

**JOB SATISFACTION AS A FUNCTION OF CULTURAL BELIEFS,
EXPECTATIONS AND GOALS: A STUDY OF EMPLOYEES OF FOREIGN-
OWNED FIRMS IN KENYA**

UNIVERSITY OF NAIROBI

BY

Philip Kyalo Kituti Kaloki

A Doctoral Thesis

**Submitted in Fulfillment of
The requirement for the Ph.D. Degree in International Business
Faculty of Commerce, University of Nairobi, Kenya**

UNIVERSITY OF NAIROBI LIBRARY

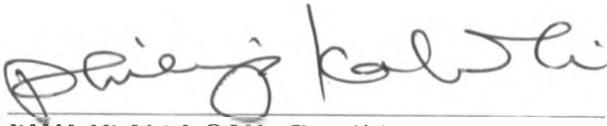


02710317

2001

DECLARATION

This thesis is my original work and has not been presented for a degree in any other university.

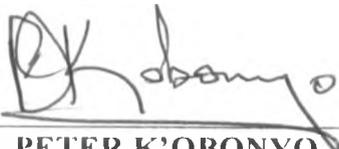


PHILIP KALOKI, Candidate
Faculty of Commerce
University of Nairobi
Nairobi, Kenya

NOV 16, 2001

Date

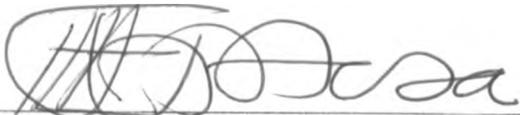
This thesis has been submitted for examination with our approval as University supervisors:



PROF. PETER K'OBONYO
Faculty of Commerce
University of Nairobi
Nairobi, Kenya

16-11-2001

Date



DR. EVANS AOSA
Faculty of Commerce
University of Nairobi
Nairobi, Kenya

16-11-2001

Date

No part of this thesis may be reproduced, stored in any retrieval system, or transmitted in any form by any means: electronic, photocopy, recording or otherwise, without prior written and signed permission of the author or University of Nairobi on that behalf.

DEDICATION

This doctoral thesis is dedicated to my dear family: Alex Musau Kaloki, Jimmy Kyalo Kaloki and my wife, Gloria Kaloki

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

It is with much gratitude that I acknowledge the guidance and help of my doctoral thesis supervisors, Dr. Evans Aosa and Professor Peter K'Obonyo. I am very thankful for many hours they spent reviewing the study and providing insightful comments and direction.

I am also very grateful to my friends Dr. Frederick Nafukho and Dr. John Kipngeno Rugutt at Louisiana State University for their genuine concern, support and encouragement over my progress with the study. I am especially thankful to Dr. Rugutt for his kindness and many hours he spent assisting me in coding the questionnaires and in designing the computer programs used to analyze the data.

I convey my special thanks to Dr. Gary Cook, President, Dallas Baptist University for the financial support to undertake my doctoral studies at the University of Nairobi.

I must thank David Wasike for assisting me with the data entry, Winnie Ndavi and Felicia Wright for assisting me with typing the manuscript. Also, I am most grateful to Sandy Smith and Valerie Fegurson for her valuable assistance on this project.

I would like to thank my parents, James Kaloki and Alice Kaloki, who provided me with continuous support and encouragement over the years. My wish to succeed was as much for them as it was for me, and I will always remain thankful for their influence in my life.

Most importantly, I express my sincerest appreciation to my wife, Gloria Kaloki. Without her patience, understanding, and continuous support, my study would not have been possible.

For my sons: Alex Kaloki (now 5) and Jimmy Kaloki (now 7) thank you for bringing much joy in my life.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

DEDICATIONS	ii
ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS	iv
LIST OF TABLES	viii
LIST OF FIGURES	x
ABSTRACT	xi
CHAPTER 1	1
INTRODUCTION	3
Background of the Study	7
Statement of the Problem	10
The Purpose of the Study	10
Research Questions	11
Conceptual and Operational Definitions of Variables	11
Limitations of the Study	14
Significance of the Study	16
Chapter Summary	17
CHAPTER 2	19
LITERATURE REVIEW	19
Dimensions of Culture	23
Power Distance	24
Decision Making	30
Compensation Strategies	31
Uncertainty Avoidance	32
Rules	35
Family Relations	36
Risk Taking	37
Individualism - Collectivism	37
Community Relationships	42
Job Security	43
Trust and Loyalty	45
Respect	46
Mutual Obligations	48
Hiring Practices	49
Masculinity - Femininity	50
Job Stress	52
Work Ethics	52
Goals and Expectations	55
Employee Job Satisfaction	59
Conceptual Framework	66

Chapter Summary	68
CHAPTER 3	70
METHODOLOGY	70
Research Design	71
The Target Population	71
The Sample	71
Data Collection Instrument	73
Reliability of the Instrument	74
Validity of the Instrument	75
Data Collection Procedures	76
Data Preparation and Quality	77
Data Analyses Procedures	78
Descriptive Statistics	78
Correlation Analyses	79
One-way and Multiple-way ANOVA's	80
Factor Analyses	81
Reliability Statistics	83
Regression Analyses	83
Chapter Summary	84
CHAPTER 4	86
RESEARCH RESULTS AND FINDINGS	86
Summary of the Demographics and Personal Characteristics of Employees	86
Gender and Marital Status of the Respondents	86
Age of the Respondents	87
Years of Formal Education Completed	88
Number of Years Employed	88
The Type of Managers Preferred by the Respondents	89
Summary of the Means and Standard Deviations	91
Summary of Results of Factor Analyses	98
Reliability Analyses and Validity of the Instrument	102
Descriptive Statistics for the Factor Scales	104
Results of Analyses for Primary Research Questions	105
Relationships Between employees' Cultural Beliefs and Job Satisfaction	107
Relationships Between employees' Personal Goals and Job Satisfaction	111
Relationship Between employee Expectation and job satisfaction	114
Chapter Summary	123

CHAPTER 5	124
DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSIONS	124
Major Findings and Conclusions	124
Major Finding Number One.....	124
Major Finding Number Two.....	124
Major Finding Number Three.....	126
Major Finding Number Four.....	127
Major Finding Number Five.....	128
Discussion and Implications of Major Findings.....	129
Methodological and Research Design Issues	139
Implications Related to Practice and Policy	141
Directions for Future Research.....	145
Thesis Summary	145
REFERENCES	147
APPENDICES	159
A LETTER REQUESTING PERMISSION TO DO RESEARCH IN KENYA	159
B LETTER REQUESTING PERMISSION TO DO RESEARCH IN FIRMS	160
C TRANSMITTAL LETTER.....	161
D LETTER REQUESTING PERMISSION TO USE RESEARCH INSTRUMENT.....	162
E SURVEY INSTRUMENT.....	164
VITA	174

LIST OF TABLES

1	Key Differences Between Low and High Power Distance Countries.....	22
2	Power Distance Index (PDI) Values for 50 Countries and Regions.....	25
3	Attitudes Towards Management Practices.....	26
4	Key Differences Between Low and High Uncertainty Avoidance Countries.....	30
5	Uncertainty Avoidance Index (UAI) Values for 50 Countries and 3 Regions.....	31
6	Key differences Between Collectivism and Individualism Countries.....	35
7	Individualism Index (IDV) Values for 50 Countries and 3 Regions.....	37
8	An African Focus on 'Need Importance'.....	41
9	Masculinity Index (MAS) Values for 50 Countries and 3 Regions.....	48
10	Key Differences Between Femininity and Masculinity Countries.....	50
11	The Number of Questionnaires Administered and Useable.....	69
12	The Marital Status of Respondents in the Study by Gender.....	83
13	The Age of the Respondents in the Study.....	83
14	Years of Formal Education Completed.....	84
15	Number of Years Employed.....	85
16	The Type of Managers Preferred by the Respondent.....	86
17	Summary of the Means and Standard Deviations of the Variables.....	87
18	Job Expectations.....	95
19	Job Satisfaction.....	96

20 Employee Goals	97
21 Cultural Beliefs.....	98
22 Summary of the Cronbach Alpha Reliability Coefficient for Study Subscales for all Employees (n = 348).....	99
23 Summary of Descriptive Statistics for Each Subscale of the Two- Factor Solution of (Items A) and the Two-Factor Solution of (Items C) for the Total Sample of Employees (n = 348).....	100
24 Summary of Intercorrelations Among National Culture Survey (NCS) Subscales for the Total Sample of Employees (n = 348).....	102
25 Simple Correlation Matrix for Cultural Beliefs Items used as Independent Variables in the Regression Model (n = 348).....	104
26 The Regression Model Coefficients with Employee Job Satisfaction as Dependent Variable on Cultural Beliefs Items (n = 348).....	106
27 Regression Analysis of Variance Table with Job Satisfaction as the Dependent Variable, and Cultural Beliefs Items as Predictors in the Regression Model (n = 348).....	107
28 Simple Correlation Matrix for Employee Personal Goals Items used as Independent Variables in the Regression Model (n = 348).....	108
29 The Regression Model Coefficients with Employee Job Satisfaction as Dependent Variable on Employee Goals Items (n = 348).....	109
30 Regression Analysis of Variance Table with Job Satisfaction as the Dependent Variable on Employee Goals (n = 348).....	110
31 Simple Correlation Matrix for Employee Expectations Items used as Independent Variables in the Regression Model (n = 348).....	112
32 The Regression Model Coefficients with Job Satisfaction as Dependent Variable on Employee Expectations (n = 348).....	113
33 Regression Analysis of Variance Table with Job Satisfaction as the Dependent Variable on Employee Expectations (n= 348).....	114

34 Summary of Differences Between Groups [Kenyan and Non-Kenyan Employee Status] (MANOVA) on Cultural Beliefs, Expectations, Employee Goals and Job Satisfaction.	116
35. Summary of Two-way Analysis of Variance between Employee's Gender and Length of Employment.....	119

LIST OF FIGURES

1	An Employee Work Environment Model Linking Cultural Beliefs, Expectations, Goals and Job Satisfaction.....	64
2	Percentage of the Maximum Possible Score for Employees' Cultural Beliefs, Goals, Expectations and Job Satisfaction Subscales Kenyans and Non-Kenyans Employees.....	117

ABSTRACT

The purpose of this study was two-fold. First, a conceptual framework was developed to link cultural beliefs, expectations, personal goals and job satisfaction of the employees working in foreign-owned firms in Kenya. Second, the following four specific objectives were developed to guide the study: to determine the relationship between employees' cultural beliefs and job satisfaction; to determine the relationship between employees' goals and job satisfaction; to determine the relationship between employees' expectations and job satisfaction, and to determine if a difference existed between Kenyans and non-Kenyan employees working in foreign-owned firms in Kenya when compared simultaneously on cultural beliefs, expectations, personal goals and job satisfaction.

The sample consisted of Kenyan and non-Kenyan employees working in seven foreign-owned firms operating in Nairobi, Kenya. The data was collected using a questionnaire developed by Hofstede (1980). Hofstede's instrument contains measures of employees' cultural beliefs, expectations, personal goals and job satisfaction in work-related cultural values found in the workplaces.

The major findings of the study showed that 1) there exists weak to moderate relationship between cultural beliefs, goals, expectations and job satisfaction among employees working in the seven foreign-owned firms; 2) employee cultural beliefs had a positive and statistically significant relationship with job satisfaction, 3) there existed statistically significant relationship between goals and job satisfaction, 4) there existed statistically significant differences in job satisfaction between female and male employees when gender and employee length of employment were used as independent variables in an analysis of variance model; 5) the multivariate analysis of variance suggest that the Kenyan

and non-Kenyan employees were significantly different from each other on cultural beliefs and employee goals; 6) there were no meaningful differences that existed in selected demographic variables—age of the employee, length of employment and years of formal education, when job satisfaction was used as the dependent variable, except where gender and employee's length of employment were used as independent variables

Major findings and conclusions of the study are discussed in view of their implications for future research, research design methodology, policy and practice

CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

While literature is replete with the study of cultural beliefs, expectations, goals and job satisfaction, few studies have been done that link these variables together. Johnson, Parasuramen, Futrell and Black (1990) noted that job satisfaction determines employees performance; Rainey (1991) identified job satisfaction as a concept that has been intensely studied because of the intuitively compelling force behind the hypothesized relationship between job satisfaction and employees performance. Herzberg (1959; 1968) who developed a widely known two-factor theory of job satisfaction found that the nature of the work environment is the primary determinant of employees job satisfaction, and that satisfaction in the workplace is “intrinsic” to the job in which the employee is directly involved. Bagozzi (1980) sees job satisfaction as the pleasurable emotional state salespeople derive from a positive appraisal of their interactions and experiences on the job. Morse (1953) established that both lack of information necessary to do a particular job (role ambiguity), and the incompatibility of different demands (role conflict) made on a position, affect job satisfaction.

Tang and Li-Ping (1999) in a study of sex differences in regard to satisfaction with pay among faculty and staff at a higher public education public institution found no significant differences between university staff and faculty. However, a difference was observed between males and females where males tended to have higher satisfaction with pay than females. In this study, Tang and Li-Ping (1999) found that the females tended to have a higher satisfaction with co-workers than males. Reiner and Zhao (1999) state

that the causal relationship among job satisfaction, demographic attributes and work environment continue to remain unclear. Reiner and Zhao further state that if Herzberg's theory (1959; 1968) is correct, then the immediate work environment should have a direct effect on employee job satisfaction, while demographic factors may have an insignificant or indirect relationship to employee job satisfaction.

Carla (1995) posits that when multinational corporations locate in other cultures, to avoid counting on instant understanding of the local job processes but instead develop a human resource department that will work with the local employees in fostering cultural sensitivity and thus increase employee productivity, morale, and job satisfaction. Taylor (1999) states that while informal feedback from supervisors, co-workers and clients is an important means by which professional accountants derived satisfaction from the nature of their work, their satisfaction with their supervisors and promotional prospects, informal feedback inherent in the job itself is strongly linked to satisfaction with remuneration.

In the extant literature, considerable attention has been paid to the relationship of national cultural values to the skills of managers, management practices (Hofstede 1975; 1980; 1991; Schneider, 1989; Jaeger, 1990; Schnedier & DeMeyer; 1991) and industrial and entrepreneurial development (Franke, Hofstede & Bond, 1991; Hofstede & Bond, 1988; Yeh & Lawrence, 1995). Adler (1991), noted that out of 11,000 articles published in 24 management journal between 1971 and 1980, fewer than 1 percent focused on people from two or more cultures working together, an important area for international

business success. Hofstede's work measuring cultural values associated with relationship to power distance (authority), uncertainty avoidance, individualism-collectivism, and masculinity orientations has been particularly influential (Hofstede 1975; 1980; 1991). However, research in this area has not been integrated into the possible linkages found in cultural beliefs, expectations, goals and job satisfaction of employees working in foreign-owned firms. Given that the majority of firms operating in developing countries are one of the biggest employers of the local populace, knowledge of their operations, contributions to local economies, interaction with local cultures and that of its workforce is of paramount importance.

Background of the Study

A fundamental shift is occurring in the global economy. According to Hill (2001), countries are moving away from a world in which national economies were isolated from each other by barriers of international business such as distance, differences in government regulations, culture, and moving toward a world in which national economies are now merging into an interdependent global economic system, commonly referred to as globalization. Foreign-owned firms are playing an increasing role in the global economy as firms continue to increase cross-border investments. These firms produce and sell goods and services on an international basis, often far from the country's headquarters. This often calls for establishment of branches and subsidiaries outside their national boundaries. According to Lane et al. (1997), as people from different cultures interact, difficulties may be experienced because behaviors are based on different

expectations and are the result of different mental programs. Hofstede (1980), found that these mental programs exert a pervasive, yet hidden, influence on behavior. As a result of having different mental programs, people often see situations differently and have different approaches and solutions to problems.

As firms such as General Motors, Ford, Rover, and others have learned from Japanese competition, national markets are no longer safe from foreign competition (Mead, 1994). According to Mead, by 1991, approximately 70 percent of all goods produced in the United States were exposed to international competition. This process of foreign involvement increases as companies in newly developing countries learn that in order for their economies to survive and compete with other countries, they must produce and market on a world-wide basis. Growth in foreign-owned firms, according to Mead, means then that expatriate managers increasingly have to deal with employees from other national cultures, and must develop skills and strategies for interacting effectively with other people whose behavior is influenced by other cultural environments.

United Nations Human Development Report (1996) pointed out that between 1988 and 1995, export growth for the developing countries approached an average of close to 9 percent a year. In the ten years leading up to 1994, foreign direct investment had doubled as a share of global gross domestic product (GDP); with the share to developing countries accounting for one third of the increase. According to the report, this increase in foreign direct investment is a sign of improving confidence levels on the

part of multinational corporations (MNCs) in their ability to offer a stable and attractive economic environment in those countries in which they are operating.

Even though in this last decade African countries have received a large share of foreign-owned firms' investments, a review of the literature shows that majority of empirical management studies performed are based on research carried out in the United States, Europe, and Asian countries (Blunt and Jones 1992; Harvey, 1997). The results of these studies have demonstrated that different countries have contrasting cultures, and yet conclusions drawn from them have assumed a universal approach to management (Adler, 1991).

As international business continues to increase, a strong need for cross-cultural understanding of intercultural relationships in the workplace should be addressed (Harris and Moran, 1996). Harris and Moran pointed out that an increase in international business trade makes it imperative for business people to develop a good understanding of the culture of other countries. Understanding the culture of employees in a particular country and the importance of intercultural relationships dictates that corporations must make considerable investments in training employees who work in a cross-cultural environment (Harvey, 1997)

Although a few studies have recommended that foreign-owned firms train their expatriate managers and employees before assignments, studies show that these firms are still failing to adequately train their employees in these important cross-cultural skills, which leads to poor employee job satisfaction and performance (Adler, 1991; Harris and

Moran, 1996). For example, between 16 and 40 percent of all expatriate managers who are given foreign assignments end these assignments early because of their inability to adjust to a new culture in a foreign environment. This high turnover rate causes significant direct and indirect costs to corporations (Baker and Ivancevich, 1971; Black, 1988; Tung, 1991). Further studies indicate that as high as 50 percent of those expatriates who do not return early, function at a lower level of effectiveness (Copeland and Griggs, 1985). For a firm that has hundreds of expatriate employees worldwide, such costs can easily run into millions of dollars. In fact, Copeland and Griggs (1985) estimated that the direct cost to the United States firms of failed expatriate assignments was over US \$2 billion a year as at that time. More recent evidence suggests that each failure could cost between \$250,000 to \$1 million, depending on the employee's salary, the country, and whether a family transfer was involved (Caudron, 1992). In spite of these experiences, American firms, for example, still believe that what works at "home will work anywhere" (Harris and Moran, 1996).

A study of 123 executives from large U.S. multinational corporations is revealing (Tung and Miller, 1991). The study shows that although the executives acknowledged the importance of cross-cultural training before assuming overseas assignments, American corporations were not committing adequate resources in preparation of their expatriates for international assignments, and this led to the failure of expatriate employees to adjust to foreign environment assignments. Beamer and Varner (2001), found that multinational corporations in the United States to base staffing decisions

typically on technical knowledge rather than good cross-cultural skills. In addition, Harvey (1997), in a study on the dual-career expatriates, found that expatriate employees were not provided with adequate cross-cultural training before their assignments. Affirming indeed that culture affects employees' job satisfaction and performance,

Harvey noted:

“the inability of expatriate managers and their spouses to successfully adjust to a new host culture . . . influences their level of satisfaction, the expatriate's performance level, and . . . affects the dual-career couple's ability to fulfill their expatriate job obligations” (1997).

Chapter 2 presents a conceptual framework of the study showing an employee work environment model linking cultural beliefs, expectations, personal goals and job satisfaction.

Statement of Problem

Traditionally, both scholars and multinational corporations' managers have assumed the universality of management. Research has showed that these companies have a tendency to take those management concepts and techniques that worked at home into other countries and cultures. It is now clear, both from practice and cross-cultural research, that this universality assumption of management, at least across cultures, does not hold up (Hodgetts and Luthans, 2000).

Although literature describing culture's consequences on international differences in work-related values, international dimensions of organizational work place behavior, cross-cultural comparison of employees' motivation, cultural and situational determinants

of job satisfaction is voluminous, most of it has concentrated generally on the impact of culture on organizations. Employee expectations in the workplace, cultural beliefs, personal goals and the job satisfaction process itself is inordinately complex and little is known about how these variables are linked. Significantly, there is no known conceptual framework for understanding these linkages in complex organizations. It is crucial to know that there is a rapid change in profile of global business environment as indicated by the tendency of most countries to strive for free world trade and the removal of trade barriers as depicted by the expansion of world trade. There is also a change in attitudes of many developing countries toward foreign-owned firms and foreign direct investment. Many developing countries are adopting an export-oriented strategy for economic growth and development with regional trade agreements and pacts coming up to reduce trade restrictions among their members while structures are being put in place to increase intra-region trade. Technological advancements have brought about technological developments in many sectors, particularly in manufacturing, thus altering the nature of international business. This has brought about competition for capital as the demand for it rises while international linkage among countries is creating a higher degree of interdependency, characterized by an increasing volume of foreign direct investment. To realize growth and be competitive in the global business while meeting the needs of employees of foreign-owned firms, there is a dire need to understand the complex nature of the linkages among work variables such as employee expectations in the workplace, cultural beliefs, personal goals and the job satisfaction.

However, little empirical research has addressed the relationship between cultural beliefs, personal goals, expectations and job satisfaction of employees of firms doing business in foreign countries. The most compelling evidence for the limited investigation in this area is the study conducted by Blunt and Jones (1986) on organizational development and change in Africa. Jones and Blunt found that in Africa there is little understanding of the effects of local African culture on management practices and that expatriate managers do not consider the local culture in their management practices in Africa. Nzelibe (1986) found that expatriate managers in Nigeria applied western management practices in the workplace and failed to consider the implications of the local culture on management practices.

This study addresses this void by utilizing these variables (cultural beliefs, expectations, personal goals and job satisfaction) prominent in the literature of the impact of culture on organizations. The literature on the impact of culture on organizations and culture's consequences have generally focused on the effect of culture on management practices and the development of dimensions of culture (Abudu, 1986; Adler, 1991; Harris & Moran, 1996; Hofstede, 1984; Stephens et al. 1995). This study is designed to enhance the understanding of the relationship between cultural beliefs, expectations, personal goals, and job satisfaction of the employees of foreign-owned firms in Kenya. Understanding the relationship of these variables enables implementation of strategies and success of a business venture. The study model, shown in Figure 1, explores the direct relationships between each of the work-related variables (Culture, Employee Expectations and Employee Goals) and Job satisfaction. The study will also investigate the direct relationship between employees' cultural beliefs and expectations and between employees' expectations and Goals. Finally, the study will explore the indirect relationships between cultural beliefs and goals, and expectations and job satisfaction.

Further, this study provides a more comprehensive and integrated approach to understanding the linkages between cultural beliefs, expectations, goals' and job satisfaction of the employees of foreign - owned firms in Kenya by investigating the

interwoven nature of work related-values and its complex nature of interrelationships as depicted in the conceptual model.

The Purpose of the Study

The main purpose of this study was to determine the relationship between employees' cultural beliefs, personal goals, expectations and job satisfaction of the employees working in foreign-owned firms in Kenya. The four specific objectives that guided the study were:

- 1 To determine the relationship between cultural beliefs and job satisfaction among employees of foreign-owned firms in Kenya.
- 2 To determine the relationship between personal goals and job satisfaction among employees of foreign-owned firms in Kenya.
- 3 To determine the relationship between expectations and job satisfaction among employees of foreign-owned firms in Kenya
- 4 To investigate the difference between Kenyan and Non-Kenyan employees of foreign-owned firms in Kenya when compared simultaneously on cultural beliefs, personal goals, expectations, and job satisfaction.

Research Questions

As this is an exploratory study focusing on the development of a conceptual framework of the linkages between employees' cultural beliefs, expectations, goals, and job satisfaction, research questions have been used to guide data collection and analysis instead of hypotheses deductively derived from theoretical frameworks. Relationships among the dependent and independent variables are studied in order to understand the

relationships among them and their generalization across the foreign-owned firms doing business in Kenya. Therefore, to achieve the objectives of the study, and to provide answers to the questions that deal with the relationships between employee cultural beliefs, expectations, personal goals, job satisfaction and selected demographic variables, this study addressed the following research questions:

1. Are there relationships between any of the independent variables (cultural beliefs, expectations, personal goals) and the dependent variable (job satisfaction)?
2. How, and in what combinations does the study subscale items explain job satisfaction?
3. Is there a difference between Kenyan and non-Kenyan employees of foreign-owned firms in Kenya when compared simultaneously with cultural beliefs, employee expectations, personal goals and job satisfaction?
4. Are the relationships between employees' cultural beliefs, expectations, and goals (as predictor variables) and job satisfaction (as criterion variable) moderated by demographic variables?

Conceptual and Operational Definitions of Variables

This section presents conceptual definitions of the dependent variable and the three independent variables, along with other components of the conceptual framework. A conceptual definition, followed by an operational definition, is provided for each of the independent and dependent variables in the study. The three independent variables that

were studied: 1) Employee cultural beliefs, 2) Employee expectations, and 3) Employee personal goals. The dependent variable is job satisfaction

Cultural Beliefs: Cultural beliefs are the sum total of beliefs, practices, habits, likes, dislikes, norms, costumes, and rituals that individuals learn from various families and friends during the years of socialization (Hofstede, 1983). Cultural beliefs were operationalized as the sum total of each employee's cultural beliefs survey item responses (Appendix E, C10 through C19).

Expectations: Expectation is the gap between the ways that people think rewards in organizations should be distributed and the realities of how rewards are actually passed out (Leicht, 1998). It is the different combinations of actual workplace experiences combined with appeals to prevailing societal and personal demands, perceptions of how one gets ahead, and reactions to these perceptions. (Appendix E, A3 through A16).

Goals: Conceptually, a goal can be defined as a desired future outcome that an individual, group or organization strives to achieve. In this study, goal was operationalized as the sum of individual employee's goal survey item responses (Appendix E, C1 through C9).

Job Satisfaction: Job satisfaction was conceptualized as the degree to which employees have a positive affective orientation toward employment. Job satisfaction is a collection of feelings and beliefs that employees have about their current jobs. It deals with whether employees find their employment sufficiently rewarding to continue in it (Hoppcock, 1935). It was operationalized in this study as the sum of individual employee's job satisfaction survey item responses (Appendix E, A17 through A30).

The definitions of terms that frequently come up in the discussion of this study came, in part, from Hofstede (1991) and in an extensive reading of literature related to this research. For brevity, references are not provided within the text of the definition but a detailed description is presented in the chapter that follows.

Employee: A person who exchanges her/his mental and/or physical efforts for wage/salary. For this study, an employee was operationally defined as a person, both a Kenyan and non-Kenyan, working in one of the seven selected study firms, with an employment rank below that of a supervisor but above that of a temporary/casual worker.

Collectivism: Members in a collective society place great importance on the extended family or organizations. Collectivism is characterized by a tight social framework in which members of this cultural dimension, distinguish themselves by being either in “in-group” or “out-group”, and expect their organizations to defend their personal interests.

Cultural Values: These are general beliefs that either define what is right and wrong or specify general preferences. It is that which is explicitly or implicitly desirable to an individual or a group of individuals.

Femininity: In feminine societies emphasis is placed on quality of life, helping others, and putting personal relationships before money.

Foreign-Owned Firms in Kenya: Foreign-Owned Firms (FOF) are identified as those firms doing business in Kenya with an affiliated parent company that is based outside the country regardless of shares owned or invested in them by the Kenyan nationals.

Individualism: Individualism represents a dimension in which people take care of themselves and their immediate families. Individualism makes people place great

importance upon themselves or a small group of peers. Individual cultural values such as self-worth and well-being are regarded highly by the society.

Power Distance: It is the degree to which less powerful members of organizations accept and expect that power is distributed unequally. It is a belief that inequalities of hierarchical power is expected to be presented in all areas of the workplace positions. The hierarchical inequality within a society is rooted in the mental programming of individuals within that society, and endures because members of the society have learned to accept it

Uncertainty Avoidance: It is the extent to which people feel threatened by ambiguous situations; and, in many situations, institutions and beliefs have been formed to minimize or avoid these situations.

Masculinity: In masculine societies, value is placed on performance, achievement, and the desire to be rich. It is the degree to which social gender roles are clearly distinct.

Limitations of the Study

Responses elicited from the employees were voluntary. As such, those employees who completed and returned the instruments might be viewed as more conscientious or interested in the study than those who did not return them.

The lack of survey culture in some foreign-owned firms in Kenya was a major limitation. Some managers had no prior experience in survey research conducted in their firms. This resulted in a lot of resistance and some could not grant permission to the investigator to conduct the study in their firms.

Furthermore, the findings of this study are applicable to the accessible population, that is all the employees working in the seven foreign-owned firms that participated in the study. The selection of the seven foreign-owned firms for detailed analysis might not necessarily uncover the real relationships between employees' cultural beliefs, expectations, personal goals, and job satisfaction in these firms than if many firms with diverse business activities had been included. A larger number of firms, such as one hundred or more, and a larger sample size from each firm, such as three hundred employees or more, from major industrial urban centers in Kenya such as Mombasa, Nairobi, Thika, Nakuru, Eldoret and Kisumu, could have produced more revealing and widely generalizable findings. Under limited budget and time constraints, it was practically impossible to cover these aspects of the study. Further, it was not possible to administer the questionnaire to all the employees in the seven firms selected due to financial limitations.

This study also carries the same limitation that all other cultural indexing studies carry: the assumption that cultures can be indexed at all. This field of endeavor assumes that cultures can be measured as discrete elements, because they are assumed to be discrete. In practice, the world's cultures are quickly becoming homogenized, so the identification of Kenyan or any other culture is becoming much more difficult. The researcher makes the same assumption that others have made in this field that cultures are discreet and they can be measured. The homogenization of world society calls for faster movement and more in-depth study of the phenomenon that currently separates

culture, because the indexes for measurable separation may be quickly disappearing due to factors such as education, technology, and globalization.

Significance of the Study

This study was designed to enhance the understanding of the relationships between cultural beliefs, expectations, personal goals, and job satisfaction of the employees of foreign-owned firms in Kenya. This study is significant because of the usefulness of its findings to the potential end users such as: multinational corporations, Kenya government, and the academic community.

The conceptual framework used in this study shows a relationship between employees' cultural beliefs, expectations, personal goals and job satisfaction. By doing so, it provides a clear understanding of variables and variable relationships, as well as clarifying the nature and extent of variables linkages among a workplace.

Foreign-owned firms in Kenya, or doing business in any other country in Africa, should find the study important. Findings generated from the study should indeed provide managers in foreign-owned firms with an understanding of how to improve their relationships with subordinates. Also, the acceptance of foreign-owned firms and their management practices by the employees and the host country is very important to its long-term survival and effectiveness (Black and Mendenhall, 1991). Another major benefit for foreign-owned firms is that some of the results may be applied to countries similar to Kenya's economic and cultural environment. According to Hofstede (1980, 1983), national cultures are clustered into groups. In this case then, knowledge about

Kenya may help in planning for strategic management practices in other countries in Africa with similar national cultures such as Tanzania, Uganda, or Malawi

Kenyan government should use the study findings in its long-term strategic planning. The study can enable, for example, the Ministry of Commerce and Industry to determine guidelines for enhancing employee job satisfaction in the workplace. The government can also use the study to encourage certain direct investments in the country and discourage those that do not recognize the country's cultural values and beliefs.

Academics who are interested in determining the factors that contribute to employee job satisfaction in the workplace should find the study relevant and of great importance. The findings of the study should further complement the results of the existing studies by adding knowledge to the existing literature and providing a basis from which hypotheses for future research can be developed. The researcher hopes that other researchers would rely on the methodology employed in this study to determine the influence of cultural factors on employees' job satisfaction in foreign-owned firms in Kenya and other African countries. This perhaps, may assist in building a theoretical model to guide research in the field of international business management

Chapter Summary

A brief overview of the literature, pertinent to each component of the conceptual framework used to guide this study, has been presented in Chapter 1. A statement of problem as well as the purpose of the study are presented. Research questions, which are derived from the conceptual model are presented. Conceptual, operational definitions,

definition of terms, and limitations of the study are also presented in this chapter. The chapter concludes with statements concerning significance of the study

An extensive review of the literature relative to the major components of the study is presented in Chapter 2, which culminates in a conceptual framework depicted schematically as figure 1

CHAPTER 2

LITERATURE REVIEW

Chapter two of this research documents reviews related literature and research pertinent to the variables depicted in the conceptual framework proposed at the end of Chapter two (Figure 1) to explain the linkages in the key study variables: cultural beliefs, expectations, employee personal goals and job satisfaction. This review provides a synopsis of research efforts necessary for the understanding of the construct of employee job satisfaction as it relates to cultural beliefs, expectations, and employee personal goals. Chapter two begins with a detailed review of perspectives of cultural beliefs and their components, expectations, goals and employee job satisfaction.

Little empirical research has addressed the relationship between cultural beliefs, personal goals, expectations and job satisfaction of employees of firms doing business in foreign countries. The most compelling evidence for the limited investigation in this area is the study conducted by Blunt and Jones (1986) on organizational development and change in Africa. Jones and Blunt found that in Africa there is little understanding of the effects of local African culture on management practices and that expatriate managers do not consider the local culture in their management practices in Africa. Contributing to this reasoning, Nzelibe (1986) found that expatriate managers in Nigeria applied western management practices in the workplace and failed to consider the implications of the local culture on management practices.

Abudu's (1986) study found similar views concerning neglect of African cultures by western approaches to management. The study revealed, for example, that the colonial

view of the African work force was very unfavorable. Early European traders, plantation owners, and administrators perceived the Africans as inherently lazy, unused to continuous hard work, and needing to be driven to achieve results (Ahiazu, 1986). According to Abudu, the Europeans' colonial perception of African labor arose from their lack of understanding and appreciation of the traditional milieu of African culture. African's reluctance to accept wage employment was believed to mean that Africans were lazy by colonial Europeans. The study revealed that Africans did not need wage employment because they had various assets, land being the main asset (Abudu, 1986). Further, Abdu noted that Africans had physical and psychological attachment to their land that represented a means of subsistence and legacy from ancestors to posterity. Under these circumstances, Africans' reluctantly left the security of their farms, with which they had established spiritual communion, for the unreliability and hazards of urban wage employment (Abudu, 1986).

Ahiazu's (1986) found that attention of some researchers in organizational behavior and culture has recently begun to be focused on the work attitudes and general work behavior of the African employees in the workplace. According to Ahiazu, what seems to emerge from most of these studies is that the work attitudes and behavior of an African in the workplace is different in many respects from those of his counterparts in the western world. Ahiazu argued that to understand the poor job satisfaction of an African employee in the workplace, one should start with identifying the cultural influences that shape the behavior of the African at workplaces. He suggested further that these influences were deep rooted in an African's cultural origins and historical

background, which color the perceptual process of the individual. Alianzu's study indeed then affirms that there could be a relationship between employees' cultural beliefs, expectations, goals and job satisfaction.

Kant (1912) pointed out that human beings do not perceive the world in the same way, but rather that knowledge of reality and reaction to social phenomena are conditioned by certain elements or categories and forms of intuition such as time and space. Kant argued that these elements do not have their source in external reality, but are characteristics of the human mind and govern all perceptions of the world. Dubin (1956) on the other hand, described Kant's perspectives as forms of collective representations and noted that their origins were to be found not in the mind per se, as Kant had suggested, but in society. In support of this argument, Ayisi's (1972) found that cultural beliefs constitute various institutions which guide and direct the individual actions in a society.

Otite's (1978) noted that the behavior of people cannot be fully understood unless one knows the culture of the people. On the basis of the foregoing, it is reasonable to argue that individual cultural beliefs in the workplace and its relationship with job satisfaction and management practices in general cannot be fully understood unless one understands the African culture.

Cross-cultural interactions in the workplace are not always successful (Black, 1987). For example, studies have found that between 16 and 40 percent of all expatriate managers who are given foreign assignments end these assignments early because of poor performance or their inability to adjust to the foreign environment

(Baker and Ivancevich, 1971; Black, 1988; Tung, 1981). Further studies show that as high as 50 percent of those expatriates who do not return early function at a lower level of effectiveness (Copeland and Griggs, 1985).

Other studies have revealed that the main reason for failure of negotiations between business people of different cultural backgrounds can be attributed to cross-cultural differences (Adler, 1991; Black, 1987). Indeed, 70% of managers who are sent on an expatriate assignment of between one to five years, are not trained on cross-cultural interactions in the workplace leading to inability to adjust to overseas assignments and poor job satisfaction (Baker and Ivancevich, 1971; Black, 1988). Lane et al (1997) also noted that as people from different cultures interact in the workplace, difficulties could be experienced because behaviors are based on different assumptions and expectations due to workers' different cultural environment and values. Different cultural environment and employee expectations may affect workers personal goals and job satisfaction

Nzelibe (1986) found that traditional beliefs in African countries play a key role in management practices of organizations. According to Nzelibe, African traditions call for adherence to accepted customs, cultural beliefs, and practices that determine accepted behavior, morality, and the desired characteristics of the individual in African countries. Such customs and practices according to Nzelibe, regulate individual attitudes and the formation of individual value systems in the workplace. Increasing international trade therefore makes it imperative for business people to develop a good understanding of the relationship between employee cultural belief,

expectations, goals and job satisfaction. Cultural differences can also be expected to influence the full range of interactions that take place in the business environment such as peer-peer, employee-client, and employee-manager (Reeding, 1980). Beamish et al (2000) found that employees were selected for international assignments based on their proven performance in a similar job, usually domestically. The ability to work with foreign employees was not considered as a factor in the selection criteria. Ball et al (2001) also pointed out that ignoring cultural differences in the workplace tend to cause numerous problems, such as lost sales, and poor employee motivation that contributes to low productivity. However, Ball et al found that when managers understand how to manage these employees' cultural differences, innovative business practices are realized in the organization.

To understand the effect of cultural beliefs on job satisfaction, it is necessary to understand the dimensions of national cultures, meaning of culture and its relationship with employees job satisfaction in the workplace.

Dimensions of National Culture

The review of literature was intended to provide the foundation for studying the relationship between cultural beliefs, expectations, personal goals, and job satisfaction of the employees of foreign-owned firms in Kenya. To investigate the African cultural milieu and its consequences in the workplace, Hofstede's (1980) model of cultural dimensions was used.

In the 1970s, Hofstede studied workers and managers of a large U.S. multinational corporation (IBM), collecting data first from forty countries and later increasing it to

fifty countries and three regions: East Africa (Kenya), West Africa, and Arab speaking countries. When the results of the study were analyzed, it was found that certain countries clustered along four specific cultural dimensions: power distance, uncertainty avoidance, individualism/collectivism, and masculinity/femininity (Hofstede, 1980). These four dimensions as described below, have been extensively used in investigations of the role of culture in management practices in different countries (Hodgetts and Luthans, 1993; Adler, 1991, Blunt and Jones, 1992; Kiggundu, 1988, Bjerke and Al-Meer, 1993).

Power Distance

The first dimension of national culture is power distance. Hofstede defines power distance as the degree to which less powerful members of organizations and institutions accept and expect that power is distributed unequally (Hofstede, 1980). According to Hofstede, institutions are the basic elements of society. These institutions include the family, school, the community, and organizations where people work.

Hofstede's study revealed that in high power distance countries such as in Kenya, parents put a high value on children's obedience and managers are seen as making decisions autocratically and paternalistically. In these countries employees are afraid to disagree with their supervisors; organizational structures are taller; weak perceived work ethic exists coupled with a more frequent belief that people dislike work, managers like seeing themselves as benevolent decision makers; and employees are reluctant to trust each other (Hofstede, 1984). Table 1 below summarizes these key differences between low and high power distance countries.

Table 1. Key Differences Between Low and High Power Distance Countries

In Low Power Distance Countries	In High Power Distance Countries
Parents put less value on children's obedience.	Parents put high value on children's obedience.
Students put high value on independence.	Students put high value on conformity.
Authoritarian attitudes in students are a matter of personality.	Students show authoritarian attitudes as a social norm
Managers seen as making decisions after consulting with subordinates.	Managers seen as making decisions autocratically and paternalistically.
Close supervision negatively evaluated by subordinates	Close supervision positively evaluated by subordinates.
Stronger perceived work ethic; strong disbelief that people dislike work.	Weaker perceived work ethic; more frequent belief that people dislike work.
Managers like seeing themselves as practical benevolent and systematic; they admit a need for support	Managers like seeing themselves as decision makers.
Employees are less afraid of disagreeing with their boss.	Employees fear disagreeing with their boss.
Employees show more cooperativeness.	Employees are reluctant to trust each other.
Inequality in society should be minimized.	There should be an order of inequality in this world in which everyone has his rightful place; high and low are protected by this order
All should have equal rights.	Power holders are entitled to privileges
Powerful people should try to look less powerful than they are.	Powerful people should try to look as powerful as possible.
People at various power levels feel less threatened and more prepared to trust people.	Other people are a potential threat to one's power and rarely can be trusted.
Cooperation among the powerless can be based on solidarity	Cooperation among the powerless is difficult to bring about because of low faith in people norm.

Source: Hofstede (1984, p. 92, 94)

Table 1 shows a summary of key differences between low and high power distance countries found in Hofstede's research

Employees in high power distance countries are afraid to express disagreement with their managers. Hofstede's observation had been supported by the work of Whyte (1969) who found similar results on "culture and work" in high power distance cultures. According to Whyte, in high power distance countries authority was concentrated in the hands of the manager, and subordinates learned that it was dangerous to question decisions of managers. In these countries, Whyte wrote, "employees learned to behave submissively at least in the presence of the boss." In addition, Whyte noted that in the presence of the manager, employees were uncomfortable to share their opinions with other employees.

This cultural belief did not occur only among lower-level employees in the workplace. For example, Negandhi and Prasad (1971), in another study, found that managers were afraid to express their ideas. A senior executive with a Ph.D. from a prestigious American university affirmed similar observation when he said:

"what is most important for me and my department is not what I do or achieve for the company, but whether the master's (i.e. owner of the firm) favor is bestowed on me. . . . This I have achieved by saying yes to everything the master says or does. . . . to contradict him is to look for another job. . . . I left my freedom of thought in Boston" (Negandhi and Prasad, 1971, p. 128).

According to Hofstede, in high power distance countries, employees fear to disagree with their managers. In these cultures subordinates learn that they can lose their jobs for questioning a decision made by superior, and people learn to behave submissively in the presence of their bosses (Hofstede, 1980). Further, Hofstede's (1980) findings confirm that

countries with high power distance have close control of operations, a fairly weak work ethic and poor employees job satisfaction. Organization structures are tall, and managers have a fairly small number of subordinates that report directly to them. Hofstede (1980) further found that the analysis of the questionnaire item dealing with the superior and subordinate relationship in workplace resulted in different responses across countries. Therefore due to differences in individual cultural beliefs there may be different expectations and goals between Kenyan employees and non-Kenyan managers working in foreign owned firms in Kenya, which can also relate to employee job satisfaction. Countries with moderate to low power distance, people place a high value on independence and managers consult with subordinates before they make decisions. In these cultures, there is a fairly strong work ethic and organizational structures are flat. Managers directly supervise more subordinates than their counterparts in high-power distance cultures. These cultural differences due to power distance orientation may result in differences in employee expectations in the workplace between the local and expatriate employees.

The following table demonstrates power distance index (PDI) values for fifty (50) countries and three (3) regions.

Table 2. Power Distance Index (PDI) Values for 50 Countries and 3 Regions

Score rank	Country or region	PDI score	Score rank	Country or region	PDI score
1	Malaysia	104	27/28	South Korea	60
2/3	Guatemala	95	29/30	Iran	58
2/3	Panama	95	29/30	Taiwan	58
4	Philippines	94	31	Spain	57
5/6	Mexico	81	32	Pakistan	55
5/6	Venezuela	81	33	Japan	54
7	Arab countries	80	34	Italy	50
8/9	Ecuador	78	35/36	Argentina	49

Table 2. Power Distance Index (PDI) Values for 50 Countries and 3 Regions (continued)

Score rank	Country or region	PDI score	Score rank	Country or region	PDI score
8/9	Indonesia	78	35/36	South Africa	49
10/11	India	77	37	Jamaica	45
10/11	West Africa (Nigeria)	77	38	USA	40
12	Yugoslavia	76	39	Canada	39
13	Singapore	74	40	Netherlands	38
14	Brazil	69	41	Australia	36
15/16	France	68	42/44	Costa Rica	35
15/16	Hong Kong	68	42/44	Germany FR	35
17	Colombia	67	42/44	Great Britain	35
18/19	El Salvador	66	45	Switzerland	34
18/19	Turkey	66	46	Finland	33
20	Belgium	65	47/48	Norway	31
21/23	East Africa (Kenya)	64	47/48	Sweden	31
21/23	Peru	64	49	Ireland (Republic)	28
21/23	Thailand	64	50	New Zealand	22
24/25	Chile	63	51	Denmark	18
24/25	Portugal	63	52	Israel	13
26	Uruguay	61	53	Austria	11
27/28	Greece	60			

Source: Hofstede, 1991, p. 26

Table 2 above shows high power distance values for African countries. Kiggundu's (1988) in another study suggested that African cultural groups would score high. For example, the scores of Kenya (64) and Nigeria (77), suggests a big social (power) distance between managers and subordinates. Leonard (1991) noted that in high power distance countries such as Kenya, senior managers are reluctant to delegate to their subordinates or engage in a participative type of management. Jones (1986) study found that Malawian managers failed to share relevant job information and employees were unwilling to participate in the decision making processes in the organizations. Table 3 below shows attitudes towards management practices in Malawi as compared to non-African countries. Hofstede's concept of power distance reveals that inequalities between

managers and employees in organizations is generally expected to be present in all the areas of interpersonal relationships. The inequality present between managers and employees within a society is conditioned by the mental programming of individuals within a particular national culture. The inequality endures because the society expects such inequalities to be the norm. Employees have learned to accept such differences in the workplace. Employees in high power distance countries such as in Kenya, may have learned to accept such differences (large gap in personal relationship between manager and employee) in the work place and Non-Kenyan managers attempt to narrow the gap could impact employees' job satisfaction negatively.

Table 3. Attitudes Towards Management Practices

	Capacity for leadership and initiative	Sharing information and objectives	Partici- pation	Control	N
<i>Nordic-European countries</i>					
Denmark	2.54	3.09	3.68	3.90	149
Germany	2.38	3.17	3.52	3.88	586
<i>Latin-European countries</i>					
Belgium	2.29	3.74	3.88	3.74	378
France	2.42	4.04	3.82	3.80	154
<i>Anglo-American countries</i>					
England	2.72	3.78	3.48	3.56	239
United States	3.13	3.98	3.56	3.58	464
<i>Developing countries</i>					
Argentina	2.64	2.96	3.31	3.62	198
India	2.81	2.96	3.35	3.38	114
Malawi	2.91	2.75	3.20	2.98	105

Higher means values indicate stronger endorsement of democratic attitudes. Source: Jones (1986)

Some other studies have established a relationship between power distance, decision-making, and compensation strategies. The following sections review the literature on these relationships.

Decision Making

In a major study in Africa, Jones (1986) found that managers were not willing to share important information and objectives concerning their employees' jobs. As shown in Table 3 above, the Malawian managers had the lowest mean score (2.75) when compared to France's mean score (4.04) and England's mean score (3.78). Jones' study revealed that in situations where managers were generally older than their subordinates, the holding on to information (and therefore power) reflected this factor. Secondly, the study remarked that the political reality in Malawi had another important influence. Jones' study also noted, as with African nations, decisions in Malawi were centralized. In this connection, Hofstede's (1980) study is relevant. Hofstede found that in high power distance cultures autocratic management practices were not only more common among managers but also were appreciated by employees. Contributing to this reasoning Bates (1984, 1990) found that subordinates in African organizations followed instructions closely and when in doubt waited for their managers' directives. This practice stemmed from a cultural belief that "one was not responsible for things beyond their control." Readiness to follow managers instructions closely and when in doubt to wait for manager's directives and decision making process may result in different employee expectations between Kenyan and non-Kenyan employees. The study concluded that in African organizations, decisions were made with little consultation or explanation and

with little input from lower-level employees. Similar studies on the effects of culture on management practices of foreign-owned firms found little evidence of a "bottom-up" decision-making process in high power distance countries (Johnson, 1977). These studies confirm that job satisfaction may be influenced by society's cultural acceptance of authority.

Compensation Strategies

Research on compensation plans in foreign-owned firms showed that these firms did not use structured guidelines in their compensation plans. The literature on U.S. Multinationals Compensation Strategies for Local Management: "Cross-Cultural Implications" by Hodgetts and Luthans (1993) revealed that guidelines for compensation management at the local level adhered to the culture of the country. For instance, Luthans suggested that multinational corporations in high power distance countries pursued a hierarchical compensation strategy for local managers meaning that pay and benefits were tied to the local manager's position in the organization. In order for foreign-owned firm's managers operating in these cultures to be motivated in their jobs, a relatively large salary gap between the lowest and the highest paid members of the organization should be considered highly. In low power distance cultures, the study concluded that employees job satisfaction is impacted positively when salary and benefits gaps between the lowest and the highest paid jobs, on average, is smaller.

In another study, Tannenbaum (1974) pointed out that great differences in power are associated with greater differences in rewards, privileges, and opportunities between bosses and subordinates and that subordinates were satisfied with such compensation

plans. According to these studies, differences in low and high power distance countries may result to differences in the way employees accept compensation and other opportunities in an organization. These studies also show that there is a relationship between employees' cultural beliefs, personal goals, expectations, and these cultural variables relate with employees' job satisfaction.

Uncertainty Avoidance

The second dimension of national culture is uncertainty avoidance. Hofstede defined uncertainty avoidance as the extent to which people feel threatened by ambiguous situations and have created institutions and beliefs to minimize or avoid these situations (Hofstede, 1980). Hofstede's findings have shown that cultures with high uncertainty avoidance try to reduce risk and develop systems and methods for dealing with such ambiguities. The countries found with strong uncertainty avoidance include: Greece, Uruguay, Guatemala, and Japan. Weak uncertainty avoidance countries were: Singapore, Sweden, Great Britain, the United States, and Canada.

According to Hofstede, countries with high uncertainty avoidance tend to structure organizational activities while depending heavily on rules and regulations--expectations are clear to everyone, and people often feel considerable anxiety and stress. Managers in these cultures, Hofstede added, tend to be very concerned with security, and decisions usually result from consensus. In low uncertainty cultures he found less structured activities. Managers are encouraged to take risks, are more ready to accept dissent and disagreements, and rely heavily on their own initiative and ingenuity to get things done.

(Hofstede, 1980). Hofstede measures this norm in an uncertainty avoidance index with a possible range similar to a power distance index.

The following Table 4 shows key differences between the low and high uncertainty avoidance countries.

Table 4. Key Differences Between Low and High Uncertainty Avoidance Countries

Low Uncertainty Avoidance Countries	High Uncertainty Avoidance Countries
Greater readiness to live by the day. Less hesitation to change employers.	More worry about the future. Tendency to stay with the same employer.
Loyalty to employer is not seen as a virtue	Loyalty to employer is seen as a virtue.
Preference for smaller organizations as employers	Preference for larger organizations as employers.
Hope of success.	Fear of failure.
More risk-taking.	Less risk-taking.
Stronger ambition for individual advancement	Lower ambition for individual advancement.
Rules may be broken for pragmatic reasons.	Company rules should not be broken.
Conflict in organizations is natural	Conflict in organizations is undesirable.
Acceptance of foreigners as managers	Suspicion toward foreigners as managers.

Source: Hofstede (1984, p. 132)

As shown in the above table, Hofstede found that in low uncertainty avoidance countries such as the United States, employees have less emotional resistance to change, less hesitation to change employers, loyalty to employers is not seen as a virtue, more risk taking, and that conflict in organizations is natural. On the other hand, in high uncertainty avoidance countries such as in Kenya (see table 4), Hofstede found that employees have more emotional resistance to change, worked with the same employer, and loyalty to employer is seen as a virtue. Employees are also less risk-taking, and conflict in organizations is undesirable. The study's conclusion confirms that job satisfaction is indeed a function of employees' cultural beliefs of a certain environment, expectations and personal goals.

The following table shows relative position of the fifty countries and three regions.

Table 5. Uncertainty Avoidance Index (UAI) Values for 50 Countries and 3 Regions

<i>Score Rank</i>	<i>Country or Region</i>	<i>UAI score</i>	<i>Score rank</i>	<i>Country or Region</i>	<i>UAI score</i>
1	Greece	112	28	Ecuador	67
2	Portugal	104	29	Germany FR	65
3	Guatemala	101	30	Thailand	64
4	Uruguay	100	31/32	Iran	59
5/6	Belgium	94	31/32	Finland	59
5/6	Salvador	94	33	Switzerland	58
7	Japan	92	34	West Africa	54
8	Yugoslavia	88	35	Netherlands	53
9	Peru	87	36	East Africa	52
10/15	France	86	37	Australia	51
10/15	Chile	86	38	Norway	50
10/15	Spain	86	39/40	South Africa	49
10/15	Costa Rica	86	39/40	New Zealand	49
10/15	Panama	86	41/42	Indonesia	48
10/15	Argentina	86	41/42	Canada	48
16/17	Turkey	85	43	USA	46
16/17	South Korea	85	44	Philippines	44
18	Mexico	82	45	India	40
19	Israel	81	46	Malaysia	36
20	Columbia	80	47/48	Great Britain	

21/22	Venezuela	76	47/48	Ireland (Republic of)	35
21/22	Brazil	76	49/50	Hong Kong	29
23	Italy	75	49/50	Sweden	29
24/25	Pakistan	70	51	Denmark	23
24/25	Austria	70	52	Jamaica	13
26	Taiwan	69	53	Singapore	8
27	Arab countries	68			

Source: Hofstede (1991, p.113)

Table 5 above demonstrates Hofstede's uncertainty avoidance index values for fifty countries and three regions. High scores were recorded in these countries: Greece (112), Portugal (104), Uruguay (100), Guatemala (101) and Japan (92). Medium high scores for East African countries were (52) and West Africa (54). The manifestation of uncertainty avoidance is displayed in people's adherence to rules, family relationships and risk taking. Uncertainty avoidance values can thus influence employees' beliefs, expectations and goals. Combined effect of these variables indeed will have to affect job satisfaction

Rules

Hofstede's (1980) study revealed that in uncertainty avoiding cultures there were many internal rules and regulations controlling the rights and duties of employees. Contributing to this reasoning, Blunt (1983) found that the breaking of traditional cultural norms was believed to carry strong penalties in many African societies. Among the Luo of Kenya, for example, it is believed that breaking norms and regulations associated with traditional burial rites may cause the spirit of the deceased to haunt surviving relatives and future generations. In high uncertainty avoiding cultures, such as in Kenya, family celebrations like baptisms, marriages, and especially funerals are extremely important

and as Blunt (1983) study has shown expatriate managers fail to understand the importance of these traditional burial rites. Blunt's study fails to provide a relationship between these cultural beliefs with employees' job satisfaction (Blunt, 1983). For instance, Hofstede also noted that when employees submitted their applications requesting special leave to attend these ceremonies, their requests were denied because expatriate managers considered the reasons given by the employees to be inauthentic. This then shows that employees job satisfaction will have to be impacted negatively due to expatriate managers' failure to consider relationships of cultural beliefs, expectations, goals and job satisfaction among local employees.

Family Relationships

Blunt's (1980) study on "Bureaucracy and Ethnicity in Kenya" found that rural homes for Kenyan employees constitute a major source of psychological security and are considered as a reservoir of traditional norms and values. Confirming this point, Blunt wrote:

"It is the place to which the migrants remit their meager savings and the place of their eventual retirement. In this setting the pace of social and technical change is muted by geographical location, traditions of kinship solidarity and shared norms and values" (Blunt, 1980).

The justification put forth by Blunt makes a significant contribution because family relationships are an important factor that influences employee job satisfaction in organizations. Other studies have shown that organizations in Africa have recognized the importance of cultural beliefs associated with family as the basic unit of socialization. Nzelibe (1986) found that socialization in the workplace formed a process through which

a person was transformed into an effective participant in the work processes. Nzelibe further remarked that family relationships in African societies were the building block of any organization. It provided an environment in the workplace where employees felt a sense of security and belonging, and these relationships also regulated employees behavioral attitudes.

Risk Taking

A study by Leonard (1991) on four public managers of Kenyan Rural Development revealed risk taking as another important factor affecting employee job satisfaction. The study noted that Kenyan managers avoided taking risk when making decisions. According to Leonard's study, the four managers who were under study demonstrated circumstances in which they had to put their own careers at stake by making decisions or advocating policies that were critical to their organizations. This study supports Hofstede's (1980) findings that in high uncertainty avoiding cultures, managers were less risk-takers. Contributing to this reasoning, Bate (1990) found African managers to be overcautious and lacking decisiveness. Further, Bate noted that African managers avoided data gathering on the causes of problems and lacked the willingness to confront and deal with employees' issues.

Individualism - Collectivism

The third national cultural dimension is individualism and collectivism. Individualism represents a dimension that measures the relative importance members place upon their own views and welfare. In an individualist society members place great importance upon themselves or a small peer group. Collectivism is characterized by a

tight social framework in which people distinguish between in-groups and out-groups. In-groups (relatives, clan, organizations) are expected to look after each other, and, in exchange, members pledge absolute loyalty (Hofstede, 1980). The dimension has importance for the study of cross-cultural variables because in some cultures strong individualism is considered favorable, representing a source of self-worth and well-being. In other cultures, individualism may be considered from a hostile viewpoint because collective thinking is the societal norm. The prevailing norm within a society concerning individualism versus collectivism may be expected to affect the relationship of the individual and the organizational environment in which the individual works. An individualist/collectivist dimension may have implications for managers as they consider the possibilities of managing effectively their foreign-owned firms. Table 6 below, summarizes the key differences between collectivism and individualism cultures.

Table 6. Key Differences Between Collectivism and Individualism Countries

Collectivism Countries	Individualism Countries
Involvement of individuals with organizations, primarily calculative.	Involvement of individuals with organizations, primarily moral
Employees expect organizations to look after them like family--and can become very alienated if organization dissatisfies them.	Organizations are not expected to look after employees from the cradle to the grave.
Organization has great influence on members' well-being.	Organization has moderate influence on members' well-being
Employees expect organization to defend their interests.	Employees are expected to defend their own interests.
Policies and practices based on loyalty and sense of individual duty.	Policies and practices should allow for initiative.

Table 6. Key Differences Between Collectivism and Individualism Countries (Continued)

Collectivism Countries	Individualism Countries
Promotions from inside.	Promotions from inside and outside.
Promotion on seniority.	Promotion on market value
Policies and practices vary according to relations (universalism).	Policies and practices apply to all (particularism).
Hiring and promotion decision take employee's in-group into account.	Hiring and promotion decision are based on skills and rules only
In society, people are born into extended families or of clans which protect them in exchange for loyalty. family	In society, everyone is supposed to take care of him or herself and his or her immediate
Children learn to think in terms of "we"	Children learn to think in terms of "I"
Identity is based on the social network to which one belongs.	Identity is based on the individual
Emotional dependence of individual on organizations and institutions.	Emotional independence of individual from organizations or institutions
Private life is invaded by organizations and clan's opinion; opinions are predetermined.	Everyone has a right to a private life and pinion.
Expertise, order, duty, security provided by organization clan.	Autonomy, variety, pleasure, individual financial security.
Belief in group decisions.	Belief in individual decisions
Less social mobility and weak development of middle class.	Greater social mobility and strong middle class.
Harmony should always be maintained.	Speaking one's mind is a characteristic of an honest person.
Purpose of education is learning how to do.	Purpose of education is learning how to learn.
Extended family or tribal structures.	Nuclear family structure
Historical factors: tradition of collectivist and action.	Historical factors: tradition of individualist thinking action.

Source: Hofstede (1984, p. 173)

Table 6 above illustrates the differences between collectivism and individualism countries. In collectivism countries, Hofstede (1984) affirmed that employees expected

Table 7. Individualism Index Values (IDV) for 50 countries and 3 regions

Score rank	Country or region	IDV score	Score rank	Country or region	IDV score
1	USA	91	28	Turkey	37
2	Australia	90	29	Uruguay	36
3	Great Britain	89	30	Greece	35
4/5	Canada	80	31	Philippines	32
4/5	Netherlands	80	32	Mexico	30
6	New Zealand	79	33/35	E. Africa (Kenya)	27
7	Italy	76	33/35	Yugoslavia	27
8	Belgium	75	33/35	Portugal	27
9	Denmark	74	36	Malaysia	26
10/11	Sweden	71	37	Hong Kong	25
10/11	France	71	38	Chile	23
12	Ireland (Republic of)	70	39/41	West Africa	20
13	Norway	69	39/41	Thailand	20
14	Switzerland	68	42	El Salvador	19
15	Germany, F.R.	67	43	South Korea	18
16	South Africa	65	44	Taiwan	17
17	Finland	63	45	Peru	16
18	Austria	55	46	Costa Rica	15
19	Israel	54	47/48	Pakistan	14
20	Spain	51	47/48	Indonesia	14
21	India	48	49	Colombia	13
22/23	Japan	46	50	Venezuela	12
22/23	Argentina	46	51	Panama	11
24	Iran	41	52	Ecuador	8
25	Jamaica	39	53	Guatemala	6
26/27	Brazil	38			
26/27	Arab countries	38			

Source: Hofstede (1991, p. 53)

organizations to look after them like a family member, expected organizations to defend their personal interests, believed in group decisions, and hiring and promotion decisions were based on seniority which took employees' in-group into account. Children in these cultures learned to think in terms of "we", and employees expressed emotional dependence on organizations and institutions. On the other hand, individualistic countries

such as in the United States, organizations were not expected to look after employees like a family member, organizations had moderate influence on member's well-being, and employees were expected to defend their own interests. In these cultures, promotions were based on market value. Other studies supporting Hofstede's findings on cultural beliefs in collectiveness countries include Hodgetts and Luthans (1993) which found that in these countries, employees' compensation strategies were influenced by seniority and family needs. Hofstede, Hodgetts, and Luthans failed to relate employees' cultural beliefs, goals, and expectations with job satisfactions in those organizations in order to provide a better understanding on foreign-owned firm's ways of motivating their employees.

Hofstede found that economically advanced countries placed greater emphasis on individualism than do poorer countries. For example, as shown in table 7 above, the United States scored (91), Great Britain (89), the Netherlands (80), and Canada (80). These scores demonstrate that these countries have high individualism. In contrast, Ecuador scored (8), Guatemala (6), Pakistan (14), and Indonesia (14) demonstrating that these countries have low individualism. The result for East Africa (Kenya) was (27), placing the country under a collectivist region. The countries that scored high on individualism subscribed to the notion of a nuclear family; for example, Britain and the United States fall under this category. According to the study, countries that scored high on collectivism values, had cultural characteristics of extended family, preferred to give assistance or help other members of the in-group, and to receive help from others as well (Hofstede, 1980). Kiggundu (1988) found that African countries scored high on collectivism because of the prevalence of the extended

family. The study noted that rural dwellers scored higher on collectivism than in urban towns. Collectivist countries preferred to place a great deal of importance on group decision making and affiliation.

A number of perspectives on individualism –collectivism as presented by various researchers are: community relationships, employee security, trust and loyalty, respect, mutual obligations, and hiring practices.

Community Relationships

Kenyans strongly believe in the concept of "communalism" as noted in Blunt's (1983) study. Blunt wrote:

"Groups of employees often pool resources to aid a colleague, and such resources may be provided over time with no obligation on the individual to repay or take second place in the queue on a future occasion "

Nzelibe (1986), while subscribing to this reasoning, added that this community relationship originated from the African cultural belief that the individual was not "alone" but belonged to the larger community. For instance, a misfortune such as death in the family was not for the family alone, but for the community as a whole. Blunt and Jones (1986) found similar observations. The study found that social interactions in African societies were interdependent and central to one's life within a community. In these societies employees have emotional dependence on organizations and institutions. Cultural beliefs in collectivist countries as Nzelibe, Blunt and Jones pointed out should then have a relationship with employees' expectations, personal goals, and job satisfaction.

Blunt and Jones (1986) endorsed Hofstede's empirical study by pointing out that in Kenya and Malawi promotion from within, and on the basis of seniority, was common and that policies and practices were changed primarily according to interpersonal relations. The study remarked that employees expected to be looked after like members of a family and employees felt alienated if their organizations failed to satisfy such expectations. Jones (1986) found similar observations in Malawi where employees expected the organizations they worked for to have a higher degree of responsibility for their welfare and development. Other similar observations by Nzelibe (1986) found that Western management practices placed a high value on individuality and recognized personal achievement in the workplace. Nzelibe's study showed that the opposite was also true in many African countries. For example, employees had more community consciousness and group harmony. Although Jones (1986), Nzelibe (1986), and Blunt and Jones (1986) confirmed Hofstede's collectiveness and individualistic cultural differences among employees working in African organizations and other Western countries, their studies failed to examine the relationship between these cultural variables with employees job satisfaction.

Job Security

Although Blunt (1983) showed that employees in collectivist countries such as in Kenya regarded job security at the workplace as important and Jones (1986) found that Kenyan and Malawian managers placed more importance on fulfillment of security needs than on autonomy, their studies failed to and Leonard (1991) found that, Kenyan managers attached highest importance to job security needs and avoided making risk decisions that could threaten their job security, these researchers failed to examine the

relationship of the manager's job cultural beliefs, expectations, and individual goals one brings to the organization with job satisfaction.

The following Table 8 demonstrates Blunt's findings.

Table 8. An African Focus on 'Need Importance' (Job Security).

	African Nations			Industrialized Nations		
	Malawi (N=105) Rank	Kenya (N=126) Rank	Liberia* (N=130) Rank	Australia** (N=1,339) Rank	United States (N=464) Rank	England (N=239) Rank
Security	1	1	1	3	4	3
Self-Actualization	2	2	2	1	1	1
Autonomy	3	3	3	2	2	2
Esteem	5	5	5	5	5	5
Social	4	5	4	4	3	4

Note: rankings are based on mean rating scores for each category.

Source: Blunt, P. and M. Jones (1986)

* Howell, Strauss, and Sorenson, loc. cit.

** Clark and McCabe, loc. cit.

As seen in Table 8 above, Kenyan and Malawian managers placed more importance on fulfillment of security needs (Rank 1) than on autonomy (Rank 3). The United States ranked (4) on the security "need importance." These findings supports Hofstede's (1980) study on collectivist. Hofstede suggested that in collectivist, which Blunt and Jones also argued, as was the case in Kenya and Malawi's study, managers in these countries rated security in their jobs the highest (1) Self-Actualization was rated second and autonomy rated third. Blunt (1976) had also found similar findings in support of this argument in Kenya.

Trust and Loyalty

Employees working in foreign-owned firms in collectivist and individualistic countries consider trust and loyalty in different ways. Hofstede's study found that in individualistic societies, a person could transact business with someone whom they had not established a trust relationship and loyalty. In these cultures, according to Hofstede, "business was done with a company." In collective cultures such as in Kenya, trust and loyalty is established before business is initiated. In Kenya, "business is done with a person whom one has learned to know and trust" (Waweru, 1984). Hofstede (1991) found that these cultural beliefs originated from the society's environment in collectivist societies, as shown in Table 7. The "family" within which the child grew up consisted of a number of people living closely together, not just the parents and other children, but, for example, grandparents, uncles, aunts, servants, known as the *extended family*. When children grow up, in these collective cultures, they learned to think of themselves as part of a 'we' group, a relationship which is not voluntary but given by nature. The 'we' group is distinct from other people in the society who belong to the 'they' group. Further, Hofstede noted:

"The 'we' group (or in-group) is the major source of one's identity, and the only secure protection one has against the hardships of life. Therefore one owes lifelong loyalty to one's in-group, and breaking this loyalty is one of the worst things a person can do. Between the person and the in-group a dependence relationship develops which is both practical and psychological" (1991, p. 50).

This confirmed Hofstede's study in collectivism cultures where loyalty and commitment to one's superior (in-group) is considered important by the society. Seddon's (1985) study remarked that in Kenya and Nigeria loyalty and commitment were valued

highly by employees beyond what was expected in the United Kingdom. Seddon affirmed this point by giving an example that he had encountered:

“An African employee had resigned from his company following a series of misunderstandings with an expatriate manager. The employee disclosed to his African superior that in seeking future employment he would not “trade” on the knowledge and company secrets he had gained from the manager. According to Seddon, his attitude was that it would be disloyal to do so, and that it was important for him to maintain his integrity and loyalty to his former boss.”

In support of this view, Davis (1969) also noted that in collectivist cultures, workers had personal loyalty to their managers but had little loyalty to the organization. This cultural belief, according to Davis, emanated from the extended family relationships and a strong father image that predominated in collective cultural relationships

Respect

Respect is another cultural value regarded highly by employees in African countries. Seddon (1985) study noted that African managers and subordinates expected respect from each other in the workplace. The study showed that African managers expected to demonstrate competence and authority in their work. Affirming this point, Seddon wrote:

"Demonstrating incompetence or admitting ignorance are signs of weakness. African employees on the one hand assume that they are not responsible for the things beyond their control and on the other hand are sensitized to negative feedback (i.e. attempts to attribute the responsibility for failure to the individual). The maintenance of face is central to an understanding of interpersonal behavior in the African organization." (Seddom 1985, p. 10).

In this regard, Seddon's argument supports Hofstede's (1991) findings on culture's consequences in work-related values. According to Hofstede, in high power distance countries, maintenance of face was highly regarded. Hofstede's (1980) study also, found that in collectivist cultures, mutual respect between managers and employees was highly regarded. Interpersonal relationships were accorded high value by many of the indigenous people of Africa (Gutkind, 1968). Peil's (1972) study among Ghanaian employees collaborated Gutkind's views. Peil confirmed that both the employees and supervisors considered respect from management to be an important source of motivation in performing their jobs; and all the employees surveyed considered good interpersonal relationships and respect as important in enhancing job satisfaction.

Kapferer (1972) noted that Zambian factory supervisors who had established good interpersonal relations and mutual respect with their employees were more satisfied with their jobs. In another study supporting this argument, Ahiauzu (1986) found that in Nigeria employees regarded "good boss" as one who treated his employees with respect and spoke nicely to them. This, according to Ahiauzu, entailed observing traditional requirements of etiquette of which politeness and kindness were essential ingredients. The study further revealed that when in public, employees' mistakes or weaknesses not to be pointed out by managers. "This should only be done in private and politely" (Ahiauzu, 1986). In support of this argument, Seddon (1985) found that in African organizations, employee feedback from management was rarely confrontational but rather a more subtle and indirect means were used to achieve the same end. For example, "an employee may find on Friday evening that the keys to the company vehicle that was

assigned to him were “unavailable”, meaning that the employee had been relieved from his position.

Mutual Obligations

Family obligations are considered important in collectivism cultures Seddon (1985) revealed that mutual obligations based on employee protection in the workplace in exchange for loyalty were very common in Kenya as well as in other African countries. In one aspect, for example, Seddon, noted that an employee with access to company cash to have stolen a sum of money by a senior African manager. The manager insisted that the missing money had to be returned, and that would end the matter. Unfortunately, Seddon pointed out that the employee had spent the money. The African manager then proceeded to organize a company loan for the employee, such that the matter could be resolved. Seddon added that at no time did the manager decide to either lay off the employee or transfer him to a position with less access to cash. Both the manager and the employee shared similar obligations and understanding towards the organization and the community. The only difference, according to Seddon, was that the manager recognized that he could not condone theft and that to lay off the employee would bring shame both on the employee and the manager as it would deprive the dependents of the employee of their main source of income. Seddon concluded by affirming that responsibilities and mutual obligations are key elements highly valued by African employees (collectivism culture), and as such these obligations are more important than the organization. This study affirms that the cultural environment of

employees working in foreign-owned firms have a relationship with individual goals, expectations and job satisfaction.

Hiring Practices

Review of the literature showed that expatriate managers did not consider family relationships as a factor in hiring practices (Blunt, 1983). In collectivism cultures, an employer never hires just an individual, but a person who belongs to an in-group (Hofstede, 1980). The employee act according to the interest of the in-group, which may not always coincide with his or her individual interest. Similar findings by Grillo (1969, 1973) among Luo and Luyia railway men in Kenya and Uganda, for example, showed that ethnically homogeneous work groups occurred in the workplace. The study found that workers from the Luo and Luyia ethnic groups dominated the East African Railways and Harbors (EAR&H) organization. Affirming this factor he wrote:

“In fact, if the figures are taken department by department, section by section, and depot by depot, there emerges a pattern wherein these tribes consistently predominate in some sections and depots but not in others. A similar pattern emerges in the Uganda figures.” (1969, p. 302).

Grillo observed a persistent relationship between ethnicity and particular sections running throughout his evidence. Indeed, Grillo went on to point out that virtually everyone in his sample felt obliged to find jobs for relatives or friends from "back home" who were on the look out for employment. The extent to which the railway men Grillo studied were able to fulfill such obligations was reflected by the fact that in one depot 40% of respondents had a relative working at the same place while 10% had a sibling working in the EAR&H, Kampala (Grillo, 1969, 1973).

These views also supported Hofstede's (1980) findings. The study shows that the hiring process in a collectivist society always took the in-group into account. He noted that the first preference was given in hiring relatives of the manager and other employees already employed by the company. Hofstede, further remarked that hiring persons from a family known by working employees increased job satisfaction and reduced turn-over problems. The study noted that the relatives were concerned about the reputation of the family and helped to correct misbehavior of a family member in the organization. In the individualist society, family relationships at work were considered undesirable as they led to nepotism and conflict of organizational interest. On the other hand, in collectivist cultures, the relationship between employer and employee was seen in moral terms, resembling a family relationship with mutual obligations of protection in exchange for loyalty. Poor performance of an employee was not a major reason for dismissal because, according to Hofstede, in collectivist cultures employees were considered as a family member and "one does not dismiss one's child." The acceptance of hiring practices in collectivist countries such as Kenya shows that employees job satisfaction is a function of cultural beliefs, personal goals and expectations.

Masculinity-Femininity

The fourth national cultural dimension drawn from the Hofstede (1980) research is masculinity, with its opposite concept of femininity. Masculinity is the degree to which social gender roles are clearly distinct. This dimension does not refer to the biological sex roles but to societal sex roles. Hofstede noted that in the masculinity society, value is placed on performing, achieving something visible, and making money;

while in the feminine societies, value is placed on quality of life, helping others, and putting personal relationships before money. Men are characterized as having high-stress lifestyles in which they are assertive, tough, and focused on material success; whereas women are supposed to have low stress characteristics, such as modesty, tenderness, and a concern for quality of life.

Table 9 below, indicates that the masculinity rank for East Africa (Kenya) was 41, meaning the country's culture is very feminine (Hofstede, 1980). Several studies have validated masculinity and femininity on job stress and on work ethics.

The following table shows the masculinity index values for fifty countries and three regions.

Table 9: Masculinity index (MAS) Values for 50 Countries and Regions

Score rank	Country or region	MAS score	Score rank	Country or region	MAS score
1	Japan	95	28	Singapore	48
2	Austria	79	29	Israel	47
3	Venezuela	73	30/31	Indonesia	46
4/5	Italy	70	30/31	West Africa	46
4/5	Switzerland	70	32/33	Turkey	45
6	Mexico	69	32/33	Taiwan	45
7/8	Ireland	68	34	Panama	44
7/8	(Republic of)		35/36	Iran	43
7/8	Jamaica	68	35/36	France	43
9/10	Great Britain	66	37/38	Spain	42
9/10	Germany FR	66	37/38	Peru	42
11/12	Philippines	64	39	East Africa	41
11/12	Colombia	64	40	El Salvador	40
13/14	South Africa	63	41	South Korea	39
13/14	Ecuador	63	42	Uruguay	38
15	USA	62	43	Guatemala	37
16	Australia	61	44	Thailand	34
17	New Zealand	58	45	Portugal	31
18/19	Greece	57	46	Chile	28
18/19	Hong Kong	57	47	Finland	26
20/21	Argentina	56	48/49	Yugoslavia	21
20/21	India	56	48/49	Costa Rica	21
22	Belgium	54	50	Denmark	16
23	Arab countries	53	51	Netherlands	14
24	Canada	52	52	Norway	8
25/26	Malaysia	50	53	Sweden	5

25/26	Pakistan	50
27	Brazil	49

Source: Hofstede (1991, p 84)

Job Stress

According to Hofstede (1991), feminine cultures had relative advantages in service industries like consulting, manufacturing according to customer specifications, and in handling live matter, such as high yield agricultural products. In these countries, there is low stress in the workplace, workers are given a great deal of freedom and thus employees are motivated in their jobs (Abudu, 1986).

Blunt and Jones' (1992) study on managing organizations in Africa found that the appeal of organizational effectiveness in Africa rests in management capacity to facilitate the realization of employees' personal ambitions, this in turn serves to lower employee job stress levels in the individual. Bjerke and Al-Meer (1993), also, revealed that feminine societies placed a great deal of emphasis on concern for others and friendly relationships among people, which served to lower the stress levels. According to Bjerke and Al-Meer, lower stress levels among the employees increased employees job satisfaction.

The masculinity score for fifty (50) countries and three (3) regions are shown on table 9 above. The result for East Africa (Kenya) was (rank 39) placing the country under femininity region.

Work Ethics

Another cultural factor affecting job satisfaction in foreign owned firms is employee work ethic. Hofstede's (1980) study found that in femininity countries,

employees had weak perceived work ethic, disliked work, were people oriented, and had sympathy for the unfortunate. Blunt (1983) found employees working in Kenyan firms regarded work as a means to an end, as a way of obtaining the income necessary to support a valued way of life. Workers in Kenya regarded their jobs, and work per se, purely as an instrumental activity, that is, something to be tolerated in order to gain money. According to Blunt, the meaning of work among the surveyed employees was simply that of providing enough money to satisfy their domestic needs thus, then impacting employees job satisfaction negatively (Blunt, 1983). Blunt affirmed this point when he quoted a Kenyan night watchman as saying:

"I have no choice but to come to town because I need money
Why should a man undergo such hardship for any other reason?
I must help my family. If that means working everyday...
I will do it. I cannot let my family suffer. (Blunt, 1983, p. 39)

Contributing to this reasoning, Hofstede (1980) found that expatriate managers from masculinity societies such as the United States, regarded work as part of one's life, meaning "they live to work," while in femininity societies such as Kenya, managers regarded work as means to an end "work to live." Cultural beliefs in this respect then may result in different job expectations and goals between local and expatriate employees working in foreign-owned firms. Such differences may also affect employees job satisfaction and organizational performance.

The following table 10 shows Hofstede's key differences between femininity and masculinity countries

Table 10: Key Differences Between Femininity and Masculinity Countries

Femininity	Masculinity
People orientation.	Money and things orientation
Quality of life and environment are important.	Performance and growth are important.
Work to live.	Live to work.
Interdependence ideal.	Independence ideal.
Intuition.	Decisiveness
Sympathy for the unfortunate.	Sympathy for the successful achiever.
Small and slow are beautiful.	Big and fast are beautiful
Men need not be assertive but can also take caring roles	Men should behave assertively and women should care.
Sex roles in society should be fluid.	Sex roles in society should be clearly differentiated.
Differences in sex roles should not mean differences in power.	Men should dominate in all settings.
Some young men and women want careers, others do not	Young men expect to make a career; those who do not see themselves as failures.
Organizations should not interfere with people's private lives.	Organizational interests are a legitimate reason for interfering with people's private lives.
More women in more qualified and better-paid jobs.	Fewer women in more qualified and better-paid jobs.
Women in more qualified jobs are not particularly assertive.	Women in more qualified jobs are very assertive.
Lower job stress.	Higher job stress.
Less industrial conflict.	More industrial conflict.
Appeal of job restructuring permitting group and individual integration.	Appeal of job restructuring permitting achievement.

Source: Hofstede (1984, p. 20)

Goals and Expectations

Bullock (1984) noted that setting goals and objectives has been a means to effect satisfaction at work and that when these interventions take place among employees, they are normally called "goal setting" programs. However, when they are management-oriented, they are called management by objectives (MBO) programs. Arvey, Dewhirst, and Brown (1978) examined the effects of MBO programs on employee job satisfaction in a high-level research development organization. Their research reported that increases in perceived supervisory goal-setting behavior, correlated with increases in job satisfaction. Thomson, Luthans, and Terpening (1981) studied the impact of MBO program on a public-service organization and concluded that job satisfaction with supervision increases, based on before-and-after measure using the Job Descriptive Index, while job satisfaction with work showed non-significant increase. Both of the aforementioned studies, Arvey et al. (1978) and Thomson et al. (1981) indicated that management by objectives programs had some impact on improved job satisfaction. Goal-setting and MBO approaches to improving job satisfaction can be viewed in terms of employee influence. These programs give employees the opportunity to be involved in setting targets for their individual performance and for the overall productivity and performance of the firm. Goal-setting and MBO approaches clarify the goals and commitments on the part of individual employee as well as meeting the goals of the employing organization. The end-results are an enlightened employee workforce in terms of an accurate picture of employees' expectations before work assignment. According to Arvey et al, goal-setting enables an employee to better prepare for the work

and outcomes expected from them by their managers so as to avoid unrealistic expectations, a major source of job dissatisfaction.

Job expectations are formed as a result of life experiences, and an "expectation profile" of any employee is as unique as a fingerprint (Woods, 1993). An employee starts a job with an individual set of expectations; and with time, this list evolves and enlarges. Woods (1993) continues to point out that as changes in personal aspirations, family situations and responsibilities and career progress occur, individual's expectations change in priority. Kotter et al. (1992) adds that societal and workplace demands contribute to new employee expectations such as company-supported childcare and access to physical fitness facilities. Employees express expectations in various ways. The expectations can be inferred from the reasons employees give to explain their interest in organizing a plant under a unionized movement or in the analyses of grievances and complaints derived from both organized and non-organized employee plants. Interviews with potential new employees could also establish employee expectations in the workplace.

Woods (1993) found that employees expected from their workplace a salary that is competitive, and trustworthiness with their co-workers, supervisors and upper management. Expectations to understand the organizational mission and vision, a safe work environment, recognition for one's achievements, job security and a dignified treatment of all employees by managers were regarded highly. Wood continues to argue that these statements define the set of expectations held by employees in organizations, and as such, these expectations become the yardsticks or targets against which employee

job satisfaction is measured. Organizations that meet employee expectations provide their employees with more opportunity to perform value-adding activities during the course of their employment. Mobbs (1999) pointed out that when a new employee enters a new job with expectations that the organization will not be able to meet, a mismatch is created. This mismatch causes many workplace problems, particularly, employee turnover. Minimizing the gap therefore, between what a potential employee expects and what the organization can reasonably offer should be an essential component of organizational orientation procedures.

Hodgetts and Luthans (1993) found that managers working in multinational corporations in feminine cultures are expecting their employees to pursue a compensation strategy that recognizes and rewards team work efforts in the workplace. Femininity cultures in Muna's (1980) study on "The Arab Executive" found similar findings. The study found that employee expectations of Arabs in the workplace included good relationships among employees, respect, and guidance. The study also shows that the Arab executives strongly viewed negatively individualistic approaches of expatriate managers in relation to treatment of their employees. According to Muna, Arab employees considered individualistic expatriate managers as "ruthless and inhumane."

Goldthorpe (1968) argued that where employees' goals and expectations focus on monetary rewards associated with the job security (extrinsic factors), employees job satisfaction is impacted positively despite the intrinsically unpleasant and dissatisfying nature of the work itself. Goldthorpe noted that employees' expectations of work is regarded solely as a means to an end in African countries, "as a way of obtaining the

income necessary to support a valued way of life that excluded the work itself” Another study in Ghana confirmed the earlier observation by Goldthorpe et al. A Ghanaian employee was observed as saying, “In fact I don’t like my job, but because I can’t get any other one, I’m bound to it. It’s keeps me here.” (Peil, 1972). Blunt also had similar observations in Kenya, where an employee was recorded as saying, “I have no choice but to come to town because I need money. Why should a man undergo such hardships for any other reason? I must help my family” (Blunt, 1983). These observations according to Blunt, indicated that employee expectations toward their jobs were an instrumental activity, that is, something to be tolerated in order to obtain the necessary income. Job expectations and goals of the employees according to Blunt, were simply that of providing enough money to satisfy their immediate needs. Further, Blunt observed that most employees had strong cultural beliefs with their rural homes and so their residence in town was usually temporary; and, therefore, employees’ work expectations were primarily a means of obtaining money in order to clothe, feed and educate their children, and to buy essential commodities. For other groups such as the Igbo of Nigeria and the Kikuyu of Kenya, work expectations was much more likely to hold a place of psychological prominence. Jones (1986) noted similar observations in Malawi. In this country, the study revealed that employees had high expectations for their personal and family benefits from the organizations in which the employees were working.

Dorjahn and Hogg (1966) in Sierra Leone found that employees expected good personal relationships at workplace and regarded self-esteem highly. The employees they studied expected a ‘good boss’ as one who treated his employees with respect and spoke

nicely to them. In public, employees expected to be praised and encouraged and expected their mistakes or weaknesses to be pointed out politely and in private. Employees also, attributed a good manager as one who was patient in dealing with employees' issues. Kayode (1970), in his study in Nigeria found that the most highly regarded personal goal in the workplace was pay and job security. These results closely parallel those of Inkeles (1960), Price (1975) and Blunt (1980) study in Nigeria, Ghana and Kenyan workers. The study in these countries concluded that employees expected pay and not any other benefits from their jobs.

Maslow (1954) in his theory of Need Hierarchy, makes the assumption that people have needs which influence their behavior and only those needs which have not been satisfied can act as motivators. For example, physiological needs such as the need for food if unsatisfied, dominates the individual's energy to the unfulfilled need. In Africa, the research showed that the majority of lower-level workers would, partly because of their obligations to immediate family and kin, be concerned more with satisfying basic needs. This means that at work, an employee personal goal would be about financial rewards and security of employment.

Employee Job Satisfaction

What is Job Satisfaction? Many researchers in the areas of job satisfaction have come up with various definitions of job satisfaction. Job Satisfaction is defined as the degree to which employees have positive affective orientation toward employment by the organization (Price and Mueller, 1986). Job satisfaction deals with whether employees find their employment sufficiently satisfactory to continue in it, either on a permanent

basis or until they have prepared for greater responsibility (Hoppcock, 1935). Hoppcock further argued that job satisfaction measures the perceived satisfaction of an employee by investigating his or her overall attitude toward the job. The variables Hoppcock considered to measure employee job satisfaction: whether an employee was inspired to perform to the best of his or her abilities, whether the employee considered the organization as the best place to work, and whether the employee was often thinking of quitting his or her job. Other researchers see job satisfaction as a construct that connotes the clustering together of the various facets of work, including attitudes toward co-workers, supervisors, top management, pay, work environment, etc., into one overall summary response. Job satisfaction can also be approached in several ways with basic tenet being the need-fulfillment that explains how much individual needs are being satisfied (Bullock, 1984).

Seymour (1980), in a study of self-esteem and causal attributions of job satisfaction and dissatisfaction among business administration students at Tel Aviv University reported that external agents, such as supervisors or co-workers, were responsible for the respondents' job satisfaction. Albrecht, Brown, and Field (1981) in their research concluded that a variety of factors affect job satisfaction for given individuals, some of which the firm (employer) can influence, such as salary, position in the firm, size of the firm, and type of employees selected.

Sankar and Yong (1997) proposed that technical orientation and job satisfaction are mediated by perception constructs operating in the occupational environment (pay fairness and advancement prospects) and the organizational environment. Other

dimensions of job satisfaction have been identified to include pay, promotion, supervision, teamwork, and the work itself (Smith, Kendall, and Hulin, 1969)

Churchill and Pecotich (1984) found that sales managers in every country face a crucial question of what factors affect sales force performance and job satisfaction. Studies in the United States suggested that money is the paramount motivator of sales people. Although, some studies supporting this view have found that pay acts as a motivator for employees job performance and a determinant of job satisfaction, other researchers stress that job satisfaction and performance determinants must be conceptualized as internal variables such as aptitude, motivation and intrinsic and extrinsic rewards (Churchill, Walker & Ford, 1997; John & Weitz, 1989; Sager, Futrell & Varadarajan, 1989).

Job satisfaction is also affected by factors such as employee commitment toward the organizations, which can be elevated as more educated employees increase their job satisfaction by “rationalizing” the available job alternatives (Ting 1996). Others have maintained that more educated employees tend to have more job alternatives and, therefore, are unlikely to develop great affection toward their jobs and organizations because they are not stuck in any job or organization (Mathieu and Zajac, 1990). Also, more educated employees often have higher job expectations that their organizations may be unable to meet, and as a result affect their job satisfaction (Ting 1996)

Abudu (1986) observed that the reward system’s ability to motivate workers to higher productivity depended on the workers’ perception of organizational management practices. He found that a prevalent notion among Nigerian employees in the public

service was that the rewards had little bearing on effort; and that considerations of merit, efficiency, and productivity took second place to those of cultural attributes such as ethnicity, sex, age, and promotion. Another aspect of the reward system in Nigeria as revealed by Abudu (1986) was the salary differentials among grades of employees. The study found a wide gap between the highest and the lowest paid employees. This supported Hostede's (1980) findings on the high power distance cultural nature of African countries.

Other studies have noted employees' cultural beliefs' elements relating to job dissatisfaction in Nigeria emanated from the larger society. These included corruption, lack of patriotism, and poor work ethic (Abudu, 1986). Abudu affirming the effects of corruption on job satisfaction explained it in this way:

“ Negative attitudes towards work is found where corruption rules, where we have looting of the treasury through overvalued contracts, kickbacks, diversion of funds and others. Since that is allowed to flourish... many workers have become disenchanted and because there is little to motivate them to do their best, they resort to diversion of public wealth, which is collectively produced, into private hands.”

The study further shows that corruption compelled many employees to abandon their assigned duties and diverted official time and functions to their personal responsibilities. Abudu also found that negative employee attitudes toward work could be traced from lack of organizational loyalty. Many employees in the corporations owed more loyalty to their ethnic communities than to the organization for which they worked. A common expression of this attitude was the description of one's employment as “not being my papa's work.”

Furthermore, in another study that compares managerial attitudes in South Africa with those obtained in other parts of the world was reported by Blunt (1973). The questionnaire used in the study was grouped into five needs: security, social, esteem, autonomy, and self-actualization. The results showed that South African managers were much less satisfied than managers from Western countries. Blunt's implications of the findings were that, among other factors, the managers working in those foreign-owned firms had other cultural variables within the South African setting that prevented them from satisfying their self-actualization needs. Also, the study found out that the relatively high degree of job dissatisfaction experienced by employees was a result of expatriates' failure to understand the cultural factors operating within the African society as a whole rather than within particular companies.

Maslow (1954) in his work on motivation and personality emphasized the importance of cultural factors in the determination of employees' need satisfaction in the workplace. The study confirmed that certain conditions were immediate prerequisites for the basic need satisfaction. In support of this view, Haire et al. (1963), while utilizing Maslow's paradigm of hierarchy of needs with some slight modification indicated that a person's needs can be presented in a prioritized format as: security, social, esteem, autonomy, and self-actualization. Haire pointed out that "the thinking of managers is part of the culture itself," and that what is meant by employees' job satisfaction was influenced by the environmental cultural beliefs.

Similar studies in Kenya by Blunt (1976) on employees need satisfaction showed that Kenyan managers were clearly more dissatisfied with job security needs than their

counterparts in the Western world Blunt observed that expatriate managers failed to understand the relationship of culture and job satisfaction, as the managers applied their Western management practices in an alien culture and assumed that job security needs of Kenyan employees were to be met to the same extent as in Western countries

Taylor (1999) in a study of managing job satisfaction, found that informal feedback from supervisors, co-workers and clients was an important means by which employees derive job satisfaction from their work. Taylor (1999) also found employee's autonomy as not significantly related to job satisfaction, while facilitation to the availability of technical information, as a way of building an employee's expertise, being a very strong indicator that affects job satisfaction of an individual worker and the supervisor.

From the past research, the study of cultural beliefs, expectations, goals and job satisfaction has been done in isolation. The widely known two-factor theory developed by Herzberg (1959; 1968) explained in part that the nature of the work environment is the primary determinant of employee job satisfaction and that satisfaction in the workplace is "intrinsic" to the job with which an employee is directly involved. Johnson, Parasuramen, Futrell and Black (1990) in a similar line of study found that job satisfaction determines performance, while Rainey (1991) identified job satisfaction as a concept that has intensely been studied because of the intuitively compelling force behind the hypothesized relationship between job satisfaction and performance. Bagozzi (1980) sees job satisfaction as the pleasurable emotional state salespeople derive from a positive appraisal of their interactions and experiences on the job. Morse (1953) should found

that role ambiguity and role conflict made on a position, both affect job satisfaction. In a study of sex differences in regards to satisfaction with pay among faculty and staff at a higher education public institution, Tang and Li-Ping (1999) found no significant differences between university staff and faculty. However, Tang and Li-Ping (1999) observed a difference where men had a higher satisfaction score with pay than females; while females tended to have a higher job satisfaction with co-workers than males. Reiner and Zhao (1999) state that the causal relationship among job satisfaction, demographic attributes and work environment continue to remain unclear. Reiner and Zhao further state that if Herzberg's theory (1959; 1968) is correct, then the immediate work environment should have a direct effect on employee job satisfaction while; demographic factors may have an insignificant or indirect relationship with employee job satisfaction.

Taylor (1999) states "...while informal feedback from supervisors, co-workers and clients is an important means by which professional accountants derived satisfaction from the nature of their work, their satisfaction with their supervisors and promotional prospects, informal feedback inherent in the job itself is strongly linked to satisfaction with remuneration." Carla (1995) posits that when multinational corporations locate in other cultures, to avoid counting on instant understanding of local job processes; but instead should develop a human resource department that may work with the local employees in fostering cultural sensitivity and thus increase employee productivity, morale, and job satisfaction.

In the extant literature of national cultural values, considerable attention has been paid to the skills of managers, management practices (Hofstede 1975, 1980; 1991; Schneider, 1989; Jaeger, 1990; Schnedier & DeMeyer, 1991) and industrial and entrepreneurial development (Franke, Hofstede & Bond, 1991; Hofstede & Bond, 1988; Yeh & Lawrence, 1995). Hofstede's work measuring cultural values associated with relationship to authority, uncertainty avoidance, individualism-collectivism, and masculinity orientations has been particularly influential (Hofstede 1975; 1980; 1991).

There are a limited number of studies about the integrated nature of employee cultural beliefs, goals, expectations and job satisfaction of employees. Given the importance of keeping employees satisfied in their jobs and the need to increase firm per capita productivity, it is important that employees are kept satisfied. Job satisfaction is a multidimensional construct, including satisfaction with one's work, supervision, co-workers, or with the pay among other factors. Furthermore, each dimension is influenced by different variables constituting the characteristics of the work environment. This study sought to study the relationships that may be existing between employee cultural beliefs, expectations, goals and job satisfaction.

Conceptual Framework of the Study

Work environment variables such as, cultural beliefs, expectations, personal goals and job satisfaction and interrelationships among these variables is a process that is inordinately complex and little is known about how these variables are linked. This study advanced an employee work environment model linking these variables. While this work environment model, Figure 1, does not in any way represent a causal path diagram in a

formal sense, it presents an interplay of factors that “influence” employee job satisfaction. Unlike other theoretical and conceptual models that have been presented in the extant literature of culture and work-related values, this model presents an oversimplified road map of relationship between cultural beliefs, expectations, goals and job satisfaction. This model is proposed to explain linkages in work environment variables in foreign-owned firms operating in a developing country, Kenya.

The conceptual model, shown in Figure 1, suggests a direct relationship between each of the work-related variables (Culture, Employee Expectations and Employee Goals) and Job satisfaction. Further, it includes direct relationship between cultural beliefs and expectations and between expectations and Goals. Finally, it includes indirect relationships between cultural beliefs and goals, and expectations and job satisfaction. In general, cultural beliefs has been found to be more closely related to personal outcomes such as job satisfaction (Abudu, 1986, Taylor, 1999).

The use of this model (Figure 1) allows for incorporation of more recent ideas concerning work environment, other work-related values and job satisfaction. The model also more accurately reflects obvious complexities of interrelationships and how cultural beliefs, expectations, and goals are linked to job satisfaction. From the literature, it is apparent that the four variables (cultural beliefs, expectations, goals and job satisfaction) have been studied in isolation and hardly any information is available that clearly links all of them. I.e. their combined effect on job satisfaction has not been examined before.

The strengths and the directions of the linkages presented in this model show a relationship between employees’ cultural beliefs, expectations, personal goals and job

satisfaction. From the literature, it seems evident that each of the variables presented plays a part in the employee job satisfaction. Each of the variables chosen for inclusion in the model: cultural beliefs, expectations, goals and job satisfaction has been conceptually and theoretically grounded in the organizational behavior, culture and work-related values literature, yet not enough is currently known about them collectively to make definitive hypotheses about how they are linked. This study fills this void in the knowledge base by exploring possible linkages among these variables. The following section provides a framework for the study.

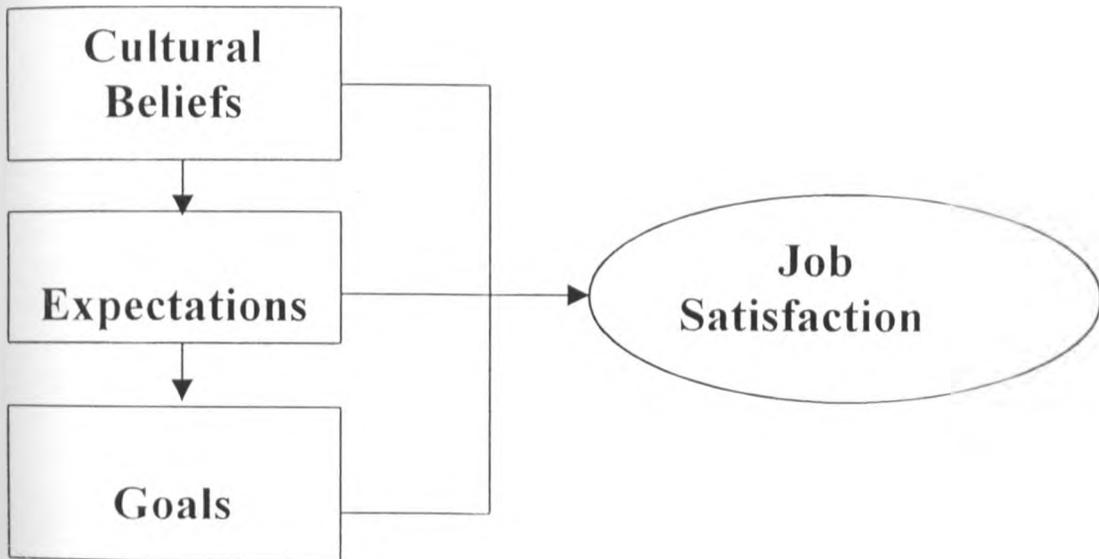


Figure 1: An Employee Work Environment Model Linking Cultural Beliefs, Expectations, Goals and Job Satisfaction

Chapter Summary

Chapter 2 presented a review of the literature and research pertinent to the variables depicted in An Employee Work Environment Model Linking Cultural Beliefs,

Goals, Expectations and Job Satisfaction. Perspectives in the literatures of dimension of culture, employee personal goals, expectations, and employee job satisfaction

Chapter 3 describes the research method and procedures employed in the study.

CHAPTER 3

RESEARCH METHOD

The main purpose of this chapter was to describe the procedures and methods employed in the study. These included: research design, sampling, instrumentation, data collection, and data analysis. These procedures were employed in order to address the primary purpose of the study, which was to determine the relationship between cultural beliefs, expectations, personal goals and job satisfaction of the employees of foreign-owned firms operating in Kenya. A survey research method was used to obtain measures of cultural beliefs, goals, expectations, and job satisfaction among employees working in foreign-owned firms in Kenya during the year of investigation, 1996. To determine whether there was a relationship between cultural beliefs, employees' expectations, personal goals and job satisfaction among employees, a combined set of quantitative design elements and procedures was utilized. This quantitative methodology utilized the survey and correlational research designs described by Borg and Gall (1989), among other multiple design elements. The relationships among study variables were explored using correlational research design.

This study also empirically examined the structure of the research instrument by utilizing a series of factor analysis procedures. The principal components method was used to extract factors. Then, orthogonal solutions using varimax rotation procedures were completed. Finally, based upon the results of the factor analyses of sections A and C (A and C items) of Hofstede's National Survey Culture survey instrument, items were

retained on subscales identified according to a set of explicit decision rules for factor loadings (e.g., magnitude and independence of loadings). Subscales and items retained with the established decision rules were used in subsequent data analyses

Research Design

The study utilized multiple design elements. First, this study is a cross-sectional study of Kenyan and non-Kenyan employees of foreign-owned firms operating in Kenya. It is cross-sectional in that it focuses on work environment and work related variables at a specific period. Further, the design is both descriptive and correlational in nature.

The Target Population

The target population for this study was defined as Kenyan and non-Kenyan employees working in seven foreign-owned firms in Kenya. Since the study was concerned with establishing the relationship between cultural beliefs, expectations, personal goals and job satisfaction of employees of foreign-owned firms operating in Kenya, it was necessary to survey both Kenyan and non-Kenyan employees in the targeted firms. For the firm to be included in the research, it had to have over one thousand employees and be in the automobile and/or automobile related businesses. The firms that participated in the study were located in the industrial area, Nairobi, Kenya, where most of the foreign-owned industrial complexes are found.

The Sample

Two groups of subjects were surveyed utilizing a two-stage sampling technique. In stage one, seven foreign-owned firms operating in Kenya were sampled, taking their location and size of the individual firm workforce into account. In stage two of the

sampling procedure, a sample of Kenyan and non-Kenyan employees from the seven sampled firms, were surveyed. For this study, an employee was operationally defined as a person, Kenyan or non-Kenyan, working in any one of the seven selected study firms, with an employment rank below that of a supervisor but above that of a temporary/casual worker—i.e., entry and middle-level employees. The researcher excluded supervisors, top management level and temporary/casual workers from the sample as previous research has shown that they differ from entry- and middle-level employees on their expectations, values, and alternative employment opportunities which can affect their job attitudes (Posner & Schmidt, 1994; Schimdt & Posner, 1986). The sample was further restricted to employees who had full-time and permanent appointments with their firms.

Once the target population had been defined and permission to conduct research in the participating firms had been granted, the management of the participating firms was requested to provide a list of employees working in their firms. From the respective firm employee list, a proportional random sample was selected for the study. This resulted in two groups of employees—Kenyan and non-Kenyan employees. The first group of subjects was composed of 312 Kenyan employees working in the selected foreign-owned firms in Nairobi, Kenya. The second group of subjects was composed of 36 non-Kenyan employees working full-time in these foreign-owned firms. All the participants were living in Nairobi at the time of the study. Table 11 provides a profile of the overall number of the questionnaires distribution, the within-firm return rates and across-firm return rates. The survey return rates were further examined by categories of the participating firms. A total of 560 Kenyan and non-Kenyan employees in seven

foreign-owned firms were surveyed. In all, 353 instruments were retrieved and of this total, 348 were useable. Of the useable questionnaires, 19.8% came from firm A, 15.2% from firm B, 10.1% from firm C, 12.9% from firm D, 17.8% from firm E, 10.9% from firm F and 13.2% from firm G. However, the response rate across firms ranged from a low of 43.8% to a high of 86.3%. Firm A had the highest within-firm with 86.3% followed by firm E with 77.5% response rate. Firm C had the lowest within-firm response rate of 43.8%.

Table 11: The Number of Questionnaires Administered and Useable

Firm	# Administered	#Returned	% (within Firm)	% (of theTotal) ^a
A	80	69	86.3	19.8
B	80	53	66.3	15.2
C	80	35	43.8	10.1
D	80	45	56.3	12.9
E	80	62	77.5	17.8
F	80	38	47.5	10.9
G	80	46	57.5	13.2
Total	560	348		100.0

^aNote: Percentage of total number of questionnaires returned ($\#Returned/348$)*100

Data Collection Instrument

The instrument used for this study was National Culture Survey (NCS) developed by Hofstede (1980). This instrument had been used in previous studies in multinational

corporations in West Africa, East Africa, and Arab speaking countries (Hofstede, 1980). Since the main objective of the study was to determine the relationship between employees' cultural beliefs, expectations, goals and job satisfaction, the instrument contained items that measure these key factors (see Appendix A). However, given that the present study used a different population from that used by Hofstede, questions concerning reliability and validity of the instrument were addressed before further analysis of the data was done. The Hofstede instrument, included as Appendix A, was utilized to collect data for the study. The response format for items, in a larger section of the instrument, was a Likert-type forced-choice scale consistent with attitude scaling techniques. This is further explained in the section dealing with the validity of the instrument.

Reliability

The Chronbach Alpha, a measure of the internal consistency of the questionnaire items, was examined using data for all respondents. Separate internal consistency coefficients were computed for each of the four factor subscales-- cultural beliefs, goals, employee expectations, and job satisfaction. The data selected for use in the questionnaire include, but are not limited to, employees' marital status, the length of employment in the firm, types of manager employees would like to work under, the number of years completed in formal education, and data on employees' age. Data were also collected about the respondents' that is, their responses to the National Culture Survey (NCS) items. After data collection, a series of factor analyses was completed to explore empirical structure of NCS subscales.

Validity of the Instrument

Validity of an instrument refers to its ability to measure what it is supposed to measure (Kerlinger, 1973). It refers to the extent to which an instrument measures what it is intended to measure. If a measure is valid, one should get the same results from one measurement to another; that is, a measure that has validity will also have reliability. The reverse, however, is not necessarily true. If, for example, a researcher develops a scale designed to measure job satisfaction, and the scores on the scale do in fact reflect subjects' underlying levels of job satisfaction, then the scale is valid. There are a number of ways that validity can be studied—content validity, factor analysis and cross-validation procedures, the examination of the dimensionality and reliability of items, et cetera.

Several researchers have used Hofstede's questionnaire thus subscribing to its validity. For example, Smith (1992) used the questionnaire to examine attitudes toward international harmonization, and Sebhatu (1994) used the same instrument on a study to determine culture's consequences on business leaders in the Middle East. Though Hofstede's NCS instrument has been used widely, the investigator in this study went ahead to ensure that the instrument was valid by requesting experts to review the instrument and ascertain its validity. A thorough examination of the instrument items were conducted by research experts from the University of Nairobi and Louisiana State University. Further, a series of factor analyses were then performed to verify the structure of the scales coupled with cited evidence of validity provided by the face validity of items and the estimates of Cronbach Alpha internal consistency reliability

coefficients reported in Table 22. Once the researcher was satisfied that the instrument was valid, items were reverse-coded so that items that were positively stated were assigned the highest response score of five and the lowest response score of one. For instance Very Satisfied = 5, Satisfied = 4, Neither Satisfied nor Dissatisfied = 3, Dissatisfied = 2, and Very Dissatisfied = 1. This change from the original Hofstede instrument was made to facilitate the data analysis process and the ease of interpretation of the research results.

Data Collection Procedures

Once permission was granted by the participating firms, the researcher held a conference with the director of public relations/personnel and secretary of each of the participating firms to explain the purpose of the study and to solicit for assistance in supervising the administration of the instruments. Two questionnaire packets were prepared for the completed instruments. One questionnaire packet was labeled Kenyan employees and the other non-Kenyan employees. The employee instrument packet contained a cover letter (which explained the purpose of the study and the emphasis placed on the respondent's privacy, confidentiality and anonymity of their responses)(see Appendix C). During the administration of the questionnaires, the researcher, the manager and secretaries of the participating firms supervised the entire process while the firm employees completed the questionnaires in the firms' respective conference rooms. The fact that the questionnaires were not coded in any way to identify individual responses led to voluntary employee participation. Once the employees had completed responding to the questionnaires, the survey instruments were then placed in their

respective packets ready for the next stage of data processing and analysis

Eighty questionnaires were distributed to each of the seven participating firms. The total questionnaires administered were 560. Three hundred and fifty three (353) questionnaires were retrieved, resulting in 348 useable questionnaires with a return rate of 62 percent. However, the within-firms return rate ranged from 43.8% to a high of 86.3%. This response rate compares favorably with other empirical studies, where the return rate was 65% (Bhuian, 1996)

Review of the Data and Preparation for Analysis

This section of the chapter describes the procedures used to review the data to ensure its quality and consistency with assumptions. The section then presents a detailed description of the data analysis procedures.

After the statistical computer program had been written to read data from the raw data file, each variable was inspected to ensure that (a) the correct columns had been read, (b) special codes such as those of missing values, were read and treated properly. A select number of cases were then printed: a few at the beginning of the data set, a few at the middle, and a few at the end. An inspection of all data elements was instituted for each of the selected cases. For each variable of interest in the data set, maximum and minimum scores were printed and checked against possible values (e.g., in the likert-type items, the lowest value was 1 while the highest was 5).

Frequency distribution and graphs for each variable of the study were generated to aid in the inspection process, especially when trying to identify unusual values, problematic data elements (e.g., outliers), extreme values and also when completing the

normality tests.

Where the continuous composite variables were utilized, a series of preliminary data analyses were first conducted to check on normality, skewness, and kurtotic nature of data so as to gain familiarity and knowledge of the data at individual employee level.

Data Analysis Procedures

Upon the completion of data collection procedures and construction of various data files, a variety of analyses were completed: 1) descriptive statistical analyses of all demographic and instrument items as well as composite variables; 2) bivariate correlations among all instrument subscales; 3) one-way and multiple-way ANOVAs to make comparisons among various demographic variables measured; 4) factor analyses of two of the three instruments (the A and C items); 5) internal consistency (Cronbach Alpha) reliability analyses of subscales scores of all instruments; and, 6) multiple regression analyses to examine relative contribution and combination of variables explaining variance in the job satisfaction measure.

Descriptive Statistics

These statistical techniques were utilized to analyze data about employees' perception of their work environment. Summary statistics were completed for all independent and dependent variables in addition to pertinent demographic variables. These descriptive statistical techniques were performed to document characteristics of respondents and examine scores and variations on instruments' items and subscales. These descriptive statistics included frequency distributions of employees by marital status, age, years of formal education completed, length of employment, and the type of

managers preferred by respondents, along with means and standard deviations of the questionnaire items. The means expressed as percentages of the maximum possible scores for each factored subscale of both dependent and independent variables were compiled and reported for the total sample.

Correlation Analyses

To obtain some notion of the relationship between any two variables of the study, scattergrams were inspected. Although a scatter diagram has the clear advantage of showing scores for each measured object on the two variables of interest, they are not presented here because of space limitation. Inspecting a scattergram is not sufficiently precise for most statistical purposes and instead a quantitative index of the relationship (the correlation coefficient), that describes the extent to which two sets of data are related, was computed for any two of the study variables. A correlation coefficient addresses a central question being answered, i.e., "To what extent are the high scores of one variable paired with the high scores of the other variable?" The term "high" in this question is considered separately for each variable. Hence, a strong positive correlation can exist even though means of the scores of one variable is substantially different from the means of the scores on the other variable.

Individual employee was used as a unit of analyses in completing a series of bivariate and multivariate correlation analyses examining the relationships between the various independent variables (cultural beliefs, expectations, and goals, factored subscales) and dependent variable (job satisfaction). These analyses were prompted in response to the study objectives and research questions. First, Pearson product-moment

correlations among the independent variables and the dependent variable were completed. Second, Pearson's product moment-correlation coefficients were computed for each factored subscale items to assess the presence or lack of multicollinearity among the instrument items that served as predictors in subsequent regression analyses. A series of multiple regression analyses, regressing the dependent variable (job satisfaction) on items of each independent variable (cultural beliefs, expectations, and goals) was completed.

One-way and Multiple-way ANOVA's

A one-way ANOVA permitted the researcher to use the data in the samples for the purpose of making a single inferential statement concerning the means of the study's populations. The single inference that extended from the set of samples to the sets of populations dealt with the question, "Are the means of the various populations equal?"

In the two-way ANOVA, any two independent variables, with different levels were involved with series of tests—main effects, interaction, simple effects and multiple comparison procedures (pre-planned and post-hoc) were completed for this study. Where more than one dependent variable was involved, Multivariate Analysis of Variance (MANOVA) was utilized.

In order to make comparisons among various demographic variables to address the research question that emerged during the phase of data analysis, a variety of statistical comparisons were completed using ANOVA procedures and Scheffé' post-hoc tests. For example, comparisons were made to determine 1) if Kenyan employees were more or less satisfied with their job than their non-Kenyan counterparts, 2) if female

employees were more or less satisfied with their job than were male employees, and 3) whether or not the length of time an employee had been with the firm was a factor contributing to the differences in employee expectations, etc. Multivariate analysis of variance-MANOVA, were performed to assess if a difference existed between Kenyan and non-Kenyan employees working in foreign-owned firms in Kenya when compared simultaneously on the variables: cultural beliefs, expectations, goals and job satisfaction. The results of the described statistical tests are presented in chapter 4

Factor Analyses

Factor analysis on part I (the A items) and part III (the C items) of NCS instrument were completed. Factor analysis is a data reduction technique (SAS Institute, 1985, 1994). This statistical technique was utilized to condense forty-seven items representing job expectations and job satisfaction (A items) and employee goals and cultural beliefs (the C items). Before the data for A and C items were subjected to a variety of exploratory factor analyses, they were reviewed to identify missing or duplicate employee responses. Since a relatively small number of data were missing across respondents (about 2.90 percent), an item grand means substitution for missing item scores for individual respondents was performed to obtain a maximum number of useable cases for the various factor analyses. Following this substitution procedure, separate exploratory factor analyses were conducted for the A and C items respectively, extracting one to five factors for each item section, using orthogonal procedures (SAS Institute, 1985, 1994).

Exploratory factor analysis was chosen here as an appropriate method of

investigation because the present study examined a population different from that examined by Hofstede. The SAS factor analysis procedures were then employed with this research population to see if a factor structure would appear that would be consistent with what Hofstede had postulated in his study. A series of analyses were done on the responses of all the employees in the study. The basic decision rules for retaining an item on an identified factor followed those presented by Ellett, Rugutt, Cavanagh, and Davis (1999) and Rugutt, Ellett, Culross, and Loup (1998). These decision rules were: (a) an item loading (factor/item correlation) of at least 0.33 (Test 1); and (b) a difference between squared loadings of at least 0.20 for factor loading on more than one factor (Test 2). To make interpretation easier, the researcher performed a linear transformation on the factor solution called a rotation (orthogonal rotation in SAS). SAS Institute (1985,1994) explained that orthogonal rotations result in components (factors) that are uncorrelated with one another. The results of the principal component with varimax rotations were observed where orthogonal (varimax) factor solution was employed. As is the case with principal component analysis, the number of factors extracted is equal to the number of variables being analyzed, necessitating that the researcher decides how many of these factors are truly meaningful and worth being retained for rotation and interpretation.

In this study, only the first few factors accounted for meaningful amounts of variance. In part I (the A items) two factors were extracted and they accounted for 37.3% of the common variance. In part III (the C items), two factors were extracted. The two factors accounted for 34.4% of the common variance. The items of the instrument that measured management practices (the B items) in the selected foreign-owned firms in

Kenya did not provide meaningful factors and were not utilized in the generation of the subscales of the study. Further, items in this section were not utilized in the regression analyses

Reliability Statistics

The first point of the analysis was to observe the internal consistency of each of four (cultural beliefs, expectations, goals, and job satisfaction) study subscales before further analysis was done. In order to examine this, the Cronbach Alpha (1957) reliability procedure was utilized. The reliability of an instrument refers to its ability to consistently measure what it is supposed to measure (Kerlinger, 1973). Cronbach Alpha internal consistency reliability coefficients were computed for each of the four subscales. All employees (n=348) were used as the unit of analysis in computing Alpha coefficients. The four factored subscales scores were then utilized in subsequent analyses

Regression Analyses

A series of multiple regression analyses was completed with job satisfaction as the dependent variable and respective individual subscale items for each independent variable (cultural beliefs, expectations and goals) as independent variables. In many studies, more than one variable is used to predict a dependent variable (criterion) -- multiple regression. The multiple regression statistical technique, which weights each predictor so that the predictor variables in combination give the optimal prediction of the dependent variable, was used. This statistical technique provides the proportion of variance in the dependent variable accounted for by the combination of predictors (R^2), tests of statistical significance for the multiple correlation coefficient (R) and for the

contribution of each predictor.

In the second subsequent stage, stepwise regression was chosen because of the inherent strengths associated with it as indicated in the discussion of the following section. In stepwise selection, the first variable considered for entry is the one with the largest positive or negative correlation with the dependent variable. An F-test of significance is performed to determine if, in the population, that variable would significantly contribute to the prediction of the dependent variable. If the first variable meets the criterion, the variable that adds most to the prediction is selected next. The selection is based on the highest correlation after controlling for the correlation between predictor 1 and the criterion (partial correlation). The third variable to enter will be the one with the next highest correlation after the first two predictors are statistically controlled. These variable-selection steps continue until no more variables meet the entry criteria. At each step, an R^2 is computed that tells whether the variable entered would add significantly to the amount of variance in the dependent variable that has been predicted by the variables already entered. This study utilized both the standard and stepwise regression procedures to extract information necessary to answer the research questions.

Chapter Summary

This chapter presented a discussion of the research design, instrumentation, data collection and data analyses procedures used to address primary and supplemental research questions.

The following is chapter 4, which includes a summary of: descriptive statistics for

survey sample and instrument items, results of factor analyses for each study's measure, and reliability analyses. In addition, results of analyses of research questions initially posed in the study are provided.

CHAPTER 4

RESEARCH RESULTS AND FINDINGS

This chapter contains analysis of the data obtained from NCS factors and questionnaires administered in Kenya's foreign-owned firms. The results are presented as follows: 1) summary of demographics and personal characteristics, 2) means and standard deviations, 3) employees factor analyses for NCS subscales, 4) internal consistency (Cronbach Alpha) reliability analyses of the NCS subscales, 5) descriptive statistics for the factor scales; 6) intercorrelations and regression analyses of NCS subscales and survey items; and, 7) multivariate analyses (MANOVA) of NCS subscales.

Summary of the Demographics and Personal Characteristics of Employees

Tables 12 through 16 present frequency distributions of employee responses in survey items pertaining to marital status, age, level of education, length of employment, and the type of managers preferred by respondents.

Gender and Marital Status of the Respondents

Table 12 below shows the frequency distribution of the marital status of the respondents. This shows that the majority of the male employees were married ($n=132$, 39.1%). This was followed by single male employees, represented by 25.1%. The percent of married female employees was 16.9% while the percent of the unmarried female employees was 18.9.

Table 12: The Marital Status of Respondents in the Study by Gender

Marital Status	N	%
Male Married	132	39.1
Male unmarried	85	25.1
Female Married	57	16.9
Female Unmarried	64	18.9
Total	338	100.0

Note: 10 of the respondents did not indicate their marital status.

The Age of the Respondents

The various ages of the respondents in the study are shown in Table 13. Majority of the respondents' age ranged from 30-34 (n=90, 29.7%). Another 27.1% of the employees in the study had age ranges from 25-29.

Table 13: The Age of the Respondents

Age ranges	N	%
Under 20	9	3.0
20-24	48	15.8
25-29	82	27.1
30-34	90	29.7
35-39	32	10.6
40-49	33	10.9
50-59	9	3.0
Total	303	100.0

Note: 45 of the subjects in the study did not indicate their ages.

Years of Formal Education Completed

Regarding years of formal education completed by the employees under investigation, Table 14 shows that 39.7% had completed sixteen years of formal schooling. Fifty employees (16.6%) had completed fifteen years of formal education.

Table 14: Years of Formal Education Completed

Years of Schooling	N	%
Ten Years or Less	0	0.0
Eleven Years	5	1.7
Twelve Years	3	1.0
Thirteen Years	14	4.6
Fourteen Years	31	10.3
Fifteen Years	50	16.6
Sixteen Years	120	39.7
Seventeen Years	41	13.6
More than Seventeen Years	38	12.6
Total	302	100.0

Note: 46 of the respondents did not indicate their years of schooling.

Number of Years Employed

The final demographic variable investigated was the number of years that the respondents in the study had worked. Eighty-seven (26.0%) of the employees had worked for a period of one year or longer, but less than three years. Another 80 (23.9%) had

worked for a period of three years or longer, but less than seven years (see Table 15).

Table 15: Number of Years Employed

Number of Years Employed	N	%
Less than one year	55	16.4
One year or longer, but less than three years	87	26.0
Three years or longer, but less than seven years	80	23.9
Seven years or longer, but less than fifteen years	61	18.2
Fifteen years or longer	52	15.5
Total	335	100.00

Note: 13 of the respondents did not indicate their years of employment

The Type of Managers Preferred by the Respondents

Data in Table 16 show the four types of managers preferred by employees. From the frequency distribution, majority of the respondents (n=104, 33.6%) preferred working with a manager who usually calls a meeting of his or her subordinates when there is an important decision to be made, puts the problem before the group, invites discussion, and accepts the majority viewpoint as the decision. Thirty-two percent (n= 97, 32.0%) preferred a manager who consults with his/her subordinates before he/she reaches his/her decision, listens to their advice, considers it, and then announces his/her decision. He/she then expects all to work loyally to implement the decision whether or not it is in accordance with the advice they gave. Twenty nine percent (n=90, 29.7%) preferred a manager who usually makes his/her decision promptly, but, before going

ahead, tries to explain it fully to his/her subordinates, gives them the reasons for decisions, and answers whatever questions they may have. This is summarized in the following table.

Table 16: The Type of Managers Preferred by the Respondents

Type of Management	N	%
Manager usually makes his/her decisions promptly and communicates them to his/her subordinates clearly and firmly. Expects them to carry out the decisions loyally and without raising difficulties.	14	4.6
Manager usually makes his/her decisions promptly, but, before going ahead, tries to explain them fully to his/her subordinates. Gives them the reasons for the decisions and answers whatever questions they may have.	90	29.7
Manager usually consults with his/her subordinates before he/she reaches his/her decisions, listens to their advice, considers it, and then announces his/her decision. He/she then expects all to work loyally to implement it whether or not it is in accordance with the advice they gave.	97	32.1
Manager usually calls a meeting of his or her subordinates when there is an important decision to be made, puts the problem before the group, invites discussion, and accepts the majority view point as the decision.	104	33.6
Total	303	100.0

Note: 45 subjects did not indicate the type of manager they preferred to work with.

Summary of the Means and Standard Deviations

Table 17 presents a summary of descriptive statistics (means and standard deviations) of the items in the instrument. The means provide information on how the respondents reacted to the survey items. It is an average number and shows a typical position on the response option continuum of all the participants. The standard deviation is a measure of the degree of cohesiveness and shows how the respondents agree or disagree in response to the items of the instrument. Low standard deviation shows that the respondents agreed to what the item(s) meant, while high standard deviations show high variability among respondents. To further understand the degree to which employees responded to each survey item, it was necessary to present the descriptive statistics (means and standard deviations) of all the items in the instrument. This descriptive nature was utilized on the variables that were measured on interval or higher scale of measurement. Likert-type responses were utilized as an interval measure for analyses purposes. The variables that were measured on categorical (nominal and ordinal) levels were summarized using frequencies and percentages in categories as presented in the previous tables—Tables 12 through 16. Data in Table 17 shows the central measures statistics.

Table 17: Summary of the Means and Standard Deviations of the Variables

Item	Mean	SD
B10 A corporation should have a major responsibility for the health and welfare of its employees and their immediate families	4.42	0.80

Table 17: Summary of the Means and Standard Deviations of the Variables (Continued)

	Item	Mean	SD
A5	Having an opportunity for higher earnings	4.41	0.67
A27	Having an opportunity for advancement higher level jobs	4.41	0.67
A4	Living in an area desirable to you and your family	4.36	0.70
A3	Have challenging work to do—work from which you can get a personal sense of accomplishment	4.36	0.68
A13	Having an opportunity for advancement to a higher level job (promotion)	4.34	0.68
A14	Have a good working relationship with your manager	4.34	0.71
A6	Work with people who cooperate well with one another	4.33	0.70
A12	Have security that you will be able to work for your company as long as you want to	4.32	0.75
A15	Employees fully using their skills and abilities on the job	4.29	0.69
C6	Work in a congenial and friendly atmosphere	4.29	0.72
C7	Employees keeping up to date with the technical developments relating to their work	4.28	0.76

Table 17: Summary of the Means and Standard Deviations of the Variables (Continued)

Item	Mean	SD
C3 Employees having a job which allows them to make a real contribution to the success of the company	4.28	0.73
C2 Employees working in a department which is run efficiently	4.27	0.74
A10 Have good physical working conditions (good ventilation and lighting, adequate workspace, etc.)	4.17	0.77
A16 Have a job which leaves sufficient time for your personal or family life	4.17	0.84
A11 Employees having considerable freedom to adopt their own approach to do a good job	4.15	0.74
A9 Get the recognition you deserve when you do a good job	4.14	0.77
B4 How often would you say your immediate manager insists that rules and procedures are followed?	4.14	0.95
C1 Employee having security of not being transferred to a less desirable job	4.10	0.91
C8 Having a job on which employee has a great deal of day-to-day learning	4.04	0.89

Table 17: Summary of the Means and Standard Deviations of the Variables (Continued)

Item	Mean	SD
C5 Work in a company which stands in the forefront of modern technology	4.03	0.85
B11 Having interesting work to do is just as important to most people as having high earnings	3.99	1.00
C4 Work in a company which is regarded in your country as successful	3.96	0.93
A28 Employees having good relationship with immediate manager.	3.86	0.90
B16 A corporation should do as much as it can to help solve society's problems (poverty, discrimination, pollution, etc)	3.83	1.07
C9 A good manager gives his employees detailed and complete instruction as to the way they should do their jobs: he does not give them merely general directions and depend on them to work out the details	3.72	1.13
A24 Having good physical working conditions (good ventilation and lighting, adequate work space, etc.)	3.66	0.96
A17 Having challenging work to do--work from which you can get a personal sense of accomplishment	3.65	0.91

Table 17: Summary of the Means and Standard Deviations of the Variables (Continued)

Item	Mean	SD
B14 Employees in industry should participate more in the decisions made by management	3.60	1.07
A20 Working with people who cooperate well with one another	3.56	0.96
B3 Suppose you quit this company, do you think you would be able to get another job in your line of work at about the same income?	3.34	0.70
A26 Employees having the security that they will work for the company as long as they will want to	3.34	1.02
B19 Employees prefer to avoid responsibility, have little ambition, and want security above all	3.31	1.16
A23 Employees getting the recognition they deserve when they do a good job	3.26	1.04
B6 Employees being afraid to express disagreement with their managers	3.23	1.16
A21 Having training opportunities (to improve your skills or to learn new skills)	3.22	1.11
B9 Some groups of employees looking down upon other groups of employees	3.21	1.24

Table 17: Summary of the Means and Standard Deviations of the Variables (Continued)

Item	Mean	SD
B18 Company rules should not be broken--even when the employee thinks it is in the company's best interests	3.19	1.18
B17 Staying with one company for a long time is usually the best way to get ahead in business	3.16	1.14
C10 Most companies have a genuine interest in the welfare of their employees	3.11	1.09
B12 Competition among employees usually does more harm than good	3.06	1.23
C12 There are few qualities in a man more admirable than dedication and loyalty to his company	3.06	1.23
B7 Being unclear on what your duties and responsibilities are	2.83	1.20
A22 Employees having good fringe benefits	2.80	1.22
C17 A large corporation is generally a more desirable place to work than a small company	2.79	1.14
C11 In general, the better managers in a company are those who have been with the company the longest time	2.79	1.11
C14 Most employees have an inherent dislike of work and will avoid it if they can	2.79	1.00

Table 17: Summary of the Means and Standard Deviations of the Variables (Continued)

	Item	Mean	SD
C16	By and large, companies change their policies and practices much too often	2.76	0.97
B15	Decisions made by individuals are usually of higher quality than decisions made by groups	2.75	1.07
C15	For getting ahead in industry, knowing influential people is usually more important than ability	2.72	1.15
C19	The private life of an employee is properly a matter of direct concern to his company	2.59	1.18
C18	Even if an employee may feel he deserves a salary increase, he should not ask his manager	2.16	1.03
B2	All in all, what is your personal feeling about working for a company which is primarily foreign-owned?	2.12	0.63
B5	How do you feel or think you would feel about working for a manager who is from a country other than your own?	2.01	0.54

Note: 5=Of utmost importance to me, 4=Very important, 3 =Of moderate importance, 2 = Of little importance, 1=Of very little or no importance

As data in Table 17 show, the item that had the highest mean was the one where the subjects in the study held a strong belief that a company should have a major responsibility for the health and welfare of its employees and their immediate families

(Mean=4.42, SD=0.80). This was followed by the employees' views of an opportunity for higher earnings and also of having an opportunity for advancement of high level jobs (Mean =4.41, SD=0.67). The item that had the lowest mean was employees' feelings or thoughts of how they would feel about working for a manager who is from a country other their own (Mean =2.01, SD=0.54).

Summary of Results of Factor Analyses

Data compiled from four of the measures (Cultural Beliefs, Expectations, Goals and Job Satisfaction) used in this study was subjected to a series of factor analysis procedures. For each of these four measures, a series of principal components factor analysis procedures was completed beginning with unconstrained solution. Next, a series of analyses which iteratively extracted from one to multiple factors was completed. Both oblique and orthogonal rotations (SAS, Institute, 1985) were utilized.

Table 18: Job Expectations

	Item	Factor 1	Factor 2
A3	Have challenging work to do—work from which you can get a personal sense of accomplishment	.01	.35
A4	Live in an area desirable to you and your family	-.01	.47
A5	Have an opportunity for higher earnings	-.07	.50
A6	Work with people who cooperate well with one another	-.01	.66
A7	Have training opportunities (to improve your skills or to learn new skills)	-.13	.64
A8	Have good fringe benefits	-.07	.69
A9	Get the recognition you deserve when you do a good job	-.02	.56
A10	Have good physical working conditions (good ventilation and lighting, adequate work space, etc.)	.06	.60
A11	Have considerable freedom to adopt your own approach to do a good job	.04	.59
A12	Have the security that you will be able to work for your company as long as you want to	.08	.52
A13	Have an opportunity for advancement to higher level jobs	-.04	.67
A14	Have a good working relationship with your manager	.00	.59
A15	Fully use your skills and abilities on the job	.04	.59
A16	Have a job which leaves you sufficient time for your personal or family life	.12	.36

Table 19: Job Satisfaction

Item	Factor 1	Factor 2
A17 The challenge of the work you do—the extent to which you get a personal sense of accomplishment from it	.63	-.05
A18 The extent to which you live in an area desirable to you and your family	.56	-.04
A19 Your opportunity for high earnings in this company	.77	-.01
A20 The extent to which people you work with cooperate with one another	.63	.06
A21 Your training opportunities (to improve your skills or learn new skills)	.73	.00
A22 Your fringe benefits	.76	.00
A23 The recognition you get when you do a good job	.74	.01
A24 Your physical working conditions (ventilation, lighting, work space, etc.)	.49	.02
A25 The freedom you have to adopt your own approach to the job	.67	-.01
A26 Your security that you will be able to work for this company as long as you want to	.67	.06
A27 Your opportunity for advancement to higher level jobs	.76	.04
A28 Your working relationship with your immediate manager	.62	.00
A29 The extent to which you use your skills and abilities on your job	.66	.07
A30 The extent to which your job leaves you sufficient time for your personal or family life	.50	-.08

Table 20: Employee Goals

	Items	Factor 1	Factor 2
C1	Have the security that you will not be transferred to a less desirable job	.42	.13
C2	Work in a department which is run efficiently	.70	.03
C3	Have a job which allows you to make a real contribution to the success of your company	.67	-.04
C4	Work in a company which is regarded in your country as successful	.69	.01
C5	Work in a company which stands in the forefront of modern technology	.65	-.05
C6	Work in a congenial and friendly atmosphere	.63	-.13
C7	Keep up to date with the technical developments relating to your work	.72	-.05
C8	Have a job in which there is a great deal of day-to-day learning	.66	.00
C9	Have a good manager who gives his employees detailed and complete instructions as to the way they should do their jobs: he does not give them merely general directions and depend on them to work out details	.49	.21

Table 21: Cultural Beliefs

	Items	Factor 1	Factor 2
C10	Most companies have a genuine interest in the welfare of their employees	.10	.39
C11	In general, the better managers in a company are those who have been with the company the longest time	-.08	.54
C12	There are few qualities in a man more admirable than dedication and loyalty to his company	.11	.39
C13	Most employees have an inherent dislike of work and will avoid it if they can	.02	.58
C14	Most employees in the company do not like work	.03	.68
C15	For getting ahead in industry, knowing influential people is usually more important than ability.	.13	.64
C16	By and large, companies change their policies and practices much too often	-.02	.63
C17	A large corporation is generally a more desirable place to work than a small company	.02	.51
C18	Even if an employee may feel he deserves a salary increase, he should not ask his manager for it	-.09	.60
C19	The private life of an employee is properly a matter of direct concern to his company	.01	.46

Reliability Analyses and Validity of the Instrument

Cronbach Alpha internal coefficients (item/scale reliability tests) are summarised and reported in table 22. Data in Tables 18 through 21 show that the instrument was reliable.

Table 22: Summary of the Cronbach Alpha Reliability Coefficient for Study Subscales and for all Employees (n = 348)

Factor (Scale)	Items	Cronbach Alpha
Job Satisfaction	A17, A18, A19, A20, A21, A22, A23, A24, A25, A26, A27, A28, A29, A30	0.90
Employee Expectations	A3, A4, A5, A6, A7, A8, A9, A10, A11, A12, A13, A14, A15, A16	0.83
Employee Goals	C1, C2, C3, C4, C5, C6, C7, C8, C9	0.80
Cultural Beliefs	C10, C11, C12, C13, C14, C15, C16, C17, C18, C19	0.74

As can be seen from Table 22 above, coefficient alpha for the scales ranged from 0.74 (cultural beliefs) to 0.90 (job satisfaction) and were judged to be adequate for using the scales in further analysis.

As regards the validity of the instrument, this study employed a variety of methods to complete this requirement as detailed in the previous chapter. The methods utilized involved--content validity, factor analysis and cross-validation procedures, the examination of the dimensionality and reliability of items, among others. Further, a thorough examination of the instrument items was conducted by research experts from the University of Nairobi and Louisiana State University. Further, a series of factor analyses were performed to verify the structure of the scales coupled with cited evidence of validity provided by the face validity of items and the estimates of Cronbach Alpha

internal consistency reliability coefficients reported in Table 22.

Descriptive Statistics for the Factor Scales

Summaries of the descriptive statistics for each subscale for all employees are presented in Table 23. The table includes means and standard deviations for each subscale. The highest mean (59.92) is for employee expectations and the lowest mean (27.76) is for cultural beliefs. Those of job satisfaction and employee goals are 47.72 and 36.97 respectively. The maximum score is for Job Satisfaction and Employee Expectation (70.00) whereas the minimum score is for Employee Goals (45.00). Standard deviation varies between 4.79 for Employee Goals and 9.24 for Job Satisfaction.

Table 23: Summary of Descriptive Statistics for Each Subscale of the Two-Factor Solution of (Items A) and the Two-Factor Solution of (Items C) for the Total Sample of Employees (n=348)

Subscale	Mean	S.D.	Minimum	Maximum	M%Maximum ^a
Job Satisfaction (10) ^b	47.72	9.24	22.00	70.00	95.44
Expectations (14)	59.92	5.65	39.00	70.00	85.60
Employee Goals (9)	36.97	4.79	21.00	45.00	82.16
Cultural Beliefs (14)	27.76	5.84	12.00	50.00	39.66

^aM%Maximum: Mean expressed as a percentage of the maximum possible score

^bNumber of items per scale

The table also presents the mean expressed as a percentage of the maximum possible score. This varies from a low of 39.66 percent for cultural beliefs to a high of

95.44 percent for job satisfaction. The means expressed as a percentage of the maximum possible scores are higher for job satisfaction, employee expectations and employee goals as presented in Table 23.

Results of Analyses for Research Questions

Four research questions are addressed in this part of the chapter. The first two questions explored the relationships among and between the study's variables and their respective subscale items. The third question sought to find out whether there was a difference between Kenyan and non-Kenyan employees of foreign-owned firms operating in Kenya when compared simultaneously on cultural beliefs, employee expectations, goals and job satisfaction. The fourth question sought to find out if there were score differences on the independent and dependent variables of the study among selected employee groups classified by various demographic variables.

Research Question 1: Are there statistically significant, bivariate relationships between any of the independent variables (cultural beliefs, employee expectations and personal goals) and the dependent variable (job satisfaction)?

In order to answer this research question, Pearson's product-moment correlation analyses were completed using individual employee as the unit of analysis. Correlation coefficients were computed between each of the study subscales. Table 24 provides a summary of the intercorrelations of job satisfaction, cultural beliefs, goals and expectations. First, all the correlations among the four study subscales are weak in magnitude. Second, a total of 4 of 16 correlations (25 percent) were statistically significant ($p < 0.05$) and positive in direction. The correlation between job satisfaction

and cultural belief ($r=0.122$, $P<0.05$) was positive in direction and weak in magnitude. Positive correlations were also found between the subscales of job satisfaction and Goals ($r=0.0543$, $P>0.05$) and between job satisfaction and expectations ($r=0.0110$, $P>0.05$). The latter two correlation coefficients were very weak in magnitude and not statistically significant ($p>0.05$). Due to weak and insignificant correlation coefficients between many (12 out of 16 bivariate correlation coefficients) the study variables, a sophisticated statistical technique (LISREL) could not be employed to complete the computations of indirect effects postulated in conceptual framework. LISREL requires that the correlation coefficients are moderate to strong where moderate is indicated by a value of a correlation coefficient (0.5) as indicated in many literature of covariance structure analysis (LISREL).

Table 24: Summary of Intercorrelations Among National Culture Survey (NCS) Subscales for the Total Sample of Employees (n=348)

	Job Satisfaction	Cultural Beliefs	Goals	Expectations
Job Satisfaction	1.000			
Cultural Beliefs	0.1226**	1.000		
Goals	0.0543	0.0119	1.000	
Expectations	0.0110	-0.0287	0.4813**	1.000

** $p<0.05$

Research Question 2: How, and in what combinations, do the study subscale items predict job satisfaction in Kenya's foreign-owned firms' work environment?

In order to address the second research question a multivariate analysis was

completed using the individual employee as a unit of analysis. Specifically, a series of multiple regression analyses was completed by regressing the dependent variable (job satisfaction) on a) ten cultural belief subscale items, b) nine goals subscale items and c) fourteen expectations subscale items.

a) Relationship between Employees Cultural Beliefs and Job Satisfaction

A multiple regression model was run with job satisfaction as the dependent variable and ten independent cultural belief items. The independent cultural belief items included: employees' responses toward managers' duration of service, employees' personal qualities besides dedication and loyalty, employees' dislike of work, employees knowing influential people to get a promotion, frequent changes in company policies and practices, employees' preference to work in a large corporation, employees' belief not to request for pay raise, and employees' belief that their private life should be a matter of concern to the company.

Before running the regression analyses, a simple correlation matrix was completed to check for the presence of multicollinearity. Multicollinearity arises when several of the independent variables are "highly" correlated with each other; that is, the variables are measures of similar phenomena. This has damaging effects in that information that each collinear variable provides in a regression model is not very different from that provided by the others. Multicollinearity makes it very difficult to estimate the separate influence of such variables on the dependent variable, for the damage associated with it is the inflation of standard errors of the collinear variables. The inflated standard errors mean that the estimated coefficients and their size, sign, and

significance tests may not be accurate. As shown in Table 25, there were no cases of multicollinearity between the independent variables in the study. The correlation coefficients ran from 0.01 to a high of 0.60.

Table 25: Simple Correlation Matrix for Cultural Beliefs Items used as independent variables in the Regression Model (n=348)

	C10	C11	C12	C13	C14	C15	C16	C17	C18	C19
C10	1.00									
C11	.37	1.00								
C12	.60	.17	1.00							
C13	.07	.17	.22	1.00						
C14	.13	.19	.20	.59	1.00					
C15	.19	.31	.17	.24	.35	1.00				
C16	.42	.30	.14	.31	.30	.42	1.00			
C17	.25	.24	.21	.10	.26	.25	.24	1.00		
C18	.32	.30	.05	.29	.27	.32	.30	.28	1.00	
C19	.01	.06	.08	.21	.28	.13	.21	.22	.38	1.00

Note: The description of variables C10-C19 are presented in Appendix E.

Table 26 shows the results of the multiple regression model with employee job satisfaction as the dependent variable and employees' responses toward manager's duration of service, most companies have genuine interest in the welfare of the their employees (item C10), employees' personal qualities besides dedication and loyalty (item

C12), employees' dislike of work (item C13), employees knowing influential people to get a promotion (item C15), frequent changes in company policies and practices (item C16), employees' preference to work in a large corporation (item C17), employees' belief not to request for pay raise (item C18), and employees' belief that their private life should be a matter of concern to the company (item C19) as independent variables. When multiple independent variables are included in the model then both the relationships between the independent variables as well as their individual relations to the dependent variable influence the size and direction of the regression coefficients. The size of any coefficient depends not only on the sample and the values of the variable but also on which other variables are in the model. In fact, the other variables in a model may often be more important in determining the size of a coefficient than the values of the variable itself. The assumption here is that this regression works only to the extent that the independent and dependent variables together continue to be driven by the same fundamental forces that were acting when the data were collected.

Table 26 shows that items C10 (most companies have a genuine interest in the welfare of their employees), C11 (generally, the better managers in a company are those who have been with the company the longest time), and C18 (that even if an employee may feel he deserves a salary increase, he should not ask his manager for it) were statistically significant at 0.05 level. The regression model was statistically significant with an $F = 5.65$, ($p < 0.05$). (See Table 27).

Table 26: The Regression Model with Employee Job Satisfaction as Dependent Variable on Cultural Beliefs Items (n=348)

Variable	B ^a	t	p
Intercept	40.60	16.68	.0001**
C10	1.98	4.21	.0001**
C11	1.83	2.81	.0052**
C12	0.41	0.82	.4144
C13	-0.19	-0.34	.7327
C14	-0.82	-1.32	.1871
C15	-0.49	-1.01	.3125
C16	-0.43	-0.75	.4519
C17	-0.30	-0.07	.9473
C18	1.27	2.33	.0204**
C19	-0.6	-1.33	.1842

^aB Parameter estimate

C10 through C19 represent measures of cultural beliefs

** p < 0.05

Table 27 further shows that the ten independent variables (cultural beliefs) which entered the model accounted for 14.4% of the employees' variance in job satisfaction. Thus the cultural beliefs of the employees' factor as measured by the ten independent variables explained 14.4% of the variance in the dependent variable, employee job satisfaction.

Table 27: Regression Analysis of Variance with Job Satisfaction as the Dependent Variable on Cultural Beliefs Items as Predictors in the Regression Model

Source	DF	Sum of Squares	Mean Square	F	<u>p</u>
Gender	10	4252.79	425.28	5.65	0.0001
Error	337	2536.53	75.28		
Total	347	29621.31			

$R^2 = .1436$ DF = 10

b) Relationship between Employees' Personal Goals and Job Satisfaction

To determine the relationship between employee personal goals and job satisfaction, a multiple regression model was run with job satisfaction as the dependent variable and nine independent variables relating to employee goals. The independent variables included: having the security that one would not be transferred to a less desirable job (item C1), working in a department run efficiently (item C2), having a job that allows one to make a real contribution to the success of the company (item C3), working in a company that is regarded highly in Kenya (item C4), working in a congenial and friendly atmosphere (item C6), keeping up to date with technical developments relating to one's job (item C7), having a job that has a great deal of day to day learning (item C8), and having a good manager who gives employees detailed and complete instructions (item C9).

Before running the regression equations, a simple correlation matrix was run to check for the presence of multicollinearity. As shown in Table 28, there were no cases of

multicollinearity between the independent variables in the study as indicated by the correlation coefficients of 0.11 (for C1 vs C8) to a high of 0.53 (for C4 vs C5).

Table 28: Simple Correlation Matrix for Employee Personal Goals Items used as Independent Variables used in the Regression Model

	C1	C2	C3	C4	C5	C6	C7	C8	C9
C1	1.000								
C2	.39	1.000							
C3	.21	.49	1.000						
C4	.26	.41	.43	1.000					
C5	.13	.30	.32	.53	1.000				
C6	.21	.34	.34	.27	.34	1.000			
C7	.21	.47	.39	.32	.38	.50	1.000		
C8	.11	.30	.37	.35	.40	.40	.47	1.000	
C9	.22	.27	.22	.27	.23	.17	.26	.28	1.000

Note: The description of variables C1-C9 are presented in Appendix E.

A stepwise regression model was completed for this analysis. This statistical procedure examines a number of different regression equations. The major goal of this technique and which serves this study well is that of taking a set of independent variables and putting them into a regression model one at a time in a specified manner until all variables have been added or until a specified criterion has been met. With this technique, the best single regressor was first entered into the model, then the next best

variable to be added was added to what is already in the model, the next best, etc. In each step all variables in each equation were checked again to see if they remain significant after the new variable has been entered. This is important for the focus of this study was, in part, to find correlates of job satisfaction.

Table 29 shows the results of the stepwise regression model with employee job satisfaction as the dependent variable and employee goals subscale items: having the security that one would not be transferred to a less desirable job, working in a department run efficiently, having a job that allows one to make a real contribution to the success of the company, working in a company that is regarded highly in Kenya, working in a congenial and friendly atmosphere, keeping up to date with technical developments relating to one's job, having a job that has a great deal of day to day learning and having a good manager who gives employees detailed and complete instructions as independent variables.

Table 29: The Regression Model Coefficients with Employee Job Satisfaction as Dependent Variable on Employee Goals Items (n=348)

Variable	B ^a	F	p
Intercept	47.80	252.09	.0001
C2	-1.31	3.63	.0574
C9	1.49	10.97	.0010

^a B Parameter estimate

** p < 0.05

As shown in Table 29, the items C2 (working in a department that is run

efficiently) and C9 (having a good manager who gives employees detailed and complete instructions) entered the stepwise regression model. The variable C9 was statistically significant at 0.05 level of significance. The regression model was significant with an $F = 6.05$, ($p < 0.05$) as indicated in Table 30. Table 30 shows further that the two variables combined explained 3.4% of the dependent variable, job satisfaction.

Table 30: Regression Analysis of Variance with Job Satisfaction as the Dependent Variable on Employee Goals Items in the Regression Model

Source	DF	Sum of Squares	Mean Square	F	p
Regression	2	1003.41	501.71	6.05	0.0026
Error	345	28617.90	82.95		
Total	347	29621.31			

$R^2 = .0339$ $DF = 2$

c) Relationship between Employee Expectations and Job Satisfaction

To determine the relationship between employee expectations and job satisfaction, a multiple regression model was run with job satisfaction as the dependent variable and fourteen independent variables that measured employee expectations. The independent variables included in the regression model were: having challenging work to do from which one can get a personal sense of accomplishment (item A3), living in an area desirable to an employee and his/her family (item A4), having an opportunity for higher earnings, working with people who cooperate well with one another (item A6), and having training opportunities to improve one's skills or to learn new skills (item A7), having good fringe benefits (item A8), getting the recognition one deserves for a well-

done job (item A9), having good physical working conditions (item A10), having considerable freedom to adopt one's own approach to do a good job, having the security that one will be able to work for the company as long a good working relationship exists (item A12), having an opportunity for advancement to higher level jobs (A13), having a good working relationship with one's manager (A14), fully using one's skills and abilities on the job (item A15), and having a job that leaves someone with sufficient time for personal or family life (item A16).

Again, prior to running the regression analyses, a simple correlation matrix was completed to check for the presence of multicollinearity. As shown in Table 31, there were no cases of multicollinearity between the independent variables in the study-- the correlation coefficients run from 0.04 to a high of 0.44. This enabled the researcher to proceed to running of the stepwise regression model shown in Table 32.

Table 31: Simple Correlation Matrix for Employee Expectations Items used as Independent Variables used in the Regression Model

	A3	A4	A5	A6	A7	A8	A9	A10	A11	A12	A13	A14	A15	A16
A3	1.000													
A4	.15	1.000												
A5	.12	.31	1.000											
A6	.27	.23	.24	1.000										
A7	.20	.15	.30	.50	1.000									
A8	.17	.35	.37	.40	.42	1.000								
A9	.09	.27	.18	.30	.21	.32	1.000							
A10	.12	.26	.20	.36	.38	.35	.26	1.000						
A11	.18	.10	.18	.35	.32	.29	.36	.38	1.000					
A12	.06	.23	.22	.24	.25	.32	.25	.22	.24	1.000				
A13	.25	.44	.30	.38	.44	.29	.26	.39	.40	.34	1.000			
A14	.18	.17	.15	.35	.27	.31	.32	.27	.33	.25	.36	1.000		
A15	.32	.16	.21	.34	.34	.24	.34	.25	.33	.21	.30	.44	1.000	
A16	.10	.18	.08	.06	.04	.30	.15	.31	.20	.19	.28	.16	.10	1.000

Note: The description of variables A3-A16 are presented in Appendix E.

Data in Table 32 below show the results of the stepwise regression model with employee job satisfaction as the dependent variable and employees' expectation variables as independent variables.

Table 32: The Regression Model Coefficients with Job Satisfaction as Dependent Variable on Employee Expectations Items (n=348)

Variable	B ^a	F	p
Intercept	47.13	142.93	.0001
A7	-2.34	9.76**	.0019
A10	1.30	3.55**	.0604
A12	1.24	3.32**	.0692

^a B Parameter estimate

** p < 0.05

As shown in Table 32, the items A7 (having training opportunities to improve one's skills or learn new skills), A10 (having good physical working conditions--good ventilation and lighting, adequate work space, etc.), and A12 (having the security that one will be able to work for his/her company as long as he/she desires) entered the regression model. The variables A7, A10, and A12 were found to be statistically significant at .05 level of significance. The regression model was significant with an $F(3, 344) = 4.26$, ($p < 0.05$) as indicated in Table 33. The results of the regression model shown in Table 33 indicate that the three variables combined accounted for 3.6% of the dependent variable, job satisfaction.

Table 33: Regression Analysis of Variance Table with Job Satisfaction as the Dependent Variable on Employee Expectations Items

Source	DF	Sum of Squares	Mean Square	F	<u>p</u>
Regression	3	1061.61	353.87	4.26*	0.0057
Error	344	28559.71	83.00		
Total	347	29621.31			

$R^2 = .0358$ DF = 3

* $p < .05$

Research Question 3: Is there a difference between Kenyan and non-Kenyan employees of foreign-owned firms in Kenya when compared simultaneously with respect to cultural beliefs, personal employee expectations, personal goals and job satisfaction?

To determine if there was a difference between Kenyan and non-Kenyan employees working in foreign-owned firms in Kenya when compared simultaneously with respect to cultural beliefs, employee expectations, personal goals and job satisfaction, a series of multivariate analysis of variance – (MANOVA), multivariate tests of significance which are measures of whether groups (the independent variable) differ significantly in their scores on the set of dependent variables (cultural beliefs, expectations, personal goals and job satisfaction) were performed. As presented above, the analysis involved four dependent variables and one predictor variable (grouping variable). The predictor variable (Kenyan and non-Kenyan group membership), termed here as group, was measured on a nominal scale: Kenyan employee (coded as 1) and non-

Kenyan employee (coded as 2). The investigation sought to determine if there was no significant difference between Kenyan and non-Kenyan employees when they were compared simultaneously on the four dependent variables (cultural beliefs, expectations, goals and job satisfaction). The results of the analysis suggested that the two groups of employees were significantly different from each other on at least one of the dependent variables. MANOVA results for the effect of the independent variable are presented in Table 34. The analysis revealed a significant multivariate effect of employee group membership (i.e., the effect of being a Kenyan or a non-Kenyan employee), Wilks' Lambda = 0.95, $F(4, 343) = 4.06$; $p < 0.0001$. The Wilks' Lambda statistic varies between 0 and 1 with smaller values denoting greater likelihood of significant group differences. It is an exact F if the number of groups or variates is less than or equal to two. From the results given above, there were significant group differences. Because of this, follow-up tests to identify where the two groups of employees were significantly different from each other on the dependent variables were then performed. A univariate analysis of variance (ANOVA) test was conducted to find out the dependent variable on which the groups were different. The groups differ on the dependent variable of cultural beliefs and employee goals but not on job satisfaction and employee expectations. Then, Tukey's Honestly Significant Difference (HSD) was performed under MANOVA for group comparison through multiple comparison procedures to find out on which dependent variable the two groups of employees were different. The multivariate analysis of variance for differences between the two employee groups in job satisfaction and employee expectations was not statistically significant -- $F(1, 346) = 0.13$, $p > 0.7143$,

and $F(1, 346) = 0.38, p > 0.5394$, respectively. However, the analysis revealed statistically significant differences between the two groups of employees in cultural beliefs and employee goals, $F(1, 346) = 4.39, p < 0.039$, and $F(1, 346) = 6.50, p < 0.012$ respectively.

Table 34: Summary of Differences Between Groups [Kenya and Non-Kenyan employee Status] (MANOVA) on Cultural Beliefs, Expectations, Goals and Job Satisfaction

Variables	Wilks' Lambda	Mean Square	F-Value	Probability
-----	0.95	-----	4.06*	0.0031
Cultural Beliefs		148.4303	4.39*	0.0369
Employee Goals		146.7309	6.50*	0.0112

* $p < 0.05$

Figure 2 shows a graphical presentation of the MANOVA findings. From the graphs, it is visible that there are differences between Kenyan and non-Kenyan employees in cultural beliefs and employee goal subscales. The two groups seem to enjoy similar levels in job satisfaction and employee expectations.

MEAN %		
JSK	68.08	Job Satisfaction (Kenyan)
JSN	68.93	Job Satisfaction (Non-Kenyans)
EXPK	85.51	Employee Expectations (Kenyan)
EXPN	86.39	Employee Expectations (Non-Kenyans)
EMPGK	82.64	Employee Goals (Kenyan)
EMPGN	77.9	Employee Goals (Non-Kenyans)
CUBEK	55.08	Cultural Beliefs (Kenyan)
CUBEN	59.37	Cultural Beliefs (Non-Kenyans)

Percentage of the Maximum Possible Score for Employees' Cultural Beliefs, Expectations, Goals, and Job Satisfaction: Kenyan and Non-Kenyan Employees

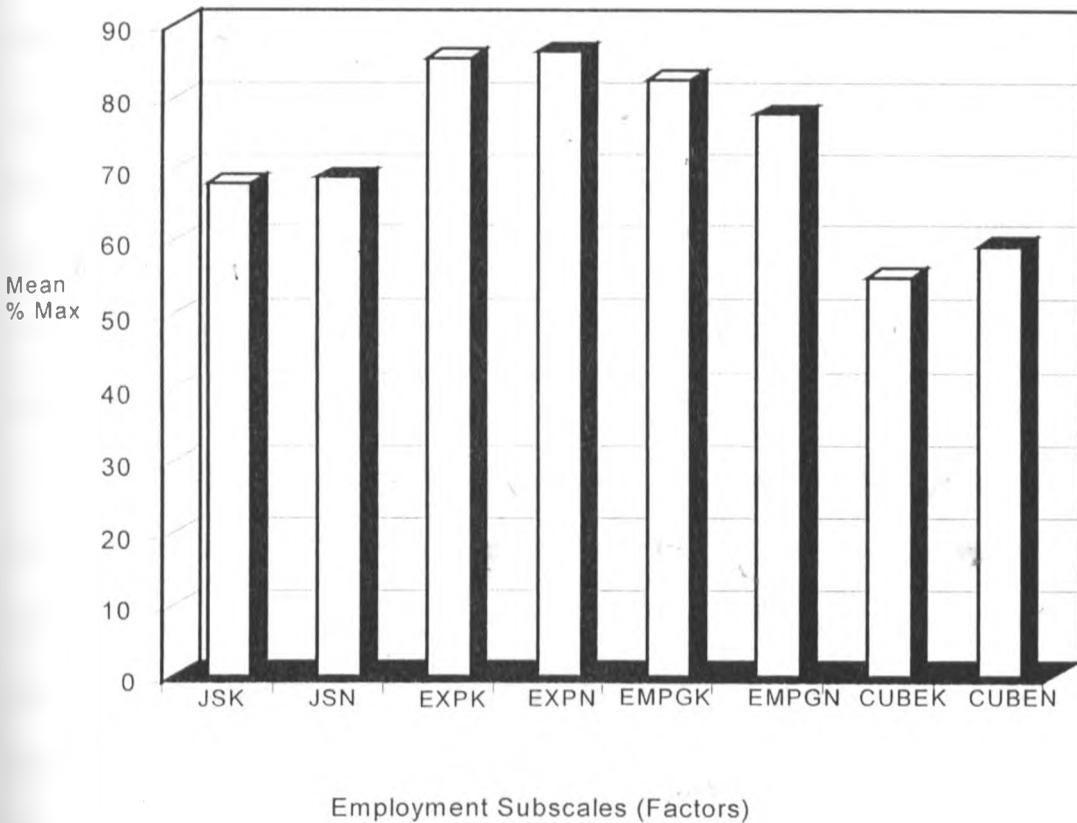


Figure 2: Percentage of the Maximum Possible Score for Employees' Cultural Beliefs, Expectations, Goals and Job Satisfaction Subscales: Kenyan and Non-Kenyan Employees

Research Question 4 Are the relationships between employees cultural beliefs, expectations, and goals (as predictor variables) and employees' job satisfaction (as a criterion variable) moderated by demographic variables?

To answer this question, a series of factorial analysis of variance (ANOVA) procedures was completed. First, an ANOVA was computed for each cultural beliefs, expectations, goals and job satisfaction as dependent variables with three levels of age (old, middle, young), two levels of gender (female, male), and five levels of years employed in the firm as independent variables in the model. A one-way ANOVA model was also completed for job satisfaction using years employed in the firm as independent variable. Both main and interaction effects were examined in all factorial ANOVA procedures using employee scores as the units of analysis. When a significant F-value was obtained, Scheffe's multiple post hoc comparison tests were executed.

The summary results (see Table 35) of this section indicate that no meaningful differences existed in all demographic subgroups when job satisfaction was used as the dependent variable, except where gender was used as independent variable. Interaction effect between employee's length of employment and gender was not statistically significant. Although statistically significant differences between means were found, the effect size was rather low (0.063). The interpretation of this effect (ratio) is analogous to the interpretation of r^2 , the coefficient of determination; that is, this ratio indicates the proportion of variance in the dependent variable that is accounted for by the levels of the independent variable.

Table 35: Summary of Two-way Analysis of Variance between Employee's Gender and Length of Employment

Source	DF	Sum of Squares	Mean Square	F	p
Gender	1	467.449	467.449	5.416**	0.021
L-Employ ^a	4	482.475	120.619	1.398	0.235
Interaction	4	667.812	166.953	1.934	0.105
Model	9	1728.495	192.055	2.225**	0.020
Residual	298	25719.930	86.308		
Total	307	27448.425	86.409		

^a L-Employ: Length of employment

** p < 0.05

$\eta^2 = SS_{\text{model}}/SS_{\text{total}} = (1728.495/27448.425) = 0.063$

Chapter Summary

A summary of the results of the data analyses conducted in this study has been presented in chapter 4. The summaries include: descriptive statistics for the sample as well as for the study's independent and dependent variables; factor analyses for cultural beliefs, goals, expectations and job satisfaction; reliability analyses for all measures, and intercorrelations among the four instrument subscales was given. Also a summary of results pertinent to the study's four research questions are provided.

Chapter 5 presents a summary of major findings and conclusions of the study. Discussion includes various practical, policy and methodology implications, as well as suggestions for future research.

CHAPTER 5

DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSIONS

This chapter presents major findings and conclusions among the study variables, discussion and implications of major findings, methodological and research design issues, implications for managerial practice and policy, directions for future research and thesis summary. A new conceptual framework was developed for this study. The discussion of the findings of the study are based on the linkages between and among the variables in the conceptual framework.

Major Findings and Conclusions

The discussions and conclusions presented in this section focus primarily on the major findings of the study.

Major Finding Number One

The variables C10 (most companies have a genuine interest in the welfare of their employees), C11 (employees' responses toward managers' duration of service), and C18 (employees belief in not asking for pay raise) were statistically significant predictors of job satisfaction in regression model. The ten cultural beliefs subscale items explained 14.4% of the dependent variable, employee job satisfaction.

Conclusion: Company managers who have worked long with a company are more experienced both in dealing with their day-to-day assignments as well as in dealing with employees' grievances. Also, majority of foreign-owned firms in developing countries should develop welfare departments that deal with employees' personal needs. Employees in collectiveness societies such as in Kenya, consider loyalty to employer as a virtue and expect the employing firm as a source of satisfaction of all their personal

needs. Further, the past research that identified employees in collective societies to be more dependent on their organizations, found that employees in these cultures tend to expect a life long employment and consider the workplaces as a source of their security and stability.

Major Finding Number Two

Of the nine employee goals subscale items, two of them were retained in the stepwise regression model. The independent variables C2 (working in a department that is run efficiently) and C9 (having a good manager who gives employees detailed and complete instructions) entered the stepwise regression model. The regression model was statistically significant with two predictors in the final model accounting of 3.39% the variance in job satisfaction.

Conclusion: Employees working in collectiveness countries such as in Kenya prefer and work best under a manager who inspires, motivates and directs their activities to help produce personal, group, or organizational goals. Further, employees like to be led by a manager who demonstrates trust, respect, and care about them —i.e., a manager who truly looks out for their well-being and does what he/she can to help them feel good and enjoy their work environment. Ahiauzu (1986), Dorjahn and Hogg (1966) affirmed that employees regarded a “good boss” as one who treated his employees with respect and spoke nicely to them while not exposing employees’ mistakes in public. Studies done in high uncertainty avoidance countries such as in Kenya found that in these cultures, employees were less risk-taking, had a high concern for fear of failure and preferred detailed and complete instructions from their managers. This is consistent with finding

number two in this study.

Major Finding Number Three

There was a statistically significant relationship between the fourteen employees' expectations subscale items and job satisfaction. The employee expectation subscale items included: the items A7 (having training opportunities to improve one's skills or learn new skills), A8 (having good fringe benefits), A10 (having good physical working conditions, good ventilation and lighting, adequate work, etc.), and A12 (having the security that you will be able to work for your company as long as you want) entered the regression model. These subscale items, A7, A10, and A12 were statistically significant. The fourteen employee expectations subscale items explained 3.6% of the variance in the dependent variable, job satisfaction.

Conclusion. It is often contended that a satisfied employee is more likely to be productive and less likely to search for alternative employers. Satisfaction relates to several dimensions such as training opportunities, good physical working conditions, job security, satisfaction with work itself, with the management, with the pay and with promotional prospects. Employees who score high on job satisfaction generally like their jobs, feel that they are being treated fairly, and believe that their jobs have many desirable features or characteristics as stated in the aforementioned section. It is every employee desire that all or majority of the above mentioned conditions be met by their employers. However, since variance explained by these variable is only 3.6%, job satisfaction is accounted for by other factors which were not captured in this model.

Major Finding Number Four

The results of the multivariate analysis of variance (MANOVA) suggest that the two groups of employees were significantly different from each other on at least one of the dependent variables as presented in Table 34. The analysis revealed a significant multivariate effect of employee group membership (i.e., the effect of being a Kenyan or a non-Kenyan employee). The groups differ on the dependent variable of cultural beliefs and employee goals but not on job satisfaction and employee expectations. The Tukey's Honestly Significant Difference (HSD) performed under MANOVA for group comparison through multiple comparison procedures to verify on which dependent variable the two groups of employees were different show no significant differences between the two employee groups in job satisfaction and employee expectations. However, the analysis revealed statistically significant differences between the two groups of employees in cultural beliefs and employee expectations.

When demographic subgroups (gender, length of employment in the firm, and employee's age) were utilized, no meaningful differences existed when job satisfaction was used as the dependent variable. Significant differences, however, were found in employees' goals when length of employment in the firm and gender were used as predictors. Interaction effect between employee length of employment and gender was not statistically significant.

Although statistically significant differences between means were found, one may argue that the substantive significance (the magnitude of the effect computed as $SS_{\text{model}}/SS_{\text{total}}=355.080/3656.307$) of the findings was rather limited. This effect was less

than 20% of the total variation in employees' goals.

Conclusion: The differences in Kenyan and non-Kenyan employees in their cultural beliefs could be due in part to "collectivism" tendencies on the part of Kenyan employees-expecting the firm to look after them like a family and defend their interests. Conversely, the non-Kenyan employees could be influenced by "individualism" where firms are not expected to look after their employees in every aspect of their lives, employees are expected to defend their rights and the involvement of individuals with firms is primarily on a moral basis.

Regarding differences in goals between female and male employees, this could be due, in part, to pay and pay related working demands. Female and male employees have been known to differ with their workplace goals, particularly the pay. Li-Ping (1999) observed a difference between males and females where males tended to have a higher satisfaction with pay than females. Further, Tang and Li-Ping (1999) found that the females tended to have higher satisfaction with co-workers than males.

Major Finding Number Five

The Pearson product moment correlation analyses completed using the individual employee as the unit of analysis provides some information about the linkages among the study variables. First, all the correlations among the four study subscales are weak in magnitude. Second, the correlation between job satisfaction and cultural beliefs was positive in direction, statistically significant and weak in magnitude. Positive correlation was also found between job satisfaction and goals and between job satisfaction and expectations; but the later two correlations were not statistically significant. The

intercorrelations between cultural beliefs and goals was positive and not statistically significant whereas that of cultural beliefs and expectations was weak in magnitude, negative in direction and not statistically significant. The correlation coefficient between goals and expectations was positive and statistically significant.

Conclusion: The meaning of job satisfaction and the factors that contribute to it, is viewed differently from the perspective of individual employee. The cumulative effect of employees job satisfaction from different firms and whether Kenyan or non-Kenyan leads to a weaker strength of correlation coefficients between the study variables. In practice, cultures are quickly becoming homogenized, so the identification of Kenyan or any other culture is becoming much more difficult to differentiate. The significant correlation coefficient between employee's goals and expectations indicates possibilities of recursive and non-recursive relationships that could be investigated further through more powerful statistical techniques such as structural equation modeling.

Discussion and Implications of Major Findings

The section that follows provides a discussion of the aforementioned major findings and conclusions. Conceptual concerns, methodological and design issues, measurement issue, implications for future research, practice and policy are covered.

Based on the findings of this study, the following discussion of the conclusions, implications, and recommendations are presented:

1. The employees' cultural beliefs had a positive and statistically significant relationship with job satisfaction. This finding is based on variables C10 (most companies have a genuine interest in the welfare of their employees), C11

(employees' responses toward managers' duration of service), and C18 (employees' belief not to request a pay raise). All these variables were statistically significant predictors of job satisfaction and all cultural beliefs explained 14.4% of employee job satisfaction. This finding is in agreement with the Blunt (1983) study in Kenya. Blunt found that Kenyan employees regarded work as a means to an end, as a way of obtaining income necessary to support a valued way of life, which excluded the work itself. Workers in Kenya, as Blunt found, regarded their jobs and work per se purely as an instrumental activity -- that is, something to be tolerated in order to gain money. Kiggundu (1988) found that African countries were collectivist because of the prevalence of the extended family. Employees expected the organizations they worked for to take care of their personal interests and believed that organizations had great influence on members' well-being.

To ensure that employees of the foreign-owned firms in Kenya are satisfied with their jobs, it is important that managers understand employees' cultural beliefs. Effective cross-cultural management means being able to work with diverse workforce, tolerating differences, and recognizing employees' abilities when developing shared tasks. Non-Kenyan managers should not "force-fit" Kenyan employees into adopting their cultural values. This is not only a moral concern, it may also affect job satisfaction negatively. The history of colonialism shows that the great powers who made repeated attempts to enforce their value systems upon others eventually failed. The foreign-owned firms that attempt to

impose their behavioral norms upon unwilling employees from another culture, may not effectively motivate their employees to perform their jobs (Mead, 1994). Given the fact that there is increased change due to advancement in technology and the knowledge explosion (Nafukho, 1998), it is important that the employees are encouraged to make an effort in investing in their own personal learning and development. This researcher therefore recommends that foreign-owned firms in Kenya provide relevant training tailored to fit Kenyan employees as a way of making them learn to adjust to new technologies despite their cultural background while motivating them for greater challenges of their future careers.

2. There was a statistically significant relationship between employee goals and job satisfaction. This conclusion is based on the finding that variables C2 (working in a department that is run efficiently) and C9 (having a good manager who gives employees detailed and complete instruction) entered the stepwise regression model as significant predictors of job satisfaction. The employee goal variables significantly predicted job satisfaction and accounted for 3.4% of the variance in the job satisfaction variable. This finding is supported by Choudury (1986). Choudury concurred that the general tone of management practices in African countries was prescriptive and inflexible; also, employees preferred to have clearly outlined rules and procedures in the workplace. Bate (1984, 1990) found that employees in African organizations followed instructions closely and when in doubt, waited for directions from their managers.

This finding supports earlier findings by Ahiauzu (1986) and Seddon

(1985) while discussing the characteristics of trust and loyalty in workplaces. Ahiauzu (1986), Dorjahn and Hogg (1966) found that employees regarded "good boss" as one who treated his employees with respect and spoke nicely to them. This, according to Ahiauzu, entailed observing traditional requirements of etiquette of which politeness and kindness were essential ingredients. Ahiauzu's study further revealed that when in public, employees' mistakes or weaknesses should not be pointed out by managers. "This should only be done in private and politely" (Ahiauzu, 1986). In support of this viewpoint, Seddon (1985) found that in African organizations, employee feedback from management was rarely confrontational; he noted that managers were more indirect when dealing with employees. For example, "an employee may find on Friday evening that the keys to the company vehicle that was assigned to him were unavailable" (Seddon, 1985), meaning that the employee had been relieved of his position.

The aforementioned stresses the point for the employees' job satisfaction and how it should be ensured. It is important that foreign-owned firms in Kenya provide efficiently run departments. In addition, managers should provide detailed and complete instructions to their employees. This also means that besides company goals, employees' personal goals should be taken care by the management. Foreign-owned firms that do satisfy employees' needs by providing opportunities for growth and development through training, the study concluded that the employees had a higher job satisfaction. Bruce and Blackburn (1992), state that in large companies where pay levels are high, successful companies put

an emphasis on pay for performance, training, and career development. These researchers further state that in smaller successful companies, employee performance has been improved through providing challenging assignments, respectful treatment, and willingness of managers to listen. In the above twin cases, employees who report satisfaction also produce more..."when you let an employee know you are glad of the association, you automatically get more effort from that person...Promoting happiness among workers is an important part of being a successful supervisor."

The researcher recommends that employees' personal goals, expectations and cultural beliefs be addressed in career development of both the local employees (Kenyan) and expatriates (Non-Kenyan). This is an important component of the human resource development - particularly in foreign-owned firms operating in Kenya. Just as the firm expects optimum performance from its employees, employees too have come to expect job satisfaction as part and parcel of their working condition. Further, in an employee's perspective, work is an intrinsic part of most lives and provides identity...daily meaning as well as daily bread. Since then that job satisfaction is, at least in part, based upon employee expectations of what is expected of them and what they will receive in return for complying with organizational demands, the initial employee job orientation should address these variables.

There was a statistically significant relationship between employee expectations subscale items and job satisfaction of foreign-owned firms operating

in Kenya that were studied. This conclusion is supported by the following findings:

The variables A7 (having training opportunities to improve one's skills or learn new skills), A10 (having good physical working conditions – good ventilation and lighting, adequate work space, etc.), and A12 (having the security that one will be able to work for the company as long as he/she wants to) entered the regression model. The variables A7, A10, and A12 were found to be statistically significant predictors of job satisfaction. The results of the regression model indicated that the combined employee expectation variables explained 3.6% of job satisfaction.

The employees who participated in this study expected training opportunities and learning of new skills, and the security that they will be able to work for their company as long as they want to be provided. These expectations are quite in agreement with the earlier recommendations that employers should provide training to their employees, and also, the employees should be confident about the tenure and security of their jobs. Employees thrive on the challenge of new training opportunities and are motivated when they learn new ways to perform their jobs. They are also motivated by the promise of training and education as mechanisms of career advancement. Training and educational opportunities are what have been called “motivational factors” and “satisfiers” (Bruce & Blackburn, 1992; Herzberg, 1987). Employees working in firms will want education and training for this staff development element will be a means of

promotion or movement upward and outward. Training and educational opportunities, then, it seems, should provide the knowledge, skills, and abilities necessary to assist employees (both beginners and advanced) to meet their professional needs at the point in time they are participating in training. This is also a goal not often addressed by training programs or human resource departments in many employment establishments. This supports earlier research in Kenya by Blunt (1983), Jones (1986) and Leonard (1991). Their research established that employees preferred and expected job security in the workplace. Their study showed that organizational managers were fond of avoiding making decision that seemed to threaten their job security.

The researcher recommends frequent evaluation studies to determine whether employees' expectations are being met. This is useful for the purpose of trying to match theory with reality. It is important that there be a mechanism for increasing a manager's awareness of changing employee values that require a multi-valued orientation. The researcher recommends a replicate study that will focus on foreign-owned firms operating in Kenya that did not participate in this study. It would be interesting to establish whether there is any difference in employees' job satisfaction between various firms. It is also important that firms redesign their jobs to enhance job satisfaction and performance. This may involve forming natural units that involve the creation of tasks that are identifiable and meaningful to the final product. Employees will see the results of their work in completed products, elements of the products, or sections of work, rather than

working continuously on one small component or fragment of a task. Setting up feedback channels also helps employees learn how well they are performing, and whether their work is improving, deteriorating, or remaining at a constant level.

The results of the multivariate analysis of variance (MANOVA) suggest that the Kenyan and non-Kenyan employees were significantly different from each other on cultural beliefs and employee goals. The analysis revealed a significant multivariate effect of employee group membership (i.e., the effect of being a Kenyan or non-Kenyan employee).

The differences in cultural beliefs and goals among employees of Kenyan descent and employees of foreign origin is crucial for it translates into the overall employee job satisfaction which in turn impacts productivity. Items of employee expectations included having the security that an employee can work for his/her company as long as he/she wants, and having a job that leaves the employee sufficient time for personal or family life. The cultural beliefs items included: the employees' view that the better managers in a company were those who have been with the company the longest time; and that for getting ahead in industry, knowing influential people is usually more important than ability.

The two groups of employees differ on their views on employee goals and cultural beliefs. Tayeb (1996) states the importance of noting that cultures are normally different from one another in the degree to which they generally hold certain values and attitudes, and not in the type of these values and attitudes. Tayeb continued to stress that it is wise to attribute cultural characteristics to

people in relation to others and not in absolute terms. The challenges posed by culture in the workplace are quite exciting and it has been met with mixed reactions from both the practitioners and researchers.

The extant literature on the impact of culture on management practices posits that some foreign-owned firms fail to provide the right skills in management for the local employees by simply using a universal approach to management. This has often resulted in mistakes and misunderstanding in such firms. Other firms have acknowledged a strong need for cross-cultural understanding of intercultural relationships in the workplace but still do not take it seriously enough to deal with it effectively. The employers therefore need to be cognizant of this aspect in order to train their employees in these cross-cultural skills and thus improve employees' job satisfaction and enhance productivity. It remains a fact that large firms operating in culturally heterogeneous countries cannot avoid having a diverse workforce and it therefore makes sense to cultivate harmony in such firms. A firm's human resource management policies, from recruitment, work practices, training and promotion criteria have to be redesigned to make them more inviting thus creating a conducive working environment.

It is important also to know that foreign-owned firms can grow rapidly when employees' job satisfaction is improved through transfer of ideas, technology and when human activities are encouraged to move across borders. Tayeb (1992) noted that countries that are collective in nature could benefit a lot from borrowing skills, industrial manpower and technology from developed

collective societies such as Japan. This package from developed collective countries may contain some other “supporting” items, such as collective decision making, job rotation and flexible working hours arrangement, long-term employment, mutual emotional dependence between employee and employer, seniority-based promotion, team appraisal and reward policies. The above factors have contributed to the presence and success of teamwork in Japanese companies (Tayeb, 1996).

The differences in Kenyan and non-Kenyan employees in their cultural beliefs could be due in part to “collectivism” tendencies among Kenyan employees...look after them like a family, and defend their interests. Furthermore, the non-Kenyan employees could be influenced by “individualism” tendencies where firms are not expected to look after their employees in every aspect of their lives. The employees are expected to defend their rights and involvement of individuals with firms is primarily a moral issue. This is quite a sensitive issue that the management has to cautiously deal with given the diversity of their workforce. It should be noted that in collectivist cultures like Kenya, organizations are expected to look after personal as well as professional aspects of their employees’ lives. The relationship between employees and the organizations is emotional as well as material (Tayeb, 1996).

In regards to differences in goals between female and male employees, this could be due to pay and pay related working demands. Female and male employees have been known to differ with their workplace goals, particularly the

pay. Li-Ping (1999) observed a difference between males and females where males tended to have higher satisfaction with pay than females. Further, Tang and Li-Ping (1999) found that the females tended to have higher satisfaction with co-workers than males.

The researcher further emphasizes the need for frequent evaluation studies to determine whether employees' expectations are being met. The researcher also recommends frequent workshops for both the employers and employees on cultural beliefs and expectations so that each side of the job sector becomes sensitive to the needs and obligations associated with their individual duties. Again, this is useful for purposes of trying to match theory with reality.

The gender issue is currently a very sensitive topical issue that managers of employing firms have to seriously take into account while designing training programs for their employees.

The researcher recommends a replicate study that will focus on foreign-owned firms operating in Kenya that did not participate in this study with a relatively large carefully sampled population. It would be interesting to establish whether there is any relationship between employee cultural beliefs and productivity.

Methodological and Research Design Issues

Several methodological and research design issues emerged that should be addressed in future research studies. The response rate from the employees is a design issue having implications for future research. Foreign-owned firms operating in Kenya

and employees within these firms were selected with the belief that this sampling design would enhance the rate of response. The 62% response rate was moderately favorable.

A number of factors are believed to have contributed to the unwillingness of some employees to complete the survey. These factors could be: length of the survey instrument, the type of the firm they were working in as reflected in the within-firm return rate presented earlier, the kind of experience they have in survey research methodologies. There was an indication of apprehension and anxiety both from the management and the employees. One manager flatly stated, "Before I distribute these questionnaires to my employees... I need to know more about how the data may be used. One particular question I have concerns the anonymity of the companies. Do you have any intention to publish company to company comparisons? I would only distribute these questionnaires to my employees, if and only if, I am assured that no name of the company is published and that no detailed case-by-case analyses are reported, but only grand summaries are provided." Another manager stated that distributing the questionnaires to the employees may make them think that the company was about to institute changes that could affect their way of life. Still another manager who had assured the researcher his company participation changed his mind at the last minute and declined to allow the survey to be administered to his employees.

This indication of apprehension and anxiety may have been heightened by the fact that an increased level of scrutiny may be placed upon foreign-owned firms operating in the country. Further, it is also likely that foreign-owned firms in Kenya simply remain skeptical and defensive toward the concept of employee job satisfaction and the fear that

internal policies and practices may be open to the public.

Implications For Managerial Practice and Policy

Though employees and employers can glean beneficial advice from the study's findings, practical implications resulting from this study are of particular relevance to employers (foreign-owned firms, local companies, governments, academic institutions, and non-governmental agencies) who wish to improve their employees job satisfaction and organization effectiveness. The conceptual framework used in this study shows a relationship between employees' cultural beliefs, expectations, personal goals and job satisfaction. With more research conducted on these variables, a clearer understanding of variables and variable relationships, as well as clarifying the nature and extent of variables linkages in a workplace can be achieved.

Foreign-owned firms in Kenya, or doing business in any other country in Africa, should find the study important. Findings generated from the study should indeed provide managers in foreign-owned firms with an understanding of how to improve their relationships with subordinates. Also, the acceptance of foreign-owned firms and their management practices by the employees and the host country is very important to its long-term survival and effectiveness (Black and Mendenhall, 1991). A monumental benefit for foreign-owned firms is that some of the results may be applied to countries similar to Kenya's economic and cultural environment. According to Hofstede (1980, 1983), national cultures are clustered into groups. Further, in recognizing the cultural dimensions that differentiate societies, foreign-owned firms' managers must decide on the proper managerial style and appropriate behavior to accommodate the cultural

diversities in existence among its workforce and working conditions. In this case then, knowledge about job satisfaction as a function of cultural beliefs, expectations and goals on employees working in foreign-owned firms in Kenya may help in planning for strategic management practices in other countries in Africa with similar national cultures such as Tanzania, Uganda, or Malawi.

Kenyan government should use the study findings in its long-term strategic planning. The study can enable, for example, the Ministry of Commerce and Industry to determine guidelines for enhancing employee job satisfaction in the workplace. The government can also use the study to encourage certain direct investments in the country and discourage those that do not recognize the country's cultural values and beliefs.

Academics who are interested in determining the factors that contribute to employee job satisfaction in the workplace should find the study relevant and of great importance. The findings of the study should further complement the results of the existing studies by adding knowledge to the existing literature and providing a basis from which hypotheses for future research can be developed. The researcher hopes that other researchers would rely on the methodology employed in this study to determine the influence of cultural factors on employees' job satisfaction in foreign-owned firms in Kenya and other African countries. This perhaps, may assist in building a theoretical model to guide research in the field of international business management.

It should also be noted that while high pay, participative-decision making, goal-setting, management-by-objectives, profit-sharing, leadership, and communication are all different forms of incentive programs and management practices that may lead to

increased employees' productivity, non-monetary ways of motivating employees have also been known to achieve similar results. The following specific suggestions are made:

1. **Coping Skills.** Apart from the obvious technical ability and managerial skills, expatriates require cross-cultural skills to effectively operate in a global marketplace. Studies have demonstrated that reliance on technical skills as a predictor of success in international assignments is limiting. Technical competence does not assist a person's ability to adapt to, and cope with a new environment that involves dealing effectively with local employees and ability to relate to people from another cultural group.
2. **Clarify workplace expectations, employee personal goals and expectations at start and throughout the working period of employee with the firm.** In collective societies such as in Kenya, managers in foreign-owned firms must set clear expectations for standard, reporting requirements, schedules, and specific work responsibilities. Informal channels of communication may work best in clarifying such expectations due to the emphasis on personal relationships. Providing opportunities for frequent managerial interactions with personnel can also be critical in enhancing job satisfaction as studies show that conflicting expectations often arise from unconscious cultural values and assumptions.
3. **Embrace Kenyan cultural values that enhance and facilitate teamwork.** Kenyan workers' concerns for each other (collectivist country), team spirit, need for affiliation, and loyalty to employers are key elements that facilitate

the use of work teams. Managers should capitalize on these strengths by supporting these cultural values that enhance the success of teamwork in foreign-owned firms. Furthermore, foreign-owned firms need to manage these teams differently from those in the individualistic countries. In particular, teams may expect and require closer supervision from their departmental managers.

4. Job Assignments. Kenyan employees working in foreign-owned firms prefer to work for managers who give employees detailed and complete instructions as to the way employees should perform their jobs. Therefore, foreign-owned managers should assign clear and specific duties and goals to be attained by employees. Being a positive performance role model is crucial for the local employees' personal as well as for the foreign-owned firm's growth. Genuine respect of employees and their cultural values also go a long way toward creating an enabling working environment that leads to increased productivity and employee job satisfaction.
5. Employee welfare. Employees working in foreign-owned firms in Kenya prefer to work in companies that highly regard health and welfare issues of its employees and their immediate families. This belief is rooted in Kenya's cultural norm and forms a basis for employee expectation in the workplace. In meeting this expectation, employees' job satisfaction is impacted positively.

Directions for Future Research

The results of this study suggest a variety of implications for future research. First, methodological and research issue concerns the study's results that may have been influenced by common data collection method--survey. Future study may explore an alternative study design such as mixed methodology (utilizing both quantitative and qualitative approaches) to collect data from the employees. Surveys, interviews, focus groups, and other triangulation methods will provide a rich research data for arriving at an informed conclusion in the future studies about employees and work-related activities.

Second, a replicate of this study at different levels (for example, lower level, middle and upper management) to assess the responses of these groups on the relationship between cultural beliefs, expectations, goals and job satisfaction in the workplace will provide valuable research data about employee job satisfaction. Further, the researcher recommends a replicate study that will focus on foreign-owned firms operating in Kenya that did not participate in this study. It would be interesting to establish whether there are any differences in employees' job satisfaction between various firms.

Thesis Summary

This document presents a study on the relationship between cultural beliefs, expectations, goals and job satisfaction of employees of foreign-owned firms in Kenya. A conceptual framework was developed to guide the design of the study. The study utilized an established National Culture Survey instrument for data collection.

Essential to the study was understanding of the linkages in a work environment model between cultural beliefs, expectations, goals and job satisfaction among employees of foreign-owned firms operating in Kenya. The study was guided by four research questions and was conducted among employees of seven foreign-owned firms operating in Kenya.

The major findings of the study showed that: (1) employee cultural beliefs subscale items accounted for 14.4% of variance in employee job satisfaction; (2) two of the nine employee goals subscale items predicted employee job satisfaction; (3) employees' expectations of their work environment focused on education and training, good working environment, job security and good company benefits; (4) Kenyan and non-Kenyan employees were significantly different in cultural beliefs and employee goals; (5) females were significantly different from their male counterparts in employee goals variables; (6) there was a significant positive correlation between job satisfaction and cultural belief variables and also between employee goals and expectations.

The results of the study were synthesized in terms of a set of major findings and conclusions and these in turn were discussed in terms of their implications for future methodological and research design issues, management practice and policy.

REFERENCE

- Abudu, F.: "Work Attitudes of Africans, with Special Reference to Nigeria." International Studies of Management. Vol. XV., No. 2., pg.17-36, 1986.
- Adler, Nancy J.: International Dimensions of Organizational Behavior. Belmont, California, PWS-Kent Publishing Company, 1991.
- Adler, Seymour.: "Self-Esteem and Causal Attributions for Job Satisfaction and Dissatisfaction." Journal of Applied Psychology. Vol. 65, pg. 327-332, 1980.
- Ahiauza, A.: "Preface to Management and Organization in Africa." International Studies of Management and Organizations. Vol. XVI, No. 2., Summer, 1986.
- Albretch, Steve, W., Brown, Scott, W. and Field, David, R.: "Toward Increased Job Satisfaction of Practicing CPAs." Journal of Accountancy. Vol. 140, pg. 61-66, 1981.
- Aquino, Debora T.: "Globalization, a Social Progress, Democratic Development and Human Rights: The Responsibility of a Multinational Corporation." Vital Speeches of the Day. 63(4): pg. 107-110, December 1, 1996.
- Arvey, Richard D., Dewhirst, Dudley H., Brown, Edward M.: "A Longitudinal Study of The impact of Changes in Goal Setting on Employee Satisfaction." Personnel Psychology. Vol., 31, pg. 595-608.
- Ayisi, Eric O.: An Introduction to the Study of African Culture. Pittsburgh, Pennsylvania, Nothumberland Press Limited, 1972.
- Baker, James C., and J. M. Ivancevich.: "The Assignment of American Executives Abroad: Systematic, Haphazard, or Chaotic?" California Management Review. Vol. 13., No. 3., 1971.
- Ball, David, and McCulloch Jr., Wendell.: International Business. Boston, Massachusetts, Richard D. Irwin Press Inc., 1990, 1996.
- Ball, Donald; McCulloch, Wendell; Frantz, Paul; Geringer, Michael; and Minor, Michael: International Business: The Challenge of Global Competition. McGraw-Hill Irwin, 2002
- Barlett, C., and Ghoshal, S.: Managing Across Borders: The Transnational Solution. Boston, Massachusetts, Harvard Business School Press, 1990.

- Bate, Paul: "Using the Culture Concept in an Organizational Development Setting." Journal of Applied Behavioural Science. Vol. 26., No. 1., pg. 83-106, 1990.
- Bate, Paul: "The Impact of Organizational Culture on Approaches to Problem Solving." Organizational Studies, Vol. 5., pg. 43-66, 1984.
- Bagozzi, R.: "Performance and satisfaction in an industrial sales force: An examination of their antecedents and simultaneity." Journal of Marketing. Vol., 44, pg. 65-77, 1980.
- Beamer, Linda and Varner, Iris: Intercultural Communication in the Global Workplace, McGraw-Hill, 2001
- Beamish, Paul; Morrison, Allen; Rosenweig, Philip; and Inkpen, Andrew: International Management, Irwin McGraw-Hill, 2000
- Bhiuan, Shadid N., Al- Shammari, Eid. S. and Jefri, Omar A.: "Organizational Commitment, Job Satisfaction and Job Characteristics: An Empirical Study of Expatriates in Saudi Arabia." International Journal of Commerce and Management, 1996.
- Birdseye, Meg G., and Hill, J.: "Individual, Organizational/Work and Environmental Influences on Expatriate Turnover Tendencies: An Empirical Study." Journal of International Business Studies. Vol. 26., (4): pg. 787-814, 1995.
- Birnberg, Jacob G., and Snodgrass, Carol: "Culture and Control: A Field Study." Accounting, Organizations, and Society, 13: pg. 447-464, 1988.
- Bjerke, B., and Al-Meer, A.: "Culture's Consequences: Management in Saudi Arabia." Leadership and Organizational Development Journal, Vol 14., No. 2., 1993.
- Black, J. S.: "Work Role Transitions: A Study of American Expatriate Managers in Japan." Journal of International Business Studies. Vol. 19., 1988.
- Black, J. S., and M. Mendenhall: "Cross-Cultural Training Effectiveness: A Review and A Theoretical Framework for Future Research." Academy of Management Review, Vol.15, No.1, 1990.
- Blunt, Peter: "Bureaucracy and Ethnicity in Kenya: Some Conjectures for the Eighties." The Journal of Applied Behavioral Science, Vol. 16., No. 3., 1980.
- Blunt, Peter: Organization Theory and Behaviour: An African Perspective. London, Longman Publishing, 1983.

- Blunt, Peter: "Social and Organizational Structures in East Africa: A Case or Participation." The Journal of Modern African Studies, Vol. 16, No. 3., 1978.
- Blunt, Peter: "Management Motivation in Kenya: Some Initial Impressions." Journal of Eastern African Research and Development, pg.11-21, 1976.
- Blunt, Peter, and Jones, M.: "Managerial Motivation in Kenya and Malawi: A Cross-Cultural Comparison." The Journal of Modern African Studies, Vol. 24, No. 1., 1986.
- Blunt, Peter, and Jones, M.: Managing Organizations in Africa. Berlin, Germany, Walter de Gruyter and Company, 1992.
- Borg, W. R., and Gall, M. D.: Educational Research : An Introduction, Fifth Edition, New York, New York, Longman, 1989.
- Brake, Terrence, and Walker, T.: Doing Business Internationally: The Guide to Cross-Cultural Success. Burr Ridge, Illinois, Irwin Professional Publishing, 1995.
- Brown, M.: "Values--A Necessary but Neglected Ingredient of Motivation on the Job." Academy of Management Review, Vol. 1., pg. 15-23, 1976.
- Bruce, Willa, M., and Blackburn, Walton, J.: Balancing Job Satisfaction and Performance: A guide for Human Resource Professional. Quorum Books, Connecticut, 1992.
- Bullock, R., J.: Improving Job Satisfaction. New York: New York, Pergamon Press, 1984.
- Carla, Joinson.: "Cultural Sensitivity adds up to good business sense." HRM Magazine. Vol. 40 (11): pg. 82-85. 1995.
- Carrol, M. P.: Culture. Introduction to Sociology: A Canadian Focus. Scarborough, Ontario, Prentice Hall, 1982.
- Caudron, Shari: Preparing Managers for Overseas Assignments, World Executive Digest, pg. 72-73, 1992
- Choudury, A.: "The Community Concept of Business: A Critique." International Studies in Management and Organization, Vol. 16., No. 2., pg. 79-95, 1986.
- Churchill, Walker, and Ford, Sales Force Management. Homewood, Il: Richard D. Irwin, Inc, 1997

- Copeland, Lennie, and Griggs, Lewis: Going International. New York, Random House, 1985.
- Court, David: "The Education System as a Response to Inequality in Tanzania and Kenya." The Journal of Modern African Studies, Vol. 14, No. 4., 1976.
- Cronbach, L. J., and Meehl, P. E.: "Construct validity in psychological tests." American Psychologist, 52, pg. 282-302, 1955.
- Czinkota, Michael, Rivoli, R., and Ronkainen, I.: International Business. Ft. Worth, Texas, The Dryden Press, 1992.
- Davis, S.: "United States Versus Latin America: Business and Culture." Harvard Business Review, November-December, 1969.
- Directory of American Firms Operating in Foreign Countries. New York, Uniworld Business Publications Inc., 1994.
- Dubin, R.: "Industrial Workers' Worlds: A Study of the Central Life Interest of Industrial Workers." Social Problems, 3, pg. 131-142, 1956.
- Ellett, C. D., Rugutt, J. K., Cavanagh, R., and Davis, D.: "Context Considerations in Conceptualization and Measuring School Culture: A Comparison of Teacher Perceptions by School Level." Paper presented at the Annual Meeting of American Educational Research Association, Montreal, Canada, 1999.
- England, G.: The Manager and His Values: An International Perspective. Cambridge, Massachusetts, Ballinger, 1975.
- Etzioni, Amitai: A Comparative Analysis of Complex Organizations, Second Edition. New York, Free Press, 1975.
- Fejos, P.: "Man, Magic, and Medicine." In Iago Goldston (Ed.)'s Medicine and Antropology. New York, International University Press, 1959.
- Francis, June N.P.: "When in Rome? The Effects of Cultural Adaptation on Intercultural Business Negotiations." Journal of International Business Studies, Third Quarter, 1991.
- Franke, R., Hofstede, G., & Bond, M.: "Cultural Roots of Economic Performance: A Research Note." Strategic Management Journal, Vol. 12: pg. 165-173, 1991.

Goldthorpe, John H: The Affluent Worker. London, Cambridge University Press, 1968.

Grillo, R. D.: African Railwaymen: Solidarity and Opposition in East African Labour Force. New York, Cambridge University Press, 1973.

Grillo, R. D.: "The Tribal Factor in East African Trade Unions." In P. H. Gulliver (Ed.): Tradition and Transition in East Africa. London, Routledge and Kegan Paul Press, 1969.

Gutkind, P.: "African Responses to Urban Wage Employment." International Labour Review. Vol. 97., pg. 135-66, 1968.

Haire, Mason, Ghiselli, E. E. and Porter, L. W. "Managerial Thinking: an International Survey." Vol. 2., pg. 95-117, (copyright).

Hatcher, Larry: A Step-by-Step Approach to Using the SAS System for Factor Analysis and Structural Equation Modeling. Cary, North Carolina, SAS Institute Inc., 1994.

Harris, Phillip R., and Moran, Robert J.: Managing Cultural Differences: Instructor's Guide. Fourth Edition. Houston, Texas, Gulf Publishing Company, 1996.

Harvey, Michael: "Dual-Career Expatriates: Expectations, Adjustment and Satisfaction with International Relocation." Journal of International Business Studies, Third Quarter, 1997.

Hatvany, N., and Pucik, V.: "Japanese Management Practices and Productivity." Organizational Dynamics. Spring, 1981.

Henley, John S.: "Employment Relationships and Economic Development -- The Kenyan Experience." The Journal of Modern African Studies. Vol. II., No. 2., 1973.

Herzberg, Frederick: Work and the Nature of Man. New York, Frederick Thomas Y. Crow, 1966.

Herzberg, Frederick.: "Workers' need: The Same Around the World." Industry Week 234 pg. 29-30, 1987.

Hill, Charles: International Business: Competing in the Global Marketplace. Chicago, Illinois, Irwin Publishing, 1996.

Hill, Charles: Global Business Today, 2nd Edition, McGraw-Hill, 2001.

- Hofstede, Geert: "Predicting managers' career success in an international setting: the validity of ratings by training staff versus training peers'." Management International Review. Vol. 15, pg. 43-50, 1975.
- Hofstede, Geert: "Motivation, Leadership, and Organization: Do American Theories Apply Abroad?" Organizational Dynamics. Summer, 1980.
- Hofstede, Geert: "The Cultural Relativity of Organizational Practices and Theories." Journal of International Business Studies. Fall, 1983.
- Hofstede, Geert: Culture's Consequences: International Differences in Work-Related Values. Laguna Hills, California, Sage Publications, 1984.
- Hofstede, Geert, and Bond, M. H.: "The Confucius Connection: From Cultural Roots to Economic Growth." Organizational Dynamics. Spring, 1988.
- Hofstede, Geert: Cultures and Organizations: Software of the Mind. United Kingdom, McGraw-Hill International Limited, 1991.
- Hodgetts, Richard and Luthans, Fred: International Management: Culture, Strategy, and Behavior. McGraw-Hill, 2000
- Hodgetts, Richard and Luthans, Fred.: "U.S. Multinationals' Compensation Strategies for Local Management: Cross-Cultural Implications." Compensation and Benefits Review, March-April, 1993.
- Hoppcock, R., Job Satisfaction. New York, NY, Harper and Brother, 1935.
- Jaeger, Alfred, M.: "Organizational Development and National Culture: Where's the Fit?" Academy of Management Review. Vol. II No. 1., 1986.
- Jaeger, Alfred, M.: "The Applicability of Western Management Techniques in Developing Countries: A Cultural Perspective." In. Management in Developing Countries. eds. Jaegar & Kangungo. London: Routledge. 1990.
- Jones, M.: "Management development: An African Focus." Management Education and Development. Vol. 24, pg 202-216, 1986.
- Jones, M.: "Managerial Thinking : An African Perspective." Journal of Management Studies. September, 1988.

- Johnson, R.: "Success and Failure of Japanese Subsidiaries in America." Columbia Journal of World Business. Spring, 1977.
- Johnson, M. W., Parasuramen, Charles, M. Futrell and William C. Black.: "A longitudinal assessment of the impact of selected organizational influences on salespeople's organizational commitment during early employment." Journal of Marketing Research, Vol. 27, pg. 333-334, 1990.
- Jonquieres, G.: "Rocky Road to Liberalization." Financial Times. April 10, 1995.
- Janawaty, George, and Thorsrud, Einar: "Field Experiences with New Forms of Work Organization." International Labor Review, Vol. 120., No. 3., pg 263-77, 1981.
- Kant, I.: In P. Carns. (Ed.) Kant's Prolegomena To Any Future Metaphysics. Chicago, Open Court, 1912.
- Kayode, M. O.: "(article)." Nigeria Journal of Economic and Social Studies, Vol. 12., pg. 45-60, 1970.
- Kelley, L. A. Whatley, and Worthley, R.: "Assessing the Effects of Culture on Managerial Attitudes: A Three-Culture Test." Journal of International Business Studies. Summer, 1987.
- Kerlinger, Fred, N.: Multiple Regression in Behavioral Research. New York, Holt, Rinehart and Winston Publishers, 1973.
- Kiggundu, Moses: Management in Africa: Comparative Management A Regional View. New York, New York, Ballinger Publishing Company, a subsidiary of Harper and Row Publishers Inc., 1988.
- Kotter, John P., and Heskett, James L.: Corporate Culture and Performance. The Free Press, New York, 1992.
- Krech, David, Crutchfield, R., and Ballachey, E.: Individual in Society. New York, McGraw-Hill, 1962.
- Lane, Henry, DiStefano, Joseph and Maznevski, Martha: International Management Behavior. Blackwell Publishers, 1997
- Lawrence, J., and Yeh, R.: "The Influence of Mexican Culture on the Use of Japanese Manufacturing Techniques in Mexico." Management International Review, Vol. 34, No. 1., 1994.

- Leicht, Kevin T.: "Illusions of Opportunity: Employee Expectations and Workplace Inequality." Administrative Science Quarterly. Vol. 43(4): pg. 942-946, Dec. 1998.
- Leonard, David: African Successes: Four Public Managers of Kenya Rural Development. Berkeley, California, University of California Press, 1991.
- Mangaliso, Mzamo P.: "The Corporate Social Challenge for the Multinational Corporation." Journal of Business Ethics. 11(7): 491-500, July 1992.
- Mankoff, Albert: "Values--Not Attitudes are the Real Key to Motivation." Management Review. Vol. 63., No. 12., p. 23-29, 1979.
- Maslow, Abraham: Motivation and Personality. New York, Harper, 1954.
- Mathieu, J. and Zajac, D.: "A Review and Meta-Analysis of the Antecedents, Correlates, and Consequences of Organizational Commitment". Journal of Applied Psychology. Vol. 108, pg. 171-194.
- Maududi, A. A.: Islamic Way of Life. Kuwait, Al-Faisa Printing, 1967.
- Mead, Richard: International Management: Cross-Cultural Dimensions. Malden, Massachusetts, Blackwell Publishers, 1994.
- Mobbs, Tommie; Buckley, Ronald and Masih, Amit: Expectation Procedures in Oklahoma Organizations. Oklahom Business Bulletin. July, 1999.
- Morse, N. C.: Satisfaction in the White Collar Job. Ann Arbor: University of Michigan, Institute of Research Studies, 1953.
- Muna, Farid A.: The Arab Executive. New York, St. Martin Press, 1980.
"National Export Strategy, Trade Promotion Coordinating Committee, Sixth Annual Report to the United States Congress." October, 1998.
- Nafukho, Frederick Muya. "The Role of Universities in Promoting Cooperation Between Social and Pure Scientists for Human Development in Kenya." Journal of Third World Studies. Spring: pg. 87-100, 1999.
- Negandhi, Arnant and Baliga, B.: Tables Are Turning: German and Japanese Multinational Companies in the United States. Cambridge, Massachusetts, Oelgeschlager, Gunn, and Itain Publishers, 1981.

- Negandhi, Arnant, and Prasad, S.: Comparative Management. New York, Appleton-Century-Crafts Press, 1971.
- Negandhi, Arnant, Eshghi, G. S., and Yuen, E. C.: "The Management Practices of Japanese Subsidiaries Overseas." California Management Review. Summer, 1985.
- Nzelibe, C.: "The Evolution of African Management Thought." International Studies of Management. Vol. XVI, No. 2., pg. 6-16, 1986.
- Ocholla-Ayayo, A.: Traditional Ideology and Ethics Among the Southern Luo. Uppsala, Scandinavian Institute of African Studies, 1976.
- Onigu, Otite: The Study of Social Thought in Africa: In O. Otite (Ed.), Themes in African Social and Political Thought. Enugu, Nigeria, Fourth Dimension Publishers, 1978.
- Otite, O. (Ed.): "The Study of Social Thought in Africa." Themes in African Social and Political Thought. Enugu, Nigeria, Fourth Dimension Publishing, 1978.
- Peil, Margaret: The Ghanaian Factory Worker. New York, Cambridge University Press, 1972.
- Price, Robert: Society and Bureaucracy in Contemporary Ghana. Berkeley, California, University of California Press, 1975
- Posner, B. Z. and Schimdt, W. H.: "An updated look at the values and expectations of federal government executives." Public Administration Review. Vol. 54, pg. 20-24, 1994.
- Punnett, Betty J. and Ricks, D.: International Business. Belmont, California, PWS-Kent Publishing Company, 1992.
- Quelch, John A. and Austin, J. E.: "Should Multinationals Invest in Africa?" Sloan Management Review. Spring, 1993.
- Reiner, Michael, D. and Zhao, Jihong.: "The determinants of job satisfaction among United States Airforce Security Police." Review of Public Personnel Administration. 19(3) pg. 5-18, 1999.
- Rainey, H. G.: Understanding and managing public organizations. San Francisco: Jossey Bass. 1991.

- Redding, G. S. & T. A. Martyn-Johns.: "Paradigm differences and their relation to management, with reference to South-East Asia." Organizational Functioning in a Cross-Cultural Perspective. Kent, Ohio: CARI, Kent State University, 1979.
- Rosenzweig, Phillip M., and Nohria, N.: "Influences on Human Resource Management Practices in Multinational Corporations." Journal of International Business Studies. Second Quarter, 1994.
- Rugutt, J. K., Ellett, C. D., Culross, R. R., and Loup, K. S.: "Discriminating Student Learning and Efficacy Levels in Higher Education: Contributions of Classroom Environment and Teaching and Efficacy Effectiveness." Paper presented at the annual meeting of the Southwest Educational Research Association, Houston, Texas, 1998.
- Sankar, Chetan S., and Yeong, Yong W.: "Factors Influencing Job Satisfaction of Technical Personnel in the U.S., Singapore, and India. Engineering Management Journal. Vol.9, pg. 5-21, 1997.
- SAS User's Guide: Version. Fifth Edition. Cary, North Carolina, SAS Institute Inc., 1985.
- SAS User's Guide: Version. ? Edition. Cary, North Carolina, SAS Institute Inc., 1994.
- Schmidt, W. H. and Posner, B. Z.: "Values and expectations of federal service executives." Public Administration Review. Vol. 46, pg. 447-454, 1986.
- Schneider, H.: The Africans: An Ethnological Account. New York, Prentice-Hall, a Division of Simon and Schuster Publishing Company, 1981.
- Schneider, S.: "Strategy Formulation: Impact of National Culture." Organization Studies. 10(2), pg. 149-168, 1989.
- Schneider, S. and DeMeyer A: "Interpreting and Responding to Strategic Issues: The Impact Of National Culture." Strategic Management Journal. Vol. 12, pg. 307-320.
- Sebhatu, P.: "Culture's Consequences on Business Leaders in the Middle East with a Focus on Saudi Arabia." United States International University. 1994.
- Seddon, J. W.: The Development and Indigenisation of Third World Business: African Values in the Workplace. London, England, Frances Pinter Limited, 1985.
- Sim, A.: "Decentralized Management of Subsidiaries and Their Performance." Management International Review, 1977.

- Smith, Aileen M.: "Attitudes Toward International Harmonization Efforts: A Cross - Cultural Study." Southern Louisiana University, 1992.
- Shackleton, Viv J., and Ali, Abbas H.: "Work-Related Values of Managers." Journal of Cross Cultural Psychology, March, 1990.
- Sherwood, Tannenbau A.: Hierarchy in Organizations. San Francisco, California, Jossey-Bass Publishing, 1994.
- Stephens, Gregory K. and Greer, Charles R. "Doing Business in Mexico: Understanding Cultural Differences." Organizational Dynamics, Summer, 1995.
- Tannenbaum, A. S., Kavcic, B., Rosner M., Vianello, M. and Wieser, G.: Hierarchy in Organizations." San Francisco, Jossey-Bass Press, 1974.
- Taylor, Dennis.: "Managing job satisfaction." Australian Accountant. Vol. 69(9): pg. 46-47.
- Tayeb, Monir H.: The Management of Multicultural Workforce, New York, New York, John Willey & Sons, 1996.
- Thomas, D. C., and Ravlin, E. C.: "Responses of Employees to Cultural Adaptation by a Foreign Manager." Journal of Applied Psychology. Vol. 80: No.1: pg.133-146, 1995.
- Thompson, Kenneth R., Luthans, Fred., and Terpening, Willban D.: The Effects of MBO on Performance, Absenteeism, and Work Satisfaction." Journal of Management. Vol., 7, pg. 53-68.
- Tang, Thomas Li-Ping: "Sex differences in satisfaction with pay and co-workers: Faculty and staff at a public institution of higher education." Public Personal Management Vol. 28: pg. 345-349, 1999.
- Tung, Rosalie: "Selecting and Training of Personnel for Overseas Assignments." Columbia Journal of World Business. Vol. 16., No. 1., pg. 68-78, 1981.
- Tung, Rosaline, and Miller, E.: Managing in the Twenty First Century: The Need for Global Orientation. Management International Review 30. (Location and publisher), pg. 5-18, 1990/1991.

- Ueno, Susumu, and Sekaran, U.: "The Influence of Culture on Budget Control Practices in the USA and Japan: An Empirical Study." Journal of International Business Studies. Fourth Quarter, 1992.
- UNESCO. "World Congress on Cultural Development." Mexico City, Mexico. 1982
United States Department of Commerce. Washington D. C., World Trade Organization Publications, Publication No. 10., May, 1998
- Waweru, M.: "Management of Human Resources in Kenya." Kenya Literature Bureau. 1984.
- Whyte, W.: "Culture and Work." Culture and Management. Homewood, Illinois, Irwin Professional Publishing, 1969.
- Woods, Robert C.: "Managing to meet employee expectations: Quality improvement tools Narrow the gap between employee expectations and company resources." Human Resource Planning, 16(4): pg. 13-28, 1993.
- Yeh, R., & Lawrence, J.: "Individualism and Confucian Dynamism: A note on Hofstede's Cultural Root to Economic Growth." Journal of International Business Studies, 26(3), pg. 655-669, 1995.

APPENDIX A

(Letter to the Office of the President)

P. O. Box 30197
Nairobi, Kenya
16/8/95

The Permanent Secretary,
Head of Civil Service and Secretary
to the Cabinet,
Office of the President,
P. O. Box, 30510,
NAIROBI

Dear Sir,

I am a doctoral student at the University of Nairobi, Kenya and this term I am conducting a research to determine the relationship of employees' cultural beliefs, goals, expectations, and job satisfaction among employees working in foreign-owned firms in Kenya.

I will be highly appreciative if your Office grants me a research permit to enable me to collect the data.

Sincerely,

Philip K. Kaloki, BBA, MBA
Doctoral Student, Faculty of Commerce
University of Nairobi, Kenya

APPENDIX B

(Sample Letter: Corporate Permission)

Director of Public Relations/Personnel
Company Name and Address

Dear Sir:

I am a student at the University of Nairobi and this term I am conducting a research to determine the relationship between employees' cultural beliefs, goals, expectations, and job satisfaction among employees working in foreign-owned firms in Kenya. The study will assist me in completing my dissertation and doctoral studies at the University of Nairobi.

Foreign-Owned firms are faced by several cultural problems in the work place. For example, the direct costs to the United States subsidiaries due to failed expatriate assignments is over US \$2 billion a year (Copeland and Griggs 1985). These problems are a common place in majority of foreign-owned firms. This study attempts to provide beneficial information to all the firms doing business in Kenya.

Thus, I would greatly appreciate if you could permit your employees to participate in this important study. This information will be used in aggregate form and full confidentiality of any information provided is guaranteed.

If you need a copy of this study, please write: Department of Commerce, University of Nairobi, P.O. Box 30197, Nairobi, Kenya.

Sincerely,

Philip K. Kaloki, BBA, MBA
Doctoral Student, Faculty of Commerce
University of Nairobi, Kenya

Encl.: Questionnaire

APPENDIX C

(Sample Letter: Transmittal)

Date:

Dear Participant:

Your participation in this study will assist me in completing my doctoral studies at the University of Nairobi. The study is undertaken to determine the relationship between employee' cultural beliefs, goals, expectations, and job satisfaction among employees working in foreign-owned firms in Kenya.

I assure you that the questionnaires are not coded in any way and that the responses will be kept completely confidential. It is very important that you answer the questions in this survey honestly and completely. Your responses will not be disclosed to anyone. Any report from this study will show only statistical summaries, not individual responses.

I thank you very much for taking your time to complete enclosed questionnaires. If you need a copy of the study's executive summary, please write: Department of Commerce, University of Nairobi, P.O. Box 30197, Nairobi, Kenya.

Sincerely,

Philip K. Kaloki, BBA, MBA
Doctoral Student, Faculty of Commerce
University of Nairobi, Kenya

UNIVERSITY OF NAIROBI

APPENDIX D

(Sample letter: Permission to use Hofstede's Research Instrument)

Date:

Dr. Geert Hofstede
C/O Sage Publications, Inc.
28 Banner Street
London EC1Y 8QE
England

Dr. Hofstede:

I am a doctoral student at the University of Nairobi, Kenya, and I am doing a research on the relationship of employees' cultural beliefs, personal goals, and job satisfaction among employees working in foreign-firms in Kenya. The study is intended to use your (1980) model of culture.

The purpose of the study is to determine if there exists a relationship between employees' cultural beliefs and job satisfaction; between employees' personal goals and job satisfaction, and if there exists a relationship between employees' expectations and job satisfaction. The study will also attempt to test the validity of your study in Kenya since 1983.

Thus, I would greatly appreciate if you could grant me permission to use your research instrument (Parts A, B, and C).

Sincerely,

Philip K. Kaloki, BBA, MBA
Doctoral Student, Faculty of Commerce
University of Nairobi, Kenya

APPENDIX E

SURVEY

**JOB SATISFACTION AS A FUNCTION OF CULTURAL BELIEFS,
EXPECTATIONS AND GOALS: A STUDY OF EMPLOYEES OF FOREIGN-
OWNED FIRMS IN KENYA**

BY

Philip Kaloki, BBA, MBA
Doctoral Student
Faculty of Commerce
University of Nairobi, Kenya

APPENDIX E
RESEARCH QUESTIONNAIRE

Please think of an ideal job--disregarding your present job. In choosing an ideal job, please answer the following questions. (Please circle one answer in each line.)

A1 Are you:

1. Male (married)
2. Male (unmarried)
3. Female (married)
4. Female (unmarried)

A2 How long have you been employed by this company?

1. Less than one year
2. One year or longer, but less than three years
3. Three years or longer, but less than seven years
4. Seven years or longer, but less than fifteen years
5. Fifteen years or longer.

A5-A18 About your goals:

People differ in what is important to them in a job. In this section, we have listed a number of factors which people might want in their work. We are asking you to indicate how important each of these is to *you*.

In completing the following section, try to think of those factors which would be important to you in an ideal job; disregard the extent to which they are contained in your present job.

PLEASE NOTE: Although you may consider many of the factors listed as important, you should use the rating "of utmost importance" only for those items which are of the *most* importance to you.

With regard to each item, you will be answering the general question:
"HOW IMPORTANT IS TO YOU TO..."

(Choose one answer for each line across)

How important is to you to:

	of utmost importance to me	very important	of moderate importance	of little importance	of very little or no importance
A3 Have challenging work to do--work from which you can get a personal sense of accomplishment?	5	4	3	2	1
A4 Live in an area desirable to you and your family?	5	4	3	2	1
A5 Have an opportunity for higher					

earnings?	5	4	3	2	1
A6 Work with people who cooperate well with one another?	5	4	3	2	1
A7 Have training opportunities (to improve your skills or to learn new skills)?	5	4	3	2	1
A8 Have good fringe benefits?	5	4	3	2	1
A9 Get the recognition you deserve when you do a good job?	5	4	3	2	1
A10 Have good physical working conditions (good ventilation and lighting, adequate work space, etc.)?	5	4	3	2	1
A11 Have considerable freedom to adopt your own approach to do a good job?	5	4	3	2	1
A12 Have the security that you will be able to work for your company as long as you want to?	5	4	3	2	1
A13 Have an opportunity for advancement to higher level jobs?	5	4	3	2	1
A14 Have a good working relationship with your manager?	5	4	3	2	1
A15 Fully use your skills and abilities on the job?	5	4	3	2	1
A16 Have a job which leaves you sufficient time for your personal or family life?	5	4	3	2	1

A19-A32. About the satisfaction of your goals:

In the preceding questions, we asked you what you want in a job. Now, as compared to what you want, how satisfied are you at present with:

	very satisfied	satisfied	neither satisfied nor dissatisfied	dissatisfied	very dissatisfied
A17 The challenge of the work you do--the extent to which you can get a personal sense of accomplishment from it?	5	4	3	2	1
A18 The extent to which you live in an area desirable to you and your family?	5	4	3	2	1
A19 Your opportunity for high earnings in this company?	5	4	3	2	1
A20 The extent to which people you work with cooperate with one another?	5	4	3	2	1
A21 Your training opportunities (to improve your skills or learn new skills)?	5	4	3	2	1
A22 Your fringe benefits?	5	4	3	2	1
A23 The recognition you get when you do a good job?	5	4	3	2	1
A24 Your physical working conditions (ventilation, lighting, work space, etc.)?	5	4	3	2	1
A25 The freedom you have to adopt your own approach to the job?	5	4	3	2	1
A26 Your security that you will be able to work for this company as long as you want to?	5	4	3	2	1
A27 Your opportunity for					

advancement to higher level jobs?	5	4	3	2	1
A28 Your working relationship with your immediate manager?	5	4	3	2	1
A29 The extent to which you use your skills and abilities on your job?	5	4	3	2	1
A30 The extent to which your job leaves you sufficient time for your personal or family life?	5	4	3	2	1
A31 How often do you feel nervous or tense at work?					
1. I always feel this way					
2. Usually					
3. Sometimes					
4. Seldom					
5. I never feel this way.					
A32 How long do you think you will continue working for this company?					
1. Two years at the most					
2. From two to five years					
3. More than five years (but I probably will leave before I retire)					
4. Until I retire					
A33 If an employee did take a complaint to higher management, do you think he would suffer later on for doing this (such as getting a smaller salary increase, or getting the less desirable jobs in the department, etc.)?					
1. Yes, the employee would definitely suffer later on for taking a complaint to higher management					
2. Yes, probably					
3. No, probably not					
4. No, the employee would definitely not suffer later on for taking a complaint to higher management.					
A34 How often would you say your immediate manager is concerned about helping you get ahead?					
1. Always					
2. Usually					
3. Sometimes					
4. Seldom					
5. Never					

The descriptions below apply to four different types of managers. First, please read through these descriptions:

Manager 1 Usually makes his/her decisions promptly and communicates them to his/her subordinates clearly and firmly. Expects them to carry out the decisions loyally and without raising difficulties.

Manager 2 Usually makes his/her decisions promptly, but, before going ahead, tries to explain them fully to his/her subordinates. Gives them the reasons for the decisions and answers whatever questions they may have.

- Manager 3
their
work loyally to
- Usually consults with his/her subordinates before he/she reaches his/her decisions. Listens to advice, considers it, and then announces his/her decision. He/she then expects all to implement it whether or not it is in accordance with the advice they gave.
- Manager 4
Puts
(version
decision.
1967-1969)
- Usually calls a meeting of his/her subordinates when there is an important decision to be made. Puts the problem before the group and invites discussion. Accepts the majority viewpoint as the decision.
- Puts (version
consensus, he/she
usually makes the decision
- Usually calls a meeting of his/her subordinates when there is an important decision to be made. Puts the problem before the group and tries to obtain consensus. If he/she obtains consensus, he/she accepts this as the decision. If consensus is impossible, he/she usually makes the decision him/herself.

A35 Now for the above types of manager, please mark the *one* which you would prefer to work under.

1. Manager 1
2. Manager 2
3. Manager 3
4. Manager 4

A36 And, to which *one* of the above four types of managers would you say your own manager *most closely corresponds*?

1. Manager 1
2. Manager 2
3. Manager 3
4. Manager 4
5. He does not correspond closely to any of them.

A37 How many years of formal school education did you complete?

- | | |
|---------------------|-----------------------|
| 1. 10 years or less | 6. 15 years |
| 2. 11 years | 7. 16 years |
| 3. 12 years | 8. 17 years |
| 4. 13 years | 9. More than 17 years |
| 5. 14 years | |

A38 How old are you?

- | | |
|-------------|---------------|
| 1. Under 20 | 5. 35-39 |
| 2. 20-24 | 6. 40-49 |
| 3. 25-29 | 7. 50-59 |
| 4. 30-34 | 8. 60 or over |

A39 Considering everything, how would you rate your overall satisfaction in this company at the present time:

1. I am completely satisfied
2. Very satisfied
3. Satisfied
4. Neither satisfied nor dissatisfied
5. Dissatisfied
6. Very dissatisfied
7. I am completely dissatisfied

B1 If you had a choice of promotion to either a managerial or a specialist position and these jobs were at the same salary level, which would appeal to you most? (You may already have been promoted in either direction, but just assume you could start again).

1. I would have a strong preference for being a specialist
2. I would have some preference for being a specialist
3. It does not make any difference
4. I would have some preference for being a manager
5. I would have a strong preference for being a manager.

B2 All in all, what is your personal feeling about working for a company which is primarily foreign-owned?

1. All in all, I prefer it this way
2. It makes not difference to me one way or the other
3. I would prefer that it was not this way

B3 Suppose you quit this company. Do you think you would be able to get another job in your line of work about the same income?

1. Yes, definitely
2. Yes, probably
3. No, probably not
4. No, definitely not

B4 How often would you say your immediate manager insists that rules and procedures are followed?

1. Always
2. Usually
3. Sometimes
4. Seldom
5. Never

B5 How do you feel or think you would feel about working for a manager who is from a country other than your own?

1. In general, I would prefer to work for a manager of my own nationality
2. Nationality would make no difference to me
3. In general, I would prefer to work for a manager of a different nationality.

How frequently, in your experience, do the following problems occur?

	very frequently	frequently	sometimes	seldom	very seldom
B6 Employees being afraid to express disagreement with their managers	5	4	3	2	1
B7 Being unclear on what your duties and responsibilities are	5	4	3	2	1
B8 People above you getting involved in details of your job which should be left to you	5	4	3	2	1

B9 Some groups of employees

looking down upon other groups of employees	5	4	3	3
---	---	---	---	---

B52-B61 about general beliefs:

Our company has employees in many countries and we are interested whether the personal opinions of employees differ from country to country. Listed below are a number of statements. These statements are *not* about the company as such, but rather about general issues in industry. Please indicate the extent to which you personally agree or disagree with each of these statements (mark one for each line across).

Remember, we want *your own opinion* (even though it may be different from that of others).

	strongly agree	agree	strongly undecided	disagree	disagree
B10 A corporation should have a major responsibility for the health and welfare of its employees and their immediate families.	5	4	3	3	1
B11 Having interesting work to do is just as important to most people as having high earnings.	5	4	3	2	1
B12 Competition among employees usually does more harm than good.	5	4	3	2	1
B13 Employees lose respect for a manager who asks for their advice before he makes a final decision.	5	4	3	2	1
B14 Employees in industry should participate more in the decisions made by management.	5	4	3	2	1
B15 Decisions made by individuals are usually of higher quality than decisions made by groups.	5	4	3	2	1
B16 A corporation should do as much as it can to	5	4	3	2	1

help solve society's problems (poverty, discrimination, pollution, etc.)	5	4	3	2	1
B17 Staying with one company for a long time is usually the best way to get ahead in business.	5	4	3	2	1
B18 Company rules should not be broken--even when the employee thinks it is in the company's best interests.	5	4	3	2	1
B19 Most employees in industry prefer to avoid responsibility, have little ambition, and want security above all.	5	4	3	2	1
C1-C9 About your goals: How important is it to you to: (Mark one for each line across)					
	of utmost importance to me	very important	of moderate importance	of little importance	of very little or no importance
C1 Have the security that you will not be transferred to a less desirable job?	5	4	3	2	1
C2 Work in a department which is run efficiently?	5	4	3	2	1
C3 Have a job which allows you to make a real contribution to the success of your company?	5	4	3	2	1

C4	Work in a company which is regarded in your country as successful?	5	4	3	2	1
C5	Work in a company which stands in the forefront of modern technology?	5	4	3	2	1
C6	Work in a congenial and friendly atmosphere?	5	4	3	2	1
C7	Keep up to date with the technical developments relating to your work?	5	4	3	2	1
C8	Have a job on which there is a great deal of day-to-day learning?	5	4	3	2	1
C9	Have a good manager who gives his employees detailed and complete instructions as to the way they should do their jobs: he does <i>not</i> give them merely general directions and depends on them to work out the details.	5	4	3	2	1

C10-C19 About general beliefs:
(Mark one for each line across)

	strongly agree	agree	undecided	disagree	strongly disagree	
C10	Most companies have a genuine interest in the welfare of their employees.	5	4	3	2	1
C11	In general, the better managers in a company are those who have been with the company the longest time.	5	4	3	2	1
C12	There are few qualities in a man more admirable than dedication and loyalty to his company.	5	4	3	2	1
C13	Most employees have an inherent dislike of work and will avoid it if they can.	5	4	3	2	1

C14 Most employees have an inherent dislike of work and will avoid it if they can.	5	4	3	2	1
C15 For getting ahead in industry, knowing influential people is usually more important than ability.	5	4	3	2	1
C16 By and large, companies change their policies and practices much too often.	5	4	3	2	1
C17 A large corporation is generally a more desirable place to work than a small company.	5	4	3	2	1
C18 Even if an employee may feel he deserves a salary increase, he should <i>not</i> ask his manager for it.	5	4	3	2	1
C19 The private life of an employee is properly a matter of direct concern to his company.	5	4	3	2	1

Source: Hofstede (1980)

VITA

This doctoral thesis is the final report of the research project of Philip Kyalo Kituti Kaloki. It was completed for a November/December 2001 graduation from the University of Nairobi, Kenya for a PhD degree in International Business Management. Other degrees include a BBA degree in Finance/Economics and Management from the University of Mary Hardin-Baylor, Belton, Texas and an MBA degree in Management from the Dallas Baptist University, Dallas, Texas, United States of America. Other universities attended for postgraduate courses include the University of Dallas and the University of North Texas.

Currently, Philip Kaloki is an Associate Professor at Dallas Baptist University, Dallas, Texas, where he has been teaching since 1989. The courses he teaches include International Management, Strategy and Problems in Management, Small Business Management, Microeconomics, Macroeconomics, Marketing and Management courses. Prior to that (1987–1989) he served as the Student Accounts Supervisor in the same University.

Prof. Kaloki has also served as the Faculty Council Secretary and Chairman of the Board of Alumni Association at Dallas Baptist University. He was recognized in 1998/1999 as the Outstanding College of Business Professor and in 1993 received the University's Outstanding Professor of the Year award. He is also listed in *Who's Who Among American Teachers*. Current professional memberships include: Association for Global Business, academy of Management, International Management Development Association and International Trade Association.

UNIVERSITY OF NAIROBI