

**EXPLORING DIFFERENCES BETWEEN ORGANISATIONAL CULTURES
IN A COMPANY UNDERGOING CHANGE.**

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ABSTRACT

Change is a common phenomena in business organisations today. The turbulent environment is exerting a significant influence on organisations to make continuous changes in their internal environment in an attempt to improve performance and achieve competitiveness in the marketplace. The human factors which confront organisations undergoing change have not been thoroughly investigated in Sub-Saharan Africa. The present study aimed at investigating human issues affecting the performance of an organisation located in an African country. Data was collected using semi-structured interviews and focus groups. Twenty interviews were conducted with employees randomly selected from all the levels of the company, namely attendant, operator, supervisory, middle and top management. Five focus groups were carried out with employees from different employee categories. Both sets of data were analysed using grounded theory. The findings showed that there were several problems in the company including insecurity, lack of opportunities for employee development, autocratic management style, lack of participation in decision making, substandard performance, ineffective human resources systems and lack of adaptation to technology. It was suggested that the problems resulted from the clash between organisational cultures in the company. At one level, there was a clash between the local workers' socialist organisational culture and the expatriates' capitalistic organisational culture. At a more deeper level, the clash appeared to be between the local employees' collectivistic socio-cultural values and the expatriates' individualistic value system. These findings have significant implications for managing change in organisations with diverse cultures.

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CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

In contemporary society, change has become an integral part of organisational life. Many scholars agree that the environment in which business organisations operate today is becoming increasingly complex and turbulent (Beckhard & Pritchard, 1992; Friedman & Gyr, 1998; Kotter, 1996; Siegal et al, 1996; Mukherji & Mukherji, 1998 ; Zeffane, 1996). The unstable environment has forced most business organisations to make continuous and sometimes transformational changes to their strategies, structures, systems and the ways in which they do business in an effort to remain competitive in their business activities. Over the years, major corporates have had to undergo internal restructuring, shifting from tall hierarchical forms to flatter, leaner and more flexible organisational structures to allow for rapid response to the changes in the market place (Clarke, 1994). Other companies are moving away from specialised departments to cross-functional teams and project structures (Friedman & Gyr, 1998; Beckhard & Pritchard, 1992). Some writers have suggested that the dynamic environment has made continual change in business organisations a fundamental imperative for survival. As Jack Welch, the former CEO of General Electric philosophically pointed out, “when the rate of change inside an organisation becomes slower than the rate of change outside, the end is in sight” (Vermaak, 2002, p.4).

The inevitability of change in today’s organisations makes its management a critical task. In this regard, the skill to lead effective change is increasingly being perceived as one of the salient managerial competencies for successful organisational performance in the present business environment (Winkler, 2002). The new thinking is that management of change is a continuous process which involves aligning internal organisational systems with the external environment, particularly the marketplace.

However, there is consensus that most organisational change efforts are not very successful (Kotter, 1996; Oxloby, Mcguinas & Moyon, in press; Schein, 1992; Beer & Spector, 1990). Several factors have been advanced to explain the high failure rates of change initiatives and

these include employee resistance to change, inappropriate change strategies and poor implementation of the change process. Whatever the reasons for the failure of change programmes might be, the common challenge in many change efforts is to achieve “profound change”. According to Senge (1999), “profound change” combines inner shifts in peoples’ values, aspirations and behaviour and outer shifts in processes, strategies, practices and systems. In the same vein, Clarke (1994) observes that “to avoid changes which are merely cosmetic or nine-day wonders, managers have to change their organisations extensively and deeply across all aspects of structure, systems, people, style and culture”(p.25). While organisations are able to achieve change in the structure and systems relatively fast, changing peoples’ behaviour and attitudes is exigent. Interestingly, the bottom line in most organisational change efforts is to change peoples’ behaviour so that it becomes, for instance, more customer-oriented or helps to improve efficiency. Perhaps the major challenge is that changing employees’ behaviour and attitudes takes time and sometimes people go through a transition period during which performance and productivity in the organisation may even subside. This situation is commonly underestimated by management partly because of over-expectations and the need to achieve quick results from the change initiative or to respond rapidly to opportunities existing in the external environment.

The present study focused on organisational change in a Sub-Saharan African business organisation. Specifically, it explored the existence of different organisational cultures in a company undergoing change. Following its privatisation, the company had undertaken initiatives to improve performance and efficiency in the organisation. However, top management felt that these efforts had not been very successful because of the differences in organisational cultures between expatriates and local employees in the company.

The thesis is divided into ten chapters and these are described below:

Chapter two focuses on organisational change in Sub-Saharan Africa. Firstly, the chapter provides a critical appraisal of the extant literature on organisational change. Secondly, it discusses the major external factors which are impacting on organisational change both

globally and on the African continent, namely, globalisation, the growing importance of product quality, technology and political and economic reforms.

Chapter 3 examines the various changes that organisations need to undergo in their internal environments in order to effectively respond to the external factors. The chapter particularly focuses on changes in the management of human resources and organisational culture. It looks at the different conceptualisations of organisational culture and the importance of developing a good and adaptive organisational culture in a changing business environment.

Chapter 4 discusses organisational development (OD) as a strategy for managing organisational cultural change. It provides a definition of OD, the values and assumptions which inform its goals and methods and case studies of OD interventions. Kotter's theory of organisational change is discussed.

Chapter 5 examines change in organisations with different organisational cultures. The chapter reviews several studies from Eastern Europe and developing countries which uncovered differences in organisational cultures between western managers and their local counterparts and showed how these differences were impacting on efforts to improve organisational efficiency and effectiveness. The present study was conducted in a company based in an developing country. Like countries of Eastern Europe, the developing country has undergone a major economic and political transformation including privatisation of state assets. The takeover of the company under study brought in new management dominantly composed of expatriates. The process created a space for the existence of diverse organisational cultures namely, a new culture held by the expatriates and a culture espoused by the local employees rooted in the previous state company.

Chapter 6 deals with the methodology of the study. It includes the research approach, the aims of the study, a description of the sample, the data collection techniques and the data analysis process.

Chapter 7 provides the results of the study. It presents the perceptions of different groups of employees towards the conditions in the organisation. These groups are attendants, operators,

supervisors, local managers, expatriates (non-managers) and expatriates (managers).

Chapter 8 discusses the clashes in organisational cultures and the background to the different cultures. In this regard, the chapter examines the influence of economic ideologies and societal culture on the organisational culture. It is argued that the organisational culture pronounced by the expatriates was underpinned by capitalist ideology and individualist values. In the same vein, the chapter maintains that the organisational culture evidenced by local employees was embedded in the socialist ideology and collectivist value system. The chapter also discusses the importance of blending different cultures during change.

Chapter 9 provides recommendations on managing change in organisations with diverse organisational cultures. These recommendations include the need for incremental change, improvement in human resource systems, developing effective communication systems, developing a common vision and management commitment to change,

Chapter 10 provides a summary of the study. It also suggests direction for future research.

CHAPTER 2

ORGANISATIONAL CHANGE IN SUB-SAHARAN AFRICA

A discussion on organisational change in Sub-Saharan Africa is limited by the paucity of literature. In addition, writers have largely discussed organisational change in African countries in terms of reforms in the public sector often coerced by donor agencies such as the International Monetary Fund and the World Bank (Ngouo, 2000; Kamoche, 1997; Adamolekun, 1993; Oluwu, 1999). As a result, very little is known about organisational change in the private sector. Furthermore, the little empirical work available on public organisations cannot be easily generalised to private enterprises because of marked differences in the way the two forms of organisations operate.

However, recent socio-economic and political changes on the continent have led the private sector to receive more attention. Most countries are putting more emphasis on the private sector as the main driving force for economic and social development. Private business plays a significant role in Sub-Saharan Africa in terms of creating employment, generating foreign exchange and revenue for the state in the form of taxes. The importance being attached to the private sector will perhaps be accompanied by more research into organisational behaviour issues including organisational change with the overall objective of improving performance of business organisations.

Writers have suggested that the external environment is significant in the performance of business organisations in the African context (Blunt & Jones, 1992; Kamoche, 2000). Blunt and Jones (1992) define the external environment as “all those external conditions and influences that have an impact or potential impact on an organisational performance and functioning” (p.44). Moorhead and Griffin (1995) have identified several factors which are constantly changing in the external environment and which are exerting pressure on organisations worldwide in general and African organisations in particular. These factors are discussed below.

2.1 Globalisation

The world economy is increasingly becoming integrated through the removal of market barriers particularly in Europe and North America and the deregulation of domestic markets (Srinivas, 1995). Even in the developing countries, business is becoming linked to the new globalised business environment. This development has had far-reaching consequences both for business and economies on the African continent. In the first instance, globalisation has intensified market competition and companies will need to compete both locally and internationally in order to remain successful. Another consequence of globalisation is well illustrated by Srinivas' (1995) analogy, namely that "the world is now a global fishbowl where even the smallest waves reverberate around the world"(p.2). In a practical sense, globalisation has opened up most of the economies in the developing world (Kamoche, 2000) and increased their vulnerability to the effects of major world events. The impact of the September 11 attacks on the world Trade Center on the Zambian mining industry is a case in point. One of the knock-on effects of the slump in airline business after the events in the USA, was a sharp decline in the demand for and price of cobalt. This situation and its financial consequences had immense effects on the cobalt industry in Zambia. It contributed indirectly to the decision by the major shareholder of a cobalt producing company to write off R1.5 billion of shareholders' assets ("Technical troubles hit mining company", 2001).

The Anglo-American decision to withdraw from its investment in Zambia is a classic example of the impact of globalisation on industries in the developing countries. The decision was partly motivated by the continued fall in the price of copper on the world market due to global recession ("Dealing a low blow", 2002). It has been suggested that the withdrawal of Anglo-American will have devastating impact on the economy of the country including the loss of 9700 jobs. It will also significantly affect the future of supporting industries such as information technology, retail businesses and fuel, power and construction industries.

A fundamental question which arises from these examples is the capacity of the organisations and management in this type of context to respond to the turbulent environment proactively and effectively.

2.2 Quality

Both quality and price have become competitive challenges firmly entrenched in today's business firms. The majority of international corporations are increasingly using the quality of their products as a competitive advantage. It has been reported that international corporations such as General Electric and Motorola have implemented stringent quality control measures to minimise defects and achieve exacting quality standards (Vermaak, 2002). Major automobile companies including Ford and Chrysler have used the quality of their product as a platform to market and counteract stiff competition from Japanese companies. The increasing importance being attached to product quality has led to some changes in the way work is organised. The popularity of organisational techniques such as Total Quality Control (TQC) in developing countries (Kaplinsky, 1995) indicates the priority which is increasingly being placed on achieving high quality products.

2.3 Technology

The role of technology in organisations has received considerable attention in literature. Writers observe that technology in organisation is changing rapidly (Mukherji & Mukherji, 1998; Clarke, 1994). In some industries, technological change is an imperative (O'Sullivan, 1994) to strategically gain competitive advantage, improve productivity and performance, improve flexibility of production and improve product and service (Preece cited in Ghani & Jayabalan, 2000). Furthermore, Ghani and Jayabalan (2000) argue that high technology is adopted by companies in developing countries because of the increasing need to reduce manufacturing costs, achieve superior quality, reliable production and to respond to the changing needs of customers.

However, empirical studies have reported minimal benefits accompanying the use of advanced technology in organisations. In relation to developing countries, Ghani and Jayabalan (2000) argue that "although AMT (advanced manufacturing technology) is known for the improvement of product quality, reliable production and reduction of manufacturing costs, Indian manufacturing firms are not anywhere near any far-reaching effects of

manufacturing prosperity” (p.2). These findings are partly attributed to lack of management awareness of the effects of technology on employees. Ghani and Jayalaban (2000) summarised the varied effects that technology has on employees and include deskilling and disempowering of the workers, alienation, stress caused by anxiety and tension. But the critical issue pertains to the new skills that are required to match the job demands presented by new technology. This is particularly true in most African countries where a shortage of skills is pervasive (Hickson & Pugh, 1995) and where the need to change people’s attitudes might be an imperative for the success of high level technology. It is also important to state that technological change in Africa is relatively slow and people often experience problems in adapting to technology which is fundamentally and operationally different to what they have always been using.

2.4 Political and economic reforms

In addition to the factors discussed above, Sub-Saharan Africa has witnessed unprecedented economic and political changes. Most countries have embraced western democratic systems under the demand of multilateral donor agencies. In addition, macro-economic reforms have been implemented in many countries. These reforms have included liberalisation of the economies, a linchpin of the structural adjustment programme (Quelch & Austin, 1993). One major effect of economic liberalisation in Sub-Saharan African is that it has exposed previous monopolistic business enterprises to stiff competition not only locally but also from more experienced multinational corporations (Srinivas, 1995). In Malawi, it was recently reported that a major textile manufacturing company had been operating at 40% capacity level since 1990s due to competition posed by imported textile products and second hand clothes (“Textile company woes” 2002). The increased market competition in Sub-Saharan African countries suggests that business organisations need to continuously undertake changes in the way they manage their activities. The increasing collapse and failure of business enterprises in some African countries has been attributed to the managers’ inability to respond to the current changes in business trends (“Bad managers blamed for corporate failure” 2002).

CHAPTER 3

INTERNAL ENVIRONMENT

The changes occurring in the external environment suggest that organisations need to simultaneously bring changes in the internal environment in order to deal with the new challenges that they face. Blunt and Jones (1992) define internal environment as reflecting “the total capability of the organisation including human and physical resources, the proficiency of different components of the organisation, the competence of individual managers and the organisation’s culture or psychological climate”(p.44). Srinivas (1995) has argued that globalisation demands some fundamental changes in the way business organisations function in developing countries. He observes that African businesses which often operate with “centralised decision making and an autocratic and paternalistic leadership style”(p.8) may not be appropriate for the globalised environment. The need for transformation in internal environments of African organisations has been further indicated by studies which found pervasive poor performance both in public and private enterprise due to bureaucratic inefficiency (Nellis cited in Blunt & Jones, 1992; Tangri, 1999).

There is an increasing recognition that the new business environment demands swift strategic responses, operational flexibility and continuous renewal (Srinivas, 1995). The ability to respond quickly to changes in the environment can be complicated in subsidiaries of multinational companies in Africa because of the specific operational and administrative arrangements that sometimes exist with parent firms. Kiggundu (1989) argues that at times local management may lack the authority and power to make strategic decisions on issues that impinge on business.

Furthermore, it has been argued that the appropriate management of the human resources can be an important competitive advantage in a constantly changing environment (Pfeffer, 1994). One area of the human resource that has been widely investigated in Sub-Saharan Africa is work motivation. As Steers and Porter (1991) observe, motivation is an important issue in any organisation because it is involved in energising or initiating behaviour, directing

that behaviour and sustaining it. Several studies conducted in Africa suggest that work motivation is a problem in both the public and private sector. (Eze, 1985; Blunt & Jones, 1992; Mwapachu, 1978; Montgomery & Kiggundu cited in Blunt & Jones, 1992; Ukaegbu, 2000; Mwachungwa & Schmitt cited in Carr, MacLachlan, Kachedwa & Kanyangale, 1997; Kiggundu, 1989). This situation has largely been attributed to a range of factors including the absence of extrinsic factors particularly for those in lower levels of organisational hierarchy. According to Herzberg (1959), extrinsic motivational factors pertain to the job context and include rewards such as promotion, pay and fringe benefits. In his study of Nigerian firms, Munene (1995) observed that “the familiar scenario in most African countries such as Nigeria or Uganda is the failure of organisations to look after their employees. Salaries provide less than a living wage and other basic necessities such as adequate health facilities are not covered. There is a break in the psychological contract and corruption at all levels” (p.292). The psychological contract encompasses beliefs about the reciprocal obligations that exist in an employment relationship. In an employment relationship, the employer’s obligations include provision of training, career prospects, rewards and job security and the employee’s responsibilities may include loyalty to the organisation, satisfactory performance and compliance with organisational rules (Schalk & Rousseau, 2001). Similarly, in Malawi, a commission set up to investigate the causes of low productivity in the public sector concluded that “there are many people who report late for duties or knock off too early while others though physically present stay idle or are engaged in activities totally unrelated to their official duties thereby reducing productivity” (“Public jobs on the line”, 1995). This behavior was attributed to demotivation due to low salaries and lack of incentives.

Other causes of demotivation have included tribalism, nepotism, poor working conditions (Mwachungwa & Schmitt cited in Carr et al, 1997), lack of training and promotion opportunities (Carr et al, 1997) jealousy from peers and superiors and witchcraft (Carr, MacLachlan, Zimba & Bowa, 1995).

Temu and Due (2000) have pointed out in their study in Tanzania that privatisation of

companies in Sub-Saharan Africa will not directly result in efficiency and effectiveness. They argue that there is a great need for change in managerial behaviour and attitudes to accompany privatised companies particularly in former socialist countries. Similarly, Blunt and Jones (1992) posit that privatised companies will also have to address internal issues which impact on organisational effectiveness such organisational culture and the calibre and commitment of employees.

Several scholars have argued that efforts to bring about change in the internal environment of an organisation need to focus on organisational culture (Kotter & Heskett, 1992; Clarke, 1994; Reynierse, 1994; Clement (1994) observes that “management must work with and through the existing culture to transform the organisation” and adds that “change is best brought about through leading by example and using the organisation’s culture to effect the transformation”(p.33). The role of organisational culture in the change effort perhaps stems from its pervasive influence on almost everything that happens in the organisation. A lot is now known about organisational culture since the concept was developed a few decades ago. The discussion which follows will attempt to examine how organisational culture is conceptualised and the importance of developing adaptive and strong cultures in an organisation.

3.1 Organisational culture

There are many definitions of organisational culture. These definitions range from “a set of shared core values” (Peters & Waterman, 1982); “a set of values and assumptions” (Beckhard & Pritchard, 1992) to “values that are shared by people” (Kotter & Heskett, 1992) and “the way we do things here” (Deal & Kennedy, 1980). Schein (1992) defines culture as a “pattern of basic assumptions that a given group has invented, discovered or developed in learning to cope with its problems of external adaptation and internal integration”(p.3). He conceives organisational culture as having three different levels. The surface level of culture constitutes visible artifacts such as technology, visible and audible behavioral patterns which are easily accessible but difficult to interpret. The next level of culture consists of values which provide

explanation for individuals' behavior. The third level of culture concerns the deep underlying unconscious assumptions which determine the way people think, perceive and feel.

The interest in organisational culture as a concept was generated in the 1980s by popular and academic literature which consistently linked successful organisational performance to organisational culture. Peters and Waterman's (1982) study of American companies found that successful companies were distinguished by organisational cultures with the following characteristics: a bias for action, an emphasis on being close to the customer; autonomy and entrepreneurship; productivity through people; being actively value driven; sticking to the knitting; having a simple form and lean staff. In a nutshell, Peters and Waterman's findings suggest that successful companies pay attention to the needs of stakeholders including employees, have appropriate organisational structures and focus on their core business activity. Kotter and Heskett (1992) conducted a series of studies in different US industries to investigate the relationship between culture and long term economic performance of the organisation. It was found that culture had significant impact on the companies' economic performance. Companies with cultures that paid attention to customers, stakeholders and employees outperformed firms which did not promote such types of cultures.

Deal and Kennedy (1982) suggest that "strong" cultures lead to greater employee commitment. It has further been suggested that strong organisational cultures lead employees to identify more with the mission of the organisation which subsequently makes people perform better in their jobs (Morgan, 1997). In their study, Bale and Asbury (1989) found that super-performing South African companies were, among other factors, distinguished by strong organisational cultures.

Organisational culture has been used to explain the successful performance of organisations in the public sector in developing countries. Gwindle (1997) conducted a study in six developing countries including Bolivia, the Central Republic of Congo, Ghana, Morocco, Tanzania and Sri Lanka. The study attempted to investigate the performance of public sector organisations by focusing on the organisational culture including human resource policies. The

organisations were involved in different activities such as health delivery service, agricultural research and budgeting. Some factors emerged from the study which suggest that organisational culture was a useful concept for explaining the difference between organisations which performed relatively well and those which did not (Gwindle, 1997).

Firstly, all organisations with a good performance record had a well defined mission that was widely accepted by employees. Employees internalised the organisational goals and viewed themselves as critical contributors to the realisation of the goals. The second distinguishing factor was management style in the organisations. In good performing organisations, managers were relatively open and used a non-hierarchical style of interacting with their subordinates, they encouraged a participative approach in decision making and solving problems and consistently rewarded employees for superior performance. Thirdly, organisations that performed well had set and applied performance expectations of the employees. Gwindle (1997) argues that the above factors reinforced each other in a way “that allowed some organisations to develop and inculcate a set of norms for organisational performance and individual and group behavior that consistently affected their ability to perform responsibilities more effectively than others”(p.490)

In the ever changing business environment, it is important for organisations not only to have strong and competitive-oriented cultures but adaptive cultures as well. Kotter and Heskett (1998) elucidate the significance of having an adaptive organisational culture. They point out that “in corporate cultures that promote useful change managers pay close attention to relevant changes in the firm’s context and then initiate incremental changes in strategies and practices to keep the firms and cultures in line with environmental realities” (p.327). They further argue that adaptive cultures place high value on people and processes that help to create successful change.

CHAPTER 4

MANAGING ORGANISATIONAL CHANGE

It has been suggested that organisational development is increasingly being used as a strategy for changing organisational cultures (Smither, Houston & McIntire, 1996). Scholars have advanced different definitions of organisational development. One of the most widely accepted definitions of OD has been provided by French and Bell (1995). They define organisational development as “a top management sponsored effort to improve an organisation’s problem-solving and renewal processes, particularly through a more effective and collaborative management of organisation culture with special emphasis on the culture of formal work teams-with the assistance of a change agent or catalyst and the use of the theory and technology of applied behavioral science including action research” (p.144). This definition suggests that OD is a specific change process with a specific focus on organisational culture.

Organisational development is characterised by the action research model, a systems approach to organisational functioning and a change strategy that primarily focuses on the organisational culture. Perhaps an important distinguishing characteristic of OD is that change is viewed as an ongoing process. French and Bell (1995) argue that the above features make OD a more powerful intervention strategy than other change strategies.

4.1 OD values and assumptions

French and Bell (1995) observe that OD goals and methods are informed by a set of values and assumptions. Rooted in the human relations school of thought and humanistic psychology, organisational development is heavily influenced by humanistic values which place emphasis on individuals and their intrinsic need for growth and development. OD also attempts to promote democratic values in the workplace by asserting the rights of employees to fair and equitable treatment (French & Bell, 1995). An elaborative discussion of OD values and the goals that OD interventions seek to achieve is provided by Golembiewski (cited in Srinivas, 1993). He observes that OD emphasises and values openness, trust and collaborative effort;

places considerable importance on the individual's involvement and participation in decision making; puts emphasis on interaction as creating norms for individual and group interaction and takes into account employees' feelings and emotions. Based on some of these values, OD makes some assumptions about how employees should be managed in the workplace. Firstly, organisations need to encourage personal growth and development of employees by providing environments which are supportive and challenging. It is suggested that such organisations tend to perform well and have a capacity for self-renewal in a changing environment .

Secondly, organisations need to develop and promote a culture of openness in communication and cooperation among employees at all levels.

Organisational development has been widely applied particularly in western corporate settings. Some case studies of OD interventions are discussed below. The two studies portray respectively a successful and unsuccessful OD intervention.

4.2 OD case studies

British Airways

The most cited account of a successful OD intervention is the British Airways cultural change program. Grugulis and Wilkinson (2002) report that by the mid 1980s British Airways was performing poorly against most of its competitors. Productivity had reached very low levels and the company was posting substantial financial losses. However, in the early 1990s British Airways experienced a dramatic turnaround and it became the world's most profitable carrier. By 2000, a survey (Grugulis & Wilkinson, 2002) found that British Airways was the second most admired company in Europe. Most scholars attribute the success of British Airways to interventions which changed its culture to become more customer focused, sensitive to cost, productivity and profits (Kotter & Heskett, 1992; Grugulis & Wilkinson, 2002; Clarke, 1994). There is consensus that it was interventions such as "Putting People First" and "Managing People First" which revolutionised the attitudes and modified the behavior of employees. Grugulis and Wilkinson (2002) point out that "employees were encouraged to take a more positive attitude to themselves, taught how to set personal goals and cope with stress"(p.11).

The cultural transformation at British Airways brings to the fore some aspects that have been identified in literature as the key to successful organisational improvement. Firstly, top management was committed to change and set out the vision to be achieved. Grugulis and Wilkinson (2002) write that the CEO of British Airways attended all the “Putting People First” sessions and engaged in question and answer session with employees. Secondly, systems thinking was applied in implementing the change initiative. The company introduced changes in other areas such as HR policies and practices to fit the “new culture”. Team working and multi-skilling were introduced and promoted through further changes in the appraisal and reward systems. Direct communication with all employees was encouraged through daily TV broadcasts.

The greatest challenge in OD interventions is to bring change in employees’ behaviour which will subsequently impact on their performance and translate into organisational success. The study discussed below suggests that improper implementation of the change process may lead in some situations to “resigned compliance” rather than genuine change in employees’ behaviour.

Westco study

Ogbonna and Lloyd (1998) conducted an extensive study in a large food retailing organisation in the United Kingdom. The company was undergoing a large scale change in its organisational culture in order to address environmental forces, competition and to respond rapidly to the changing customers’ expectations and needs. Sixty six semi-structured interviews were conducted with employees drawn from all the levels of the company’s hierarchy with the aim of examining the employees’ perceptions of the rationale for the change initiative and the consequences of this change. The study found that major changes occurred in organisational systems, structure and strategy. The reward system in the organisation changed from putting emphasis on long term company loyalty to an emphasis on customer service. In addition, the training system shifted in focus from an emphasis on self-promotion of the company to detailed information of the required standards of customer

service. This shift in focus involved developing new values to guide employees' behaviour. Ogbonna and Lloyd (1998) argue that although some changes appeared in the employees' behavior and values, these changes illustrated "resigned behavioral compliances" rather than a genuine commitment to change. Behavioral compliance was evident across all the levels of the company's hierarchy. Some employees responded to the change initiative by rejecting the new values. This response was precipitated by the effects which accompanied the change such as redundancies, relocations and demotions and high level of stress. In some cases employees "adapted" the new values rather than change them completely.

Another significant finding of the study was the difference in perception of the rationale for change. Employees at different levels in the company provided different reasons for the change effort which did not correspond to those espoused by management. Ogbonna and Lloyd (1998) concluded that the gap between management's espoused rationale for change and that perceived by employees highlighted the importance of building trust between top management and employees.

Ogbonna and Lloyd's (1998) findings highlight what most OD writers have said, that if employees are to "buy-in", they need to understand the change process and why change is necessary even before the intervention begins. Kotter (1996) argues that "people will not make sacrifices even if they are unhappy with the status quo unless they think the potential benefits of change are attractive and unless they believe that transformation is possible" (p.9). The fact that employees in the study gave different reasons for change, provides enough evidence to suggest that the imperatives for the change initiative were not adequately communicated across the levels of the company. Hence, employees did not feel compelled to change their behaviour. Clarke (1994) suggests that since change is painful, managers need "to work on peoples' perception of change so that they see more of the positives and fewer of the negatives" (p.76) and to allow them see a bigger picture that the change intends to accomplish.

4.3 Organisational change theory

The findings of the two studies discussed above support the importance of organisational

change theories in guiding the implementation of an intervention. The theories are significant in that they address issues which facilitate successful change in the organisations' cultural and human systems. Several organisational change models exist and they fall into different categories (Armenakis & Bederan, 1999). Process theories as the name suggests, focus on the process of change itself as opposed to models which deal with the strategic planning of change (Siegal et al, 1996). One of the prominent process theories of organisational change has been developed by Kotter (1996). This theory is significant because it aims at bringing profound change (Senge, 1999) in the organisation.

Kotter's eight stage model

Kotter's (1996) theory encompasses eight stages. The first four stages are meant to "defrost" the current behavior and habits and the last four stages focus on introducing new practices and incorporating them into the new corporate culture.

Establishing a sense of urgency. This is an important stage for gaining cooperation, initiative and willingness from the employees. The major obstacle to establishing a sense of urgency is complacency which is caused by past success, lack of a visible crisis either internal or external, human nature and low level performance standards. High levels of complacency in an organisation result in maintaining the status quo because most people, including top management, lack interest in dealing with the change problem. Kotter (1996) observes that in situations where a major transformation is needed, a crisis might be introduced to raise the urgency levels.

Creating the guiding coalition. The second phase involves putting together a task group with enough authority, power and expertise to lead the change effort and ensuring that the group functions as a team. The task force provides an opportunity for participation of employees at all levels in the change programme and enhances the chances of buy-in by organisational members. The success of the group operating as a team depends on trust among its members and the desire to achieve a common goal. The latter is particularly important because it is not uncommon for members to concentrate on their personal agendas and predicaments in the

organisation which significantly compromises the role of the group in leading other employees in the transformation process. Therefore, Kotter (1996) argues that both management and leadership skills are crucial, the former keeps the entire process under control and the latter drives the change effort.

Developing a vision and strategy. According to Kotter (1996), a vision is a “picture of the future with some implicit or explicit commentary on why people should strive to create the future” (p.68). During change, an effective vision plays three important functions. Firstly, it gives the general direction for change and what the company intends to accomplish through the implementation of the change programme. Secondly, it motivates the employees to action in the espoused direction. Change often brings discomfort and creates reluctance in employees because of the need to learn new skills and behaviours and the pressure for improved performance in jobs. This situation makes employees less enthusiastic about change however a vision directs employees to focus on the benefits and personal satisfaction that will be achieved as a result of the change initiative. Thirdly, a vision coordinates the actions of employees in the organisation. The common direction harnesses the efforts of the employees and different departments in the organisation. One criterion of an effective vision is that it is based on a clear understanding and assessment of the purpose of the organisation and other factors such as environmental influences and competitive trends. It is this understanding which provides the basis for developing a strategy to achieve the vision.

Communicating the vision. The vision can have impact on the success of change if the majority of employees have a common understanding of its goals and direction. Communication is a key factor which determines whether employees buy-in to the vision or not. Kotter (1996) emphasises the importance of “walking the talk” by top management who strongly influences employees’ response to the new vision.

Empowering employees for broad based action. Employees may successfully buy-in to the vision but could feel disempowered to act on the vision because of different barriers. Some of the barriers include organisational structures and systems. These need to change to promote

the values and behaviours intended to achieve the vision. Kotter (1996) points out that empowerment of employees entails acquisition of new skills, behaviours and attitudes by employees. However, it is common for organisations to underestimate the time required for employees to change their habits and often training is inadequate. Even where training is provided, sometimes there is little follow up to assess its effectiveness and to help the employees with problems they face while performing their jobs.

Generating short-term wins. Major change initiatives take time to accomplish and produce results. It is therefore important to identify short-term results or milestones to maintain the employees' motivation in the transformation. Furthermore, the short-term wins contribute to the change process by providing relevant feedback to the change agents. It also helps to undermine resistance and to fine tune the vision and the strategies. To sustain interest in the change effort, the short-term wins need to be visible, unambiguous and clearly related to the change effort.

Consolidating gains and producing more changes. It is important to acknowledge the success achieved so far in the organisation and build on these successes to embark on more change programmes. The credibility brought by short-term success enables the other employees to buy-in to the change and assist with its implementation.

Anchoring new approaches in the culture. In order to sustain the transformation process, the new behaviours and practices must be incorporated into the organisational culture. This phase is critical because processes and systems need to change to be compatible with the new work practices, otherwise the old culture will resurface and undermine the gains achieved. As Goodstein and Burke (2000) observe, it is easy for employees to slip back to the familiar and comfortable ways of doing their work because new responses may appear awkward. Employees may revert to old patterns of behaviour because of other factors. Sometimes change involves some loss of power, prestige and security and may destabilise established organisational structure and relationships among employees. These consequences can negatively impact on the sustainability of change if efforts are not undertaken to address them

In addition, it has been suggested that an individual's behaviour at work is shaped by the complex environment in which the job is carried out. Porras and Silver (1991) maintain that employees behave directly in response to the signals emanating from their work settings and indirectly from an organisational vision. This observation implies that the two factors from the internal environment and which impact on employees' behaviour need to change if a long-lasting change effort will have to be achieved.

Lack of trust between management and workers has been found to be a critical factor in less successful change programmes. In their study in Tanzania, Kanawaty and Thorsrud (1981) found that the failure of an OD effort in a manufacturing industry was mainly due to mistrust by workers of management. This led to loss of interest by the workers in the change despite the initial enthusiasm. In the African context, gaining trust can sometimes be problematic if management and workers belong to different racial groups and workers feel that their needs are not given adequate attention. This situation could create apathy towards the change process resulting in the organisation sliding back to its old ways of doing things.



CHAPTER 5

CHANGE IN ORGANISATIONS WITH DIVERSE CULTURES

The values that people hold and the subsequent organisational cultures which develop from such values are partly influenced by the wider economic ideology of a society. Ralston, Holt, Terpstra & Kai-Cheng (1997) define economic ideology as “workplace philosophy that pervades the business environment of a country”(p.179). They differentiate between two major economic ideologies namely, capitalism and socialism.

There are different definitions of capitalism. Bowles and Edwards (1993) define capitalism as “an economic system in which commodities are produced for a profit using privately owned capital goods and wage labor” (p.95). Ralston et al (1997) describe capitalism as a self serving economic system “where everyone looks out primarily for his or her own self interest”(p.180).

According to Saunders (1995), the capitalist system is distinguished by certain key features. Firstly, capitalism promotes private ownership of property including business enterprises and resources which are used to produce goods and services. Secondly and more importantly, economic activities in a capitalist system are organised for the pursuit of profits. Saunders (1995) adds that “the pursuit of profit means that capitalist enterprises are forever looking for new markets to develop new products and to exploit new technologies which reduce the costs of production” (p.10).

Socialist ideology is diametrically opposed to capitalism. The fundamental principle in socialist societies is that industries and resources are publicly or collectively owned for the common good and not necessarily for profit (Pigou, 1939). Socialist ideals promote equal distribution of resources in society. There is often little attention paid to individual effort in the redistribution of rewards or profits gained from their creation (Holt, Ralston & Terpstra, 1994).

The above economic ideologies and the values which they espouse are manifested in the management practice of organisations. For instance, Miller (cited in Ralston et al, 1997)

reported that in socialist China, individuals are guaranteed jobs and may not be dismissed for poor performance.

Apart from economic ideologies, organisational cultures and values are also influenced by societal cultural norms. In his study of the IBM corporation conducted in fifty three countries, Hofstede (1982) found that many differences in organisational cultures were due to differences in societal cultures including individualism and collectivism. Since this seminal study, several investigations have been conducted on the impact of individualism and collectivism on managerial practices and behaviour. Recently, a study investigated the impact of the socio-cultural environment on human resource practices and organisational culture in business organisations based in 10 countries (Aycaan et al., 2000). The findings showed that there were significant differences in organisational cultures and human resource practices such as job enrichment, employee empowerment and the reward system among managers operating in different socio-cultural environments. These studies provide strong evidence to suggest that societal culture is an important factor in understanding the management of organisations in general and employees' organisational cultures in particular.

However, other studies have failed to establish differences in societal values among managers from different racial groupings. Thomas and Bendixen (2000) conducted a survey with 586 male and female South African middle managers drawn from different racial groups, namely white, Asian, coloured and black. The black sub-sample was composed of Sotho, Zulu and Xhosa ethnic groups. They administered a questionnaire measuring cultural values based on the Hofstede (1982) study. The values included power distance, individualism, masculinity, uncertainty avoidance and long-term orientation. The study found that there were no significant differences among the groups in their scores on individualistic values. More importantly, the scores of the managers, including blacks, were comparatively similar to those obtained by Hofstede (1982) for managers from the United States and England. Thomas and Bendixen (2000) concluded that management and organisational culture is not affected by cultural values, at least in the South African context.

Individualistic cultures are commonly identified with western societies of Europe and North America and collectivism typifies non-western societies such as those found in Africa, Latin America and Asia (Hofstede, 1982). Individualist and collectivist values relate to ones' conceptualisation of self. Markus and Kitayama (cited in Matsumoto, 1999) posit that people in individualistic societies have an independent self-construct. They describe an independent self-construct as the individual's view of himself or herself as an autonomous, bounded and unitary agent. In contrast, Markus & Kitayama (cited in Matsumoto, 1999) say that people in collectivistic cultures have an interdependent self-construct which is based on the fundamental principle of the connectdness of human beings. In addition, individualistic cultures celebrate pursuance of self reliance, self-interest and individual achievement (Hampeden-Turner & Trompenaars, 2000).

In Africa, it has been suggested that collectivism embodies the ubuntu philosophy. Mbigi and Maree (1995) say that the ubuntu philosophy stresses supportiveness, sharing, cooperation and harmony among group members. The ubuntu philosophy is based on core values of group solidarity and the interdependence of its members. These values are exemplified by an African expression that "a person is a person through other human beings"(McFarlin & Coster, 1999). This connectedness has considerable implications on the way individuals relate to each other and how achievement is perceived. Individual achievement is perceived in terms of its contribution to the harmony of the group and not accomplished at the expense of the other group members (McFarlin & Coster, 1999). In Malawi, Bowa and MacLachlan (1994) identified several commonly heard expressions such as "Akufuna akhale ndani!"(what does he/she want to be?) and "Akudziyesa kuti ndi ndani"(who does he/she think he/she is?). They argued that these phrases indicated social disapproval of the individual who places himself or herself above his or her fellow human beings through self-promotion for instance in business or at the workplace. Individual success has also been found to arouse envy and resentment in the collectivistic societies of Southeast Asia, South Pacific and Russia (Carr & MacLachlan, 1996; Eleknov, 1998).

The tension between social achievement on one hand and the unbridled individualistic achievement which characterises organisational life on the other, is played out sometimes in the form of ambivalent behaviour observed among black managers in Southern Africa. In an empirical study conducted with a group of current and future managers in Malawi, Carr, MacLachlan, Zimba & Bowa (1995) found that participants unanimously reported being competitive in their workplace but they were wary of the social costs such individual achievement would attract from coworkers and superiors. Based on experience with such organisational contexts, the social costs can be far reaching. Bowa and MacLachlan (1994) observed that workers may seek traditional protective spells before accepting a deserved promotion or may turn down the promotion altogether for fear of its social consequences. Similar findings have been reported in East Africa (Blunt, 1983). In a survey of 102 in-patients at Malawi's major psychiatric institution, about one third of the in-patients explained their illness in terms of traditional factors such as being bewitched at their workplaces (MacLachlan, Nyirenda & Nyando, 1995).

Apart from differences in achievement values, it appears that the concept of leadership is understood differently in the largely collectivistic African context than in western settings. In the west, the notion of transformational leadership has become popular in the corporate world. Transformational leadership is seen as the linchpin for successful organisational development initiatives (Kotter, 1990). It has been suggested that transformational leadership relies on four sets of behaviour to achieve superior results, namely, idealised influence, inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation and individualised consideration (Boss & Aolio, 1994). In short, transformational leaders are role models of their followers, they inspire and motivate employees, they stimulate innovativeness and creativity and pay significant attention to individual's needs for growth and achievement. However, Blunt and Jones (1997) argue that western notions of leadership may not be consistent with the meaning of leadership in Africa, which is largely informed by societal norms. They maintain that the African worker might prefer a leader who is "kind, considerate and understanding to the one who is too dynamic, productive and probably too demanding" (p.16). In another study, Jones, Blunt and Sharma

(cited in Blunt & Jones, 1997) found that public sector managers in Botswana perceived an effective leader as one who provided clear direction and targets concomitant with a supportive and parental management style.

Ralston et al (1997) argue that individualistic or collectivistic influences may reinforce each other in society or organisational settings. They observe that in countries such as the US both the national culture and the economic ideology encourage individualistic values whereas in China they both reinforce collectivistic values. However, there could be conflict between societal culture and economic ideology if they support different value systems. This situation probably exist in the African context.

Studies done in Central and East European provide some evidence to suggest that differences in organisational cultures between groups could impede organisational transformation efforts. Randall (1998) found that the disparate mindsets between Russian managers and their western counterparts were frustrating efforts to forge a successful partnership and to transform former Soviet Union defense companies into commercial entities. The study found that Russian managers' strategic decisions and actions were "still heavily influenced by the deeply embedded cultural values-germane to the Soviet era"(p.2). In most of the companies which were studied, decisions were made with respect to technological development in contrast to what would be expected in a more market-oriented strategic plan. In other words, Russian managers paid little consideration to market factors in their investment decision making. In terms of labour, the Russian managers had divergent views from the American managers' attitude of "lean and mean" which was intended to improve the competitiveness of the price of the products by laying off some workers. In addition, the Russian managers were more production oriented rather than market oriented. Randall (1998) observes that "Russian managers in the study considered the achievement of goals such as retaining excessive capital and equipment paramount. Some of the companies were willing to manufacture any product but the decision to do so was not based on costs, consumer need or competitive advantage"(p.5)

Other studies have been conducted with workers and have found evidence of mindsets still rooted in the socialist ideological values despite the transition to a market economy. Young (2000) examined organisational cultures of top performing companies in Russia. Thirteen companies from different industries such as telecommunications, advertising, food packaging and an airline were randomly selected. The study found that two different workforces existed in Russia, which had different organisational cultures and expectations about the companies. One group consisted of those who had spent a large part of their working life in the Soviet system Young (2000) observes that the older workers “having been moulded in the Soviet era see their job as simply a part of the daily routine. They have little concept of market forces and often do not possess many of the skills necessary today nor do they understand the make up of a modern economy. They are used to producing according to preset quotas and thus cannot see the *raison d’etre* of a sales and marketing department”(p13).

The other group was comprised of young employees who entered the workforce after the political and economic reforms were introduced. As Young (2000) puts it “the young Russians are energetic and excited about their future and eager to learn. They are discovering how to survive in a market economy, moving at a tremendous speed”(p.3). This group was motivated by the new reward system of profit sharing and growth opportunities. Young (2000) posits that unifying the two different organisational cultures in Russian companies is critical for the companies to achieve superior performance.

Kiriazov (2000) also found resistance to a performance-based pay system among the older workers in East European countries of Bulgaria, the Czech Republic, Poland, Romania, Russia, Latvia, Estonia and Hungary. These workers were accustomed to the socialist culture that supported guaranteed wages and bonuses regardless of productivity. In these countries, workers also emphasised job security and preferred highly structured jobs. In Russia, Kiriazov (2000) found that the Soviet work ethic of doing as little as possible and employees expecting to be paid for showing up to work pervaded most business enterprises.

Some studies conducted in developing countries have also uncovered evidence of clash of

organisational cultures. Bourgeois & Boltvinik (1981) carried out a study to assess the applicability of western management techniques including OD in third world countries. They concluded that there was an inherent conflict between western capitalist organisational cultures and the employees' socio-cultural values. In Africa, Kanawaty and Thursrud (1981) conducted a study in four Tanzanian companies which were undergoing change in order to improve productivity. The companies were selected from different industries such as banking, freight and manufacturing. The study found that in some companies, change was significantly impeded by the clash of organisational cultures between the expatriate management and local employees. Kanawaty and Thursrud (1981) point out that conflicts emerged over management style and human resource systems. In the banking sector, the study found that change was undermined by the socialist organisational culture which among other things encouraged bureaucratic practices.

The conflict in organisational cultures between different groups (different races) in an organisation has not been systematically investigated in the African context. The present study is intended to fill the gap in literature by exploring the existence of different organisational cultures and ascertain how these cultures clashed in a company based in a developing country.

The main research question which the present study aims to address is to find out if differences in organisational cultures exist in company "C" and to discover areas where the differences are manifested. The ensuing discussion is the methodology which was utilised in the study.

CHAPTER 6

METHODOLOGY

6.1 Research Approach

The study was conducted within the qualitative research paradigm. The motivation to use the qualitative method was based on the objective of the study of establishing differences in organisational cultures through exploring participants' perceptions towards different issues in the company. Strauss and Corbin (1998) define qualitative research as "any type of research that produces findings not arrived at by statistical procedures or other means of quantification"(p.11).

Despite its different strands in terms of epistemological premise, qualitative research is characterised by a set of common features. Perhaps a fundamental distinction of qualitative research is its expressed commitment to participants' interpretation of events, actions and behaviour (Bryman, 1992). The strong preference to understand data from the perspective of the people being studied enables researchers to tap into the meanings that participants derive from their experiences. By paying attention to diverse forms of meanings, expressions and exceptional cases, qualitative research provides an opportunity to "gain a more complete understanding of the phenomena under study" (Willig, 2001, p.150).

Qualitative research also emphasises a contextual understanding of social phenomena(i.e. events and behaviour). Preference for context denotes that "meanings that people ascribe to their own and other's behaviour have to be set in the context of the values, practices and underlying structures of the appropriate entity" (Bryman, 1992, p.62). By taking into account the wider social and historical context of the phenomena under investigation, qualitative research does not only achieve a holistic understanding of the peoples behaviour and action, but also provides insight into and understanding of the underlying factors for such behaviour. Additionally, qualitative research places emphasis on understanding the process that gives rise to participant's experiences and meanings. Bryman (1992) argues that the interest in process emanates from qualitative research's concern to "reflect the reality of everyday life which

takes the form of streams on interconnecting events” (p.65). It is through these experiences, events and interactions that people formulate their social reality and meanings.

It is important to state that the tenants of qualitative research outlined above are not exhaustive and that there may be variations between different types of qualitative research in terms of emphasis.

6.2 Aims of the study

The study aimed at exploring differences in organisational culture between groups in company “C” and to uncover the dimensions along which the differences were manifested.

6.3 Sample

The sample consisted of a total of 32 employees selected from all the five levels of the organisation, namely attendants, operators, supervisors, senior staff (local managers) and the expatriate levels. Twenty participants were randomly selected using a stratified random technique. A list of all employees including their positions in the company was obtained from the human resources manager. Names from each employee category were drawn randomly. A convenience sample of 12 participants was also selected. This situation arose because some of the employees who were originally selected for the focus groups were not available for different reasons and in some cases it was difficult to find replacements. Some of the workers were not informed by the human resource department of their selection to participate in the study. Other employees could not be released by their supervisors. Majority of the expatriates who were originally selected were either no longer working for the company or were out of the country. This situation may have affected the representativeness of the expatriates’ sample. Below is a description of each of the employee categories.

Attendants (unskilled workers)

A total of seven attendants were selected for the study. Most of the attendants had either completed junior certificate or Grade 12 (“O” level) and had worked for the company over a period of 10 years. Almost all the employees from this group worked for the former state company.

Operators, Artisans and Technologists

Seven operators, artisans and technologists participated in the study. The majority from this group were university graduates. Others were qualified technologists. Work experience in the group ranged from one year to twenty years.

Supervisors and Foremen

Eight supervisors and foremen were included in the sample. The average qualification in this group was Grade 12. Some of the participants were qualified, artisans and technologists. The majority of the participants in this group joined the company when it was being run by the state and work experience varied from 8 years to 24 years.

Senior staff (local managers)

Five local managers were chosen to take part in the study. The local managers had university degrees in different fields. Three managers had worked for the company for over 10 years. The other two managers had been with the company for less than five years.

Expatriates

A total of five expatriates participated in the study. Two of the expatriates were in managerial positions in the company (Chief Operating Officer and Sectional Engineer). The other three were line supervisors and artisans (Technical Coaches).

6.4 Data collection

The study used two data collection techniques. Firstly, semi-structured interviews were conducted with a sample of 20 employees drawn from the five levels of the organisation. The interviews lasted about one hour and were intended to elicit employees' understanding and perception towards a range of organisational issues (see Appendix 1). Some of the major themes which were explored during the interviews included the goals of the organisations, employees roles, the experience of working for the company, interpersonal relationships, management style and problems existing in the company. All the interviews were conducted at the company's premises, in the human resources department. All but one manager was interviewed in his own office. Before each interview the purpose of the study was explained to

the participant. Participants were requested to sign a consent form (see Appendix 2) which among other things guaranteed the participant's confidentiality and anonymity and confirmed that participation in the study was voluntary. All the interviews were tape-recorded with the permission of the participants.

Secondly, five focus group discussions were conducted with a total of 29 participants. The purpose of the focus groups was to explore in more depth several issues which emerged from interviews. Each employee category had a separate focus group. The majority of the employees who participated in the interviews were included in the focus groups. Originally, it was envisaged that each focus group would have eight participants. However, apart from the supervisor's focus group, the rest of the groups had less than eight participants for a variety of reasons.

The focus group discussion involved giving feedback to the participants on some of the significant issues which came out of the interviews and asking them to make comments on the findings. From these discussions more issues emerged which were summarised and fed back to subsequent groups. This iterative process of data collection provided an opportunity for not only gaining a richer understanding of the issues but also to delineate differences in perceptions among the groups.

6.5 Data analysis

Both the interview and focus group data was analysed using grounded theory. Grounded theory was originally developed by Glaser and Strauss(1967) as a method for developing theories which were "grounded" in the data as opposed to predetermined formulations and constructs. The method is increasingly being used in psychological research (Pidgeon & Henwood, 1995) Strauss and Corbin(1998) have provided a detailed procedure for conducting grounded theory which was utilised in the present study.

The first step involved immersing in the data to familiarise with it. Secondly, different indicators were identified from the data and these indicators were later given conceptual labels known as codes (see Appendix 3). Indicators can be defined as facts, behavioral acts or events

contained in the data. Through the process of constant comparison of the data, which involved examining similarities, differences and consistency of meaning, the indicators were refined so that they fitted with the code label. The interpretation was derived by imposing organisational development (OD) theoretical constructs on the data. This process was followed by two activities, namely, developing a table showing various problems which existed in company “C” and the construction of integrated diagrams of the different organisational cultures depicting the relationships among the categories.

CHAPTER 7

RESULTS

The findings of the study represent the perceptions of different groups towards a variety of organisational issues. The perceptions of all the groups are summarised in Table 1 (see page 35). The ensuing discussion is an interpretative account of the results from each group of employees.

7.1 Attendants (unskilled workers)

Several issues emerged from this group, which can be categorised under four main themes:

7.1.1 Insecurity

There was a pervasive feeling of insecurity among the attendants and the unskilled workers in the company. Factors which indicated this feeling of insecurity included the following:

Frequent transfers

It was perceived by the attendants that they were frequently transferred from one job to another without any reason for such action. One participant in the focus group said:

“You find that every time they are changing people from one place to another. Tomorrow you find yourself somewhere again. After two months, three months, they change you from one place to another”.

Perceived lack of a grading system

A perceived lack of a grading system was exacerbated by the tendency to move the attendants between the different positions without subsequent increases in pay and perks. This apparent inconsistency appeared to be commonplace in the company. One of the workers made the following remark:

“they are not putting too much emphasis on grades. I think emphasis on grades is not there. One doesn't really know when joining, you wouldn't really know at what grade you are joining”

Table 1. Perceptions of different categories of employees in company “C”

Attendants	Operators	Supervisors	Local managers	Expatriates(non-managers)	Expatriates(managers)
Insecurity <ul style="list-style-type: none"> perceived transfers perceived lack of a grading system job security nepotism 	Insecurity <ul style="list-style-type: none"> perceived lack of a grading system perceived lack of job description 	Insecurity <ul style="list-style-type: none"> lack of positive reinforcement ineffective communication 		Insecurity and ineffective HR systems <ul style="list-style-type: none"> reward system training approach 	
Perceived lack of Opportunities <ul style="list-style-type: none"> lack of promotion lack of training 	Perceived lack of opportunities <ul style="list-style-type: none"> narrow job description overqualification 	Perceived lack of involvement in decision making	Perceived lack of participation in management		
Autocratic management style <ul style="list-style-type: none"> negative stereotyping discrimination 	Autocratic management style <ul style="list-style-type: none"> lack of participation in decision making racial stereotyping 	Autocratic management style <ul style="list-style-type: none"> lack of action to address employees' concerns racial stereotyping cultural insensitivity 	Racial discrimination <ul style="list-style-type: none"> pay structure differentials team work problems 		
			Substandard performance of expatriates <ul style="list-style-type: none"> lack of improvement in equipment maintenance 	Substandard performance of local employees <ul style="list-style-type: none"> lack of commitment inefficiency 	Substandard performance of local employees <ul style="list-style-type: none"> lack of adaptation to new technology unsatisfactory work ethics
				Ineffective management style <ul style="list-style-type: none"> lack of communication 	

Another participant said that:

“I don’t know whether I can call it a promotion they may change your grade from G5 to G4 but that won’t affect automatically your salary as well. You remain on the same scale but they have changed your grade. It should go together with your salary.”

Job security

The majority of the attendants perceived that there was little job security in the company. This view was evidenced by the groups’ heightened concern that sometimes workers were dismissed from their jobs based on trivial reasons or without following proper procedures. In one interview, a participant said:

“There is no job security. Previously we had procedures, we had recorded warning then final warning but this time no. This time you lose your job.”

The concern with job security was further highlighted in the focus group when the workers indicated that they were reluctant to discuss their problems with the supervisors for fear of losing their jobs in possible future retrenchment.

Perceived nepotism

The majority of the attendants said that there was widespread favouritism in the company based on family ties, tribalism, regionalism and religious affiliation and it was evident in the way workers were treated by the supervisors.

7.1.2 Perceived lack of opportunities

There was a perceived lack of opportunities in the company pertaining to training and job promotion. The lack of training mainly referred to the acquisition of computer skills which the attendants perceived as necessary because of the installation of the automated technology in the company. One member in the group said:

“if we come to this issue where there is the use of computers they are not free for everyone. They are only for operators and assistant general foremen. And there was this seminar where the chance was only given to the operators and assistant general foremen. So we don’t know anything about computers”

The lack of promotion opportunities was indicated by the general concern in the group that many people had maintained the same grade for many years. The participants in the group identified the obstacle to the advancement in their jobs as being jealousy by their superiors because some attendants possessed better educational qualification than them.

7.1.3 Autocratic management style

The group perceived the management style of their superiors as unapproachable and generally unable to provide them with direction in carrying out their work and addressing their problems. Most of the attendants also said that expatriates tended to stereotype them negatively in terms of their work abilities.

7.1.4 Perceived pay structure and working environment

The attendants showed a positive attitude towards the new pay structure which had been introduced and the safety conditions in the company.

7.2 Operators, artisans and technologists

Three key issues emerged from the interviews and focus group of this level of employees.

7.2.1 Insecurity

The insecurity was indicated by the participants' perceived lack of a grading system and clear cut job descriptions. The absence of a grading system was highlighted by the participants' reference to the company's salary structure which they said failed to take into the account employee's level of education qualification. This sentiment was captured in the following statement by one of the participants:

“ On the salary I can say we are not considered as people who have been to school though they have our certificates. Probably they fear that if they grade us they will give us higher salary”.

The feeling of insecurity among the operators was exacerbated by the communication system which was perceived to be ineffective. It was felt that top management was not communicating enough on salient issues to the lower level employees. Phrases such as “communication is not thorough” “communication is a problem” communication is not adequate” were commonly heard in the focus group.

7.2.2 Perceived lack of opportunities for personal development

The floor operators perceived a lack of career development and personal growth in their jobs.

Narrow job description

This perception was contained in some of the operator's personal experiences in their workplaces. A certain floor operator explained his experience in this way:

“Even there are times you would want to go into the control room, they would ask what do you want an indication that say what you want and go back because you have nothing to do in this room. But we need to know how you harmonise operations and the control room and those of the plant. We are not exposed. I remember one time I sat on the chair with my supervisor. I was trying to familiarise myself with the operation of the computer. My boss, in-charge of the plant he shouted at the guy. This man should be down there. He is a floor operator”

In addition, the operators pointed out the absence of a mentoring system through which they could develop their skills and become acquainted particularly with the automation aspect of the new technology. In one of the interviews, a participant made the following observation:

“they don't want to expose any one of us. What chances are there that I might rise one time? Because I am not getting exposed and if there is a problem and they want somebody to help there it won't be sudden and do it perfectly. You won't. You need to be exposed”

Overqualification

The majority of the employees in the group felt over-qualified for the positions they occupied. This perception was evidenced by the employees tendency to degrade the jobs that they performed in the company. One of the operators who had a university degree said:

“ all I see is can you connect a hose there, you pull that hose take it there, can you hose around. If anything the emphasis is on housekeeping”

7.2.3 Autocratic management style

The management style was generally perceived by the group to be autocratic. This view was

denoted by participants' assertion that they did not participate in the everyday decision making and had little input in the planning of their work. As one participant put it " if anything my boss emphasise that you have been employed to work under instruction. You do nothing until I tell you. You don't touch anything until I tell you to do so".

The autocratic management style was perceived as one of the factors which undermined the effective transfer of knowledge and behaviours acquired from training sessions to the actual workplace. One participant made the following comment with regard to teamwork in his section:

"Yes they hold seminars here about teamwork but in practice it is lacking".

This view was confirmed by an impromptu examination of the training materials such as flip charts which revealed that some of the issues that the operators were complaining about were often discussed in the training sessions.

Racial stereotyping and discrimination

The participants also perceived much negative stereotyping in the way expatriates managed them. It was indicated that local employees were commonly denigrated in terms of their work competencies or in a racial manner. The racial stereotyping which was resented by the floor operators found its expression in the communication style of the expatriate managers in the following statements:

"this has been a general feeling from all employees like expatriate supervisors, some of them the communication or rather the language they have been using is not pleasing to the workers"

"these people they insult us, the language is very bad"

When probed to explain their understanding of leadership, the participants used terms such as "a teacher", "a counselor", someone who is "patient", "tolerant", "understanding".

7.3 Supervisors and Foremen

It was significant that this group declined to have the focus group discussion tape recorded and initially showed reluctance to participate in the discussion until the purpose of the study and

the end use of the results were fully explained This dynamics in the group indicated a deep-seated lack of trust which existed between the company and this group of employees. The mistrust was evident in the groups' expression of the lack of feedback of previous performance appraisals.

7.3.1 Insecurity

The insecurity was indicated by several factors.

Lack of positive reinforcement

Most of the supervisors observed that there was lack of positive reinforcement in the company. This situation was further reflected in some of the comments that were made in both the interviews and the focus group. One supervisor said:

“ I have seen at times you know when you do a good thing they wouldn't say anything they just look at you. But when you do a bad thing they talk a lot. That's something else I have noticed”

The tendency by superiors to concentrate on negative feedback caused the supervisors' feeling of vulnerability in their jobs. When probed to explain the meaning of working for the company, one participant said:

“from a personal point of view I feel I am hanging on a thread, anything can happen any time. Though I can contribute, I can do my part, the company might just forge ahead to go in its direction wherever it wants, to me it can get rid of anyone at any time”

The feeling of insecurity among supervisors was manifested in their interpersonal relationship with other groups in the company which was characterised by suspicions. One of the local managers expressed the frustration he often encountered when dealing with some of the supervisors in the following way:

“ you get there he feels, well this person from the lab is coming here it means there is trouble, tomorrow I am not going to be around. You try to ask the question he feels you are trying to find what went wrong so that he can go. You find that you have to explain why you are there

before they can give the information”

Ineffective communication

The top-down communication system in the company was perceived to be ineffective. One indication of the ineffectiveness of the communication system was the uncertainty shown by the general foremen about their new roles after the company had recruited a new group of shift foremen. Asked to explain his opinion on this development in the company, one participant observed that:

“We don’t know because they haven’t told us so we don’t know after training them they will thank us or they will keep us. We don’t know”.

Even the new group of employees had not been informed of the new reporting structure and this situation created tension between the old and the new group and led the employees to rely on rumours regarding management decisions.

The participants perceived a lack in communication of salient external issues which had an impact on the company and subsequently on them. Most participants felt that information about the market such as demand and price of the products and company’s performance were only available to those in management positions.

7.3.2 Perceived lack of involvement in decision making

Another issue from the supervisors group was a perceived lack of involvement in the decision making pertaining to key issues in the company. It was indicated by the majority of the participants that their input in various areas such as cost saving and daily management of their sections were often not taken into account by management. In one interview, a general foreman expressed frustration with management because of failure to take his advice to provide proper storage for material.

7.3.3 Autocratic management style

The group expressed disillusionment with management’s lack of action in addressing their concerns despite being articulated in several forums. The participants in the group also indicated that the communication style of some of expatriates needed improvement. This

perception was contained in the participants' reference to the language employed by some of the expatriates which they said was culturally insensitive.

Generally, the supervisors appeared to be in favour of the new pay structure which they said allowed them to be independent in their financial needs.

7.4 Local managers

Different themes were identified from the data gathered from the focus group and interviews with local managers.

7.4.1 Perceived lack of participation in management

The major issue for the local managers was a feeling that they were excluded from participation in the management of the company. This perception was commonly evidenced by the manager's assertion that top management was often unwilling to utilise their local knowledge and experience of the plant. The managers attributed some of the current problems being experienced with the new technology to the lack of their input in the planning of the projects. These views were expressed by one of the managers in this way:

"there was no consultation on the projects or whatever they wanted to do. I knew the problems in my section. I knew if I was given money the areas I would concentrate on. I knew the problems but I didn't have the opportunity to have an impact in these areas".

Another manager expressed his experience of how he was often excluded from attending meetings in his department and was never informed about outcomes of such meetings.

7.4.2 Racial discrimination

The perceived racial discrimination had different dimensions which are discussed below.

Pay structure differentials

The differences in pay and perks between the local managers and their expatriate colleagues featured prominently in the group's discussion and seemed to have been a long standing issue in the company. The pay differentials were reflected in the following expressions:

" I am talking about professionals and look at the remuneration compared with what the

expatriate gets. I think there is a big difference. Therefore that's one concern that a number of us have voiced"

"they have people doing the same job but the salary of these guys are high but a local won't get that much. The disparity is large and it doesn't make you work hard. They get more money and frustrate the local one. I felt bad when they brought this one and gave her more money" The lack of action by management to address the inequalities exacerbated the local managers' perception of racism in the way the company applied its human resource policies in general and pay structure in particular.

Team work problems

The local managers' responses indicated a lack in expatriate/ local partnership in job performance. Teamwork was undermined by the mistrust and conflicts which developed because some expatriate artisans tended to bypass the local managers and reported directly to fellow expatriates in top management positions. During the focus group discussion one participant made the following observation:

"He is incharge of the plant and the if technical coach finds anything wrong he is supposed to report to him. But it wasn't the case. The guy reported directly to top management bypassing him. He won't have the information. The information goes up and it starts coming down to him. He gets a shout, look this is what is happening. You are in a way demotivating him".

7.4.3 Substandard performance of expatriates

The local managers were critical of the performance and technical competence of a group of expatriate artisans and technical coaches. This group was brought in to develop the skills of the local artisans and improve the maintenance standards which the local managers said was not happening in practice. In the focus group one participant said:

"They were brought in as technical coaches to come and coach the artisans but that aspect of coaching was not there. Secondly, the calibre of the coaches themselves was very questionable. We did not see any positive output from them to the extent that most of the time they were not doing the job they were brought in to do because we didn't see any benefits of

them trying to coach our guys”

The situation was attributed to the absence of upfront appraisal of the expatriates and a proper assessment of the training needs in the company.

7.4.4 Positive conditions in the company

There was a positive attitude toward the new technology. The managers said that the technology offered them a chance to learn new skills. Most of the managers also perceived greater opportunities for professional development and growth in the company.

7.5 Expatriates(non-managers): Technical coaches, artisans and supervisors

There were four major issues which were identified from the expatriates (non-managers) group.

7.5.1 Ineffective HR systems and insecurity

The group showed dissatisfaction with the way HR systems were applied. This perception was indicated by the groups’ suggestions for changes in the pay systems so that employees were paid for performance and not just presence and the training approach. As one participant observed:

“They get the same pay. There is no difference. They all get the same money. Somebody is putting in 120% and another one 80% that’s not right. You must reward more the man who is giving 120% and that would be an incentive for others”

The perceived ineffectiveness of the training approach in the company was underlined by the lack of significant change in employees’ behaviour and the exclusion of the majority of low level employees. The participants indicated that there was a need for a new approach, focusing on improving the performance of the workers and providing them with attractive incentives to encourage further behavioural change.

7.5.2 Substandard performance of local employees

The work ethic, commitment and job performance of the majority of the local workforce were perceived as less than satisfactory. The expatriate non- managers referred to a lack of urgency, unnecessary wastage and inefficiency as major problems which were widespread in the

company both among the local workers and managers. It was indicated that local workers often showed unwillingness to work late and provide vital services during lunch and tea breaks which led to unnecessary delays in completion of jobs on the plant. One of the technical coaches observed:

“the frame of mind is that whatever I can’t finish today, tomorrow is another day. I am here for a year now but the people need a huge improvement, if its 16.00hours its time to go home”

Inefficiency

Another participant gave an incident of bureaucratic inefficiency in the company. He said an item of equipment was brought in the country at a huge cost and for an urgent job. After one week of its arrival, the equipment had still not been booked in at the stores department. The group attributed these work attitudes and behaviour to the socialist environment in which the workers operated for many years.

7.5.3 Ineffective management style

The group perceived the communication from top management to workers as insufficient. According to the participants, the situation led to employees’ misperception of issues and a lack of awareness of some of the crucial external factors affecting the company. The group identified lack of commitment from top management as a major reason why efforts to improve employee performance had not been very successful. One expatriate put it this way:

“if they don’t make up their minds now and change things and keep that way, believe me it will end up like it was five years ago. If you are not happy in a situation where you are now you must change something”

7.5.4 Employment conditions

This group of expatriates was concerned by the lack of intrinsic security in their jobs. This feeling was contained in the participants’ observations that they get fired if they do not perform to the expected level.

7.6 Expatriates(managers)

The issues which emerged from this group can be categorised under the following themes:

7.6.1 Substandard performance

The expatriate managers frequently mentioned the human and technical problems which confronted the implementation of the technology.

Lack of adaptation to new technology

One of the managers described the attitudes of local employees towards the automated technology in the following way:

“He wants to see, he wants to feel, he wants to touch. It’s unbelievable that this valve can operate automatically”

These difficulties were perceived as the main obstacles for the organisation to realise its goals. When the COO (Chief Operating Officer) was asked if the company was achieving its goals, he responded that 80% was being achieved and that the remaining 20% was yet to be realised. During the interview, one manager said:

“a lot of people look at the standards that we have and say we are the best in the country and why are we upset. We are upset because being the best in the country is not good enough for us we want to be the best in the world”

Unsatisfactory work ethic

The managers were less satisfied with the workers’ work ethic. They emphasised the need for the majority of the workers to change and improve their work behaviour and attitude.

7.6.2 HR systems

It is noteworthy that none of the contentious HR issues which dominated discussions in the other groups emerged from expatriate managers group. When attempts were made to probe their awareness of issues of pay and perks in the company, one manager responded:

“Well I have never heard any complaints. The conversations with the guys I’ve had, they have never been unhappy with the pay they are taking in or dissatisfied with the perks and those types of things”

7.6.3 Democratic management style

One of the managers described the management style in the company as being “open door”. He indicated that workers had access to the managers without any bureaucratic barriers.

CHAPTER 8

DISCUSSION

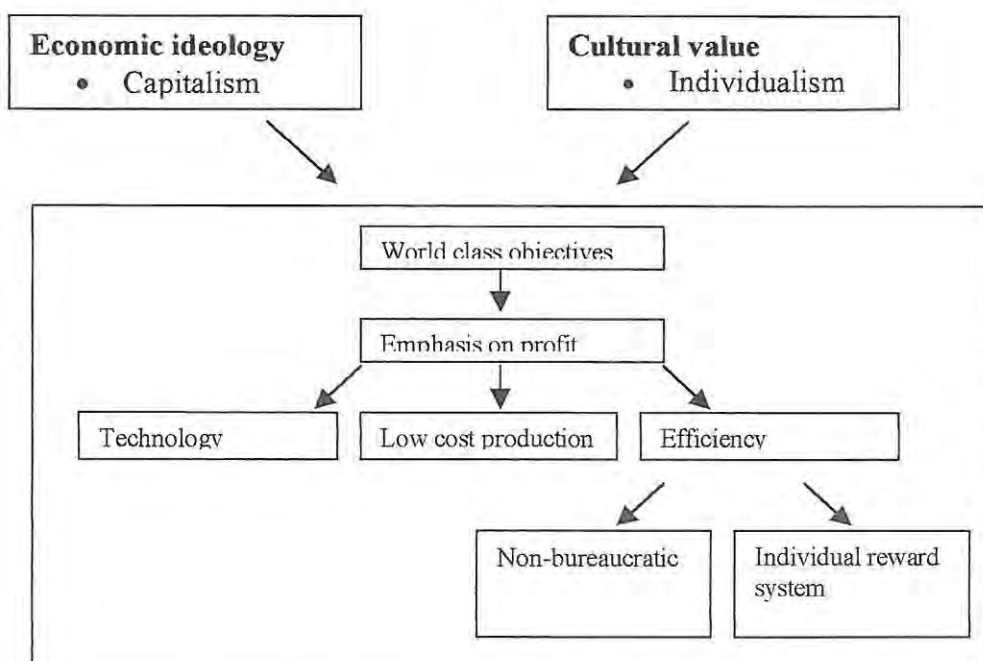
The study found that there were several problems in company “C”. From the local employees’ point of view, the problems included insecurity, lack of opportunities for personal development,

an autocratic management style, ineffective communication, poor interpersonal interactions and a lack of participation in decision making. The problems identified by expatriates were mainly substandard performance due to inefficiency and poor work ethic, lack of adaptation to the new technology and ineffective human resource systems. The various organisational problems which emerged in the study can be interpreted as a consequence of the clash between different organisational cultures in company “C”. At one level, there was a clash between the capitalist and socialist organisational cultures. At a deeper level, the clash occurred between individualistic and collectivistic organisational cultures. In this chapter, the different organisational cultures and their distinguishing characteristics will be discussed.

8.1 ORGANISATIONAL CULTURE CLASH BETWEEN CAPITALIST AND SOCIALIST IDEOLOGIES

Figure 1 depicts the organisational culture held by the expatriates (i.e. white managers and artisans).

Figure 1. Integrated diagram of expatriates’ organisational culture



The organisational culture was generally underpinned by and geared towards achieving competitive and world-class objectives. To achieve these objectives, the expatriates emphasised and paid significant attention to the imperatives of cost saving and increased efficiency. It was apparent that the new technology was central to the realisation of the objectives that were ingrained in the organisational culture of the expatriate group. The expatriates preferred a non-bureaucratic organisational setting. This arrangement was aimed at giving employees more opportunity in the way they performed their jobs. As the Human Resource Manager put “the emphasis now is the job outcomes rather than how the person is going to accomplish the work”

It can be suggested that the above organisational culture was premised on a capitalistic ideology. As Saunders (1995) asserts, capitalistic business enterprises are driven by the profit motive. Therefore, attempts are often made to inculcate values in the organisation which place more emphasis on issues such as efficiency and minimisation of costs and which have a direct bearing on the profitability of the company. Bowles and Edwards (1993) point out that increased efficiency may lead to greater profitability because there is reduction in the costs of inputs for production goods or services.

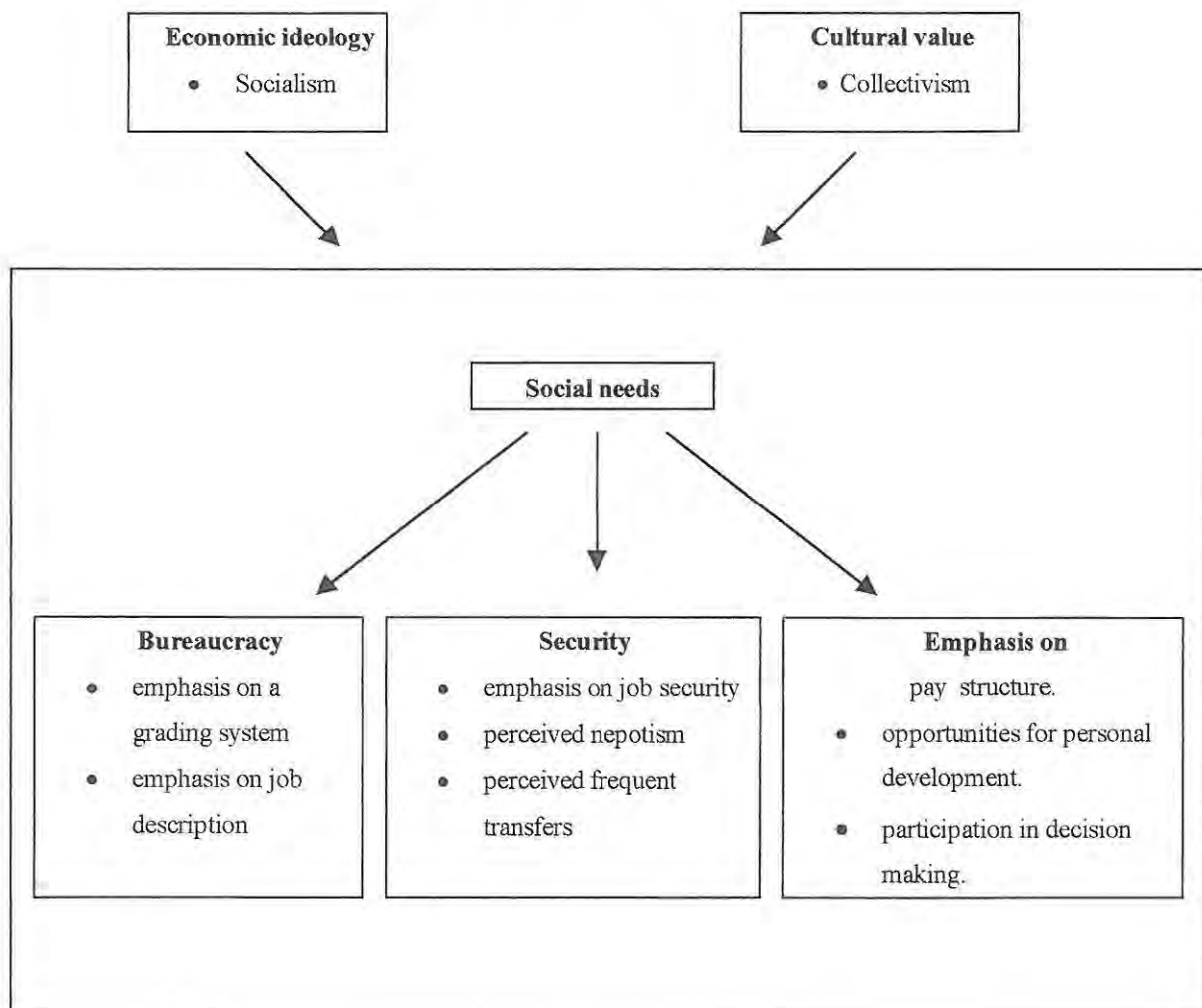
The finding that expatriates professed capitalist values in the present study is of little surprise. The majority of them may have been exposed to the working of the capitalist ideology through their educational and professional training. The link between expatriates and capitalist organisational values is consistent with results from earlier studies which showed that western managers placed more importance on profitability objectives and related factors than their local counterparts (Randall, 1998). Kamoche (2000) also maintains that in the developing world, including Africa, capitalist values and the related organisational culture are often upheld and promoted by expatriate managers of multinational companies.

Traditionally, most expatriates who sojourn in Africa originate from the west, particularly Europe and North America where capitalist enterprises are dominant. The comparative global success of capitalist businesses in the western world provides a strong motivation for

expatriates to espouse and attempt to develop similar organisational cultures in Africa, which focus on achieving superior market performance of the company. Another important driving force has been the current western management models which articulate that in the prevailing business environment, the success of an organisation hinges on having an organisational culture which reinforces the competitiveness of the company (Peters & Waterman, 1982; Kotter, 1992).

As Figure 2 indicates, the core characteristic of the organisational culture manifested by local employees was the need for a highly structured organisational context.

Figure 2. Integrated diagram of local employees' organisational culture



The emphasis on job grades, job specification and description was indicative of the preference for a bureaucratic work environment. Another distinguishing feature of local employees' organisational culture was the primacy given to social and material needs. The results of the study show that the majority of the local employees across hierarchical levels were preoccupied with issues of daily survival. There was pervasive desire particularly among lower level employees for the company to provide welfare benefits including housing, loan schemes, food at work, health services and to assist in social ceremonies (i.e. funerals of family members).

The socialist organisational culture places high value on social benefits and promotes the view that the organisation has an obligation to extend welfare benefits to employees. This observation is supported by Kiriazov's (2000) study, which found that East European employees of western firms in former socialist countries showed a high regard for social welfare benefits. It has also been suggested that socialist oriented organisations are typified by a great degree of job security and structured jobs (Kiriazov, 2000). This type of organisational culture is grounded in the central principle of the socialist ideology. As Kornai (cited in Randall, 1998) points out, "the first and foremost endeavour of socialism is to provide jobs" and "everyone who is able to work has the constitutional right to work" (p.8). These ideals are ultimately translated into organisational cultures, which attempt to reinforce employees' feelings of job security at all times.

The type of organisational culture discussed above was ubiquitous in state companies during the post-independence period. After nationalisation of industries, the new state corporations became important instruments for achieving the socialist aspirations and goals in the country. *The Third National Development Plan 1979-83* (cited in Turok, 1981) clearly stated that "the fundamental role of the parastatal sector is to act as the main agent of the state in fostering economic development of the country along socialist lines. The parastatal sector therefore must become the main vehicle for establishing sound socialist relations in the country" (p.421). This broad mission for state companies became the foundation for the management

practices and the subsequent organisational cultures, which prevailed in, state companies including company "C". Although the state companies were expected to generate profits, meeting social goals took precedence (Turok, 1981). Employees were guaranteed secure employment at all times because of the government's absolute control in the management of the companies. As Chaput (cited in Turok, 1981) wrote, "the government has a commanding role in the rule and decision making operation of state enterprises. It also plays a major role in day to day operations" (p429). Neither state companies nor private companies could dismiss employees or undertake retrenchment exercises without seeking approval from government.

It can be concluded from the preceding discussion that the socialist background of the majority of the local workers not only influenced their need for more job security but also clashed with the capitalist organisational culture ethos of the company, which promoted competitiveness, and maximisation of profits. In capitalistic enterprises labour is viewed as any other cost item, which needs to be managed so as to maximise the company's profitability (Randall, 1998).

Peters and Waterman (1992) propound the idea of a "lean and mean" organisation, a strategy for improving the efficiency and competitiveness by reducing the labour force. Therefore, in western corporate settings, downsizing is a common organisational phenomenon today.

However, in developing countries where unemployment levels are proportionally high, the possibility of losing one's job can be an overwhelming and devastating experience.

The primary concern with material and survival needs among local employees is not necessarily a unique attribute of organisational cultures in socialist countries. It has been argued that generally, organisational cultures in Africa are characterised by an instrumental attitude towards work (Kiggundu, 1988; Blunt & Jones, 1992) This type of organisational culture has been attributed to the enormous social and financial obligations which African workers are expected to fulfil such as looking after extended family members.

There is some evidence in the present study to suggest that the economic conditions prevailing in the country had a significant impact on the work behaviour and the organisational culture of the local employees. Since the 1980s, the country had continued to experience an economic

decline (Van der Heijden, 2001). This situation had a drastic impact on the living standards of the majority of workers due to the declining of wages. The price of food and other basic essentials escalated due to high levels of inflation. Carr and MacLachlan (1996) have argued that these precarious economic conditions in Sub-Saharan Africa make life an inherently insecure and uncertain business not only for workers but also the privileged managers. They suggest that in a “fundamentally insecure context, one can be terrorised by the complete absence of material necessities” (p.16). This argument is further supported by work motivation studies in Sub-Saharan Africa, which found that workers placed more importance on material factors than other needs (Blunt & Jones, 1986).

Perhaps the interplay between socialist values and harsh economic realities in the present study heightened the workers’ feelings of job insecurity.

8.2 ORGANISATIONAL CULTURE CLASH BETWEEN INDIVIDUALISTIC AND COLLECTIVISTIC VALUES

Previous empirical studies have shown that societal values have a significant influence on the organisational culture of a firm operating in a particular socio-cultural context. These societal value systems are individualism and collectivism. The two systems do not only stand opposite to each other in their conceptualisation of the mode of life, but they also differ on how organisational processes such as reward systems, management style and decision making need to be carried out and exercised. Previous studies indicate that tension between individualistic and collectivistic cultures exist at the individual level in African workplaces (Carr et al, 1997). However, the present study goes further to suggest that the clash between individualistic and collectivistic cultures is also manifested at the intergroup level.

The expatriate group appeared to embrace an individualistic organisational culture. The individualistic values were expressed through the expatriates’ preferred management practices and reward systems. Kamoche (1997) and Blunt and Jones (1992) suggest that most of the organisational management models are embedded in western cultural values. An individualistic ethos cherishes individual achievement and encourages a reward system based

on individual performance as a way of motivating employees. These motivational strategies are based on specific assumptions about human behaviour. In western settings, it is assumed that individuals are driven by a competitive spirit, are rational (Koopman, 1991) and value rewards, which will make them stand out among their peers. Some western motivational models such as the expectancy theory say that employees have a calculative involvement in the organisation and will be driven by consciously expected outcomes (Lawler, 1994)

Perhaps it is the underlying individualistic values, which led expatriates in the present study to suggest strategies for improving efficiency in the company, which were essentially based on recognition of individual performance and achievement. There was an implicit assumption that the incentive schemes would encourage competition among employees and consequently lead to higher productivity in the company. This view is echoed by Mendonca and Kanungo (1996) who posit that the increased application of western-based human resource management techniques in Africa is driven by the assumption that they would lead to improved effectiveness and provide organisations with a fighting chance in the fiercely competitive global markets. Perhaps, an important factor in the present study is that the failure of the previous socialist system meant that expatriates needed to be seen to be doing better in terms of improving productivity in the company.

From a theoretical perspective, the collectivistic ethos was revealed in the way employees attributed their peers' job advancement to a range of "isms" such as nepotism and regionalism. Various researchers have maintained that in collectivistic societies, individual achievement in organisational settings maybe viewed with suspicion and sometimes attract envy, contempt and derogatory remarks (Eleknov, 1998; Carr et al 1995; Koopman, 1991). Members perceive pursuing individual achievement as divisive because it disrupts the harmony in the work group. Since people highly value their interdependence, any individual behaviour or organisational practice, which militates against this interconnectedness, may not be supported by the employees (Koopman, 1991).

The need for individual development particularly among the lower level employees in

company "C" is significant and appears to support earlier findings (Carr, MacLachlan, Zimba & Bowa, 1995). The seemingly inconsistent finding can perhaps be attributed to the effects of globalisation, industrialisation and the increasing exposure to modern industrial work environment. The interpretation appears plausible taking into account the evidence that in a more industrialised environment such as South Africa, black employees seem to some extent embrace western paradigms with regard to work orientation, values and management.

The issue of nepotism is commonplace in African organisations (Kamoche, 2000; Zefane & Rugimbana, 1995; Blunt & Popoola, 1985) and seems to be embedded in the group life and values of Africans. Kiggundu (1988) say that in a collectivistic society, people are expected to give support, favours, assistance or help to other members of the in-group and to receive help from others as well. The group ethos is perhaps heightened by the insecure organisational life experienced by African managers and workers (Blunt & Jones, 1986). In organisational settings, where people compete for relatively few resources including promotional opportunities and are perpetually insecure, nepotism is likely to emerge and perpetuate. The common practice is that superiors often extend opportunities such as promotion and training to their in-group members (i.e. close relatives, people belonging to the same tribe, region or religion). The practice often leads to dissatisfaction and demotivation in the other groups of employees. The challenge for African organisations is to explore ways to manage the dynamics so that they do not affect organisational performance. One of the ways is to develop effective and functional human resources systems.

The delineation of the local managers' organisational culture is important because it did not fit with either end of the expatriate-local organisational culture continuum. Generally, the local managers embraced a mixture of the two main organisational cultures in the company. On one hand, the local managers' socialist background created a high awareness of the social issues in the company and the need to address them. This awareness did not only pertain to issues that affected them but also lower level employees, particularly the problem of insecurity and its accompanying effects. On the other hand, the local managers displayed some leaning towards

the capitalistic ethos. They showed a high level awareness of the macro-economic factors, which impinged on the company's business and were, determined to ensure that the company survived. The managers' understanding of the imperatives for successful business performance and the relationship between the company and its external environment corresponded to that exhibited by expatriates. A strong appreciation of the business ethos among local managers perhaps stemmed from their comparative exposure to the capitalist system. Most of the managers received their professional training overseas. In addition, the local managers occupied a strategic role in the company as successors to the positions occupied by expatriates. As such, they were frequently exposed to high level training programmes organised by the company, perhaps as a way of preparing them for their future roles. These factors might have influenced the characteristics of the organisational culture that emerged among the managers in terms of its capitalistic orientation.

8.3 CLASH BETWEEN MANAGEMENT STYLES

The differences in organisational cultures were reflected in two distinct and incompatible management styles practiced by expatriates and local employees respectively. To fully understand the two management styles, it is important to understand how organisations are conceptualised.

8.3.1 An organisation as a socio-technical system

There is increasing recognition that organisations constitute technological and human subsystems (Morgan, 1997). The socio-technical system was investigated by Trist et al (1981) at the Tavistock Institute based on a series of studies in the British coalmines. Trist and his associates investigated the effects of mechanisation, which meant new work arrangements, of the mining process on productivity. The studies found that the new technology was accompanied by low productivity, absenteeism and several problems in the social relationship in the organisation. The new technology had a profound impact on the way workers performed their tasks. Shifts were introduced to perform different tasks such as working on the "face of coal", "ripping the coal" and "filling the shafts". This arrangement disrupted the

social cohesion and teamwork, which characterised the old method of coal mining. In addition, workers competed for allocation to desirable work sites in the mines and bribery became commonplace. Trist et al (1981) concluded that the problems arose because the management of the coalmines had ignored the needs of employees in the implementation of the new technology.

The socio-technical system has some important implications for management of organisations in general and technological development in particular. First, there is need for awareness of the impact of technology on the people and vice-versa. Secondly and perhaps more importantly, there is need to balance the attention given to technological change needs and social needs in the company.

The present study suggests that the above implications were not sufficiently taken into account in the management style of expatriates. There was little appreciation of the effects of the new technology particularly the application of the automation system to the new production process. But more importantly, top management's major focus was on technology. These findings seem to support Morgan's (1997) assertion that that there is a tendency in management to "fall back into a strictly technical view of organisation"(p.38). Kamoche (2000) further observes "organisations in Kenya have over the years defined their agenda strictly within the narrow confines of short term productivity and profitability. The market/cost imperative has resulted in a pre-occupation to minimize costs and adopt the "appropriate" technology and increase market share. These efforts have not always paid sufficient attention to the needs of the employees nor have managers shown a great deal of interest in the implications of these strategic decisions on the management of people"(p.2).

The technologically oriented management style practiced by expatriates was rooted in and driven by capitalistic business objectives. In the first place, the technological change in the company was necessitated by external factors. Globalisation of business led to increased market competition in the industry and medium sized producers needed not only to compete with the larger producers but also with small scale spot traders (New Safari, 2000). The

prevailing business environment ensured that company "C" had to place priority on quality and price factors of the product in order to counteract competition. The new technology was intended to achieve both objectives, namely, improving product quality and minimising the production costs, thereby offering the company an increased competitive advantage in the volatile marketplace.

The local employees' socialist and collectivistic organisational culture corresponded with a management style, which gave priority to social issues rather than technology. This management approach was incompatible with the general management style in the company, which paid greater attention to technological matters. The consequences of the incompatibility in management style were a range of problems including insecurity, perceived ineffective human resource management systems, lack of opportunities for development, lack of participation in decision-making. Some of the issues deserve further elaboration because of their significance.

It has been suggested by organisational development (OD) writers that to build efficient organisations, management style needs to promote participation through empowerment of employees. Empowerment involves giving employees authority to participate in decision-making and to contribute ideas to the management of the organisation. As French and Bell (1995) point out " participation enhances empowerment and empowerment in turn enhances performance and individual well-being". More importantly, empowerment helps to unlock employees' potential and enhances their identification with the organisational goals. In their empirical study, Bale and Asbury (1989) found that super-performing South African companies were generally characterised by highly empowered employees.

But sometimes organisations are managed in a dictatorial manner where decision making is often centralised, top-down and is greatly influenced by power relations (Koopman, 1991; Khoza, 1993). This management style may contradict with the African values and understanding of participation in the workplace. It has been argued that in collectivistic societies, there is emphasis on a consensual decision-making approach (Koopman, 1991;

Mbigi, 1997;). Apart from consultation, there is also a high value placed on the idea of inclusively in any activity, which affects society members. In an empirical study, Van Vlaenderen (2001) found that African semi-urban youths placed more importance on consensus building than on the actual solution in their problem solving strategies. Consensus is valued not for its own sake but the way it ensures group members' satisfaction and dignity for having participated in a decision making process (Mbigi, 1997).

This finding supports the argument that the conflict of values in management approach can foster an adverse relationship between the western oriented expatriate managers and local workers in Sub-Saharan African organisations (Khoza, 1993).

In Sub-Saharan African organisations, the issue of pay structure and specifically pay differentials is ubiquitous and has ramifications on relationships between groups of employees. Previous studies reported pay differentials between local and expatriate managers who are sometimes paid in foreign currency. Carr and MacLachlan (cited in Carr & McLoughlin, 1996) point out that expatriates working for aid agencies in Sub-Saharan Africa may earn ten times more than local employees working in a similar job position. In another study, MacLachlan, Chipande and Carr (1995) found huge salary differences between local lecturers and expatriate lecturers who were often funded by overseas donors.

The theoretical implications for these salary differentials have been articulated. Based on a variety of social psychological principles of cognitive dissonance, equity, and comparative need, Carr and McLoughlin (1996) predict that the pay disparities would significantly demotivate the local employees. They argue that local employees who have comparatively greater needs (i.e. having to support an extended family) than expatriates may be inclined to apply the equity principle in their perception of the pay discrepancies. Interestingly, Carr and McLoughlin (1996) maintain that on the other hand, highly paid (or overpaid) expatriates may feel deserving and perhaps overrate their input and denigrate the performance of local employees.

The issue of expatriate-local pay differentials cannot be adequately discussed without

examining the broader context in which it arises. This understanding can assist in providing ways to manage the problem. Expatriates are often recruited on contract to provide technical and managerial skills, which are lacking in most African countries (Hickson & Pugh, 1995; Kiggundu, 1988; Turok, 1979) and to eventually transfer these skills to local employees. The way expatriates perform this role can be a determining factor regarding local workers' perception of the extent of the pay inequity and their degree of dissatisfaction with it. Empirical studies including the present one suggest that expatriates' performance in skills transfers is less than satisfactory. In Kenya, Blunt (1978) found that white managers tended to "educate their eventual black successors at their own leisurely pace" (p.437).

Restructuring of the pay system is one way in which the problem of the pay inequality can be addressed but the intriguing question is how such an exercise can be accomplished. In the context of aid organisations, Carr and McLoughlin (1996) propose a policy of paying local salaries to all employees and to distribute international salaries among teams of host nationals and expatriate workers. These propositions maybe less applicable to the corporate world where "high" salaries are meant to attract and retain expatriate labour (Burdette, 1984). In the present study, expatriates were undoubtedly crucial for the new technology to function. Perhaps one way to address the problem in African organisations is to base expatriates' remuneration contingent upon successful mentoring of their local subordinates.

8.4 MERGING ORGANISATIONAL CULTURES

Company takeovers often raise questions of an organisational culture clash between the old and the new cultures. The answer lies in blending the cultures so that a more inclusive and shared organisational culture ultimately develops. This process was particularly necessary for company "C" to undertake because of two main reasons. Firstly, the majority of the workers were retained in the company after the takeover and this situation provided an avenue for the perpetuation of the old organisational culture. Secondly and more importantly, the two organisational cultures were fundamentally different. On one hand there was the old organisational culture embedded in socialist ideology and collectivistic values and the new

organisational culture characterised by capitalistic values.

Japanese enterprises offer important lessons on how different organisational cultures can be blended and incorporated in management style. The Japanese business system is capitalistic (Ralston, et al 1997) and most of the workers embrace collectivistic values, which exist in the wider society. But organisational culture clashes and associated problems like those found in Sub-Saharan Africa such as insecurity and lack of participation and involvement in organisational affairs by workers are rare. The major reason is that Japanese organisations have successfully managed to blend the collectivistic organisational values of the employees with the capitalistic organisational ethos. The incorporation of different organisational cultures is expressed in the management style and human resource system. Most Japanese companies pursue lifetime employment policies, which provide all employees job security throughout their working career (Dunphy & Shi, 1989). Work is organised according to teams with a lot of emphasis on group performance. Quality Control Circles (QCC), a common feature of Japanese management system, attempts to meet both the group ethos of the workers and the imperatives of efficiency through improvement in the quality of products, safety and maintenance standards. In addition, Japanese management style promotes consensus decision-making. The *ringi* system, which is a process of continuous communication and participation in a company, allows employees in the lower levels to contribute to decision making before any plans are implemented by management (Shadur, Rodwell & Bamber, 1995). Japanese companies have also managed to address the problems associated with pay system and promotion by adopting both seniority and performance based systems. The performance pay system is based on the productivity of the individual worker. The seniority system depends on the number of years of continuous employment with the company and is mainly used among the blue-collar workers.

Kao and Sek-Hong (1997) argue that the success of Japanese firms in combining features of capitalism and traditional values is based on the idea of trust. The high degree of mutual trust, which exists in Japanese companies, leads to a shared obligation among individuals to contribute to company solidarity and survival even if they were dissatisfied with the

management approach in general and material rewards in particular. Employees also invest trust in the organisation that its success will benefit them all.

CHAPTER 9

RECOMMENDATIONS: MERGING ORGANISATIONAL CULTURES

There is little doubt that to become world class, company “C” has to achieve some form of transformation both in terms of employee behaviour and internal organisational systems. However, the presence of different organisational cultures makes the task of managing the change challenging. This is because organisational development interventions in organisations with different cultures need to simultaneously address the goal of improving organisational efficiency and paying more attention to the people issues.

In addition, it can be argued that the process of implementing a change program will need to take into account the specific background and context of the organisation in question. This approach will ensure that all factors that might undermine the change process are identified and managed effectively. The OD recommendations discussed below can help company “C” to introduce a more successful and sustainable change initiative.

9.1 Incremental change

Scholars suggest that incremental change is preferable to transformational (revolutionary) change (Clarke, 1994; French & Bell, 1995). In situations where changes happen far apart, fundamental change can bring traumatic experiences and even undermine efficiency in the organisation. The reason is that change shifts people from their zones of comfort and stability and demands that employees do things differently. This situation sometimes leads employees to perceive the change negatively and can attract employee resistance. The effects of fundamental change are far greater if the organisational environment is not supportive enough by providing safety nets during the transition process and allowing the employees time and space to build capacity for change in their behaviour.

Incremental change encompasses a gradual or a sequence of changes over a period of time. Although this approach can be regarded as slow in terms of achieving results, it can be more productive in the long-term. Clarke (1994) suggests that change needs to be split into small “bite-size chunks” with realistic and achievable goals. The short term goals allows people to

achieve small successes along the way which in turn create momentum for further changes to be made. Similarly, Kotter (1992) emphasises the need for a change effort to identify and celebrate small wins and to build on them to introduce more changes in the organisation. Apart from building the needed momentum, these small achievements give the change process credibility and confidence to the employees to work towards the achievement of the new vision.

9.2 Developing a common vision

A vision is one of the important factors for achieving a successful organisational transformation. As the findings from the present study suggest, there is a need for a common vision to unite expatriates and local employees. A vision is what the organisation desires to achieve and the strategy used to realise the goals. Organisational development theorists observe that a vision allows employees to focus their efforts and potentials in achieving shared business objectives (Kotter, 1995; Clarke, 1995). Perhaps more importantly, a vision aligns employees in the direction that the company intends to take. Winkler (2002) maintains that the power of the vision gets unlocked when the majority of the employees have a common understanding of its goals and direction. Furthermore, the shared values espoused by the new vision can provide guidance for the desired behaviour in the employees' everyday endeavours. Above all, it is important that all employees be involved in developing an organisational vision. This participatory process can increase buy-in and make people accountable for the realisation of the goals and aspirations anchored in the new vision.

9.3 Improving the communication system

Good communication is one of the cornerstones of successful organisational change. In a recent study in South Africa, Winkler (2002) found that communication emerged as the most important factor during change process. An effective communication system ensures that the vision that has been developed is both meaningfully and continuously communicated to all employees. In addition, increased communication from top management about the change process helps to reduce or eliminate feelings of insecurity and uncertainty that employees may

experience. Employees need to know the achievements of the change program perhaps not only at the organisational level but at the individual level as well. The communication process which is predominantly characterised by negative feedback, can demoralise employees and make them feel less enthusiastic about the change. One of the major weaknesses of organisational communication is that it is often top down. But a two-way communication system can facilitate the involvement of the majority of employees through expressing their feelings, ideas and concerns about the change effort. This feedback can be useful to top management in the planning of subsequent change programs or revising the existing ones.

9.4 Effective application of human resource systems

The way HR systems were applied or perceived in company "C" appeared to have contributed immensely to the strong feelings of insecurity experienced by employees. Management need to develop HR practices, which will address the current dissatisfaction with the pay structure, performance appraisal and grading system. It is increasingly being recognised that in order to cope well with change, organisations need to pay greater attention to social issues (Human & Horowitz, 1992). Some empirical studies have found that new technology tends to bring productivity gains when it is accompanied by significant attention given to human resource systems (Morton cited in O'Sullivan, 1994). Kochen (cited in Ghan & Jayabalan, 2001) investigated the relationship between the degree of technological automation and human resource management practice. The study found poor productivity and performance in companies, which were ranked, low in human resource management systems irrespective of the technological level of development. These findings elucidate the importance of attending to people issues in an organisation. Technology only makes an impact in the organisation through people. If the employees are unhappy, the benefits that are expected to accrue from a particular technological development might be undermined.

In addition, it is widely appreciated that organisational effectiveness entails meeting both the organisation's goals and the goals of individuals (Mukherji & Mukherji, 1998).

There is need in company "C" to develop a corporate culture of investing in people

development particularly among managers. The task of developing employees goes beyond just sending people to attend training sessions. It entails providing employees with the necessary knowledge and skills and to motivate and encourage them to improve performance. Some scholars (Human & Horwitz, 1992) have further suggested that employee development and growth needs to be experiential.

9.5 Management commitment

Most theorists agree that long-term organisational change requires the support, commitment, involvement and participation of top management. Management can provide visible support through modelling the expected behaviours that change is intended to accomplish. Kotter (1996) maintains that management need to “walk the talk” if the employees are to buy-in to the new values. Similarly, Duck (1993) points out that lack of congruence between *behaviour* of management and what is communicated to the employees undermines the credibility of the change effort. Visionary leadership at top management level helps to guide the change process and continuously sets up new objectives and aspirations to be achieved by the organisation.

CHAPTER 10

CONCLUSION

The study has empirically demonstrated that different organisational cultures prevailed in company "C". It has been shown that expatriates espoused an organisational culture, which predominantly focused on achievement of profits. The expatriates showed preference for management practices, which encouraged individual achievement and productivity and promoted a less structured organisational environment

In contrast, the organisational culture held by local employees put priority on social issues. It was also characterised by a strong desire for a highly structured organisational context. It has been argued that the differences in organisational cultures were due to the underlying differences in economic ideologies and societal values embraced by the two groups.

The study suggested that the organisational culture of the expatriates was embedded in the capitalist ideology and the western individualistic value system whereas the local employees' organisational culture was informed by the socialist ideology and the African cultural value system of collectivism. It has been argued that the clash between organisational cultures held by expatriates and local employees led to the problems, which existed in company "C".

The above findings are in agreement with previous investigations, which reported differences between organisational cultures due to economic ideologies and societal cultural values of employees. The difference in the findings between the present study and Thomas and Brendixen (2000) study maybe attributed to the methodology and sample used. Thomas and Brendixen (2000) employed a quantitative approach, which used predetermined theoretical constructs of values based on the Hofstede (1982) study. The present study employed a grounded theory approach, which allowed the different organisational cultures and values to emerge from the data and to explore their underlying foundation. With quantitative methodologies it is often difficult to discern subtle differences that might exist between groups. In addition, the subjects in the survey were exclusively managers whose organisational values were expectedly to be similar to those of white managers. As the present

study suggests marked differences in organisational cultures emerged mainly between the lower level employees and expatriates.

The findings from the present study have significant implications for managing organisations in the globalised world. Organisations will increasingly contain diverse organisational cultures as they become more global in search for new investment opportunities and markets. There is a need to explore efficient management practices, which incorporate the different cultures to build more effective organisations. The interface between the different organisational cultures needs to be consciously managed so that it does not lead to intergroup dynamics, which could impede the efforts to improve productivity and develop competitive organisations. In addition, the present study highlights the relevance of pre-departure training for expatriates to sensitise and equip them with skills to deal with socio-cultural differences between them and non-western workers.

Furthermore, the findings contain some lessons for organisational development efforts in Sub-Saharan Africa. Organisational development strategies are based on mutual collaboration and interaction between groups, which may prove difficult to develop in diverse organisational culture settings because of little contact between racial groups. It is these dynamics, which undermine the efficacy of organisational development interventions.

The study had some limitations, which need to be highlighted. Firstly, few expatriates were included in the study and those in managerial positions did not take part in the focus group discussion. This situation may have affected the representativeness of the opinions expressed by the expatriates. The issue is important considering that the expatriate category contained different levels. In addition, the study had only one female participant, which perhaps explains why gender issues did not emerge in the study. Future studies should attempt to address these weaknesses and explore how differences between organisational cultures impact on the actual performance of African organisations.

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APPENDIX 1

INTERVIEW GUIDE

What it means for you to work for the company?

What are the goals that the company is trying to achieve?

What is your role and role of others in achieving these goals?

What are the goals and aspirations that you want to achieve?

Is the company realising it's goals? Explain why or why not

What things are working well in the company?

What are some of the problems in the company?

What things could be improved in the company?

What things have changed in the company?

APPENDIX 2

AGREEMENT

BETWEEN RESEARCHER AND RESEARCH PARTICIPANT

I (participant's name) _____ agree to participate in the research project.

I understand that:

1. Part of this research will be used for MA degree at Rhodes University
2. The researcher is interested in finding out if there is discongruence in mindsets of stakeholders in the company
3. My participation will involve an interview which will take about 60 minutes and a focus group discussion which will take approximately 2hours.
4. I will be asked to answer questions of a personal nature but I can choose not to answer any questions about aspects of my life which I am not willing to disclose.
5. I am invited to voice to the researcher any concerns I have about my participation in the study and to have these addressed to my satisfaction.
6. I am free to withdraw from the study at any time – however I commit myself to full participation unless some unusual circumstances occur or I have concerns about my participation which I did not originally anticipate
7. The report on the project may contain information about my personal experiences, attitudes and behaviours, but that the report will be designed in such a way that I will not be identified by the general reader.

Signed on (Date) _____

(Participant) _____

(Researcher) _____

(Witness) _____

APPENDIX 3

EXAMPLES OF THE CODING PROCESS OF CATEGORIES

Attendants(unskilled workers)

CATEGORIES

Insecurity

INDICATORS

... no job security
... you lose your job
... if they hear you say that
... any retrenchment
... will lose you job
... the first man to go

job promotion

... he is still maintaining same grade
... but to promote you they are difficult
... hard worker but no promotion
... they came and promote them
... he does not want his junior to progress
... who are promoted don't know
... if they want to promote someone

Frequent transfers

... they transferred me
... changing from one place to another
... they take us back
... find yourself somewhere again

Training

... I had no training
... we do not attend these seminars
... not free for everyone
... don't know anything about computers
... not looking at the lower grade

Grading system

... I can call grades
... there is no grades
... all grades are stagnant
... we don't know our positions

Favouritism

... corruption
... bribery
... other dubious means
... tribalism
... if they are all pentecostals
... first Pentecostals church members

Operators, Artisans and Technologists

CATEGORIES

Overqualification

INDICATORS

- ... ourselves being operators
- ... employed as an operator
- ... lower jobs
- ... degree holder
- ... qualifications are useless
- ... degree holder in lower job
- ... higher qualification
- ... prominent job is of housekeeping
- ... working in lower ranks

Career development

- ... nothing like a program
- ... these plans
- ... like a program
- ... like preparing us

Grading system

- ... system is not there
- ... not graded
- ... grades are not there
- ... engaged at no grades
- ... there are no grades
- ... don't know whether we are G3

Job description

- ... is not specified
- ... job description hasn't
- ... we haven't been given
- ... my job doesn't say
- ... haven't seen a job description

Communication style

- ... language is an insult
- ... shout anyhow
- ... its bad language
- ... use strong words
- ... language which is not acceptable
- ... they shout
- ... kind of bad language
- ... shout very bad language
- ... language its too bad

Supervisors

CATEGORIES

Involvement

INDICATORS

- ... not just utilising
- ... to be empowered
- ... having been given power
- ... all decisions are made
- ... one making decisions

Insecurity

- ... hanging on a thread
- ... anything can happen
- ... get rid of anyone
- ... no job security
- ... quite ruthless
- ... will charge you
- ... don't feel secure

Communication

- ... get the information
- ... haven't told us
- ... we don't know after training

Local managers

CATEGORIES

Participation

INDICATORS

- ... no consultation
- ... no opportunity to have impact
- ... there is no consultation
- ... because of lack of consultation
- ... we should feel we are part
- ... we are ignored
- ... participation is limited
- ... too much in the background
- ... I don't attend any of their meetings

Pay differential

- ... compare the salaries
- ... getting more money
- ... getting in dollars
- ... difference in salaries
- ... a big difference
- ... the disparity is large
- ... they get more money
- ... salary of this group is high
- ... there is a very big difference

CATEGORIES**expatriates performance appraisal****INDICATORS**

... don't assess their contribution
 ... don't assess them
 ... systems to assess their perform
 ... does not even assess.

Team work

... not working as a team
 ... should all work as a team
 ... should feel we are part and parcel
 ... let's work together

Expatriates(non-managers)**CATEGORIES****Inefficiency****INDICATORS**

... still hasn't been booked in
 ... nuts and bolts still laying

Job performance

... no urgency
 ... need a huge improvement
 ... whether it is straight it doesn't matter
 ... will wait until you come
 ... will just concentrate on one job
 ... you must provide everything

Pay structure

... all get same pay
 ... give incentives

Commitment

... they do not care
 ... no way of worrying
 ... can't finish today
 ... he won't finish it

Training

... need formalised system
 ... focus on basics

HR systems

... need for job description
 ... performance appraisals

Profit

... how business is run profitably
 ... you lose the market
 ... not making profit

Expatriates(managers)

CATEGORIES

Technology

INDICATORS

- ... whole new equipment
- ... technology is the issue
- ... whole lot of technology
- ... maintain that technology
- ... big technological changes
- ... different technological things
- ... absorb the new technology

HR issues

- ... never unhappy with pay
- ... I haven't sensed
- ... there is no dissatisfaction
- ... aren't issues

Communication

- ... share a lot more information
- ... way of memos
- ... I can communicate
- ... they can communicate
- ... more formalised system.

