlation matrix and exploratory factor analysis were thus tested for reliability using Cronbach's alpha. An assessment of the inter-correlation of scales was also conducted in order to ascertain whether or not scales were measuring similar or different dimensions.

Following factor analysis, one way analysis of variance tests for comparison of unrelated means (ANOVA) were then conducted between countries and management positions as these involve the comparison of more than two means. A one way analysis of variance test is an 'F test' in which an estimate of the between-groups variance is compared with an estimate of the within-groups variance by dividing the former with the latter.

$$F = \frac{\text{between-groups estimated variance}}{\text{within-groups estimated variance}}$$

If the between-groups variance is larger than the within-groups variance, then the F ratio will be higher implying that the differences between the means are unlikely to be due to chance (see, Bryman and Cramer 1994, p139). In order to identify where the most significant differences lay the Scheffe test was then run. The Scheffe test was used because, it is the most conservative and is least likely to find significant differences between groups and, it is also seen to be exact for unequal numbers of subjects in the groups (Bryman and Cramer 1994, p143). In this research the

comparison groups were unequal thus the Scheffe test was ideal. A review of literature in the countries of study though reflecting a few moderate differences, also reflected the presence of some common underlying dimensions. For this reason a most conservative test was again needed and the Scheffe test was ideal.

For comparing the two crudely distinguished ethnic groups (African and European), 't' tests for two unrelated means were performed. This test determines if the means of two unrelated samples differ, by comparing the difference between the two means with the standard error of the difference in the means of different samples (see, Bryman and Cramer, 1994, p136).

$$t = \frac{\text{sample one mean} - \text{sample two mean}}{\text{standard error of difference in means}}$$

The further away the difference in the two means is from zero, the less likely that the difference is due to chance, therefore implying that the difference is significant.

The findings of this study are thus presented in Chapters six and seven together with more elaboration of the data analysis techniques employed.

CHAPTER SIX

6.0 PRESENTATION, ANALYSIS AND DISCUSSION OF FINDINGS: (Part 1 : organisation)

As two aspects of the organisations were being studied (namely organisational culture and management style) using two different questionnaires, each aspect has been presented in an individual chapter. First and foremost this chapter gives a description of the sample characteristics. It then goes on to give a presentation analysis and discussion of organisational cultures in the four countries of study. It was hypothesised that organisational cultures would not differ a great deal across the four countries. It was hypothesised that expected differences would be due to a combination of national cultural differences and other factors in the political and economic environments.

6.1 Sample Characteristics

Descriptive statistics are provided in Table 1, and Table 2. Table 1 presents a summary comparison of management statistics in the four countries of study. Table 2a, 2b, 2c, 2d, goes deeper into each of the countries of study giving a general idea on the major tribal and ethnic groups present in each country.

1) *Total Sample Characteristics*

Across the whole sample there is an imbalance between males and females in terms of representation with females only representing 20,4% of the total. This is likely to be a result of the historical influences which saw an under education

Table 1 Descriptives

Country		Cameroon	Nigeria	S. Africa	Zimbabwe	Total
Numbers		48	266	79	191	584
	Percentage	8.2	45.5	13.6	32.7	100
Female (%)		8.3	27.1	25.3	12.0	20.4
Age	Average Age (yrs)	39.7	36.2	36.8	42.8	38.8
Age Range (%)	-24	.	3.1	5.1	1.0	2.4
	25-34	18.9	30.5	39.2	14.5	25.7
	35-44	58.6	37.3	30.4	32.3	36.5
	45-54	21.0	11.5	16.5	27.1	18.0
	50-yrs	.	0.4	5.1	8.3	3.7
Management Position (%)						
	Junior	10.4	17.7	34.2	9.4	16.6
	Middle	39.6	50.8	38.0	26.7	40.2
	Senior	47.9	24.4	27.8	61.8	39.0
Number of Subordinates						
	Numbers	24	122	29	98	93
Size of Company (%)						
	Small	14.6	7.9	5.1	14.1	10.1
	Medium	39.6	30.8	22.8	44.0	34.8
	Large	35.4	54.5	70.9	39.8	50.3
Average No. of Employees						
	over-all Numbers	5210	4417	20915	1451	5783
Sector of Activity (%)						
	Public	64.6	19.9	3.8	6.2	16.9
	Private	31.2	73.3	94.9	91.7	75.1
Ethnic Groups (%)						
	Black African	100	97.7	21.5	64.9	80.2
	White	.	0.4	34.2	27.2	14.3
	Coloured	.	.	2.5	1.0	0.7
	Asian	.	.	34.2	.	4.8

**** public sector organisations include those in education, government departments, local governments, defence and parastatals. Private companies include those in agriculture, mining, manufacturing, oil-chemicals, Retail, Finance, telecommunications, High Technology, construction and non governmental organisations.**

****Difference between total percentage and 100% per variable is due to non response.**

of the girl child, and the house wife' role of women in the traditional African society. African nations are however gradually changing the status of woman through Affirmative

Table 2. Descriptives

Cultural Diversity within each country sample

(calculated as percentages of country sample)

Table 2.a Cameroon

Ethnic group	Language		
	Bantu	Semi Bantu	Nilo Sahara
African (black)	39.6	6.3	43.8

Table 2.b Nigeria

Ethnic group	Language				
	English	Hausa	Ibo	Yoruba	Other
African (black)	0.4	16.4	38.3	31.8	12.9
White	0.4

Table 2.c S. Africa

Ethnic group	Language				
	English	Afrikaans	Xhosa	Zulu	Other
African (black)	.	.	5.6	18.1	.
Asian	36.1
Coloured	2.8
White	31.9	5.6	.	.	.

Table 2.d Zimbabwe

Ethnic Group	Language			
	English	Shona	Ndebele	Other
African (black)	0.7	59.4	2.7	2.8
White	35.1	.	.	.

**Table 2 a, Cameroon

All respondents were black African with indigenous languages. Each respondent gave a unique language which was then classified into one of three major regional language groups.

** Table 2.b, Nigeria

Other category consists of numerous indigenous languages with insufficient sizes to form individual categories, e.g. Ijaw 12%, Hausa and a collection of middle belt languages 21%)

**Table 2.C, South Africa

White managers distinguished into English speaking and Afrikaans speaking managers

**Table 2.d, Zimbabwe

Other Africa category, either gave 'home language as other than black Zimbabwean language, e.g. (Malawian 0.7%, Sotho 0.7%, Xhosa 0.7%, English 0.7%)

Action Policies. For instance in 1996, the Zimbabwean government introduced the Affirmative Action Policy for women, which saw the lowering of university entry point requirements for women thus increasing the number of woman entering university. This will no doubt in the future increase the numbers of women in management positions in the future. The average age of respondents stands at 39

years with the majority of managers falling into the 35-44 years age range. In terms of distribution by management position, the majority of the respondents fall into the middle and senior management category at 40 % and 39 % respectively needless to say there is sufficient representation at the junior management level accounting for 15% of the total.

The study was biased towards the larger and medium organisations with an average number of 5 783 employees and an average of ninety three subordinates per manager. Again the smaller companies have some representation accounting for 10.1% of the total. The responses to sector of activity were too numerous and so a crude distinction was made between private and public sector organisations see (Table 1). Eighty seven percent of the respondents were from indigenous African companies there by giving the majority on which to study African management without the direct influence of foreign multinationals. Four major ethnic groups emerged from the sample namely the, Africans, (80.2%), European (14.3 %), coloured (0.7%) and Asian (4.8%). There was greater ethnic diversity attributable to language within each country (see Table 2). Despite the various imbalances mentioned the findings however are indicative of existing organisational culture and the nature of management and this will enable future research.

6.2 Levels of Analysis

While it is the intention of this study to find out and compare the nature of African management with regards to organisational culture and management style in four African countries, the literature reviewed indicates that differences also exist within

nations, and within organisations, due to various factors among them nationality, management position and ethnic origin. This means that analysis can be conducted at various levels other than nationality. However given the nature of the data obtained and time constraints, it was decided to conduct analysis mainly at country level. Where the data permitted, analysis was also carried out at other levels to help explain country level differences. Justification of conducting analysis at the said levels is given below.

a) Country level analysis

The major analysis will be undertaken at national level illustrating cross-national differences in management in respect of organisational culture and management style. Although the samples are of significantly different sizes each country sample has been taken to represent management in that particular country.

Representativeness of country samples

The samples are all quite highly representative of their countries. The absence of respondents of European origin in the Cameroonian and Nigerian samples is quite justifiable. Both these countries individually have less than 1% of whites in their total population having attained their independence from colonial rule much earlier than both Zimbabwe and South Africa (Cameroon 1960, Nigeria 1960, South Africa: abolition of apartheid 1990, Zimbabwe 1980). Ethnic diversity in each country is also represented in the samples (see table 2) thus though the ethnic groups may differ by country, each country sample can be taken to be representative of ethnic diversity within the country. Although Cameroon has a significantly higher representation of

public sector managers it also has managers from the private sector accounting for 31.2% of the total from that country.

Comparability of country samples

It may be argued that the differences in the gender ratios and age distribution may influence the results of the study and deem the samples incomparable. At this stage where the study is mostly exploratory, such details may be over-looked to an extent especially if they are not too extreme. The low representation (8.3%) of Cameroonian women is almost directly proportional to the representativeness of the Cameroonian managers in the overall sample (8.3%). As mentioned earlier women in Zimbabwe have been taking the back seat role for a long time and it is only recently that this has begun to change hence the low representation of woman at 12 %. Although 58,6% of the managers in the Cameroon sample fall in the 35-44 years age bracket, it is interesting to note that the rest of the countries with the exception of South Africa also have the majority of their managers falling in this bracket though the percentages may be smaller. A look at the total average age of the whole sample will also indicate that there is not much difference in the average age of managers in individual countries. The greatest deviation is in the Zimbabwean sample with an average age 4 years greater than the mean. Such a deviation is due to the high representation (27.7 %) of managers in the 45-54years age group compared to other countries which have lower representation in this bracket. A high representation in this category may be due to the fact that the majority of the respondents from Zimbabwe occupied senior management positions, perhaps supporting the assumption that seniority in the African society in some cases comes with age. In all four countries the majority of the respondents fall under middle and senior

management categories. A most likely explanation of this is the sampling method that was used. In Cameroon, Zimbabwe and Nigeria databases of Management Institutes were used complimented by academic collaborators directly sourcing responses from organisations (*for further details see methodology section*). The study attracted responses from the medium sized and large organisations across the countries of study, though the perception of size is subjective as evidenced by the average number of employees in each organisation. An analysis based on company size is thus not practical.

b) Analysis by Ethnic Origin

Four main ethnic groups emerged across the four countries black African 80.2 %, white European 14.3%, coloured 0.7 % and Asian 4.8 %. Analysis will only be conducted for the crude distinction of African versus European as the other categories do not provide sufficient numbers. The distinction is termed crude because within the white ethnic group for instance distinction could be made between white Zimbabwean managers, white English speaking South African managers and white Afrikaans speaking South African managers. Jackson et al. (1999) for instance found differences between these three groups in their perception of ideal African organisation. Similarly within the black ethnic group are many different sub-groups that can again be termed ethnic groups. These groups though belonging to one country, speak different languages and may indeed have different values in some respect. Adigun (1995) in a study of three major Nigerian tribes the Yoruba the Hausa and the Igbo found them as holding different attitudes towards some motivational factors in their organisations. Ideally analysis should also have been done based on these groups but again limited time and insufficient responses for each

sub-group make such analyses impractical and impossible. An inclusion of the language variable however goes a long way in highlighting the ethnic diversity of African populations and helps to justify the representativeness of each sample to an extent.

c) Analysis by management position

Managers at different management positions may hold different values, hence view similar aspects of the organisation in different ways. Alpander and Carter (1991) for instance, found differences between professional and front line supervisors with regards preferred motivational factors. In a study carried out within a major pharmaceutical's company in eight different countries Reynolds (1986) found major differences in work values among positions in respect of working conditions, security of employment, collegial co-operation, clarity of job requirements and nature of management styles. Reynolds concluded that work beliefs varied depending on management position in respect of trust in others, attitude towards work, and most appropriate management style. Analysis by management level will thus be carried out for the whole sample. An analysis of management position by country would have been ideal, but samples such as Cameroon with a small total of 48 respondents have insufficient numbers for each sub-group

d) Analysis by Gender

A close follow up of African history will reveal the traditional role of the African woman as housewife. In traditional African society while men were out hunting and gathering women were expected to stay at home in the village looking after the young and the elderly (Mavheneka in Kileff and Kileff 1997). This reflects in present day organisations where women are meeting a considerable amount of difficulty in being accepted as equal partners. However recently women have begun to infiltrate

into the management ranks of organisations, and it is interesting to view their perceptions of organisation and management. Insufficient numbers do not permit practical comparison of male versus female managers. Statistics such as Cronbach's alpha and the inter-correlation of scale variables for the male versus female sub-groups are however given and they some indication on perceived current and ideal organisational cultures.

6.3 DATA ANALYSIS

Part I (organisation questionnaire)

The questionnaire used for this study is quite comprehensive and can be used to measure various aspects of the organisation. Organisational culture is the variable of interest in this particular study. A decision was made to base analysis on responses for *a) my organisation at the moment* and *b) the way I would like it to be*. Responses to (a) give an indication of organisational cultures existent in African organisations, as seen by the individual managers, and various comparison groups. Responses to, (b) gives an indication of the ideal and to an extent reveals the culture and values of respondents. Item *c) the way it is going*, has been excluded in the analysis. Responses to this item give the likely direction of possible change within the organisation and this is not of much relevance to this study. The reason being that this study is not concerned with what may be termed the 'fatalistic' views of managers. Response to the '*way it is going*', indicate the likely outcome with no intervention. This study however seeks to provide a more proactive approach. It seeks to expose ideals that should be considered in shaping the change towards more preferred organisational cultures.

6.3.1 Formation of scales measuring organisational culture.

The first stage of the data analysis procedure was to try and identify whether the questionnaire items could form any particular scale measuring organisational culture. Initial exploratory factor analysis therefore formed the first stage of the data analysis procedure. It however failed to yield an acceptable factor solution with factorial agreement across the comparison groups. Several other options for identifying organisational cultures in each of the countries of study were then sought. Using SPSS a correlation test was run for the items measuring organisational culture for '*organisation at the moment*' and '*ideal organisation*'. The correlation test showed evidence of some significant bi-variate relationships and it was decided to concentrate on these relationships. Through a repeated process of inspection of the correlation matrix items with the highest correlation greater than .3 were grouped together and this resulted in the formation of three scales measuring organisational culture for '*organisation at the moment*' namely, 'results orientation', 'control orientation' and 'people orientation'. Further inspection of the correlation matrix for the '*ideal organisation*', led to the formation of three scales for a, (control orientation, people orientation and a dynamics' culture). The 'dynamics' scale is composed of similar items to those in the results' orientation scale with the exclusion of the results' orientation item. As the emergent scales were to be used for assessing organisational culture it was essential that they be tested for reliability. Details of the reliability analysis are thus given below.

6.3.2 Reliability of scales

The scales formed from the inspection of the correlation matrix were then tested for reliability using Cronbach's alpha by nationality, ethnic group, management position

and gender. As a rule of thumb, a scale is deemed reliable if its alpha is greater than .7 (Coakes and Steed 1999). Table.3a shows alpha values of the scales for 'organisation at the moment' and Table.3b shows alphas of the scales for '*the way I would like it to be*'. The formed scales provide the basis of comparison across the analysis groups. The remaining items not forming part of the scales were treated as univariate items. Cronbach's alpha for the scales of 'people orientation' and 'results orientation' are consistent and high across the comparison groups registering values above .70 for '*my organisation at the moment*'. Cronbach's alpha for a 'control orientation' in the same category however varies across the comparison groups. By country Cronbach's alpha is not significant in the Nigerian sample which has a value of .61. Across the ethnic groups Africans score an alpha of .67, junior managers and females also score less than .70 at .62 and .64 respectively. The scale therefore appears to have slightly different meanings to each sub-group. The scale measuring a 'people orientation' in the ideal organisation is reliable at .7+ across all the comparison groups. Across the ethnic groups for Africans reliability is high at .78. For the Asian and European groups alphas are quite low at .48 and .57 respectively. This variation in scale reliability may be a result of the different cultural backgrounds hence again similar items may have slightly different meanings. The greatest variation in scales reliability is in the 'control orientation' scale for the ideal organisation. The scale is only significant above the .70 level for South Africa and the European ethnic sub-group. A likely explanation of this is the dominantly Anglo-Saxon nature of the questionnaires origin hence differences in interpretation by the respondents. While in the western world and perhaps the world of the Europeans in Africa these items may be associated with control, this may not actually be so in the African world. These items may actually be measuring a different aspect of the

Table. 3a
Scale's Reliability, (Cronbachs alpha by Nationality, Ethnic origin, management position and Gender)
 (Organisation at the moment)

Scales	People orientation	Results Orientation	Control orientation	Univariate items
	8.very ethical	1.market orientation	4.very hierarchical	2.risk taking
	12.provides equal opportunity	3. clear objectives	5. highly centralised	10. undergoing rapid chan
	13. motivates employees	9. very successful	6. very authoritarian	11. foreign owned
	14.clear employee policies	17. clear customer policies	7.many strict rules	15. strong trade unions
	16. Ethnic Harmony	18.Results oriented		23.very flexible
	20. people oriented	19.mgt skill and expertise		24. government regulation
	21. consults staff			25. family influence
	22. formal rules			27.internal competition
	26.opinion diversity			
Country				
Cameroon	0.875	0.845	0.705	
Nigeria	0.788	0.756	0.606	
S. Africa	0.865	0.767	0.839	
Zimbabwe	0.868	0.830	0.747	
Ethnic Origin				
Asian	0.837	0.824	0.785	
African (black)	0.815	0.781	0.668	
European	0.885	0.769	0.817	
Mgt Position				
Junior	0.767	0.735	0.624	
Middle	0.804	0.756	0.695	
Senior	0.884	0.830	0.715	
Gender				
Female	0.792	0.756	0.639	
Male	0.850	0.798	0.712	

Table3.b
Scale's Reliability, (Cronbachs alpha by Nationality, Ethnic origin, management position and Gender)
 (ideal organisation)

Scales	People orientation	Dynamics orientation	Control orientation	Univariate items
	8.very ethical	1.market orientation	4.very hierarchical	2.risk taking
	12.provides equal opportunity	3. clear objectives	5. highly centralised	10. undergoing rapid chan
	13. motivates employees	9. very successful	6. very authoritarian	11. foreign owned
	14.clear employee policies	17. clear customer policies	7.many strict rules	15. strong trade unions
	16. Ethnic Harmony	19.mgt skill and expertise		18. results oriented
	20. people oriented	23. very flexible		24. government regulation
	21. consults staff			25. family influence
	22. formal rules			27.internal competition
	26.opinion diversity			
Country				
Cameroon	0.793	0.732	0.631	
Nigeria	0.871	0.771	0.554	
S. Africa	0.841	0.742	0.719	
Zimbabwe	0.878	0.774	0.704	
Ethnic Origin				
Asian	0.786	0.482	0.550	
African (black)	0.874	0.782	0.679	
European	0.819	0.482	0.724	
Mgt Position				
Junior	0.837	0.755	0.601	
Middle	0.883	0.763	0.671	
Senior	0.886	0.827	0.675	
Gender				
Female	0.877	0.744	0.603	
Male	0.869	0.739	0.696	

organisation. While to the European ethnic group these items may be measuring control in a negative sense, in the African group they could actually be measuring control in a positive sense as previous research has indicated a preference to guided organisations in Africa. Research supporting this line of thought exists in the work of Smith, Misumi, Tayeb, Peterson and Bond (1989). Their work showed that the well known (Anglo-American) construct of task versus maintenance leadership style for instance does not form a coherent construct in the non western cultures outside the culture of the constructs origins.

It may be argued therefore that the Anglo-Saxon-ness of the questions may have influenced the interpretation of the results of this study. Although this may be so care was taken to minimise this possibility by conducting analysis across the different sub-groups representing different cultures, and trying as far as possible to explain findings based on differences in cultural orientation and various other factors. Despite all the consideration of the effect of differences in interpretation of questions by respondents in the interpretation of the final results, it still remains difficult to draw any definite conclusions particularly on national differences. This is because research has shown that African nations do not have pure national cultures as there exists many sub-cultures within African national cultures as was also the case in this study.

6.3.3 Inter-correlation of scale variables

A correlation test was run on the scale variables used in the determination of the organisational cultures in order to determine if there were any relationships. The results of the correlation tests are given below.

'My organisation at the moment'.

The 'results orientation' scale variables highly correlate with the 'people orientation' scale variables (Table 4a), suggesting that aspects measured by items in these two scales are compatible and can exist side by side according to all comparison groups. The 'control orientation' scale variables have low correlation with the 'people orientation' scale variables for all sub-groups except for the Nigerian, Cameroonian, junior management and female sub-samples. The 'results orientation' scale variables are negatively correlated to the 'control orientation' scale variables for some of the sub-groups (see table 4a). These differences in correlation may indeed indicate potential differences due to several factors among them historical and cultural factors.

Ideal organisation

The variables measuring a 'dynamics orientation' and a 'people orientation', in the 'ideal organisation' (Table 4b) are highly positively correlated across all the cultural groups. This indicates that the aspects of organisational cultures being measured are compatible and may exist side by side in organisations also that these variables may have similar meanings across the comparison groups. In the ideal organisation there is low correlation between the scale variables measuring a control orientation and a people orientation with negative correlation for the male sub-sample. The 'control orientation' and the 'dynamics' orientation scale variables are significantly negatively correlated for the Zimbabwean, European senior management and male sub samples in the ideal organisation. This probably implies that these sub-groups hold similar views on the 'ideal organisation' which differ from the rest of the sub-groups. This view is probably that the more controlled organisations are the less dynamic they become. There is considerable difficulty in drawing any definite

Table 4a

Inter-correlation's of scale variables by Nationality, Ethnic origin, Management Position and Gender (current organisation)

		Results Orientation	Control Orientation
People Orientation			
country	Cameroon	.792**	-.325
	Nigeria	.594**	.002
	S. Africa	.668**	-.474**
	Zimbabwe	.754**	-.414**
ethnic grp	Asian	.629**	-.509**
	African	.639**	-.182**
	European	.773**	-.384**
Mgt pstn	Junior	.668**	-.102
	Middle	.630**	-.213**
	Senior	.737**	-.291**
Gender	Female	.609**	.081
	Male	.690**	-.304**
Control orientation			
country	Cameroon	-.108	
	Nigeria	.148*	
	S. Africa	-.215	
	Zimbabwe	-.244**	
ethnic grp	Asian	-.184	
	African	-.019	
	European	-.355**	
Mgt pstn	Junior	.013	
	Middle	.016	
	Senior	-.169*	
Gender	Female	.005	
	Male	-.065	

Table 4b

Inter-correlation's of scale variables by Nationality, Ethnic origin, Management Position and Gender (ideal organisation)

		Dynamics Culture	Control Orientation
People Orientation			
country	Cameroon	.773**	-.181
	Nigeria	.782**	.004
	S. Africa	.644**	.133
	Zimbabwe	.777**	-.041
ethnic grp	Asian	.556**	.299
	African	.778**	-.690
	European	.712**	-.170
Mgt pstn	Junior	.755**	.091
	Middle	.777**	-.149
	Senior	.797**	-.055
Gender	Female	.746**	.069
	Male	.785**	-.107*
Control orientation			
country	Cameroon	-.260	
	Nigeria	.057	
	S. Africa	.144	
	Zimbabwe	-.179*	
ethnic grp	Asian	.027	
	African	-.077	
	European	-.337**	
Mgt pstn	Junior	.154	
	Middle	-.137	
	Senior	-.150*	
Gender	Female	.170	
	Male	-.144**	

*correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2 tailed)

** correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2 tailed)

conclusions about the implications of variables inter-correlation other than reference to the overall results. For instance in the ideal organisation there is evidence of association between a preference of a 'dynamic culture' and a 'people oriented culture'. Also judging from the correlation of scales variables in the ideal organisation, it may be assumed at this point that Zimbabwean managers, European managers, senior managers and male managers see an inverse relationship between dynamic and controlled organisations

6.4.0 Differences in perceptions of current and ideal organisational cultures

The objectives of this study have been to discover the characteristics of African organisational culture and cross cultural-differences in African management. On review of both previous and current academic and popular literature it was hypothesised that there would be differences in the perceptions of managers of both 'current', and 'ideal' organisational cultures, at different levels such as: 1) across the nations, 2) between the ethnic groups (African versus non-African) 3) across the levels of management and, 4) between males and females. Analysis shall now be done across these divisions.

In order to investigate possible differences across the different sub-groups one way analysis of variance (ANOVA) tests for comparison of means for the universal scales were performed. The ANOVA test tells us whether or not there are is a significant difference between groups, but does not indicate where the difference lies. After running the ANOVA the Scheffe test of multiple comparison was run as it shows where the observed differences lie. A decision was made to use the Scheffe test as it

is the most conservative and is least likely to find significant differences between groups (Bryman and Cramer 1994).

6.4.1 Cross-national Differences

Table 5 Scale Scores by Nationality and Comparison of means one way analysis of variance

	MEAN SCORE				ONE WAY ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE		
	Cam	Nigeria	S.Afr	Zim	F Ratio	Sig	Scheffe Test
(organisation at the moment)							
People orientation	2.75	3.02	3.27	3.23	5.02	.002	S, Z > K
Results orientation	3.44	3.47	3.72	3.57	5.28	.001	S>N
Control orientation	3.26	3.40	3.47	2.25	0.47	.704	n.s
Univariate items							
2.risk taking	2.74	2.75	3.18	3.06	4.39	.005	S, Z > N
10. undergoing rapid change	3.19	3.16	3.91	3.68	10.19	.000	S, Z > N, K
11. foreign owned	1.80	2.06	2.76	2.14	4.44	.004	S >K, N
15. strong trade unions	1.73	2.70	3.57	2.50	17.05	.000	S > Z,N >K
23.very flexible	2.79	3.14	2.94	2.88	0.562	.640	n.s
24. government regulations	3.43	3.47	3.58	3.46	0.185	.907	n.s
25. family influence	2.36	2.52	2.05	2.05	4.72	.003	N >Z
27.internal competition	2.10	3.10	3.32	3.03	6.72	.000	S, N, Z > K
(ideal organisation)							
People orientation	4.15	3.97	4.40	4.36	10.63	.000	S, Z > N
Dynamics orientation	3.45	3.37	3.77	3.71	13.96	.000	S, Z > N, K
Control orientation	2.78	3.30	2.80	2.57	25.75	.000	N > Z, K, S
Univariate items							
2.risk taking	3.65	3.35	3.48	3.7	3.44	.017	Z > N
10. undergoing rapid change	4.06	3.85	4.00	3.98	0.84	.472	n.s
11. foreign owned	2.34	2.34	2.64	2.14	2.21	.806	n.s
15. strong trade unions	3.05	3.39	3.16	3.08	2.10	.103	n.s
18. results oriented	4.6	4.42	4.69	4.71	0.90	.439	n.s
24. government regulations	3.23	3.37	2.87	2.67	9.48	.000	N > Z
25. family influence	1.60	2.45	2.34	2.04	6.29	.000	N, Z > K
27.internal competition	4.09	3.36	3.87	3.63	6.51	.000	K, S > N

*Scale Scores

(organisation at the moment)	(ideal organisation)	univariate items
people orientation out of 5	people orientation out of 5	Univariate items out of 5
Results orientation out of 5	Dynamics orientation out of 5	
control orientation out of 5	control orientation out of 5	
country codes	S- South Africa K- Cameroon, Z- Zimbabwe, N- Nigeria	

a) Organisational cultures today, 'my organisation at the moment'

The analysis of variance test shown in Table 5, shows that there are significant differences in mean scale scores between the national groups across the three scales. The Scheffe multiple comparison test, indicates which national groups account for these significant differences. With regard to people orientation the greatest difference is to be found between South Africa and Cameroon, where South African organisations are significantly more people oriented. It is hardly surprising that South Africa should score highest on a people orientation considering the current policies in place such as affirmative action and other 'black empowerment policies.' These policies seek to redress the imbalances and injustices of the apartheid policies of the apartheid era. On the whole an inspection of the means generally reveals the presence of a 'people orientation' culture in the other two countries Zimbabwe and Nigeria. Organisations in all the countries appear to have highly results focused cultures with the most significant difference being found between the South African and the Nigerian samples where South African organisational cultures are more results oriented than Nigerian cultures. A 'control orientation' in organisational cultures emerged in all four countries and the Scheffe test indicated that there were no significant differences in the degree of this orientation in all the four countries.

In order to probe national differences further it was necessary to inspect individual score items in each scale for significant differences between groups (see Appendix E (1) for analysis of variance of individual items in the scale). People orientation in South Africa and Zimbabwe is characterised by highly ethical organisations encouraging ethnic harmony and providing equal opportunities for all. In Cameroon and Nigeria the people oriented organisation places greater emphasis on ethicality,

clearer employee policies and formal rules. While in Nigeria and Cameroon a 'results orientation' places emphasis on clearer objectives and a high level of management skill and expertise, in Zimbabwe and South Africa emphasis is more on clearer objectives and greater market, orientation. Across the four countries a control orientation is illustrated by very hierarchical and highly centralised structures with organisations in Cameroon being the most hierarchical and those in Nigeria and South Africa being the most centralised.

Several items were treated as univariate items as they did not form part of the three scales measuring organisational culture. Foreign ownership is greatest in South were the most change appears to be occurring, organisations are more risk taking and trade unions have the greatest influence. The degree of change occurring in Zimbabwean organisations is also significantly higher than the degree of change occurring in Nigerian and Cameroonian organisations. Organisations in Nigeria are the most family influenced whereas in South Africa and Zimbabwe there is a significantly higher level of internal competition for promotion. The degree of flexibility, and the extent to which organisations are affected by government regulations is high and not significantly different in all the countries.

b) Ideal organisations and organisational cultures:

The second part of Table 5 shows significant differences in mean scale scores across the four countries with regards cultural orientation. Cameroonian, South African and Zimbabwean managers would ideally like to see a more people orientation in their organisations as compared to Nigerian managers. Zimbabwean and South African managers seek a more dynamic cultures than Nigerian and Cameroonian managers.

Although all the countries seek to see a reduction in the degree of control, Nigerian managers seek to maintain a higher level of control than the other countries. Again in order to probe national differences further it is necessary to inspect individual item scores for each scale (see, Appendix E [1] for analysis of variance for individual scale items). A people oriented culture in the ideal South African organisation is one which provides equal opportunities for all, motivates its employees and is characterised by inter-ethnic harmony. This is the same for both Cameroon and Nigeria though these two countries require much clearer employee policies and formal rules. In all four countries a successful dynamic culture is associated with a high level of management skills and expertise. In Zimbabwe and South Africa the focus is on market orientation and clearer policies for dealing with customers while in Nigeria and Cameroon the focus is on clearer objectives and market orientation to a lesser extent. In the ideally less controlled organisation, Cameroonian managers maintain greatest degree of centralisation, Nigerian managers more hierarchical systems, and Zimbabwean managers maintain control based on the presence of many strict rules, while South African managers maintain centralised systems and many strict rules.

An inspection of the univariate items reveals that all four countries ideally want more results oriented cultures. This suggests that in all the four countries whatever the culture prevalent in an organisation it should always be accompanied by a focus on results. A comparison of the mean scores for the current and ideal organisational cultures indicates that overall organisations want to become more risk taking and to reduce the degree of family influence. Nigeria however maintains the highest level of family influence and the least desire for internal competition for promotion. All

countries desire greater government control with the most control, being registered in Nigeria.

6.4.2 Ethnic group comparison

a) Current organisations and organisational cultures:

Although three major ethnic groups emerged the most significant differences are to be found between the European and the African ethnic groups (Table 6). It is perhaps important to note that the subjects in the European sub-sample are from the Zimbabwe and South Africa only and this will be taken into account in the interpretation of the results. However an inspection of the mean scores reveals significant differences on scale items and other univariate items. Generally, the Scheffe test reveals that Europeans see their organisations as more results and people oriented than Africans. There are no significant differences in the perceptions of control orientation. Inspection of individual item scores in each scale (Appendix E (2) further reveals specific ethnic differences. African managers see the current people oriented organisation as one guided by formal rules with clear employee policies and is very ethical. For European managers the people oriented organisation is highly ethical, provides equal opportunity and has good inter-ethnic relations. The results oriented culture for the African manager is measured by a high level of management skill and expertise and has clear objectives, while a market oriented focus is the most important pre-requisite for the European manager. Perceptions of a control orientation are similar for the ethnic groups both viewing the controlled organisation as highly centralised in decision making and very hierarchical.

Table 6 Scale scores by ethnic origin and comparison of means (one way analysis of variance)

	MEAN SCORES			ONE WAY ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE		
	African	Asian	European	F Ratio	f Prob	Scheffe Test
(organisation at the moment)						
People orientation	3.00	3.17	3.48	7.44	.000	E > AF
Results orientation	3.60	3.79	4.00	5.56	.001	E > AF
Control orientation	3.41	3.49	3.40	0.44	.722	n.s
Univariate items						
2.risk taking	3.33	2.86	2.96	2.08	.102	n.s
10. undergoing rapid change	3.85	3.29	3.94	6.69	.000	E > AF
11. foreign owned	2.74	2.1	2.28	1.54	.204	n.s
15. strong trade unions	3.63	2.61	2.82	5.37	.001	n.s
23.very flexible	2.89	2.97	3.11	0.21	.891	n.s
24. government regulations	3.81	3.49	3.2	1.84	.139	n.s
25. family influence	2.33	2.36	2.13	1.00	.391	n.s
27.internal competition	3.31	3.01	3.06	0.32	.809	n.s
(ideal organisation)						
People orientation	4.07	4.45	4.51	8.31	.000	E > AF
Dynamics orientation	3.46	3.76	3.85	9.60	.000	E > AF
Control orientation	3.05	2.91	2.82	2.40	.066	AF > E
Univariate items						
2.risk taking	3.49	3.73	3.58	0.49	.690	n.s
10. undergoing rapid change	3.91	4.23	3.89	0.66	.580	n.s
11. foreign owned	2.33	2.77	2.06	0.20	.109	n.s
15. strong trade unions	3.38	3.35	2.59	8.15	.000	A > E
18. results oriented	4.52	4.58	4.76	0.38	.770	n.s
24. government regulations	3.20	2.81	2.31	8.97	.000	A > E
25. family influence	2.31	2.15	1.94	1.48	.218	n.s
27.internal competition	3.53	4.12	3.66	2.97	.031	n.s

*Scale Scores

	(organisation at the moment)	(ideal organisation)	univariate items
	people orientation out of 5	people orientation out of 5	scale out of five
	Results orientation out of 5	Dynamics orientation out of 5	
	control orientation out of 5	control orientation out of 5	
Codes	E- European, AF- African, AS- Asian		
	n.s insignificant difference		

An inspection of the univariate items reveals that European managers see their organisations as undergoing more change than the African managers. There are no significant differences in responses to the remainder of the univariate items though it should be noted that Africans see their organisations as being more risk taking and

having promotion being based more on internal competition than European managers.

b) ideal organisations and organisational cultures;

The Scheffe multiple comparison test (Table 6) reveals that there are differences in perception of the ideal organisational culture across the ethnic groups. Europeans want to see more people oriented cultures than Africans (again it is important to take note of the fact that the European sub-sample is drawn only from Zimbabwe and South Africa). European managers also want to see more dynamic cultures than Africans. With regard the dimension of control orientation both ethnic groups want to see a significant reduction in the levels of control. African managers however significantly want to maintain more control in organisations than Europeans. Inspection of the individual scale items (Appendix E [2]), indicates where the differences lie. Ideally African managers would like to see more people oriented organisations which have clearer employee policies and motivate their employees while European managers though also advocating clearer employee policies place greater emphasis on greater inter-ethnic harmony. African managers seek dynamic future cultures with clearer objectives and managers with high skills and expertise while European managers, focus more on market orientation. The ideally less controlled organisation maintains a hierarchy focus for the African manager and many strict rules for the European managers.

An inspection of the univariate items, reveals both the European and the African ethnic groups appear as sharing similar perceptions of the ideal organisation except

with regards the role of trade unions and government regulations. Africans want to see stronger trade unions and increased government intervention.

6.4.3 Comparison by Management Position

a) Current organisation: Table 7 shows, that there are some differences in mean scales between management in terms of their positions. The Scheffe multiple comparison tests indicate that senior managers see their organisations as being more people oriented than junior managers. Junior managers see a more control orientation in their organisation than do senior managers. There are no significant differences in terms of perception of a 'results' orientation. An inspection of individual scale items (Appendix, E (3) reveals that, with regards people orientation senior managers see their organisations being more of equal opportunity providers and more consultative than junior and middle managers. The greatest distinction in perception of current levels of control is between the junior managers and senior managers with junior managers seeing their organisations as more hierarchical centralised and having many strict rules.

An analysis of the univariate items shows that there are no significant differences in the perception of the current organisation. Mention can be made however that mostly junior managers see their organisations as undergoing change and that, senior managers generally see their organisations as being more flexible though highly regulated by government policies.

b) 'ideal organisation: Table 7, indicates that managers from all levels require the more or less similar high level of a people oriented culture in their organisations.

Table 7 Scale scores by management position and comparison of means (one way analysis of variance)

	MEAN SCORES			ONE WAY ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE		
	Junior	Middle	Senior	F Ratio	f Prob	Scheffe Test
(organisation at the moment)						
People orientation	2.90	3.05	3.22	4.58	.110	S > J
Results orientation	3.47	3.52	3.56	0.84	.440	n.s
Control orientation	3.67	3.44	3.23	7.37	.001	J > S
Univariate items						
2.risk taking	2.97	2.93	2.92	0.05	.953	n.s
10. undergoing rapid change	3.68	3.33	3.53	2.75	.065	n.s
11. foreign owned	2.34	2.16	2.11	0.61	.542	n.s
15. strong trade unions	2.9	2.69	2.56	1.77	.172	n.s
23.very flexible	2.79	2.79	3.31	2.00	.051	n.s
24. government regulations	3.34	3.54	3.41	0.18	.452	n.s
25. family influence	2.45	2.19	2.24	1.08	.342	n.s
27.internal competition	3.19	2.97	3.01	0.62	.537	n.s
(ideal organisation)						
People orientation	4.13	4.14	4.30	2.38	.093	n.s
Dynamics orientation	3.44	3.48	3.68	6.77	.011	S > M
Control orientation	2.85	2.91	2.74	19.23	.000	J,M > S
Univariate items						
2.risk taking	3.40	3.50	3.58	0.81	.443	n.s
10. undergoing rapid change	4.00	3.86	4.06	1.77	.172	n.s
11. foreign owned	2.3	2.33	2.26	0.11	.900	n.s
15. strong trade unions	3.46	3.39	2.94	7.23	.001	J,M > S
18. results oriented	4.97	4.36	4.67	3.54	.300	J > S
24. government regulations	3.34	3.15	2.79	5.99	.005	J,M > S
25. family influence	2.52	2.27	2.02	4.28	.014	J > S
27.internal competition	3.44	3.6	3.61	0.68	.504	n.s

*Scale Scores

(organisation at the moment)	(ideal organisation)	univariate items
people orientation out of 5	people orientation out of 5	scale out of 5
Results orientation out of 5	Dynamics orientation out of 5	
control orientation out of 5	control orientation out of 5	

Codes J- Junior manager, M- Middle manager, S- Senior manager

Senior managers significantly desire more dynamic cultures than middle managers and both junior and middle managers want to see more control in their organisations than senior managers. An inspection of the individual scale items (Appendix, E (3)

highlights the differences between groups. In the ideal people oriented organisation the greatest distinction is in the degree of desired ethicality where senior managers significantly want to see their organisations becoming more ethical than both junior and middle managers. In the ideal dynamic culture senior managers significantly desire clear customer policies and clearer objectives for the organisation than junior managers. In the ideally less controlled organisation junior and middle managers maintain more hierarchical and centralised systems than do senior managers. Junior managers also maintain authoritative systems with many strict rules than do senior managers.

The univariate items on the questionnaire show that junior and middle managers want an increase in the role of trade unions and government influence more than senior managers. Junior managers significantly want to see more family influence in their organisations than do senior managers. On the whole perceptions of the ideal organisation do not vary a great deal across the management levels in respect of the univariate items (Table 7).

6.5 Summary of findings (part I, organisation questionnaire)

- Three distinct types of organisational orientation emerge in all the four countries thus giving an indication of organisational cultures. A 'results' orientation is evident in all countries and is greatest in South African followed by Zimbabwean organisations. Organisations in Zimbabwe and South Africa are more people oriented than in Cameroon and Nigeria. Also currently organisations in South Africa are more risk taking, undergoing the most change, have stronger trade

unions, are affected most by government regulations and have promotion being based mostly on internal competition when compared with other countries (Nigeria and Cameroon in particular). The influence of family relationships on organisational affairs is greatest in Nigeria. Ideally organisations in all the four countries would like to see a greater 'people orientation', more 'dynamism' as shown by relationship with the outside environment particularly customers, and less control. Across the four countries there is a general impetus to change, become more risk taking and reduce the degree of family influence in organisations. It is perhaps interesting to note that South Africa seeks higher levels of government intervention, many strict rules and strong trade unions accompanied by the highest levels of control compared to the other countries. Nigeria also significantly requires more control in the line of many strict rules and stronger trade unions.

- There is general agreement across the major ethnic groups to become more dynamic, people and results oriented and less controlled. There however is disagreement on the desired extent of organisational control. African managers seek to maintain more control than European managers. African managers positively associate a control orientation with being bound by government regulations. European managers significantly seek to become more market orientated while African managers believe that a high level of management skills and expertise will enhance the success of organisations. Ideally European managers would like to see more people orientation than African managers, with an emphasis on clearer employee policies and inter-ethnic harmony. African managers on the other hand would like to have clearer employee policies and see better motivation of employees. Also although both ethnic groups agree on the

need for internal competition for promotion, African managers agree to a lesser extent.

- Across the management levels there is general agreement to become more people oriented, dynamic and results oriented. There is also agreement to become less control oriented but there is disagreement as to the level of desired control. Junior and middle managers significantly seek more control than senior managers. Both junior and middle managers significantly desire organisations to be bound by government regulations and to have stronger trade unions than middle managers, though this is to a lesser extent for middle managers.
- In present day organisations, among all the sub-samples with the exception of the Nigerian, Cameroonian, junior management and female sub-samples a control orientation significantly correlates negatively with a people orientation. A control orientation also significantly negatively correlates with a 'results' orientation in the Zimbabwean, European and senior management sub-samples. There however is a strong positive correlation between a 'results' oriented and a 'people' oriented organisational culture for all sub-samples.
- In the ideal organisation a control orientation negatively correlates with a people orientation most significantly for the male sub-sample. There is positive correlation between a control and a people orientation for the Asian and South African sub-samples although this is not highly so. A dynamics orientation significantly negatively correlates with a control orientation for the Zimbabwean, senior management and male sub-samples. Across all the sub-groups the scale variables measuring 'dynamics' orientation positively correlate with the scale variables measuring people orientation suggesting a direct relationship. The findings suggest that people oriented organisations, that is, those organisations

that care for the well being of their employees, are likely to achieve greater success and good results in African organisations.

6.6 Discussion: Part (1), Organisation and Organisational Culture

As the literature review has indicated there seems to be a lack of information specifically on organisational cultures for most African countries. The available information however does give an indication of the type of organisational cultures that we may expect to find. A review of the cultural characteristics of the African societies also gives an indication of the types of organisational cultures that African managers may desire to have. Ideal cultures appear to be those that are guided and people oriented.

As the global literature review has illustrated we would expect to find organisational culture differences between nations, and that these differences would be mostly a result of national cultural differences. However as the review on the socio-cultural characteristics of countries of sub-Saharan Africa has indicated despite the cultural diversities within and between African countries there are certain cultural characteristics common to most African societies, Coldwell and Moerdyk (1982) for instance argue for the existence of particular African values and culture. The whole idea of collectivism and humanisim (recognising the value in people) appears to be the whole fabric from which the African society is built. May it however be remembered that collectivism in African society appears to be more horizontal, (based within the community) than vertical (based within the organisation), Jackson et al. (1999) resulting in the employees instrumental attitude towards their

organisations. Due to these similarities in some cultural aspects we would therefore expect to find certain similarities in current and desired organisational cultures. But as research has shown (e.g. Lachman et al. 1994) organisational culture is not solely influenced by National cultures but by other environmental factors among them factors in the political and economic environments. In the African scenario we would expect these external factors to play a major role especially in current organisational cultures given the disparities in GDP per capita and real GDP growth rates, thus accounting for the differences in the apparent similarities. Support for this is to be found in the work of Hofstede (1994) who found strong correlation between GDP and his individualism versus collectivism index, which in some cases has a bearing on the types of organisational cultures adopted in different societies. Countries with the lowest GDP per capita were found to be the most collectivist. We however would expect to find the influence of external factors to a less extent in ideal future cultures as managers are simply giving their preferences. It is most likely that the role of National cultures will be most recognised in ideal cultures as managers express their own individual beliefs. These beliefs may however be influenced by other external factors such as education, but no doubt this should be so to a lesser extent than in the current organisation.

Given this transitional period it may be somewhat difficult to clearly define the organisational cultures in South African organisations, as there is influence from many angles. In the perceptions of current organisational cultures the impact of apartheid on current cultures can not be undermined. This policy of legal segregation resulted in an imbalance of managers in the South African population with white managers being more in control of the economy. Given this fact we would expect

organisations to hold cultures which are more reflective of the cultures of the white majority who are in control and these may be individualistic. But then again there is also the influence of the affirmative policies which are directed at 'black empowerment', which also impact on organisational cultures and provide contradictions to a certain extent. Another important factor is the high level of industrialisation which leads us to the expectation of more results oriented cultures, harbouring western ideals especially given the presence of Europeans in the managerial ranks. On the whole organisational cultures in South Africa are a combination of cultures of several ethnic, tribal groups influenced by other external factors.

In Zimbabwe again due to transition we would expect to find contradictions in perceptions of current organisational cultures. The presence of two ethnic groups in the management ranks also somewhat aggravates this situation as they hold different cultural values. Although there are white managers in Zimbabwe we would not expect to find similarities with South Africa as marginalisation was not as extreme as in South Africa, and Zimbabwe has enjoyed a relatively much longer time of independence than South Africa. Zimbabwe has a relatively higher GDP per capita than both Cameroon and Nigeria, is relatively industrialised and has a significantly larger western influence, hence we would expect cultures to be more dynamic market and results oriented than Cameroon and Nigeria but relatively less so than South Africa.

The political instability in Nigeria, the lack of a substantial number of the European ethnic group, (taken to represent some western ideals), the influence of the Islamic

religion, and the diversity of the tribal groups all point towards the presence of an organisational culture which may differ greatly from that of Zimbabwe and South Africa. Due to the generally collective nature of African tribes, and the general idea of brotherhood of the Islamic religion we would expect to find people oriented cultures. Levels of corruption however may be taken to indicate either a low level of control to check corrupt practices, or a high level of control with power in the hands of a few corrupt individuals in current organisations. As Nigeria has been independent for a relatively longer time (1960), and to an extent shut out the western world we would expect to find organisational cultures which are less reflective of western ideals such as dynamism, a market and results orientation among others, than Zimbabwe and Cameroon.

The predominantly French influence in Cameroon attributable to colonialism may result in distinctly different organisational cultures from the other countries that have an Anglo influence. The influence of the Islamic religion in some parts of Cameroon and the collectivist nature of black Cameroonian society also point to the presence of people oriented cultures. As in Nigeria the stature Cameroon holds as being one of the most corrupt countries in the world may influence our expectations of current Cameroonian organisations which again may either be too loosely controlled or too tightly controlled.

As illustrated by the findings, this research found few significant cultural differences in the perceptions of current organisational cultures across countries. Although three organisational cultures emerge in all the countries of study it appears South Africa and Zimbabwe have mostly been influenced by western ideals in the line of results

focus. External factors appear to have played a greater role in shaping current organisational cultures. A look at the ideal organisational cultures in each of the countries of study however reveals possible organisational cultural differences based on nationality.

Across the four nations the ideal organisation is one which is less controlled but more dynamic, people oriented and results focused. The degree to which each organisational culture is desired in each country however differs. Although all countries seek more dynamic and results oriented cultures, South African and Zimbabwean managers are more so than Nigeria and Cameroon. This is unlikely to be a result of National cultural differences but again historical factors such as the degree of industrialisation and extent of interaction with the western world. We would expect to find ideally more people oriented cultures in Nigeria and Cameroon given the relatively low percentage of white people who it has been said represent western individualistic values to an extent. This is actually the reverse, as it appears the countries with the highest percentages of white managers, that is Zimbabwe and South Africa seek more people orientation. This however may not be so much a cultural factor as it is a political one, particularly due to the changes occurring in South Africa. (affirmative action and, 'black empowerment', were managers want to be seen to be promoting harmonious people organisations). Nigeria and South Africa seek the highest levels of control again possibly not due to cultural orientation. In South Africa this is likely due to mistrust, managers seek many formal rules and guidance from external forces such as the government in order to check possible unfair practices in organisations. Black South African managers for instance were found to desire more controlled organisations than their white counterparts by

Jackson et al. (1999). In Nigeria it is likely that control in the form of many strict rules may be required to check possible corrupt practices of present day managers or perhaps enhance it. The desire for control may also be due to the simple fact that African cultures prefer guided organisations and are not comfortable in unstructured situations.

A brief discussion will now evolve around the several differences found between ethnic groups crudely distinguished as African and European. Again the results here are merely indicative and, national borders were ignored. Again in the current organisation three cultures emerged. In ideal future organisations there was agreement between these two major groups on the need for greater dynamism, results orientation, people orientation and less control. As expected there were differences to the extent to which each of the cultures was desirable due to differences in cultural orientation. The surprising aspect of the differences between these two groups however is that supposedly individualistic white managers seek more people orientation than African managers. This again gives rise to the idea that it is not only cultural factors that are in play in shaping organisational culture ideals but political, economic and other factors as well. With regards differences between different management levels it is clear that senior managers desire more results oriented and dynamic cultures as compared to lower management levels. These desires are to an extent similar to those of the European Ethnic groups suggesting, that perhaps senior managers have become more influenced by western ideals due to the western education, and also indeed that most Europeans occupy senior positions in the management hierarchy.

An interesting point to note on the relationships of the different cultures however is that across all the sub-samples people oriented cultures, dynamic and results oriented cultures are positively associated. This somewhat reflects on the similarities of the general cultures in the four nations of study. This finding is in line with the literature reviewed that suggests that African cultures tend to be humanist, valuing people as individuals and harmoniously working together for the achievement of results. Organisations in Africa can thus not expect to be dynamic and to achieve excellence without taking care of the needs of their employees. Interestingly a dynamics' orientation significantly negatively correlates with a control orientation for the Zimbabwean, senior management and male sub-samples. This indicates an inverse relationship suggesting, that if organisation are to become more dynamic, successful and to achieve greater results there is need to reduce the amount of control. Reducing the amount of control in organisations allows employees to explore their creative potential and managers, to make and implement some of their decisions without going through overly hierarchical and centralised decision making systems. The question arises why this inverse relationship is so in these particular sub- samples. The reasons are most likely both cultural and otherwise. With regards the male sub-sample, the explanation could lie in the traditional role of males as being leaders, were man culturally expect success to be a product of their initiative through the aid of supernatural forces. Senior managers, have perhaps become greatly influenced by western theories to believe in allowing initiative to thrive in organisations. This may be the explanation for the Zimbabwean sub-sample as well. Given the presence of the European ethnic group in the South African sample as in the Zimbabwean sample we may expect to find similarities in this regard but this is not so. There appears to be a direct relationship between desire for more dynamic, results oriented cultures and

controlled cultures. This as mentioned earlier is again likely to be a result of the influence of other factors and not culture.

Other researchers have seen organisational cultures and management styles as strongly related phenomena that cannot be separated from each other. Chapter seven presents the findings on management styles and Chapter 8 merges the two concepts and discusses them in relation to national culture.

Chapter Seven

7.0 Presentation, Analysis and Discussion of findings : Part 2 Management

As mentioned in earlier chapters the purpose of this research has been the identification and comparison of organisational cultures and management styles in four African countries: Cameroon, Nigeria, South Africa and Zimbabwe. The aim has also been to find out if differences exist and if national culture can be seen as the cause of the differences. This chapter is dedicated to the presentation, analysis and discussion of findings on management styles and motivation in the four countries of study. General sample characteristics have already been given in chapter six.

As there is little empirical research on issues of motivation and management styles in African countries a review of global literature was initially conducted. In as far as motivation is concerned it was shown that motivating factors differ between countries as in the case of work centrality in peoples lives (England 1986). It was also shown that managers at different levels can indeed be motivated by different factors (Alpander and Carter 1991). With this in mind we may expect to find differences in motivation factors between the four countries of study, between management levels and between ethnic groups. But research on African culture depicts an over-all African society with similar cultural characteristics that may render possible differences between countries negligible. For instance developing countries and African society in particular have been generally termed as collectivist, and high on uncertainty avoidance (Hofstede 1980), having an external locus of control (Trompenaars 1993), and having a humanist orientation (Koopman 1991, Jackson 1999). It was therefore expected that a lot of similarities would be found in

motivation and management styles across the four countries. However, Lachman et al (1994) among other researchers indicate that indeed other external factors such level of economic development and perhaps political history among other factors may influence both organisational cultures and management styles. The four countries under study are at differing levels of industrial development and naturally all have their own unique histories thus these may contribute towards possible differences.

Research done outside Africa has shown that there may exist significant differences in management styles between countries due to cultural orientation whether it may be collectivist or individualist (Hui 1990). In this research it was expected that there would be differences between European and African managers as they were taken to hold individualistic/instrumental and collectivist/ humanist values respectively. Despite having similar cultural characteristics to a certain extent, it was envisaged that there would be differences within the similarities across the four countries of study again due to the influence of other external factors. Across the four countries it was expected that management styles would represent neither a purely western culture nor a purely African culture, due to various influences. It was expected that emerging management styles in all countries would depict a conflict between traditionalism and modern industrial practice Kamoche (1997), and an antithesis between the humanism of African cultures and the instrumentalism of western approaches, and at the same time reflecting a colonial legacy rather than an indigenous approach (Jackson et al 1999). Differences in management styles were only expected in the extent to which each management style would be prevalent in each country, between management positions and between ethnic groups.

The work of Huault (1996) and Arthur et al (1996) points to the existence of traditional particularist management styles in Nigeria. In South Africa the work of Viljoen 1987 suggests an existence of a mostly autocratic management style, Hofmeyer (1998) points to rigid and bureaucratic styles while more recently Jackson (1999) suggests rather conservative and traditional styles. The work of Schwartz (1994) which shows Zimbabwe as scoring high on hierarchy points to the possibility of the existence of autocratic and hierarchical styles while that of Taylor (1992) although directed at the public sector points to conservative and reactive styles. No literature specifically related to management styles was reviewed on Cameroon but the work of Kets de Vries (1999) points to the possibility of the presence of authoritative, though humanist and participative management styles. The results of this study shall thus now be presented.

7.1 Management motivation

The first ten items of the questionnaire were aimed at deciphering management motivation and were analysed as univariate items. Responses for other managers were taken to represent current managerial motivations and these as well as preferred management motivations were compared across the different sub-samples using one way analysis of variance tests and t tests. Table 8, shows the mean scores and comparison of means across countries, between management positions, and between ethnic sub-samples for other managers and managers preferred for future organisations.

Differences in current management motivation across the four countries of study

Table 8
(Part 2, Management questionnaire)

Differences in current management motivation							
Mean scores and comparison of means (one way analysis of variance and t test)							
(other managers response)							
Country	Cameroon	Nigeria	S.Africa	Zimbabwe	f	sig	Scheff
1. security	4.00	3.90	3.97	3.86	0.31	0.821	n.s
2. unpredictability	2.13	2.86	2.88	2.97	5.18	0.002	Z,S,N>K
3. Ambitious	4.42	3.73	4.12	3.78	6.88	0.000	K,S>Z,N
4. Autonomy	3.43	3.52	3.63	3.57	0.36	0.780	n.s
5.Learning Oriented	3.44	3.70	3.87	3.73	1.40	0.243	n.s
6.Goal Setting	2.75	3.19	3.22	3.32	3.25	0.022	Z,S>K,N
7.Team Oriented	3.35	3.56	3.28	3.49	1.36	0.254	n.s
8. Lone worker	3.02	2.71	2.86	2.81	0.98	0.402	n.s
9. Direct others	3.56	3.27	3.54	3.39	1.49	0.216	n.s
10. Work centrality	3.58	3.23	3.04	3.09	2.74	0.042	K,N>S,Z
Management Position	Junior		Middle	Senior	f	sig	Scheff
1. security	3.83		3.95	3.94	0.41	0.667	n.s
2. unpredictability	3.04		2.73	2.89	2.17	0.115	n.s
3. Ambitious	3.98		3.82	3.86	0.68	0.508	n.s
4. Autonomy	3.55		3.49	3.63	0.92	0.401	n.s
5.Learning Oriented	3.60		3.73	3.73	0.50	0.607	n.s
6.Goal Setting	3.13		3.23	3.22	0.31	0.735	n.s
7.Team Oriented	3.54		3.41	3.56	1.06	0.347	n.s
8. Lone worker	2.88		2.78	2.74	0.45	0.637	n.s
9. Direct others	3.65		3.28	3.36	3.20	0.042	J>M,S
10. Work centrality	3.18		3.27	3.10	1.24	0.239	n.s
Ethnic Origin			African	European	t	sig	
1. security			3.90	3.84	0.47	0.641	
2. unpredictability			2.84	2.91	-0.44	0.662	
3. Ambitious			3.86	3.70	1.15	0.250	
4. Autonomy			3.55	3.53	0.15	0.878	
5.Learning Oriented			3.66	3.83	-1.22	0.225	
6.Goal Setting			3.19	3.18	0.08	0.935	
7.Team Oriented			3.49	3.49	0.23	0.822	
8. Lone worker			2.81	2.81	-0.05	0.961	
9. Direct others			3.38	3.40	-0.11	0.912	
10. Work centrality			3.31	2.73	4.04	0.000	

Differences in required management motivation							
(Managers for future organisations)							
Country	Cameroon	Nigeria	S.Africa	Zimbabwe	f	sig	Scheffe
1. security	3.69	3.96	3.47	3.34	8.81	0.000	N,K,S>Z
2. unpredictability	2.63	3.03	3.32	3.60	8.82	0.000	Z,S>K,N
3. Ambitious	4.57	3.81	4.35	4.26	10.90	0.000	K,S,Z>N
4. Autonomy	4.16	3.85	4.47	4.43	13.86	0.000	S,Z,K>N
5.Learning Oriented	4.80	4.18	4.71	4.68	16.79	0.000	K,S,Z>N
6.Goal Setting	3.81	3.77	4.32	4.43	14.82	0.000	Z,S>N,K
7.Team Oriented	4.42	4.10	4.38	4.29	2.28	0.029	n.s
8. Lone worker	2.41	2.58	2.47	2.64	0.39	0.759	n.s
9. Direct others	3.57	3.23	3.39	3.34	1.02	0.385	n.s
10. Work centrality	3.87	3.38	3.27	3.33	2.58	0.053	K,N>Z,S
Management Position	Junior		Middle	Senior	f	sig	Scheffe
1. security	3.72		3.90	3.39	8.73	0.000	M,J>S
2. unpredictability	3.08		2.97	3.55	10.36	0.000	S>M,J
3. Ambitious	4.00		4.04	4.22	1.89	0.152	n.s
4. Autonomy	3.80		4.13	4.39	11.02	0.000	S,M>J
5.Learning Oriented	4.33		4.39	4.62	4.98	0.007	S,M>J
6.Goal Setting	3.70		3.97	4.35	12.58	0.000	S>J,M
7.Team Oriented	4.21		4.13	4.32	1.57	0.210	n.s
8. Lone worker	2.77		2.50	2.52	1.14	0.322	n.s
9. Direct others	3.25		3.35	3.31	0.19	0.825	n.s
10. Work centrality	3.24		3.42	3.36	0.68	0.507	n.s
Ethnic Origin			African	European	t	sig	
1. security			3.74	3.20	3.30	0.001	
2. unpredictability			3.16	3.57	-2.35	0.019	
3. Ambitious			4.04	4.18	-0.30	0.355	
4. Autonomy			4.08	4.46	-2.86	0.004	
5.Learning Oriented			4.39	4.68	-2.43	0.016	
6.Goal Setting			3.96	4.49	-3.72	0.000	
7.Team Oriented			4.18	4.29	-0.78	0.434	
8. Lone worker			2.57	2.49	0.41	0.681	
9. Direct others			3.31	3.13	1.12	0.266	
10. Work centrality			3.46	3.01	2.81	0.005	
Codes	K- Cameroon N-Nigeria S-South Africa Z-Zimbabwe	J-junior manager M-middle manager S-senior manager		A- African E- European	n.s not significant		

The Scheffe test indicates that there are no significant differences in the preference of the security of a steady job, the need for autonomy, the desire to direct others, the desire to learn and work as team (Table 8). Managers from all four countries registered high mean scores all greater than three out of five. Managers from Cameroon were the least motivated by unpredictable jobs while those in South Africa followed by Zimbabwe then Nigeria were comfortable with moderate unpredictability, with mean scores ranging from 2.5 to 3 out of five. There is indication that although managers from all countries are driven by ambition to reach the top, managers from Zimbabwe and Nigeria are less so. Cameroonian and Nigerian managers were found to consider work as being more central to their lives than South African and Zimbabwean managers. South African and Zimbabwean managers currently appear more motivated by the setting of difficult goals than Cameroonian and Nigerian managers.

Differences in preferred management motivation for future organisations across the four countries

Across the four countries there is general agreement that managers should be increasingly motivated by difficult goal setting and working as a team (Table 8). The managers in all countries are also in agreement that managers should be less motivated, by working alone. Across the four countries there is a decline in the need for job security and the need to direct others, although Nigeria, Cameroon and South Africa desire significantly more job security than Zimbabwean managers. Increasingly managers from all countries prefer unpredictability in their jobs, with managers from Zimbabwe and South Africa mostly so. Managers from Zimbabwe, South Africa and Cameroon significantly appear more eager to learn and reach the top compared to managers from Nigeria. There is agreement in the need for greater autonomy in the managers jobs with Nigerian

managers significantly requiring less autonomy. There is agreement for more goal setting and the importance attached to work by managers from all countries. Managers from Zimbabwe and South Africa significantly maintain the highest desire for difficult goal setting. Ideal Cameroonian and Nigerian managers continue to attach significantly more importance to their work in their work than managers in Zimbabwe and South Africa.

Differences in current management motivations across management levels

Currently across the management levels there appear to be no significant differences in motivation (Table 8). The most significant difference is in the desire to direct others with junior managers being more motivated by directing others than both senior and middle managers. Across the managerial levels work is seen as highly central to the managers lives.

Differences in preferred management motivations across the management levels

Across the management levels managers prefer that future managers be less motivated by working alone and instead work more as a team (Table 8). There are however significant differences seen in the levels of desired job security and unpredictability preferred by future managers. Although there is a consensus that managers should be less motivated by the need for job security and more by unpredictability in jobs, middle and junior managers significantly prefer more job security and less unpredictability than senior do managers. Senior and middle managers significantly prefer more learning and greater autonomy than junior managers in their future roles. Also unlike junior and middle managers, senior managers will continue to be motivated by difficult goal setting in future organisations.

Differences in current management motivations between ethnic groups

The most significant differences are to be found in work centrality where African managers (mean score 3.31; t statistic 4.039, significance level .000) place considerably more importance than Europeans (mean score 2.73) to work as part of their lives (Table 8). African managers are also significantly more motivated by an ambition to reach the top than European managers.

Differences in preferred management motivations between ethnic groups

There are several significant differences in the perception of the ideal management motivations between the two ethnic groups (see Table 8). The most significant differences are with regards job security, goal setting and work centrality. European managers significantly prefer managers to be motivated by difficult goals (mean score 4.49; t statistic -3.723, significance level .000) than African managers (mean score 3.96). Both ethnic groups prefer managers who attach more importance to their work than is at the present moment with African managers more so. There is agreement that managers should be motivated less by job security but African managers significantly maintain a higher need for job security than European managers. European managers also significantly require greater autonomy than African managers.

Management Styles

7.2.1 Factor Analysis

In order to reduce the 23 items measuring management style factor analysis was conducted using the *principal axis factoring method*. Since primary concern of factor

analysis using the principal axis factoring method, is the description of the *common variance* shared by the scores of people on three or more variables (Bryman and Cramer 1994) the variance in this study shall be briefly discussed. The variance of a test to be explained is known as its *communality* and the amount of variance each factor accounts for is known as its *eigenvalue*.

Table 9a
Total variance explained

Initial Eigenvalues				Extraction Sums of Squared Loadings			Rotation Sums of Squared Loadings		
Factor	Total	% of Variance	cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	cumulative %
1	4.128	17.946	17.946	3.570	15.522	15.522	2.471	10.744	10.744
2	2.634	11.453	29.400	2.051	8.919	24.441	1.794	7.801	18.545
3	1.495	6.501	35.901	.944	4.104	28.545	1.543	6.708	25.253
4	1.269	5.519	41.419	.734	3.193	21.739	.864	3.755	29.008
5	1.126	4.895	46.314	.579	2.518	34.257	.791	3.439	32.447
6	1.102	4.793	51.108	.566	2.463	36.720	.625	2.719	35.166
7	1.052	4.575	55.682	.446	1.939	38.659	.596	2.593	37.759
8	1.022	4.442	60.124	.369	1.606	40.264	.576	2.505	40.264
9	.901	3.919	64.043						
10	.875	3.805	67.848						
11	.768	3.338	71.186						
12	.725	3.151	74.337						
13	.709	3.083	77.420						
14	.673	2.926	80.346						
15	.637	2.770	83.116						
16	.595	2.587	85.703						
17	.555	2.415	88.118						
18	.523	2.273	90.391						
19	.488	2.124	92.151						
20	.472	2.054	94.568						
21	.431	1.874	96.442						
22	.420	1.826	98.268						
23	.398	1.732	100.000						

Adapted from output produced in *SPSS data reduction: factor analysis*

The first axis that is extracted accounts for the largest amount of variance shared by the tests (see Table, 9a), and the next axis (factor) accounts for the next largest amount of variance and so on. There are as many factors as there are variables but according to Bryman and Cramer (1994) the first few factors are the most important ones.

Unexplained variance

As can be seen in Table 9a above only 25 % of the variance is explained by the three emergent factors after Varimax rotation. A further 15% of the variance is accounted for by five lower level factors which were not desirable as they had eigenvalues less than .1. This leaves of 60% of the variance somewhat unaccounted for suggesting that there are various other forces at play in each of the countries. Explanation for this unaccounted variance may be a result of various macro-economic issues such as history, politics and level of economic development that the questionnaire was not designed to pick up. History,

politics, economics and the level of industrialisation have been seen to influence management styles. For instance Evans Hau and Sculli (1989, p120) view management styles as being “a function of industrialisation tampered by cultural characteristics”. Hofstede (1994) found correlation between the use of violence in domestic policies plus income inequality within a country with high power distance. Hofstede (1994) also found a strong association between individualism and economic development with countries with lower per capita GDP tending to be more collectivist. Differences across the four countries with regards conditions arising from these factors may thus form possible explanations for the unexplained variance.

Information with regards the above mentioned issues was sought for each of the countries of study and presented in Chapter four but is briefly summarised here. Although all the four countries of study went through a period of colonialism in the course of their individual histories the lengths of colonial influence differ with Cameroon and Nigeria having gained their independence in 1960, Zimbabwe (1980) and South Africa (1994). This historical information may have bearing on the differences observed as for instance we find that samples drawn from both Cameroon and Nigeria which have been independent for significantly longer periods have no representation of white managers. This may be significant given the fact that research has found black and white managers in Africa to have significantly different culture paradigms e.g. Bendixen and Burger (1998). The presence or absence of white managers may thus account for some of the variance.

Differences in GDP per capita which are also associated with differences in cultural values may also provide plausible explanations for some of the variance. South Africa has the highest GDP per capita of US \$4 420 followed by Zimbabwe at US\$2 400, Cameroon US\$2 000 at and Nigeria at US\$960 (all 1998 estimates). South Africa is also the most industrialised of the three countries. These differences in GDP per capita and levels of industrialisation may indeed have a bearing on cultural values thus providing explanation for some of our unaccounted for variance. Historical political factors such as apartheid in South Africa and recurrent political turbulence in Nigeria can also not be ignored in seeking explanations for the variance as they are phenomena not common to all the subjects. Also although black people in all the countries did experience some marginalisation it was not as extreme as in South Africa. The impact of these differences is however further discussed in the section discussing the findings of this study.

Back to factor Analysis

An initial attempt at factor analysis resulted in most of the items being loaded on to the first factor and the results were difficult to interpret. The factors were then rotated using orthogonal rotation, specifically Varimax rotation. This was in an attempt to increase the interpretability of the factors and to maximise the loadings on some of the factors which would then be used to identify the meaning of the factor. The main objective in conducting factor analysis in this case was to reduce the number of variables to be handled. It was therefore necessary to make a decision as to the number of factors to retain.

The *Kaiser's criterion* was used to select those factors with *eigenvalues* greater than 1. Stevens (1992) in Bryman and Cramer (1994) recommends the *Kaiser criterion* where the number of subjects is greater than 250 and the mean *communality* is greater than or equal to .6. In this case the number of subjects was well over 250 and the mean *communality* was .61. Three main factors all with *eigenvalues* greater than 1 were retained in the analysis. Table 9b shows item loadings on each of the derived factors.

Items comprising each factor were also then related to literature and management style theories in order to help determine the most appropriate title for them. The three emerging factors represent a:

1) **Democratic, Reciprocal management style:**

Where managers are concerned about the well being of the group and believe in self achievement. Managers are ethical and also do not merely follow pre-set principles in decision making. Instead they base their decisions on likely outcome, award rewards on the basis of achievement and their management style is generally democratic. Managers believe in making sacrifices for the good of the group but however in return expect loyalty to the organisation to prevail.

2) **Traditional, obligation based management style:**

This management style appears to be obligation based, managers believe that they should honour their family relationships and that rewards should be awarded on the basis of status. Some distance is kept between management and employees and there is an emphasis on working through a hierarchy at all times. The traditional manager attributes his success to outside forces. The traditional management style however has elements of modernisation, which are not characteristic of pure African society. Unlike in the traditional African society there is an element of mistrust of employees, and lack of a sense of 'morality' as all business practices are condoned as objectives are met.

3. Emerging Participative management styles.

These are to be found where managers have high levels of skill and knowledge. Managers communicate openly with employees and give them open access to all information

Remaining items not fitting into the factors that emerged were treated as univariate items.

Table 9b

Varimax rotated factor solution for management styles

questionnaire item	Democratic Reciprocatve	Factor Loading		Emerging participative	Univariate Items
		Traditional obligatation based			
11. making sacrifices for the good of the group	.563				
12. Depending only on self					*
13. Being confrontational and assertive					*
14. Regarding the well being of its people as the major objective of the organisation	.504				
15. Considering only the results of the organisation as paramount					*
16. Condoning all business practices if objectives are met		.480			
17. Believing that managers must act ethically	.467				
18. Honouring Responsibility towards relatives		.436			
19. Complete loyalty to the organisation	.385				
20. Belief in self achievement	.656				
21. Achievement based on outside forces		.535			
22. Decisions based on pre-set principles					*
23. Decisions based on likely outcome	.359				
24. Suspicious of employees		.336			
25. Democratic management style	.519				
26. Status based rewards		.547			
27. Achievement based rewards	.600				
28. Working through the hierarchy at all times		.447			
29. keeping a personal distance from subordinates		.467			
30. Socialising with subordinates outside work					*
31. Communicating openly				.684	
32. Open access to information given				.593	
33. High management knowledge and skills				.585	

7.2.2 Reliability of Scales

The scales formed through factor analysis were then tested for reliability using Cronbach's alpha by nationality, management position and ethnic group. Appendix F

shows alpha values of the scales for the comparison groups. Cronbach's alpha for the scales measuring a traditional and a democratic management style are consistent and high across the comparison groups all registering scores over .7. The scale measuring a participative management style however varies across the different sub-samples ranging from .406 to .804.

7.2.3 Inter-correlation of Scale Variables

The scale variables measuring a democratic style of management positively moderately correlate with the scale variables measuring an emerging participative management style for the different comparison groups (see appendix G). Across all the comparison groups the scale variables measuring a democratic and a traditional management style are negatively correlated but more so for the, South African, Zimbabwean, European and senior management sub-samples. With the exception of the junior management sub-sample a participative management style negatively correlates with a traditional theory X type of management style.

7.2.4 Differences in current and ideal management styles

With regards management styles the objective of this research has been to identify the characteristics of and the cross-cultural differences in management styles. A review of related global and African literature indicated that management styles are bound to differ on the basis of national cultural differences as well as ethnic origin. It was therefore hypothesised that there would be differences in current and desired management styles across the four countries of study and between managers of different ethnic origins. As European and most likely more educated African managers occupy senior management positions (which could mean that their values have been modified to

an extent) it was also decided to carry out an analysis across the different levels of management as well. Mean scores for myself as a manager were more or less similar to the mean scores for managers 'required' for the future as most individual managers saw themselves as the most ideal managers for the future. It was therefore decided that it was perhaps more reliable to use managers ratings of other managers to identify current management styles. A comparison of current and required management styles shall thus be conducted across the countries and management positions using the one way analysis of variance test for the comparison of means (ANOVA). Between the two major Ethnic groups of European and African 't' tests will be conducted to test for any significant differences.

Cross National differences in management styles

Three types of management styles emerged from factor analysis. Currently managers in Cameroon and Nigeria appear follow to a more traditional type of management style more than those in Zimbabwe and South Africa. Managers from Cameroon and Nigeria appear to feel more obliged to honour the responsibility towards their families and to work through hierarchies. Managers from Zimbabwe however keep the greatest personal distance from their subordinates (Table 10b other managers). More significant differences can be found in country perceptions of preferred management styles for future organisations. Managers from South Africa Zimbabwe and Nigeria would like to see managers follow a less traditional outlook than is the case at the moment (Table 10c). Cameroonian managers however want to see an increase in traditional management styles. Managers in both Cameroon and Nigeria significantly prefer more traditional oriented managers than managers in South Africa and Zimbabwe. The differences lie in Cameroon's desire to increasingly

Table 10a

Scale scores by Nationality and Comparison of means (one way analysis of variance)

myself as a manager	Cam	Nigeria	S. Africa	Zimbabwe	F	sig	Scheffe
Traditional obligation based							
18. Honouring Responsibility towards relatives	2.90	2.84	2.59	2.50	8.276	0.000	K,N>Z,S
21. Achievement based on outside forces	3.30	3.28	3.51	3.01	2.928	0.033	n.s
26. Status based rewards	2.78	2.77	2.71	2.74	0.110	0.954	n.s
28. Working through the hierarchy at all times	3.40	2.75	2.19	2.37	4.721	0.003	n.s
29. Keeping a personal distance from subordinates	3.98	3.19	2.88	2.71	14.400	0.000	K>Z,S,N
16. Condoning all business practices if objectives are met	2.79	2.38	2.33	2.28	1.985	0.115	n.s
24. Suspicious of employees	2.63	2.96	2.60	2.35	7.034	0.000	N,K>Z,S
	1.98	2.64	2.05	2.24	6.665	0.000	N>K,S,Z
Democratic reciproactive							
11. making sacrifices for the good of the group	3.75	3.47	3.92	3.82	10.623	0.000	S,Z,K>N
14. Regarding the well being of its people	3.93	3.60	3.82	3.79	1.619	0.184	n.s
as the major objective of the organisation							
17. Believing that managers must act ethically	3.84	3.38	4.04	3.59	6.730	0.000	S,K,Z,>N
20. Belief in self achievement	3.64	3.21	4.23	4.17	23.680	0.000	S,Z>K>N
19. Complete loyalty to the organisation	4.20	3.84	4.25	4.27	6.041	0.000	n.s
23. Decisions based on likely outcome	3.93	3.58	3.99	3.74	2.766	0.041	n.s
25. Democratic management style	3.52	3.01	3.16	3.28	2.315	0.075	n.s
27. Achievement based rewards	3.35	3.31	3.36	3.44	0.406	0.749	n.s
	4.00	3.72	4.48	4.25	10.775	0.000	S,Z>N,K
Emerging Participative							
31. Communicating openly	4.36	3.65	4.24	4.26	7.675	0.000	K,Z,S>N
32. Open access to information given	4.03	3.63	4.47	4.33	5.094	0.002	K,S>N,Z
33. High management knowledge and skills	3.74	3.50	4.09	4.17	14.429	0.000	Z,S>N,K
	3.49	3.83	4.16	4.29	10.482	0.000	Z,S>N>K
Univariate Items							
12. Depending only on self	2.69	2.61	2.44	2.34	2.018	0.110	n.s
13. Being confrontational and assertive	4.00	2.42	3.49	2.79	25.595	0.000	K,S>N,Z
15. Considering only the results of the organisation as paramount							
22. Decisions based on pre-set principles	3.30	3.26	3.14	3.09	1.027	0.380	n.s
30. Socialising with subordinates outside work	3.22	3.08	3.03	3.02	1.168	0.321	n.s
	3.37	3.27	3.12	2.80	5.055	0.002	n.s
Scales	all out of 5	country codes					
		K- Cameroon					
		N- Nigeria					
		S- South Africa					
		Z- Zimbabwe					
		n.s not significant					

Table 10b

other managers Scale scores by Nationality and Comparison of means (one way analysis of variance)

	Cam	Nigeria	S. Africa	Zimbabwe	F	sig	Scheffe
Traditional-Obligation based mgt Style							
18. Honouring Responsibility towards relatives	3.22	3.13	2.92	3.00	3.143	0.025	K,N>Z,S
21. Achievement based on outside forces	3.20	3.14	3.08	3.15	0.111	0.954	n.s
26. Status based rewards	3.00	3.03	2.94	3.10	0.387	0.762	n.s
28. Working through the hierarchy at all times	3.40	3.14	2.83	3.12	1.908	0.127	n.s
29. keeping a personal distance from subordinates	3.40	3.32	3.32	3.45	0.531	0.661	n.s
16. Condoning all business practices if objectives are met	3.04	2.88	2.97	3.00	0.518	0.670	n.s
24. Suspicious of employees	3.36	3.09	2.70	2.65	7.836	0.000	K,N>Z,S
	2.89	2.82	2.46	2.83	5.086	0.002	N,K>S,Z
Democratic- Reciprocal							
11. making sacrifices for the good of the group	2.82	3.31	3.37	3.32	5.861	0.001	S,Z,N>K
14. Regarding the well being of its people as the major objective of the organisation	2.89	3.24	2.96	2.96	3.175	0.024	n.s
17. Believing that managers must act ethically	2.51	3.27	3.33	3.24	6.067	0.000	S,N,Z>K
20. Belief in self achievement	3.02	3.12	3.55	3.59	7.702	0.000	Z,S>K,N
19. Complete loyalty to the organisation	3.51	3.73	3.64	3.60	0.914	0.434	n.s
23. Decisions based on likely outcome	3.32	3.48	3.47	3.36	0.555	0.465	n.s
25. Democratic management style	3.13	3.10	3.11	3.17	0.152	0.929	n.s
27. Achievement based rewards	2.40	3.24	2.89	3.01	7.623	0.000	N,Z,S>K
	3.07	3.51	3.76	3.59	3.378	0.018	S,Z,N>K
Emerging participative							
31. Communicating openly	3.03	3.40	3.29	3.18	3.470	0.016	N,S,Z>K
32. Open access to information given	3.05	3.42	3.28	3.19	2.177	0.009	n.s
33. High management knowledge and skills	2.86	3.27	3.13	2.98	3.136	0.025	n.s
	3.11	3.54	3.45	3.37	2.391	0.068	n.s
Univariate Items							
12. Depending only on self	3.07	2.77	2.81	2.66	1.365	0.253	n.s
13. Being confrontational and assertrive	3.07	2.71	3.03	2.78	2.497	0.059	n.s
15. Considering only the results of the organisation as paramount	2.86	3.34	3.29	3.22	2.354	0.071	n.s
22. Decisions based on pre-set principles	3.22	3.19	2.97	3.16	0.840	0.472	n.s
30. Socialising with subordinates outside work	3.00	3.31	2.66	2.64	13.590	0.000	N,K>Z,S
Scales	<i>all out of 5</i>						
	K- Cameroon						
	N- Nigeria						
	S- South Africa						
	Z- Zimbabwe						
	n.s not significant						

Table 10c

Scale scores by Nationality and Comparison of means (one way analysis of variance)

Part 2(b) management questionnaire Preferred managers	Cam	Nigeria	S. Africa	Zimbabwe	F	sig	Scheffe
Traditional Obligation based	3.23	3.03	2.76	2.87	6.676	0.000	K,N>Z,S
18. Honouring Responsibility towards relatives	3.69	3.31	3.48	3.07	3.265	0.021	K,S,N>Z
21. Achievement based on outside forces	2.89	2.92	2.63	2.80	0.963	0.410	n.s
26. Status based rewards	2.63	2.82	2.39	2.46	2.642	0.049	n.s
28. Working through the hierarchy at all times	4.07	3.28	3.04	2.92	10.773	0.000	K>Z,S,N
29. Keeping a personal distance from subordinates	2.57	2.57	2.49	2.66	0.305	0.822	n.s
16. Condoning all business practices if objectives are met	2.63	3.05	2.71	2.57	4.162	0.006	n.s
24. Suspicious of employees	2.16	2.82	2.03	2.45	3.177	0.026	K,N>SZ
Democratic reciprocative	4.07	3.75	4.08	3.93	4.593	0.003	n.s
11. making sacrifices for the good of the group	4.41	3.88	4.15	3.84	3.607	0.013	K,S>Z,N
14. Regarding the well being of its people as the major objective of the organisation	4.76	3.27	4.23	3.75	6.780	0.000	K,S>N,Z
17. Believing that managers must act ethically	3.86	3.49	4.25	4.27	14.103	0.000	Z,S>N,K
20. Belief in self achievement	4.20	4.07	4.42	4.28	2.408	0.066	n.s
25. Democratic management style	3.66	3.62	3.58	3.48	0.426	0.735	n.s
27. Achievement based rewards	4.16	3.98	4.41	4.26	3.199	0.023	n.s
19. Complete loyalty to the organisation	4.32	3.84	4.26	3.94	3.806	0.010	n.s
23. Decisions based on likely outcome	3.47	3.31	3.32	3.49	0.685	0.562	n.s
Emerging Participative	4.30	3.91	4.60	4.58	32.885	0.000	S,Z,K>N
31. Communicating openly	4.10	3.86	4.73	4.51	21.418	0.000	S>Z>N,K
32. Open access to information given	4.37	3.70	4.24	4.37	16.289	0.000	Z,K,S>N
33. High management knowledge and skills	4.59	4.15	4.83	4.85	25.557	0.000	Z,S,K>N
univariate items							
12. Depending only on self	2.91	2.68	2.49	2.43	2.106	0.098	n.s
13. Being confrontational and assertive	4.37	2.66	3.80	3.11	26.196	0.000	K,S>N,Z
15. Considering only the results of the organisation as paramount	3.55	3.31	3.49	3.22	1.363	0.253	n.s
22. Decisions based on pre-set principles	3.02	3.13	3.08	2.90	1.045	0.372	n.s
30. Socialising with subordinates outside work	3.96	3.46	3.30	3.17	4.787	0.003	K>Z,S,N
Scales	all out of 5	country codes					
		K- Cameroon					
		N- Nigeria					
		S- South Africa					
		Z- Zimbabwe					
		n.s not significant					

honour relatives, work through the hierarchy at all times and to attribute their achievements to outside forces, whereas managers from other countries would like to see a drop in this.

Currently a democratic, reciprocative type management style also emerges in the four countries of study. South African, Zimbabwean and Nigerian managers are found to be significantly more democratic than managers from Cameroon (Table 10b) with those from South Africa having the most democratic practices, believing the most in achievement based rewards and human potential. Managers from Cameroon are the least likely to make sacrifices for the good of the group, award reward on the basis of achievement and practice a generally democratic style of management. There is general agreement in all the countries that managers for future organisations should become more democratic. An analysis of the individual items forming the scale for measuring a democratic style of management however reveals that there are several significant differences in the levels of democracy preferred. Cameroonian and South African managers significantly prefer more people orientation than Zimbabwean and Nigerian managers (Table 10c). Although there is general agreement across the four countries that managers should be more ethical, managers from South Africa and Zimbabwe significantly believe more in this than managers from Cameroon and Nigeria.

Across the four countries currently Nigerian, South African and Zimbabwean managers practise significantly more participative management styles than those from Cameroon (Table 10b). There is agreement across the four countries that future managers should engage in more participative approaches but there are significant differences as to the level of participation, (Table 10c). Nigerian managers significantly prefer the least

participation followed by Cameroon. South African managers believe in the highest level of participative approaches in future management styles. Univariate items indicate that, currently managers in Nigeria and Cameroon significantly socialise more with their subordinates outside work compared to managers from South Africa and Zimbabwe, (Table 10b). In future organisations the most significant difference is to be found in the degree of assertiveness preferred were managers from Cameroon and South Africa prefer more assertive managers than those from Nigeria and Zimbabwe.

Differences in Management Style across Management positions

This section gives a brief over-view of management styles by management position. Due to perhaps to different levels of exposure to factors such as education managers at different levels may indeed practice and prefer different management styles. Table 11.b shows managers perceptions of current management styles and Table 11.c shows required management styles.

Currently junior and middle managers significantly follow more traditional theory X type of management styles than senior managers. There is general agreement across the managerial levels that management styles should become less traditional though junior and middle managers prefer a significantly higher level of traditionalism than senior managers. Currently managers from all levels believe that their organisations are democratic. Senior and middle managers are more likely to make, 'outcome based decisions', and act more ethically than junior managers. There is general

Table 11a

Scale scores by management position and comparison of means (one way analysis of variance)

myself as manager	Junior	Middle	Senior	F	sig	Scheffe
Traditional obligation based						
18. Honouring Responsibility towards relatives	2.86	2.70	2.60	3.481	0.032	J>M,S
21. Achievement based on outside forces	3.27	3.28	3.20	0.204	0.815	n.s
26. Status based rewards	2.84	2.70	2.79	0.472	0.624	n.s
28. Working through the hierarchy at all times	2.60	2.61	2.44	0.888	0.412	n.s
29. keeping a personal distance from subordinates	3.35	3.04	2.96	3.126	0.045	n.s
16. Condoning all business practices if objectives are met	2.46	2.40	2.27	1.066	0.345	n.s
24. Suspicious of employees	2.98	2.66	2.55	3.174	0.043	J>S,M
	2.56	2.41	2.22	2.490	0.084	n.s
Democratic reciprocative						
11. making sacrifices for the good of the group	3.59	3.63	3.78	2.567	0.077	n.s
14. Regarding the well being of its people as the major objective of the organisation	3.53	3.64	3.88	3.621	0.027	S,M>J
17. Believing that managers must act ethically	3.65	3.62	3.58	0.102	0.903	n.s
20. Belief in self achievement	3.52	3.62	3.90	3.572	0.029	n.s
19. Complete loyalty to the organisation	3.99	4.06	4.17	0.900	0.407	n.s
23. Decisions based on likely outcome	3.74	3.76	3.74	0.020	0.980	n.s
25. Democratic management style	2.84	3.13	3.35	4.821	0.008	S,M>J
27. Achievement based rewards	3.40	3.35	3.34	0.073	0.929	n.s
	3.84	3.98	4.18	2.722	0.067	n.s
Emerging participative						
31. Communicating openly	3.85	3.85	4.27	4.408	0.013	S>M,J
32. Open access to information given	3.95	3.93	4.57	1.700	0.184	n.s
33. High management knowledge and skills	3.81	3.72	4.01	3.772	0.024	n.s
	3.81	3.90	4.19	5.748	0.003	S,M>J
Univariate Items						
12. Depending only on self	2.76	2.44	2.39	2.706	0.068	n.s
13. Being confrontational and assestrive	3.04	2.57	2.92	5.354	0.005	J,S>M
15. Considering only the results of the organisation as paramount	3.22	3.20	3.15	0.151	0.860	n.s
22. Decisions based on pre-set principles	3.14	3.04	2.90	0.055	0.946	n.s
30. Socialising with subordinates outside work	3.19	3.14	2.98	1.188	0.305	n.s
Scales	all scales out of 5					
			J-Junior managers			
			M-Middle managers			
			S-Senior managers			
			n.s not significant			

Table 11b
other managers

	Junior	Middle	Senior	F	sig	Scheffe
Traditional obligation based						
18. Honouring Responsibility towards relatives	3.18	3.12	2.95	5.130	0.006	J,M>S
21. Achievement based on outside forces	3.14	3.16	3.16	0.014	0.986	n.s
26. Status based rewards	3.10	2.97	3.05	0.500	0.607	n.s
28. Working through the hierarchy at all times	3.13	3.20	2.97	1.737	0.177	n.s
29. keeping a personal distance from subordinates	3.46	3.47	3.24	2.706	0.068	n.s
16. Condoning all business practices if objectives are met	2.95	3.04	2.87	1.066	0.345	n.s
24. Suspicious of employees	3.19	2.92	2.75	4.483	0.012	J,M>S
	3.14	2.94	2.70	1.596	0.204	n.s
Democratic Reciprocatve						
11. making sacrifices for the good of the group	3.14	3.31	3.34	2.987	0.051	n.s
14. Regarding the well being of its people as the major objective of the organisation	3.01	3.16	2.98	1.506	0.223	n.s
17. Believing that managers must act ethically	3.13	3.18	3.29	0.914	0.401	n.s
20. Belief in self achievement	3.08	3.29	3.48	4.015	0.019	S,M>J
19. Complete loyalty to the organisation	3.63	3.67	3.67	0.077	0.829	n.s
23. Decisions based on likely outcome	3.52	3.36	3.43	0.748	0.474	n.s
25. Democratic management style	2.82	3.12	3.22	4.273	0.014	S,M>J
27. Achievement based rewards	2.91	3.13	3.00	1.497	0.225	n.s
	3.32	3.58	3.59	1.887	0.152	n.s
Emerging Participative						
31. Communicating openly	3.03	3.40	3.29	0.612	0.542	n.s
32. Open access to information given	3.27	3.29	3.30	0.025	0.975	n.s
33. High management knowledge and skills	2.95	3.18	3.15	1.397	0.248	n.s
	3.36	3.45	3.48	0.412	0.663	n.s
Univariate Items						
12. Depending only on self	3.13	2.71	2.63	5.644	0.004	J>S,M
13. Being confrontational and assertrive	3.06	2.71	2.79	3.161	0.043	J>S,M
15. Considering only the results of the organisation as paramount	3.48	3.29	3.09	4.354	0.013	J,M>S
22. Decisions based on pre-set principles	3.16	3.11	2.90	0.055	0.946	n.s
30. Socialising with subordinates outside work	2.85	3.07	2.86	1.958	0.142	n.s

Scales all scales out of 5

Table 11c Scale scores by management position and comparison of means (one way analysis of variance)

Preferred managers	Junior	Middle	Senior	F	sig	Scheffe
Traditipnal Obligation based						
18. Honouring Responsibility towards relatives	3.02	3.00	2.74	5.793	0.003	J,M>S
21. Achievement based on outside forces	3.57	3.34	3.19	2.435	0.089	n.s
26. Status based rewards	2.89	2.80	2.82	0.153	0.858	n.s
28. Working through the hierarchy at all times	2.67	2.79	2.42	3.454	0.032	n.s
29. keeping a personal distance from subordinates	3.37	3.31	2.98	4.651	0.010	J,M>S
16. Condoning all business practices if objectives are met	2.55	2.66	2.56	0.335	0.716	n.s
24. Susspicious of employees	3.11	2.90	2.56	5.423	0.005	J,M>S
	2.65	2.83	2.38	1.596	0.204	n.s
Democratic Reciprocatve						
11. making sacrifices for the good of the group	3.80	3.89	3.93	0.906	0.405	n.s
14. Regarding the well being of its people	3.82	3.94	2.98	0.818	0.442	n.s
17. Believing that managers must act ethically	3.78	3.99	3.29	0.918	0.400	n.s
20. Belief in self achievement	3.75	3.82	4.00	0.530	0.217	n.s
19. Complete loyalty to the organisation	4.08	4.19	4.27	0.914	0.402	n.s
23. Decisions based on likely outcome	3.91	4.07	3.89	1.467	0.232	n.s
25. Democratic management style	3.06	3.36	3.51	3.446	0.033	S,M>J
27. Achivement based rewards	3.67	3.59	3.50	0.639	0.528	n.s
	4.01	4.07	4.29	2.529	0.081	n.s
Emerging participative						
31. Communicating openly	4.16	4.20	4.41	4.611	0.010	S>J,M
32. Open access to information given	4.14	4.16	4.37	2.644	0.022	n.s
33. High management knowledge and skills	4.00	3.99	4.19	2.014	0.134	n.s
	4.34	4.46	4.68	5.541	0.044	S,M>J
Univariate items						
12. Depending only on self	2.80	2.57	2.51	1.289	0.276	n.s
13. Being confrontational and assestrive	3.46	2.94	3.10	4.158	0.016	J,S>M
15. Considering only the results of the organisation as paramount	3.23	3.43	3.20	2.045	0.130	n.s
22. Decisions based on pre-set principles	3.23	3.06	2.92	1.706	0.183	n.s
30. Socialising with subordinates outside work	3.49	3.33	3.38	0.528	0.590	n.s

Scales all scales out of 5
J-Junior managers
M- Middle managers
S-Senior managers
n.s not significant

agreement that future management styles should become even more democratic. Senior and middle manager however significantly prefer more democracy than junior managers and are more confident of self achievement. Currently managers from all levels see their management styles as participative and agree that this should become more so, in future organisations. Senior managers however prefer significantly more participative styles than junior and middle managers (Table 11c) The univariate items indicate that currently junior managers depend more on themselves and are more confrontational than middle and senior managers. All managers believe that future managers should become even more assertive and confrontational although socialise more with their subordinates outside work.

Differences in management styles between ethnic groups.

It was hypothesised that there would be significant differences in management styles between ethnic groups represented by black and white managers as they were seen as having fundamentally different culture paradigms (Coldwell and Moerdyk 1982, Koopman 1991, Bendixen and Burger 1998). From the findings of this research, currently African managers significantly follow a traditional, obligation based type of management style (mean score 3.12; t statistic 3.477, .001 level of significance) more than European managers (mean score 2.83) (Table 12b). There is generally agreement that future management styles need to become less traditional although African managers will significantly continue to award rewards on the basis of status, attribute achievement to outside forces and condone all business practices more than Europeans (see Table 12c). Currently both European and African managers practice democratic management styles though European managers significantly award rewards on the basis of achievement more than African managers. There is general

Table 12a

Scale scores by ethnic origin and comparison of means (T Test)

myself as manager	African	European	t	sig
Traditional Obligation based	2.77	2.32	4.656	0.000
18. Honouring Responsibility towards relatives	3.24	2.91	1.985	0.048
21. Achievement based on outside forces	2.79	2.73	1.498	0.135
26. Status based rewards	2.68	2.03	3.754	0.000
28. Working through the hierarchy at all times	3.12	2.72	2.481	0.013
29. keeping a personal distance from subordinates	2.41	2.29	0.734	0.463
16. Condoning all business practices if objectives are met	2.82	1.96	5.081	0.000
24. Suspicious of employees	2.48	1.97	3.108	0.002
Democratic Reciprocal	3.59	3.87	-2.822	0.005
11. making sacrifices for the good of the group	3.68	3.70	-0.112	0.911
14. Regarding the well being of its people as the major objective of the organisation	3.52	3.60	-0.501	0.616
17. Believing that managers must act ethically	3.50	4.36	-5.019	0.000
20. Belief in self achievement	3.99	4.25	-1.788	0.074
19. Complete loyalty to the organisation	3.66	3.74	-0.483	0.629
23. Decisions based on likely outcome	3.13	3.37	-1.442	0.150
25. Democratic management style	3.36	3.33	0.216	0.829
27. Achievement based rewards	3.90	4.49	-3.823	0.000
Emerging participative	3.93	4.15	-1.125	0.261
31. Communicating openly	4.10	4.33	-0.456	0.649
32. Open access to information given	3.77	3.94	-1.135	0.257
33. High management knowledge and skills	3.93	4.20	-1.978	0.048
Univariate items				
12. Depending only on self	2.50	2.66	-0.948	0.344
13. Being confrontational and assertrive	2.69	3.08	-2.244	0.025
15. Considering only the results of the organisation as paramount	3.20	3.18	0.173	0.862
22. Decisions based on pre-set principles	3.04	2.89	0.950	0.343
30. Socialising with subordinates outside work	3.24	2.44	4.926	0.000
Scales	all out of 5			

Table 12b

Scale scores by ethnic origin and comparison of means (T Test)

other managers	African	European	t	sig
Traditional Obligation based	3.12	2.83	3.477	0.001
18. Honouring Responsibility towards relatives	3.15	3.00	1.005	0.315
21. Achievement based on outside forces	3.07	2.86	1.471	0.142
26. Status based rewards	3.19	2.80	2.431	0.015
28. Working through the hierarchy at all times	3.38	3.33	0.390	0.697
29. keeping a personal distance from subordinates	2.98	2.90	0.510	0.610
16. Condoning all business practices if objectives are met	3.02	2.46	3.760	0.000
24. Suspicious of employees	3.02	2.54	3.091	0.002
Democratic Reciprocatve	3.26	3.36	-1.171	0.242
11. making sacrifices for the good of the group	3.12	2.89	1.612	0.018
14. Regarding the well being of its people as the major objective of the organisation	3.18	3.20	-0.137	0.891
17. Believing that managers must act ethically	3.21	3.68	-3.167	0.002
20. Belief in self achievement	3.64	3.65	-0.082	0.935
19. Complete loyalty to the organisation	3.43	3.34	0.662	0.508
23. Decisions based on likely outcome	3.12	3.27	-1.056	0.292
25. Democratic management style	3.08	2.89	1.320	0.187
27. Achievement based rewards	3.45	3.83	-2.566	0.011
Emerging participative	3.27	3.22	0.505	0.614
31. Communicating openly	3.29	3.26	0.182	0.855
32. Open access to information given	3.13	3.00	0.921	0.513
33. High management knowledge and skills	3.43	3.40	0.213	0.831
Univariate Items				
12. Depending only on self	2.81	2.60	1.382	0.168
13. Being confrontational and assertrive	2.81	2.77	0.287	0.774
15. Considering only the results of the organisation as paramount	3.29	3.16	0.901	0.368
22. Decisions based on pre-set principles	3.19	2.96	1.663	0.097
30. Socialising with subordinates outside work	3.09	2.45	4.283	0.000

Scales all out of 5

Table 12c

Scale scores by ethnic origin and comparison of means (T Test)

Preferred managers	African	European	t	sig
Traditional Obligation based	3.00	5.72	4.971	0.000
18. Honouring Responsibility towards relatives	3.32	2.98	1.944	0.052
21. Achievement based on outside forces	2.92	2.86	2.657	0.008
26. Status based rewards	2.77	2.00	4.254	0.000
28. Working through the hierarchy at all times	3.24	2.86	2.336	0.020
29. keeping a personal distance from subordinates	2.63	2.35	1.556	0.120
16. Condoning all business practices if objectives are met	2.96	1.97	5.503	0.000
24. Suspicious of employees	2.77	2.15	1.829	0.068
Democratic Reciprocal	3.82	4.02	-2.013	0.045
11. making sacrifices for the good of the group	3.90	4.00	-0.682	0.495
14. Regarding the well being of its people as the major objective of the organisation	3.18	3.20	0.189	0.580
17. Believing that managers must act ethically	3.73	4.39	-3.882	0.000
20. Belief in self achievement	4.14	4.35	-1.525	0.128
19. Complete loyalty to the organisation	3.91	4.03	-0.752	-0.452
23. Decisions based on likely outcome	3.33	3.71	2.238	0.026
25. Democratic management style	3.58	3.34	1.487	0.138
27. Achievement based rewards	4.05	4.46	2.659	0.008
Emerging Participative	4.17	4.52	-3.338	0.001
31. Communicating openly	4.09	4.56	-3.493	0.001
32. Open access to information given	4.02	4.15	-2.962	0.336
33. High management knowledge and skills	4.41	4.84	-3.543	0.000
Univariate Items				
12. Depending only on self	2.65	2.46	1.046	0.296
13. Being confrontational and assestrive	3.03	3.23	-1.127	0.260
15. Considering only the results of the organisation as paramount	3.32	3.20	0.740	0.460
22. Decisions based on pre-set principles	3.07	2.72	2.039	0.042
30. Socialising with subordinates outside work	3.51	4.33	4.734	0.000

Scales all out of five

agreement that future management styles should become even more democratic, with European managers believing more in 'self achievement', and the award of merit based rewards compared to African managers. Currently managers from both ethnic groups see their management styles as participative and there is agreement that they should become more so, European managers however want to see more participation, a higher level of management skills and more open communication than African managers, (Table 12c). Univariate items indicate that currently African managers socialise more with their subordinates outside work. There is agreement that future managers should socialise more with their subordinates on an informal basis though this is significantly more so for African managers.

7.2.5 Summary of findings

- Currently managers from Nigeria and Cameroon mostly view work as being most central in their lives and will require managers to hold this view in future organisations more than their Zimbabwean and South African counterparts. South African and Zimbabwean managers are significantly more motivated by goal setting and unpredictability in their jobs than managers from Cameroon and Nigeria, and this remains so in their preferences of future managers.
- Across management levels it appears junior managers are significantly more motivated by directing others than senior and middle managers. Managers from all levels believe that future managers should be motivated less by job security and more by unpredictability in their jobs. Middle and junior managers however prefer significantly more job security and less unpredictability than senior managers.

- Between the two major ethnic groups currently African managers are more ambitious to reach the top and see work as central to their lives significantly more than European managers. Both ethnic groups believe that future managers should be motivated less by job security and more by goal setting and unpredictability in their jobs though this is less so for African managers in all cases.
- Across all the sub-samples a democratic and participative management style go hand in hand as evidenced by the high positive correlation of scale variables across all the sub samples (see Appendix G). A traditional management style however shows a weak negative correlation with both the democratic and participative management styles ranging from (-.006) to (-3.64) see appendix G.
- Managers from Cameroon and Nigeria significantly follow more traditional management styles than managers from Zimbabwe and South Africa. Managers from Zimbabwe, South Africa and Nigeria desire future management styles that are less traditional. Cameroon managers differ from managers of other countries in that they prefer to see an increase in traditional management styles. Currently managers from Cameroon are the least democratic and the least participative. Managers from all four countries agree that managers should become more democratic, more so in the case of Cameroon and South Africa. Future South African and Zimbabwean managers are significantly more ethical than managers from Nigeria and Cameroon. Future Nigerian and Cameroon managers remain the least participative.
- Across the managerial levels currently middle and junior managers follow more traditional management styles as compared to senior managers. Junior managers appear to be the most confrontational and the most likely to socialise with their subordinates outside of work. Although there is general agreement across the managerial levels that management styles need to become less traditional, junior and

middle managers still maintain a high level of traditionalism and interaction with subordinates outside work. Both currently and in the future junior and middle managers are more inclined to make decisions based on pre-set principles rather than outcome

- Between the crudely distinguished ethnic groups of 'African' versus 'European', African managers currently follow traditional management styles significantly more than European managers. European managers appear to be more democratic in their approaches while African managers tend to socialise more with their subordinates outside work. Both ethnic groups prefer future managers to be less traditional, more democratic, and more participative, though this is less so for African managers who would like to socialise more with their subordinates outside of work.

7.2.6 Discussion of findings

After having reviewed global literature outside of Africa related to the problem it was hypothesised that emerging management styles would have characteristics of traditional African society and modern industrialised society. It was also hypothesised that there would be differences in motivation and management styles between countries, ethnic groups and management position. A review of the literature on African culture revealed similarities that suggest that there may actually be no differences in organisational cultures and management styles. However the hypothesis was maintained given the to an extent different political histories, present and past political and economic environments and different levels of industrial development of the different countries. Warnings of other writers (eg Kiggundu 1988) against making generalisations were also taken into account as they contend that empirical findings or prescriptive statements

developed for one setting do not necessarily generalise to others. Although differences attributable to national culture were anticipated it was quite difficult to point out where the differences would lie.

It is not surprising that job security and work was found to be highly central in manager's lives in all four countries. Work is important in the African society, as it is the means by which people gain their livelihood. The centrality of work is however much higher in Cameroon and Nigeria compared to Zimbabwe and South Africa. One may speculate that it is a result of greater western individualistic influences in Zimbabwe and South Africa, which have greater percentages of Europeans in their populations and indeed their management ratios. In individualistic societies work is contractual and not obligation based, outside of work managers have their own personal lives thus work is not considered to be the most important factor in one's life. Interestingly South African and Zimbabwean managers are more motivated by unpredictability and setting difficult goals for themselves more than Nigerian and Cameroonian managers. These are characteristics of individualistic societies again indicating that Zimbabwean values may have been influenced more. One however could argue that African values have not been modified but that the European component of the sample has caused these differences. This is an element of further investigation that has been lightly touched upon in this research but still remains to be explored further. Future Cameroon managers are motivated by their ambition to reach the top, learning and working as a team. Preferred managers for Nigerian organisations continue to be motivated by the need for security in their jobs plus the need for more autonomy, learning and working as a team. Managers preferred in the future in South Africa need to be motivated by learning, working as a team, and autonomy. For Zimbabwe,

managers preferred for future organisation need to be motivated mostly by goal setting, team working and having their autonomy. The similarities are that in all countries learning and working as a team are central as is in traditional, co-operative African society.

Across the management levels are slight differences, higher levels for instance prefer more unpredictability and less security. Generally senior managers appear to embrace the values of the modern organisation. This may be due to a combination of factors, such as exposure to western ideals through management education. Again the European composition of the sample may be giving rise to these seeming contradictions between pure African values and European values in current and preferred motivation factors. This hypothesis however needs deeper investigation.

Through out this discussion there has been mention of the element of ethnic origin as possibly making contribution to the differences existing among the countries seeing as Nigeria and Cameroon have little or no representation of European managers in their samples. This is however not unusual as both countries have small numbers of Europeans in their country populations. African managers view work as more central to their lives and are motivated by the security of a steady job considerably much more than European managers and this remains so in future requirements. European managers are also significantly more motivated by goal setting and unpredictability than African managers. Here lies a factor possibly causing the differences between the countries. As mentioned earlier, managers in Zimbabwe and South Africa are composed of significantly larger numbers of Europeans and, are also motivated by more unpredictability and less job security, than managers from Cameroon and Nigeria.

Coupled with these differences in ethnic composition are also the differing levels of economic development as reflected in the differences in GDP per capita for the respective countries that again may again contribute to differences. Based on 1998 estimates, South Africa and Zimbabwe both individually have higher GDP per capita than both Nigeria and Cameroon.

The management styles emerging from factor analysis and their relationship to each other shall be briefly discussed. A Traditional obligation based management style emerges in all four countries. The characteristics of this management style conform to findings that many writers on African management have put forward. This type of management style has characteristics of both European and African culture though is not a mere copy of either (Hickson and Pugh 1995). This management style has elements of traditionalism such as honouring ones responsibility to relations, believing in the power of outside forces and awarding reward on the basis of status. Contrary to traditional society, which has faith in its people, managers are highly suspicious of employees and are in a position to condone all business practices as long as all objectives are met. This appears to be somewhat a conflict between a concern for people and a concern for production. or as Jackson (1999, p307) puts it, 'a conflict between the instrumentalism of western styles and the humanism of non-western cultures.' As mentioned earlier in the review, focus on hierarchy could also be a result of the influence of colonial institutions, which concentrated power in a few hands at the top, Abudu (1986). These contradictions may give rise to the support of the theory of convergence, which contends that as societies move towards economic parity with the western societies so their management styles will converge with those of the west (Kerr et al 1976). But as reflected in the findings contradictions still exist showing that it is only peripheral and

not core values that are modified (Lachman et al 1994). It is therefore likely that in these emerging management styles, as in a comparison of Japan and some western countries by Duphy (1987), although there have been significant changes in management styles these have not been simply towards western practice, but rather a series of pragmatic changes within a context that continues to be more collectivist in orientation. However these are assumptions that need to be investigated further at a later stage.

The democratic management style depicts a give and take relationship between the organisation and the manager. Managers need to consider the well being of the group, and at the same time expect loyalty to the organisations. This to an extent ties in with Koopman's (1991) promotion of a people orientation and 'pragmatic humanism' whose aim is wealth creation through participative involvement. It is interesting that in all four countries a democratic management style negatively correlates with a traditional management style. In the democratic organisation managers are concerned about the well being of the employees, but do not lose sight of the organisation. In the traditional organisation there is a concern for organisational objectives in an unethical way. There is also greater particularism (Trompenaars 1993) as managers are more concerned about their relatives rather than the entire group in the organisation. Having discussed these common characteristics in management style across the four countries it was found that the extent to which each management style was prevalent in each country varied and these differences shall now be discussed.

Currently managers from Cameroon and Nigeria were found to have significantly more traditional management styles than managers from South Africa and Zimbabwe, with the greatest differences being attributable to focus on hierarchy responsibility to

relatives. This suggests that 'collectivism' (Hofstede 1980) and 'conservation' Schwartz (1994) value types are more prevalent in Cameroon and Nigeria compared to the other two countries. In future preferences in Nigeria, South Africa and Zimbabwe managers desire to be less traditional. Surprisingly Cameroon managers desire more traditional styles with a greater insistence on working through hierarchies and honouring responsibilities towards relatives. This is probably largely due to the characteristics of the sample used, of which 64.6 % were managers from the public sector as compared to other countries which had samples mostly drawn from the private sector. Previous research has shown that public sector organisations tend to be overly hierarchical and bureaucratic (Blunt and Jones 1992). Despite this drawback, 31.2% of the managers were drawn from the private sector thus results can be taken as indicative. As the Zimbabwean and South African samples included the European ethnic group a comparison between African and European managers was done. The European sub-sample was found to have a significantly less traditional style than African managers. The European sub-sample to an extent representing western tendencies, coupled with higher levels of development may thus be responsible for the significantly less traditional styles in Zimbabwe and South Africa. Across the managerial levels junior managers appear to embrace more traditional styles than senior managers believing more in honouring their obligations to their families. Perhaps their traditional values have not been greatly modified by western management ideals through greater education.

Across the countries and other sub-samples there is agreement that organisations should become more democratic while at the moment organisations in Cameroon are the least democratic, with management being less ethical and believing less in self achievement.

The fact that managers from all countries require more democratic management styles indicates that there is not much difference in what is seen as ideal across the four countries and perhaps points to a degree of similarity in cultures. South Africa and Cameroon significantly require more democratic styles than Nigeria and Zimbabwe. In South Africa this could be a result of history, that has seen discrimination against ethnic majorities as a result of apartheid. As discussed in the literature review, the spirit of 'ubuntu' (Mbigi and Maree 1995), prevailing in South Africa, probably explains the need for greater focus on the well being of the group, as, *'people are people through other people.'* Among the management positions democratic leadership styles are embraced more by senior and middle managers, who are also less traditional in their approaches. In future organisations European managers require more democratic managers than African managers. This is an important difference which can be directly contrasted with African managers desire for significantly more traditional styles than European managers. This is in agreement with the assertions of Jackson et al (1999) that African collectivism is aimed more at the community and in-group rather than the organisation. With this in mind it is possible to cite these differences as possible causes of labour problems in the multi-ethnic populations of Zimbabwe and South Africa. This is however not to say that no labour problems exist in Nigeria and Cameroon. It is likely that the issues arising in these two countries are of a different nature as they involve mostly interaction of tribal groups that are all of African origin. These issues can however be researched further in another study. A future study should thus perhaps compare African managers alone and European managers alone, across the four countries and not just cluster them together as was done in this research.

Again the ethnic composition of the Zimbabwean and South African samples may be the reason why these countries significantly prefer more participative styles than managers from Cameroon and Nigeria. Managers from Cameroon and Nigeria are the least likely to communicate openly and share information with subordinates. This is hardly surprising considering the fact that managers from these two countries appear to be the most traditional, with managers keeping the greatest distance from subordinates and insisting on working through a hierarchy. It appears therefore that more formal and rigid styles are preferred in Cameroon and Nigeria as compared to Zimbabwe and South Africa. South African managers require the greatest involvement, transparency and participation. Although this could be a product of cultural differences attributable to the European composition of the South African sample it could also be a product of current policies trying to redress the imbalances caused by apartheid in South Africa. Just as a point in passing, generally senior managers in all the countries appear to prefer more participation in organisations than middle and junior managers. The findings of this study thus point to differences in management style preferences across the different management levels. This however still remains to be researched further.

As revealed by the univariate items, managers from Cameroon and Nigeria prefer future managers to socialise more with their subordinates outside of work, perhaps suggesting a higher level of collectivism in these countries. This is quite interesting as these two countries also score highest on keeping a personal distance from subordinates at work. Suggests that managers probably see the value of people as being more than just instruments of producing wealth but as people who can be interacted with on a more social level.

At this point a discussion on the relationship between African national cultures, organisational cultures and management styles in the African context becomes necessary. Chapter eight carries out this discussion and also gives the implications of this research and the conclusions that can be drawn from it.

CHAPTER EIGHT

CONCLUSIONS

From the onset, the purpose of this research was to identify the types of organisational cultures and management styles existent in four African countries, South Africa, Zimbabwe, Nigeria and Cameroon. From then on it was the purpose to try and determine if there were differences across the four countries base on cultural differences.

Generally speaking an understanding of management values, organisational cultures and management styles continues to be an important issue for both management researchers and practitioners. As the literature review indicated there is a growing importance of cross-cultural management research in Africa as its large economic potential begins to be realised and managers of different cultures are increasingly being forced to interact. This research aids in the appreciation of the values held by, managers in different countries, managers holding different positions in the organisations, and managers of differing ethnic origins. An appreciation of these differences aids management practitioners in the development of appropriate cross-cultural relations within organisations and between countries. On the other hand an understanding of the similarities and differences in organisational cultures and management styles between countries better equips management in dealing with individuals from different countries, particularly given the increasing number of cross-border investments. Similarly understanding differences between ethnic groups also enables the creation of appropriate relationships, considering that fact that this research in support of past research finds different ethnic groups holding different ideals.

After conducting the discussions the findings on organisational culture in Chapter six and management style chapter seven it becomes necessary to consider whether or not the research questions were answered. The main findings of this research went some way in as far as answering the research questions but indeed raised various other questions that have implications for current theoretical assumptions, investors and future research.

The findings helped answer the research question on the identification of the organisational cultures and management styles present in the countries of study in that three main orientations in current organisations emerged, namely a ‘people’ orientation, a ‘control’ orientation and a ‘results’ orientation in all four countries. With regards the management styles followed, three main management styles emerged namely a traditional-obligation based management style, a democratic-reciprocal management style and an emerging participative style. The fact that these organisational cultures and management styles emerged in all four countries does suggest that there are many cultural characteristics common to the four countries, thus giving support to previous research that has asserted that basic African values are similar in most African countries.

The question of differences was also in a way addressed. The differences observed were in the extent to which each of the organisational cultures and management styles was prevalent and preferred in each of the countries of study. The differences it appeared are more a result of other factors other than culture. This has implications for investors who have in the past tended to generalise African management as it highlights the need to approach each country individually.

The contradictions between western and non-western values evident in the characteristics of both management styles and organisational styles currently in place, and those preferred for the future also have important implications. They in a way reflect how management is being modelled in Africa through a trial at reconciling ideals and may be the beginning of a process of creating indigeneous management styles and organisational cultures. This is important in that it may when fine tuned through further research create a reference point for the management of organisations in Africa rather than a reference to western ideals.

Generally preferred organisational cultures and management styles are similar in the four countries. There are however a few significant differences within these similarities. It is indicative that the value of the human being is valued most in South Africa compared to other nations, thus organisations in South Africa need to have cultures that are more people oriented though control will still need to be maintained through both government regulations and internal rules. A 'results' focus, coupled by participative and democratic leadership styles will also be most acceptable for future organisations in this country. Future Nigerian organisations are likely to be the most controlled. Cameroonian and Nigerian organisation both continue to place greater value on traditional management styles more than South African and Zimbabwean organisations. An emphasis on traditional management styles is preferred in future Cameroonian organisations while a balance needs to be maintained between a people orientation and a control orientation in organisational cultures. In Zimbabwe there is a concern for results and easy access to information in future organisations. It has however been quite difficult to specifically pin point cultural differences between the countries of study. It appears that future research needs to be specific and individual country focused at this

stage. Such research will enable the development of a country by country profile of management styles and organisational cultures at a more in depth qualitative level.

Having done an analysis by country level and found differences, an analysis was done by management position and ethnic group in order to help explain some of the national differences. Perceptions of both current organisational cultures and current management styles differed by management position. Considering the fact that the sample was skewed towards middle and senior managers in some countries this may somewhat have had a bearing on results. Future research therefore needs to address this issue. A survey of employees may indeed prove useful in deciphering true organisational cultures and management styles. Most formal organisations have documented cultures thus, management could possibly have been influenced by these. An inclusion of employees with, it is assumed, 'less knowledge of documented cultures' in such a survey may in the future reduce this factor. Further differences were evident in the analysis by ethnic group which produced differences that can be attributed to culture. The African and European ethnic appeared to harbour collectivist/humanist and individualist/instrumentalist values respectively.

It can be inferred that the role played by national cultural differences tends to be overshadowed by the role played by historical, economic, political and other factors in shaping present day organisational cultures and management styles in the countries of study. Perhaps it is because it is so difficult to define distinct national cultures as nations are composed of such a diversity of tribal and ethnic groups due to the artificial borders created at colonisation. Also, it is difficult to define present day African cultures particularly organisational culture as being unique to each country, because generally

speaking all managers have been educated along western ideals, and have all been more or less similarly influenced in the past by the more or less century of colonial domination. This research has indicated that major differences are most likely present at a more complex and deeper level than nationality, and this has implications for organisations as they formulate their organisational cultures, and choose management styles. It is not enough to simply focus on the traditional cultures of Africans but to look at other factors such as levels of industrialisation, political history, economic environments and indeed the modification of African values by western education and management systems.

This research has raised several key issues on the appropriateness of western social science concepts. For instance we through a review of the literature and through an illustration of the results it appears that certain social science concepts may refer to ideas quite different from those harboured by non-western people. The issue of control has been one such factor. Were control may appear as negative as it appears to limit creativity in the western world in the African scenario control may actually be seen in positive terms. This is because it has been seen that African cultures prefer control in a fatherly way and control is seen as important as it provides guidelines. The issue here remains whether or not we can accurately compare the findings in relation to control for the different ethnic groups. Until these issues are addressed this problem will always prevail thus giving rise to problems of interpretation of questionnaires by the subjects and the results by researchers.

The appropriateness of questionnaires as measuring instruments in non-western cultures is also questioned. In this research we find that the non-response rate was quite high in

the form of non-returned and partially completed questionnaires and missing responded information. This may highlight the need to for more qualitative research perhaps in the form of interviews or various focus groups and observation techniques.

Despite the various questions raised this research has succeeded in giving an indication of the current, and preferred organisational cultures and management styles in Cameroon, Nigeria and Zimbabwe. In so doing it has laid the foundation and highlighted the need for more qualitative, in depth, country by country research, looking deeply at the ethnic and tribal groups in each country in conjunction with the histories of the countries. Future research should also study cultural differences by industrial sector and nationality of companies. Such an approach is likely to yield more specific and conclusive information, as the results of this research are mostly indicative and have raised several questions. It goes without saying however that this research has provided the basis for new informed hypothesis testing and a basis of comparison with other African countries.

While this study has identified the nature and differences in current and preferred organisational cultures and management styles in the countries of study, one of the most important outcomes of this research been the evidence of the need to redress the current methodologies and concepts employed in the study of African organisations. A great deal still needs to be done to come up with appropriate methods and concepts for research for African organisations if the resulting information obtained is to be contextually and culturally accurate.

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APPENDICES

APPENDIX A

Figure 1. Instrumentalism and humanism in the management of people (Jackson 1998)



APPENDIX B : Some underlying dimensions of organisational culture

<u>Dimension</u>	<u>Question to be answered</u>
1. The organisations relationship to its environment	Does the organisation perceive itself to be dominant, submissive, harmonising ,searching out a niche ?
2. The nature of human activity	Is the “correct” way for humans to behave to be dominant /pro-active , harmonising, or passive / fatalistic?
3. The nature of reality and truth	How do we define what is true and what is not true; and how is truth ultimately determined both in the physical and social world? By pragmatic test, reliance on wisdom, or social consensus.?
4. The nature of time	What is our basic orientation in terms of past , present and future, and what kinds of time units are most relevant for the conduct of daily affairs.?
5. The nature of human nature	Are humans basically good, neutral , or evil and is human nature perfectible or fixed?
6. The nature of human relationships	What is the “correct” way people to relate to each other, to distribute power and affection? Is life competitive or co-operative? Is the best way to organise society on the basis of individualism or groupism? Is the best authority system autocratic/partenalistic or collegial/ participative?
7. Homogeniety vs. Diversity	Is the group best off if it is highly diverse or if it is highly homogenous, and should individuals in a group be encouraged to innovate or conform?

*Adapted from **Organisational Culture and Leadership** (p.86) by E.H.Schein, 1985, San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.*

My position: Senior management ☐ Middle management ☐ Junior management ☐

Number of subordinates

Sex: Male ☐ Female ☐ Age:..... My nationality Ethnic origin Home language.....

Nationality of company Sector of activity

Size of company: Large ☐ Medium ☐ Small ☐ Number of employees

Please answer the following questions assigning a value of 1, 2, 3, 4 or 5 to every one of them as follows:

- a) **My organization at the moment** (1 = not like this at all - 5 = exactly like this)
b) **The way I would like it to be** (1 = not like this at all - 5 = exactly like this)
c) **The way my organization is going** (1 = not like this at all - 5 = exactly like this)

	a) My organization at the moment	b) The way I would like it to be	c) The way it is going
1. Orientated towards the market	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5
2. Risk taking	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5
3. Clear objectives	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5
4. Very hierarchical	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5
5. Highly centralized	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5
6. Very authoritarian	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5
7. Many strict rules	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5
8. Very ethical	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5
9. Very successful	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5
10. Undergoing rapid change	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5
11. Foreign owned	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5
12. Provides equal opportunities for all	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5
13. Motivates employees	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5
14. Clear policies on employee relations	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5
15. Strong trade unions	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5
16. Inter-ethnic harmony	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5
17. Clear policies on client or customer relations	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5
18. Results oriented	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5
19. High level of management expertise and skill	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5
20. Has the well-being of its people as major objective	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5
21. Consults employees	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5
22. Has clear and formal rules of action	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5
23. Very flexible	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5
24. Bound by government regulations	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5
25. Influenced by family relationships	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5
26. Encourages diversity of opinions	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5
27. Much internal competition for promotion	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5

Please turn over.....

Please circle the number (from 1 to 5) which you feel is most appropriate, as follows
a) **Me, as a manager** (1 = not like me at all - 5 = just like me); b) **Managers generally in my organization** (1 = not like them at all - 5 = just like them); c) **The type of manager required for the future of the organization** (1 = not what is required at all - 5 = just what is require)

	a) Me, as a manager	b) Managers generally in my organization	c) The type of manager required for the future of the organization
1. Preferring the security of a steady job	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5
2. Preferring work to be unpredictable	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5
3. Very ambitious to reach the top	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5
4. Freedom in a job to adopt own approach	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5
5. Eager for opportunities to learn and develop	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5
6. Setting self difficult goals	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5
7. Enjoying, above all else, to work as part of a team	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5
8. Preferring, above all else, to work alone	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5
9. Preferring, above all else, to direct other people	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5
10. Believing that work is the most important thing in life	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5
11. Making sacrifices for the good of the group	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5
12. Depending only on self	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5
13. Being confrontational and assertive	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5
14. Regarding the well-being of its people as the objective of an organization	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5
15. Considering only the results of the organization as being paramount	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5
16. Condoning all business practices if objectives are met	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5
17. Believing that managers must act completely ethically	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5
18. Honouring responsibilities towards relatives	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5
19. Being completely loyal to the organization, above all other things	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5
20. Believing that if one is motivated enough, anything can be achieved	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5
21. Believing that own achievement is based very much on outside forces	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5
22. Basing decisions on pre-set principles, rather than outcomes	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5
23. Basing decisions on likely outcome, not on pre-set principles	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5
24. Believing that generally employees are not to be trusted	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5
25. Having a completely democratic management style	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5
26. Believing that reward should be based on status	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5
27. Believing that reward should be based on achievement	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5
28. Working through the hierarchy at all times	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5
29. Keeping a personal distance from subordinates	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5
30. Socializing with subordinates outside work	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5
31. Communicating openly	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5
32. Giving subordinates open access to information	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5
33. A high level of management knowledge and skills	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5

APPENDIX D (ii) The structure of the questionnaire (Jackson 1998)

The questionnaire comprises two separate forms referred to here as (A) Side One, items 1-27, and (B) Side Two, items 1-33.

- A. Side One - Organization:

Items 1-27

a) current organization
b) ideal organization
c) direction of change

The first questionnaire (A) looks at organizational culture, and is based on the literature on organizational culture (Vertinski, Tse, Wehrung and Lee, 1990 is a good start, and some of the current questionnaire items are taken from their study) rather than societal/national culture: although levels of hierarchy and strict rules, for example, may be explained by societal cultures such as power distance, uncertainty avoidance and others. Its purpose is to discern (a) the current situation in organizations; (b) the ideal, or the way that respondents would want their organization to be; and, (c) the way it seems to be going. (c) may differ from both the current situation and the ideal situation, and reflects respondents' perception of the direction of change (e.g. whether their organizational is becoming more centralized or less centralized).

AREA	ITEM (VARIABLE LABEL) <i>[items in italics are out of sequence]</i>
Strategy in terms of:	1. orientation towards the market (market) 2. risk taking (risk) 3. clear objectives (objectives)
Structure in terms of	4. very hierarchical (hierarchy) 5. highly centralized (centralized)
Governance and decision-making in terms of	6. very authoritarian (authoritarian) <i>21. consults employees (consults)</i>
Control in terms of	7. many strict rules (rules) <i>22. has clear and formal rules of action (formal)</i> <i>23. very flexible (flexible)</i> <i>24. bound by government regulation (government)</i> <i>25. influenced by family relationships (family)</i>
Character in terms of	8. very ethical (ethical) 9. very successful (successful) 10. undergoing rapid change (changing) 11. foreign owned (foreign)
Internal policies in terms of	12. provides equal opportunities for all (equal-ops) 14. clear policies on employee relations (emp-relations)
Internal climate in terms of	<i>13. motivates employees (motivates)</i> 15. strong trade unions (unions) 16. inter-ethnic harmony (inter-ethnic) <i>26. encourages diversity of opinions (diverse-opinions)</i> <i>27. much internal competition for promotion (promotion)</i>
External policies in terms of	17. clear policies on client/customer relations (client-relations) 18. results oriented (results)
Management in terms of	19. high level of management expertise and skill (management)
People orientation in term of	20. has the well-being of its people as major objective (people-oriented)

- B. Side Two - Management:

Items 1-33

a) Me, as manager (participant response)

b) Managers generally in my organization (Observant response)

c) The type of manager required for the future of the organization (ideal response)

The items 1-10 represent various aspect of work MOTivation, and do not constitute a scale or scales. Item 10 refers specifically to the centrality of work (England, 1986), and items 6 (MOTgoals), 9 (MOTdirect) and 7 (MOTteam) also refer to McClelland's (1987) Achievement, Power and Affiliation motives respectively.

Items 11-20 refer to the orientation toward the COLlective as being target specific (11.COLgroup, 18.COLrelatives, and 19.COLorganization) versus orientation to the self or INDividualism: depending only on self (12.INDself,), being assertive and confrontational (13.INDconfront), and being achievement oriented (20.INDachieve). This also has parallels, but may cut across a dimension of HUManism versus INSTRumentalism: the well being of people as main objective of organizations (14.HUMpeople), being completely ethical (17. HUMethics) versus seeing results as paramount (15.INSTresults) and condoning all business practices (16.INSTbusiness)

AREA	ITEM (VARIABLE LABEL)
Work motivators. 1. preferring security of a steady job (MOTsecure) (Carr, 1979, and see Kelly, Whatley & Worthy, 1981, Alpander & Carter, 1991, and England, 1986, McClelland (1987)	2. preferring work to be unpredictable (MOTunpredict) 3. very ambitious to reach the top (MOTambition) 4. freedom in job to adopt own approach (MOTautonomy) 5. eager for opportunities to learn and develop (MOTlearn) 6. setting self difficult goals (MOTgoals) 7. enjoying above all else to work as part of a team (MOTteam) 8. preferring above all else to work alone (MOTALone) 9. preferring above all else to direct other people (MOTdirect) 10. believing that work is the most important thing in life (MOTwork)
Orientation towards self, collective and business. (Koopman, 1991, organization (HUMpeople) Laurent, 1989)	11. making sacrifices for the good of the group (COLgroup) 12. depending only on self (INDself) 13. being confrontational and assertive (INDconfront) 14. regarding the well-being of is people as the objective of an Wagner, 1995, 15. considering only the results of the organization as being paramount (INSTresults) 16. condoning all business practices if objectives are met (INSTbusiness) 17. believing that managers must act completely ethically (HUMethics) 18. honouring responsibilities towards relatives (COLrelatives) 19. being completely loyal to the organization, above all other things (COLorganization) 20. believing that if one is motivated enough, anything can be achieved (INDachieve)
Cultural factors Lane & DiStefano, 1992,	21. believing that own achievement is based very much on outside forces (LOCexternal) 22. basing decisions on pre-set principles rather than outcomes (TIMEpast) 23. basing decisions on likely outcomes not on pre-set principles (TIMEfuture)

- 24. believing that generally employees are not to be trusted (NATbad)
- 25. having a complete democratic management style (NATgood)
- 26. believing that reward should be based on status (RELhierarchy)
- 27. believing that reward should be based on achievement (RELindividual)
- 28. working through the hierarchy at all times (RELhierarchy)
- 29. keeping a personal distance from subordinates (DISTprivate)
- 30. socializing with subordinates outside work (DISTpublic)
- 31. communicating openly (COMopen)
- 32. giving subordinates open access to information (INFopen)
- Level of management 33. a high level of management knowledge and skills (MANhigh)

Appendix E (1)

Scale Item Scoresby Nationality and Comparison of Means

	Country				organisation currently				country				Ideal organisation			
	Cam	Nig	S. Afr	Zim	F	sig	Scheffe		Cam	Nig	S. Afr	Zim	F	sig	Scheffe	
People orientation																
8.very ethical	3.11	3.33	3.81	3.73	6.16	0.000	SZ.KN		4.02	3.70	4.40	4.27	10.81	0.000		S>NK
12.provides equal opportunity	2.63	2.87	3.38	3.47	9.81	0.000	Z>S.KN		4.20	3.97	4.51	4.48	8.71	0.000		SZ>N
13. motivates employess	2.72	2.99	3.15	2.99	1.16	0.179	n.s		4.40	4.17	4.64	4.48	5.10	0.002		SZ>N
14. clear employee policies	2.93	3.14	3.38	3.32	1.77	0.152	n.s		4.44	4.03	4.39	4.48	7.36	0.000		Z>N
16. Ethnic Harmony	2.87	3.21	3.49	3.54	4.90	0.002	Z>K		4.13	3.97	4.49	4.45	7.87	0.000		S>N
20. people oriented	2.49	2.96	3.11	2.97	2.48	0.061	n.s		4.00	4.01	4.47	4.31	5.09	0.002		SZ>N
21. consults staff	2.54	2.88	2.93	2.82	1.15	0.283	n.s		4.02	3.84	4.32	4.29	2.52	0.057		n.s
22. formal rules	3.08	3.27	3.41	3.39	1.15	0.342	n.s		4.30	3.97	4.22	4.19	2.52	0.057		n.s
26.opinion diversity	2.68	2.80	2.83	2.83	1.82	0.908	n.s		4.00	3.59	4.18	4.14	9.92	0.000		SZ>N
Results Orientation																
1.market orientation	3.33	3.19	4.00	3.61	10.91	0.000	SZ>K		4.11	4.12	4.67	4.56	9.12	0.000		SZ>N
3. clear objectives	3.91	3.63	3.73	3.49	1.90	0.128	n.s		4.63	4.13	4.67	4.49	8.11	0.000		KZ>N
9. very successful	2.84	3.41	3.45	3.40	3.33	0.019	NZ>K		4.32	4.19	4.71	4.59	7.90	0.000		SZ>N
17. clear customer policies	3.21	3.30	3.77	3.44	3.09	0.027	S>N		4.28	4.10	4.64	4.57	9.69	0.000		SZ>N
18.results orientation	3.61	3.55	3.95	3.81	3.31	0.020	n.s									
19.mgt skill and expertise	3.50	3.46	3.47	3.41	0.10	0.960	n.s		4.47	4.23	4.74	4.65	9.69	0.000		SZ>N
Control orientation																
4.very hierarchical	3.92	3.48	3.65	4.49	1.64	0.178	n.s		3.33	3.58	2.66	2.66	24.65	0.000		NK>SZ
5. highly centralised	3.30	3.54	3.54	3.43	0.62	0.602	n.s		3.42	3.30	3.13	2.55	17.81	0.000		NS>KZ
6. very authoritarian	2.74	3.22	3.33	3.30	2.16	0.092	n.s		2.32	2.99	2.28	2.31	14.72	0.000		N>SZK
7.many strict rules	3.21	3.33	3.39	3.28	0.27	0.850	n.s		3.20	3.30	2.99	2.92	4.27	0.000		N>Z

*K- Cameroon N- Nigeria S- South Africa Z-Zimbabwe Individual item mean score out of 5

APPENDIX E (11)

Scale Item Scores by Ethnic Group and Comparison of Means

	Ethnic Group			organisation currently			Ethnic Group			Ideal Organisation		
	As	Af	Eur	F	sig	Scheffe	As	Af	Eur	F	sig	Scheffe
People orientation												
8. very ethical	3.81	3.35	4.19	10.06	0.000	E>A	People orientation					
12. provides equal opportunity	3.26	2.94	3.86	10.68	0.000	E>A	4.35	3.83	4.50	14.28	0.000	E>A
13. motivates employees	3.07	2.91	3.20	1.41	0.240	n.s	4.48	4.11	4.65	5.59	0.000	E>A
14. clear employee policies	3.15	3.08	3.75	6.88	0.000	E>A	4.85	4.25	4.68	5.90	0.001	E>A
16. Ethnic Harmony	3.07	3.25	3.83	4.98	0.002	E>A	4.54	4.17	4.75	3.99	0.008	E>A
20. people oriented	3.30	2.86	3.10	2.22	0.085	n.s	4.54	4.09	4.76	8.93	0.000	E>A
21. consults staff	2.67	2.80	2.99	0.73	0.535	n.s	4.65	4.07	4.44	4.59	0.004	E>A
22. formal rules	3.41	3.25	3.49	1.13	0.338	n.s	4.42	4.11	4.29	0.33	0.802	n.s
26. opinion diversity	2.67	2.74	3.08	1.72	0.162	n.s	4.08	4.06	4.20	1.32	0.268	n.s
							4.07	3.78	4.25	3.50	0.015	E>A
Results Orientation												
1. market orientation	3.70	3.33	3.89	6.20	0.000	E>A	Dynamics orientation					
3. clear objectives	3.41	3.63	3.55	0.37	0.779	n.s	4.69	4.23	4.79	7.38	0.000	E>A
9. very successful	3.04	3.33	3.75	2.09	0.100	n.s	4.69	4.26	4.71	5.36	0.000	E>A
17. clear customer policies	3.67	3.28	3.75	4.94	0.002	E>A	4.60	4.30	4.82	6.27	0.000	E>A
18. results orientation	3.74	3.58	4.19	6.28	0.000	E>A	4.73	4.24	4.66	5.15	0.002	E>A
19. mgt skill and expertise	3.59	3.39	3.33	0.85	0.467	n.s	4.92	4.35	4.77	6.70	0.000	E>A
Control orientation												
4. very hierarchical	3.78	3.54	3.59	0.42	0.738	n.s	Control orientation					
5. highly centralised	3.67	3.49	3.43	0.65	0.583	n.s	2.77	3.26	2.70	5.29	0.001	A>E
6. very authoritarian	3.22	3.23	3.25	0.50	0.985	n.s	3.50	2.97	2.81	2.52	0.057	n.s
7. many strict rules	3.30	3.35	3.34	0.36	0.782	n.s	2.12	2.69	2.41	2.51	0.058	n.s
							3.00	3.15	3.03	0.72	0.543	n.s

*A -AFRICAN As-ASIAN E-EUROPEAN

** Individual item mean score out of 5

APPENDIX E (111)

Scale Item Scoresby Management Position and Comparison of Means

	Mgt Position			organisation currently			Mgt Position			Ideal Organisation		
	J	M	S	F	sig	Scheffe	J	M	S	F	sig	Scheffe
People orientation												
8. very ethical	3.38	3.47	3.65	1.76	0.174	n.s	3.83	3.92	4.27	6.47	0.002	S>JM
12. provides equal opportunity	2.96	2.93	3.42	8.31	8.314	S>MJ	4.08	4.23	4.35	1.80	0.166	n.s
13. motivates employess	2.91	2.97	3.10	1.01	0.365	n.s	4.27	4.34	4.48	1.65	0.194	n.s
14. clear employee policies	3.04	3.22	3.32	1.47	0.230	n.s	4.16	4.25	4.40	2.10	0.123	n.s
16. Ethnic Harmony	3.41	3.22	3.44	1.74	0.176	n.s	4.15	4.17	4.30	0.95	0.389	n.s
20. people oriented	2.86	2.88	3.88	1.65	0.192	n.s	4.17	4.17	4.24	0.27	0.765	n.s
21. consults staff	2.54	2.85	2.99	4.42	0.120	S>J	4.09	4.26	4.15	0.32	0.727	n.s
22. formal rules	3.27	3.23	3.43	1.65	0.193	n.s	4.97	4.16	4.44	1.13	0.324	n.s
26. opinion diversity	2.62	2.75	2.95	2.61	0.750	n.s	3.83	3.84	4.03	1.71	0.181	n.s
Results Orientation												
1. market orientation	3.41	3.49	3.47	0.15	0.859	n.s	4.24	4.26	4.50	3.47	0.032	n.s
3. clear objectives	3.67	3.64	3.57	0.30	0.739	n.s	4.12	4.33	4.55	6.11	0.002	S>J
9. very successful	3.38	3.38	3.36	0.17	0.983	n.s	4.13	4.35	4.51	1.79	0.169	n.s
17. clear customer policies	3.54	3.40	3.42	0.41	0.665	n.s	4.30	4.23	4.33	4.76	0.009	S>J
18. results orientation	3.62	3.64	3.82	1.62	0.199	n.s						
19. mgt skill and expertise	3.27	3.46	3.56	2.05	0.130	n.s	4.39	4.44	4.57	1.73	0.178	n.s
Control orientation												
4. very hierarchical	3.81	3.64	3.37	4.31	0.014	J>S	3.38	3.27	2.87	7.69	0.001	JM>S
5. highly centralised	3.63	3.56	3.38	1.70	0.184	n.s	3.26	3.09	2.68	9.98	0.000	JM>S
6. very authoritarian	3.46	3.26	3.03	3.46	0.032	J>S	2.84	2.75	2.30	10.15	0.000	J>S
7. many strict rules	3.78	3.28	3.14	9.03	0.000	J>SM	3.34	3.14	2.95	4.32	0.014	J>S
J-Junior M-Middle S-Senior	Item mean score out of 5											

J- Junior M-Middle S-Senior ** individual item scores out of 5

APPENDIX F

Part 2: Management Styles
Scales Reliability, (Cronbachs alpha by Nationality, Ethnic origin , management position and Gender)

Scales	Traditional Styles	Democratic styles	Participative styles
	18. Honouring Responsibility towards relatives 21. Achievement based on outside forces 26. Status based rewards 28. Working through the hierarchy at all times 29. keeping a personal distance from subordinates 16. Condoning all business practices if objectives are met 24. Suspicious of employees	11. making sacrifices for the good of the group 14. Regarding the well being of its people as the major objective of the organisation 17. Believing that managers must act ethically 20. Belief in self achievement 19. Complete loyalty to the organisation 23. Decisions based on likely outcome 25. Democratic management style 27. Achievement based rewards	31. Communicating openly 32. Open access to information given 33. High management knowledge and skills
Country			
Cameroon	0.791	0.773	0.505
Nigeria	0.797	0.856	0.791
S. Africa	0.847	0.861	0.971
Zimbabwe	0.831	0.844	0.697
Ethnic Origin			
African (black)	0.777	0.844	0.705
European	0.844	0.878	0.737
Mgt Position			
Junior	0.816	0.848	0.804
Middle	0.738	0.856	0.670
Senior	0.843	0.851	0.407

APPENDIX G

Part 2: Management styles
Intercorrelation of variables by country, ethnic group and position

		<i>participative</i>	<i>Traditional</i>
<hr/>			
Democratic			
Country	Cameroon	.499**	-.166
	Nigeria	.530**	.082
	S.Africa	.453**	-.302*
	Zimbabwe	.443**	-.284**
ethnic grp	European	.378**	-.364**
	African	.509**	-.078
Mgt Postion	Junior	.438**	-.040
	Middle	.522**	-.073
	Senior	.491**	-.246*
Traditional			
Country	Cameroon	-.006	
	Nigeria	-.067	
	S.Africa	-.105	
	Zimbabwe	-.205**	
ethnic grp	European	-.111	
	African	-.094	
Mgt Postion	Junior	.278*	
	Middle	-.137	
	Senior	-.149	
<hr/>			

** correlation significant at the 0.01 level

* correlation significant at the 0.05 level