

2013

ORGANIZATIONAL CULTURE AND CORRUPTION: A MULTIPLE CASE STUDY OF NON-GOVERNMENTAL ORGANIZATIONS IN KENYA

Douglas Kimemia

Virginia Commonwealth University

Follow this and additional works at: <http://scholarscompass.vcu.edu/etd>

 Part of the [Public Affairs, Public Policy and Public Administration Commons](#)

© The Author

Downloaded from

<http://scholarscompass.vcu.edu/etd/2961>

This Dissertation is brought to you for free and open access by the Graduate School at VCU Scholars Compass. It has been accepted for inclusion in Theses and Dissertations by an authorized administrator of VCU Scholars Compass. For more information, please contact libcompass@vcu.edu.

© Douglas K. Kimemia, 2013

All Rights Reserved

ORGANIZATIONAL CULTURE AND CORRUPTION: A MULTIPLE CASE STUDY OF NON-GOVERNMENTAL ORGANIZATIONS IN KENYA

A dissertation submitted in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of Doctor of
Philosophy at Virginia Commonwealth University.

By

Douglas Kimemia

Masters of Divinity, Memphis Theological Seminary, 2007

M.A., Memphis Theological Seminary, 2006

B.A., Pan Africa Christian University, 2002

Dissertation Chair: Herbert Hirsch, Ph.D

Professor of Political Science

L Douglas Wilder School of Government and Public Affairs

Virginia Commonwealth University

Richmond, VA

May 11, 2013

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

This has been a long and fascinating journey. During this journey, I have encountered moments of new discovery; there have been times of joy, when things went right as well as times of disappointment when things went wrong. This journey has taught me to be humble, patient (though still working on it), self-sacrifice and self-discipline as I kept up with deadlines, and determination. I could not have reached to the end of this journey without God's grace and strength that has lifted me in every moment. With God all things are possible.

Foremost, I would like to thank my dissertation chair and mentor Dr. Herbert Hirsch, who took me under his wing and ensured that I stayed on course up to the end. I am grateful for his guidance and mentoring through my studies at VCU for the five years that I worked as his Graduate Teaching Assistant. Dr. Hirsch's outstanding mentorship progressively built my confidence about how to successfully thrive in my Ph.D program and stay on course in challenging times. I also extend my gratitude to each of my committee members who have guided me through this research process. I specifically thank Dr. James Hinterlong for his guidance as my research methodologist. He helped me to develop and understand the appropriate statistical techniques to apply. I thank Dr. Nancy Stutts for her guidance and patience in helping me to understand the value of the qualitative research to my study. I thank Dr. Jason Arnold for his positive criticisms and push to do more. Additionally, I would like to thank my former chairs, Dr. Carolyn Funk and Dr. Blue Wooldridge, respectively, for all of their contribution at the early stages of my dissertation process. Not to forget the Writing Center consultants who endured the many drafts of my work.

Special thanks to my wife Faith for her relentless support, encouragement, and sacrifice that allowed me to fulfill my academic dream. She took on many of the responsibilities without complaining, so that I could fulfill the PhD program requirements. I thank my children, Gloria and Mark for their encouragement and challenge whenever I came back home. Thank you for withstanding the long nights and early mornings that I had to disrupt your sleep and comfort.

I owe special thanks to my mum and grandparents who inspired me and encouraged me not to give up. Unfortunately, they had to pass to glory before they could see my academic journey get to this point. Finally, thanks to all those friends, church members and others who prayed for me encouraged me and encouraged me. I can do all things through Christ who gives me strength.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS.....	ii
TABLE OF CONTENTS.....	iv
LIST OF TABLES.....	vi
LIST OF FIGURES.....	vi
LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS.....	vii
ABSTRACT.....	viii
CHAPTER 1: INTRODUCTION AND OVERVIEW	
Introduction.....	1
Statement of the Problem.....	3
Research Question.....	8
Purpose and Significance of the Study.....	8
Theoretical Framework.....	11
Competing Values Framework.....	13
Methodology and Research Design.....	14
Organization of the Study.....	16
Definition of Terms.....	16
Chapter Summary.....	17
CHAPTER 2: LITERATURE REVIEW	
Definition of NGOs.....	18
Emergence of NGOs.....	19
Emergence of NGOs in Kenya.....	21
Colonial Era.....	21
Post-Independence Period.....	22
Role of NGOs.....	26
Factors Leading to Emergence of NGOs.....	28
Organizational Corruption.....	34
Anecdotal Cases of Corrupt Practices.....	36
Forms of Corruption.....	38
Causes of Corruption.....	41
Organizational Culture.....	45
Definition of Organizational Culture.....	46
Characteristics of Organizational Culture.....	48
Levels of Organizational Culture.....	50
Developing Organizational Culture	55
Embedding Corrupt Practices in an Organization.....	56
Theoretical Framework.....	59
Competing Values Framework.....	63
Applying the CVF in an International Context.....	68
Dimensions of organizational Culture.....	69
Propositions.....	71
Chapter Summary	74
CHAPTER 3: RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY	
Introduction.....	76
Why Case Study Design?.....	77

Designing a Case Study	80
Target Population.....	81
Sample Selection	81
Participants.....	83
Propositions.....	83
Variables	85
Independent Variables.....	85
Dependent Variable.....	86
Demographic Variables.....	89
Scale Reliability and Validity of the Scales.....	90
Conducting Case.....	91
Pilot Study.....	92
Internal Review Board.....	92
Data Collection	92
Response Rate.....	95
Qualitative Phase.....	97
Data Collection.....	98
Conducting Interviews.....	100
Data Analysis.....	100
Statistical Analysis.....	100
Qualitative Analysis.....	106
Validity and Reliability.....	107
Chapter Summary.....	108
CHAPTER 4: DATA FINDINGS AND ANALYSIS	
Statistical Analysis.....	109
Descriptive Statistics.....	109
Demographic Data.....	109
Organizational Culture.....	111
Tolerance of Corrupt Practices.....	115
Bivariate Statistics	122
Multivariate Statistics.....	122
Qualitative Analysis.....	126
Organizational Culture.....	126
Tolerance of Corrupt Practices.....	131
Summary of the Findings.....	138
Chapter Summary.....	139
CHAPTER 5: SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS, AND RECOMMENDATIONS	
Limitations.....	140
Discussion of Findings.....	143
Practical Implications.....	159
Contributions of the Study.....	162
Recommendations.....	163
Future Research.....	169
Chapter Summary.....	171
LIST OF REFERENCES.....	173

APPENDICES

Appendix A –Table and Graphs.....	190
Appendix B – University IRB Approval Letter.....	195
Appendix C – Research Subject Information and Consent Form.....	197
Appendix D – Survey Questionnaire.....	200
Appendix E – Interview Guide.....	207
Appendix F – Recruitment Letters.....	210
Appendix G—Vita.....	213

LIST OF TABLES

Table

3.1 Response Rate.....	96
3.2 Organizations and the Number of Respondents.....	97
3.3 Independent Variables Correlations.....	104
4.1 Descriptive Statistics of the Demographic data.....	110
4.2 Descriptive Statistics of the Dimensions of Organizational Culture.....	112
4.3 Mean Scores of the Dominant Dimensions in Participants Organizations.....	114
4.4 Descriptive Statistics of the Practices Measured by Acceptance Variables.....	116
4.5 Descriptive Statistics of the Practices Measured by Corrupt Variable.....	118
4.6 Descriptive Statistics of the Likelihood of Each Practices Occurrence.....	120
4.7 Organizations According to the Corrupt Practices Variables.....	194
4.8 Summary of Pearson Correlation Matrix.....	121
4.9 Organizations Tolerance of Corrupt Practices.....	123
4.10 Tests of Between-Subjects Effects Table.....	124
4.11 Multivariate Tests Table.....	125
4.12 Tests of Between-Subjects Effects Table.....	125
4.13 Summary of Tolerance of Corrupt Practices.....	138

LIST OF FIGURES

Figures

2a Levels of Organizational Culture.....	51
2b Integrated Competing Values Framework.....	74
3a Q-Q Acceptance Variable.....	195
3b Q-Q Acceptance Variable.....	196
3c Q-Q Acceptance Variable.....	197
3d Q-Q Acceptance Variable.....	198
4a Number of Participants in % and Acceptance.....	117
4b Number of Participants in % and Justification.....	119
4c Number of Participants in % and the Likelihood.....	121
4d Organizational Culture Themes.....	131

LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

AA	Action Aid
AMREF	African Medical and Research Foundation
CARE	Cooperative for Assistance and Relief Everywhere
CCK	Christian Council of Churches
CLARION	Centre for Law and Research International
CVF	Competing Values Framework
CRS	Catholic Relief Services
GDP	Gross Domestic Product
IMF	International Monetary Fund
INGO	International non-governmental organization
IRB	Institution Review Board
LWF	Lutheran World Federation
NCCK	National Christian Council of Churches
NGO	Non-Governmental Organization
NFE	Non-Formal Education
OECD	Organization for Economic Co-Operation and Development
OCAI	Organizational Culture Assessment Instrument
OCI	Organizational Culture Index
PATH	Program for Appropriate Technology in Health
SC	Save the Children
SAP	Structural Adjustment Programs
TI	Transparency International
U4	Utstein Anti-Corruption Resource Center
UN	United Nations
UNDP	United Nations Development Program
UNHCR	United Nations High Commission for Refugees
USAID	United States of America International Development
YMCA	Young Men Christian Association
WANGO	World Association of Non-Governmental Organizations
WV	World Vision

ABSTRACT**Organizational Culture and Corruption: A Multiple Case Study of Non-Governmental Organizations in Kenya**

Douglas K. Kimemia, Ph.D

A dissertation submitted in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy, at Virginia Commonwealth University.

Virginia Commonwealth University, 2013

Dissertation Chair: Herbert Hirsch, Ph.D
Professor of Political Science
L Douglas Wilder School of Government and Public Affairs

The primary purpose of this dissertation is to examine if there is a significant relationship between organizational culture and tolerance of corrupt practices among the Non-Governmental Organizations located in Kenya. Despite the fact that NGOs have been attributed with a strong organizational culture, previous literature indicates that there is a connection between the organizational culture and decisions to engage in corrupt practices. Another purpose is to investigate tolerance of corrupt practices and determine the dominant organizational culture among NGOs. The study applied the competing values framework, which describes four dimensions of organizational culture.

Mixed methods techniques were used to collect data from a sample of 185 participants selected from 30 organizations in Nairobi. The organizational culture data was collected using the organizational culture assessment instrument while tolerance of corruption was collected using ten scenarios in the first phase. The qualitative data was collected through telephone interviews with six participants.

Statistical analysis was conducted using descriptive statistics to test for the most dominant culture and tolerance of corrupt practices. Clan dimension was the most dominant dimension, while some of the practices were perceived as less corrupt and likely to occur. Bivariate correlations revealed the number of years working in an organization was associated with the acceptance variable, while clan culture was correlated to corrupt variable. The three propositions were not supported by the multivariate analysis of variance. However, the second proposition could not be tested due to lack of adequate data to compare.

In sum, the study did not find a significant relationship between the dimensions of organizational culture and the tolerance of corrupt practices. The study has helped in exposing some of the areas requiring further strengthening and is also useful in setting the agenda for future research.

CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

For many years, the majority of the Non-Governmental Organizations¹ (NGOs) have been viewed as accountable, transparent, reliable, and efficient in provision of their services (Edwards & Hulme, 1996; Holloway, 1998). The increased trust in NGOs and the belief that they are more cost-effective than government, especially in developing countries, contributed toward an increase in official funding from donor agencies to deal with issues such as poverty, disease, refugees, and environmental concerns (Gugerty, 2010). Over the years, there has apparently arisen unspoken assumption that these organizations are above any form of corruption; this has led scholars to question whether it is worthwhile to explore corrupt practices among these perceivably “noble” organizations (Gurgety, 2010; Nair & Bhatnagar, 2011). However, corruption among these organizations is emerging as a topic of concern among various stakeholders (Gugerty, 2010; Harsh et al., 2010; Smith, 2010). The drastic growth and influence of the NGO sector has increased the numbers of fraudulent organizations, causing corruption among the NGOs to take center stage as one of the prime concerns in the 21st century (Gibelman & Gelman, 2004; Werker & Ahmed, 2008; Harsh et al., 2010; Smith, 2010; Trivunovic, 2011).

The increasing number of cases of corruption and its significant consequences for the NGO sector has caused scholars to pay more attention to the subject of corruption and accountability among the NGOs at all levels (Holloway, 1998; Gibelman & Gelman, 2004;

¹ NGO is defined as an organization that is organized or formal (registered), voluntary membership, not-for-profit making, independent of government and private sector (self-governing), organization that is aimed at the relief of poverty through social functions like humanitarian aid, emergency relief, provision of health, education, or welfare services and through advocacy of democratic governance (Barrow & Jennings, 2001; Salamon et al, 2004).

Ebrahim, 2003a; Harsh et al., 2010). As a result, there is growing suspicion accompanied by increased evidence that these organizations have been tolerating corrupt practices such as lack of accountability and transparency in their governing systems, nepotism, favoritism, and embezzlement of donors' funds (Ebrahim, 2003a; Gibelman & Gelman, 2004). As a matter of fact, Transparency International (TI), which is an NGO that has been studying corruption mostly in the public and private sectors, acknowledges that corruption exists within the NGO sector, although at a small level in comparison to the magnitude and prevalence of the other two sectors (Holloway, 1998).

This study is interested in the relationship of two phenomena: corruption and organizational culture among NGOs. Corruption, the first phenomenon, is a term that captures many acts that depict a decline in moral conduct and personal integrity (Caiden et al., 2001). Corruption is a crime which is committed for personal benefit by deviating from the norms and abusing the authority of the organization (Shleifer & Vishny, 1993). Organizational corruption in this study is defined as the behavior of an employee, which deviates from the accepted norms and violates both the written and unwritten policies laid by the organization's structure in search of or motivated by a personal or organizational gain (Huntington, 1989; Luo, 2005). Tolerance of corrupt practices is defined as the acceptance of corrupt behavior that violates or deviates from organizational norms (Franke & Nadler, 2008).

The second phenomenon, organizational culture, can be identified at multiple levels, from the narrow micro-level (family, organization) to the broad macro-level (national, ethnicities) (Franke & Nadler, 2008). According to Schein (1990), organizational culture is a pattern of basic assumptions which are invented, discovered or developed by a given group, as

it learns how to deal with its challenges of external adaptation and internal integration.

Organizational culture is a multilevel construct which is comprised of artifacts, symbols, norms, values, and basic assumptions that guide employees' behavior in a particular organization (Keyton, 2011). These shared values affect how the employees deal with issues and concerns inside and outside the organization (Schein, 1990).

The impact of organizational culture, which pervades every facet of organizational life and levels of ethical behaviors, cannot be ignored because it has a powerful influence on employees' reactions and actions towards corruption (Fisher & Alford, 2000; Boan & Funderburk, 2003; Berry, 2004; Ashforth et al., 2008). Franke and Nadler (2008) argue that organizational culture influences judgments, intentions, and behaviors of an employee regarding corrupt practices within an organization. The National Nonprofit Ethics Survey (NNES, 2007) found that there is a strong connection between the organizational culture and decisions to engage in corrupt practices, in spite of the fact that NGOs have been attributed with a strong organizational culture (Deal & Kennedy, 1982; Chatman & Jehn, 1994; Baker, 2002; Yun Seok et al., 2007) that promotes strong ethics and mission achievement.

Statement of the Problem

There has been increased interest in research on the effect of organizational culture on organizational performance (Schein, 1993; Cameron & Quinn, 1999; Keyton, 2011). However, there is limited research on how organizational culture affects levels of corrupt practices among the NGOs (Ashforth et al., 2008). A critical examination of the literature reveals that corrupt activities are strongly associated not only with individuals within an organization, but also with

organizations themselves (Ashforth et al., 2008). Duggars and Duggars (2004) found a link between organizational culture and corruption in their study of two types of organizational culture. They concluded that in a “competitive” culture, which has strong peer pressure, staff members monitor each other to behave honestly, leading the organization to be less prone to collusion, bribery and extortion. On the other hand, a “cooperative” culture, where peers collude together with dishonest officials, leads to conforming to corrupt behavior in an organization (Duggars & Duggars, 2004).

The National Nonprofit Ethics Survey (2007) also suggests a relationship between organizational culture (i.e. its values and norms), which is woven into the fabric of everyday work life and decision-making processes, and tolerance of corruption in an organization (NNES, 2007). The values and norms of the organization, which are captured by the written and unwritten policy, can indicate the tolerance of corrupt practices in an organization (Schein, 1990). According to the National Nonprofit Ethics Survey (2007), organizations with well-implemented ethics and compliance policies are likely to avoid any increase in corrupt practices. Literature indicates that values and norms promoted through informal communication channels should be complementary and congruent with an organization’s official values (Schein, 1990). As a result, an organization that is consistent in its written and unwritten anti-corruption policies will have a low tolerance of corruption and lower chances of employees engaging in corrupt practices (Denison, 1990).

Employees’ attitudes towards corrupt practices in an organization are shaped by their everyday experience of corrupt practices, which are determined by the norms and values of an organization (Cameron, Chaudhuri, and Gangadharan, 2009). However, attitudes toward

different corrupt practices are not uniform as they differ among organizations. Organizational culture that tolerates corrupt practices is likely to influence the employees to commit acts of corruption (Apaydin & Balci, 2011). Thus, employees that are exposed to higher levels of corruption in their daily operations may end up with a higher tolerance of corruption (Cameron et al. 2009). According to Cameron et al. (2009), a corrupt environment makes it easier to rationalize corrupt practices. Hence, corruption may gain acceptance as it becomes more widespread. In addition, the “founders” or leaders influence the group to identify with them and internalize their values, which become part of the organizational culture (Schein, 1990). Organizational leaders do not have to engage in corrupt practices in an organization, but their emphasis on the tasks and outcomes without caring about the means can send a strong message to the employees that they condone such activities (Ashforth & Anad, 2003).

In Kenya, corruption pervades and overwhelms every aspect of human life; it is woven deep and intertwined into the fabric of Kenyans’ daily life (Fowler, 1995; Anassi, 2004; Kimuyu, 2007; Harsh et al., 2010). Where corruption is pervasive, coupled with weak public institutions mandated to enforce the rule of the law, the value system encourages the perception that corruption is not only normal, but a survival strategy or means to get ahead (Chabal & Daloz, 1999). For NGOs that operate in Kenya, where a culture of corruption is prevalent, corrupt practices may be seen as part of the organization that does not need to be addressed (Holloway, 1998). Rodriguez et al. (2005) mention that organizations operating in such environments may find themselves normalizing corruption’s essential characteristics, which are likely to be apparent in their organizations. The employees are more likely to find corrupt practices very swaying if the values and norms of an organization tolerate corruption (Schein,

1990; Beugré, 2010). For example, in early February 2012, one of the major newspapers in Kenya reported a case of an NGO worker who was accused of obtaining close to Ksh.10.2 million fraudulently from the public by alleging that he would link the public to donors (Odiwuor, 2012).

According to literature, a culture that tolerates corruption is easily perpetuated in the organization through socialization of the new members who join the organization, thus perpetuating corrupt practices (Beugré, 2010; Ashforth et al., 2008). The new members learn about social norms and expectations regarding acceptable behavior and what practices are tolerated in the organization (Schein, 1990). Corrupt organizational culture can also be embedded through an institutionalization process whereby employees make decisions to engage in corrupt practices that later develop into a routine of specialized tasks assigned to separate individuals (Ashforth & Anada, 2003). When employees observe that corrupt behaviors are not sanctioned in an organization, they may engage in those behaviors for private gain or need. When faced with complaints about corrupt international NGOs, Shalil Shetty, then the head of Action Aid in Kenya, said “Where do you think the people who run NGOs come from? They are not from the moon – they are from Kenya. No one should be surprised when they exhibit behavior common to many other Kenyans” (Holloway, 1998). When a culture of corruption is condoned in an organization, it comes to be seen as a normal part of the organization that is enacted without much thought, regardless of where one comes from (Ashforth & Anada, 2003; Beugré, 2010).

Those who engage in corrupt practices argue that that corruption has nominal short-term political and economic expediencies (Kimuyu, 2007). However, it is important to

emphasize that corruption at whatever level has severe negative effects on long-term and sustainable social, political, and economic development (Mbaku, 2007). The literature indicates that corruption undermines the faith and trust of any sector; it results in the collapse of social institutions (Moleketi, 2007). It undercuts the quality of services, places unbearable burdens on the most vulnerable people, and hinders development of the eradication of poverty (Anassi, 2004; Kimuyu, 2007). In addition, it diminishes the hope and ability of poor people to escape poverty, because they cannot afford to bribe those in positions of power to gain access to quality education, health services, and clean water (Rose-Ackerman, 1997; Moleketi, 2007).

The various concerns among NGOs, such as awarding inappropriately high executive compensation, exorbitant costs of administration of operations, and failure to provide access of quality services to the poor, have all contributed to an erosion of public trust and confidence in the NGO sector (Holloway, 1998; Gibelman & Gelman, 2004). Due to the presumably high moral principles of the NGO sector, any form and magnitude of corruption poses a huge problem to the public and donors' view of the economic future of NGOs. When public and donor funds are diverted to private accounts for personal gain, the provision and access of necessary basic services like water and health is limited (Anassi, 2004). The principle of equal access to resources, justice, and basic needs is blurred and thrown out of the window by corrupt people (Moleketi, 2007). Corruption encourages discrimination against vulnerable groups, hindering the social, cultural and economic rights of all, while violating individuals' civil and political rights (Greenberg, 2002). As a result, the hope of poor people for a better quality of life and a more promising future is threatened.

These severe negative effects of corrupt practices among NGOs, indicate that this is the era for looking at the NGO sector objectively without any “romanticism” or “cynicism” but “with a clear appreciation of its strength and weakness, and a pragmatic view of what can be done to help the sector regain its moral high ground which it has in some cases, started to slip” (Holloway, 1998, p.2). It is in that healthy spirit that this study intends to critically examine the relationship between the dominant dimension of organizational culture and the tolerance of organizational corruption among the NGOs in Kenya.

Research Question

Does a dominant dimension of organizational culture influence tolerance of corrupt practices among the NGOs in Kenya?

Purpose of the Study

Although recent efforts to investigate corruption among NGOs is a good start (Beugré, 2010; Ashforth et al., 2008), there remains a need to further understand the link between organizational culture and corruption in the NGO sector in Kenya (Beugré, 2010; Teegarden et al., 2011). In light of that, this study has several purposes that it intends to accomplish.

First, it intends to identify the different dimensions of organizational culture that are dominant among the NGOs operating in Kenya using the Competing Values Framework (CVF). While organizational culture is not a new concept, since it has been studied since the 1970s, literature indicates that it has not been given much attention among the NGOs (Teegarden et al., 2011). Therefore, understanding the four dimensions of culture discussed by Cameron and Quinn (1999) will establish the dominant dimensions of organizational culture among the participant organizations. Second, this study intends to measure the tolerance of organizational corruption among the NGOs (Ashforth et al., 2008). NGOs have been accused of

not revealing cases of corrupt practices so that they can protect their public image and loss of funds from donors (Ebrahim, 2003a). According to Transparency International (2010), addressing corruption among the NGOs is an essential element in humanitarian accountability, quality assurance, and good management.

Third, this study intends to examine if there is any relationship between the organizational culture and tolerance of organizational corruption (Ashforth, et al., 2008). Literature focusing on the public and private sectors clearly indicates that organizational culture influences the ethical decision-making process of the staff (Schein, 1990; Ethics Resource Center, 2009). According to Gorta (2006), an individual attitude towards corrupt practices and incongruent values and norms can perpetuate the continuation of the practices in an organization.

Significance of the Study

Research on corruption in organizational life among the NGOs can be said to be in its infancy stage due to the lack of expansive literature on the two concepts (Beugré, 2010). This limited literature can be attributed to a strong similarity between the concept of corruption and allied concepts (Beugré, 2010), such as financial scandal (Gibelman & Gelman, 2001), deviant behavior (Nair & Bhatnagar, 2011), and lack of accountability (Ebrahim, 2003a; Harsh et al., 2010). However, literature indicates that all organizations are vulnerable to corruption, and corrupt practices have severe effects among NGOs as well (Ashforth & Anada, 2003).

This study will play a significant role extending the existing literature on the relationship between concepts of organizational culture and corruption among NGOs in Kenya. By developing a framework for understanding the tolerance of corruption among the NGOs in

Kenya, the study will contribute to the existing literature and highlight the need for greater oversight and anti-corruption policies among the NGOs (Kondra & Hurst, 2009). This study holds that this knowledge will allow any new and existing NGO to better control corrupt practices from within and help to avoid the adverse implications and financial effects of losing donors due to lack of accountability and unethical behaviors (Holloway, 1998; Rodriguez et al., 2005). Gorta (2006) argues that the first step in addressing corruption is employees' ability to identify it when it occurs in the workplace or elsewhere. If the employees fail to recognize the practice as corrupt and harmful, they will continue engaging in it with less hope of altering their behaviors.

This study will offer the organizations' management a need to study the existing culture and examine how it impacts the decisions of employees who engage in corrupt practices at the organizational level. The results of this study have important implications for researchers and policymakers, as well as for NGOs' practitioners. Understanding the impact of organizational culture is helpful in deciding how to model a strong culture that does not create opportunities for corrupt activities (Ashforth et al., 2008). This understanding will help practitioners and board members evaluate whether the organization's values and basic assumptions match the mission and practices of the organization. The practitioners will be in a position to incorporate elements of organizational culture into their marketing material and messages in a way that is unique to their approach and mission (Teegarden et al., 2011).

Theoretical Framework

As mentioned earlier, there is no well-defined theoretical framework present with which to study the relationship between the organizational culture and tolerance of corrupt practices among the NGOs (Beugré, 2010). However, there are various theories and models that have been applied to study organizational culture and organizational corruption (de Graaf, 2007). Some of the literature indicates that theories applied in studying corruption have been directed to individual behaviors in the public sector with less or no emphasis on organizations themselves (Ashforth et al., 2008). One of the relevant theories that have been used at the individual level includes the Public Choice theory (Klitgaard, 1988; Rose-Ackerman, 1999; Mbaku, 2007; de Graaf, 2007). The public choice theory looks primarily at the level of the corrupt individual who is assumed to be a rational decision maker (Mbaku, 2007; de Graaf, 2007). The corrupt individual tries to maximize his or her benefits or utility while making sure that the cost of being caught will be lower than the benefits gained (Klitgaard 1988; de Graaf, 2007). If the gains from corrupt activities, minus the chances of being caught, times the penalties, are greater than the benefits of not being caught, the rational individual will choose to engage in a corrupt activity (de Graaf, 2007). This theory underscores the fact that an organization can also create an environment influencing its members to engage in corrupt practices even when they would not behave that way in other environments (de Graaf, 2007).

Unfortunately, when the focus is on an individual behavior, there is a failure to study how the organization operates, and how the organization might be motivating honest people to engage in corrupt practices (Beugré, 2010). As a result, attention over the recent years has been turned to how different organizations perpetuate the spread of corrupt practices (de

Graaf, 2007). The increased efforts to study organizational corruption can be seen in studies conducted among police agencies in different countries, which have focused on the organizations themselves, and how they create environments that tolerate corruption (Klockers et al., 2000; Punch, 2000; de Graaf, 2007). The Organizational Culture theory has direct relevance to the study of corruption at the organizational level of different organizations because it is developed from studying employees' experience (Klockars et al., 2000; West & Turner, 2007). The theoretical principles of Organizational Culture theory emphasize that organizational life is complex and that researchers must take into consideration not only the members of the organization but the different elements of an organization like artifacts, norms, and basic assumptions that influence the decision making and behaviors of the employees (Schein, 1990; West & Turner, 2007; Keyton, 2011). Since an employee will rationalize his or her corrupt practices in line with the norms and values of the organization (Vian, 2008; Ashforth et al., 2008). This theory argues that organizational culture, not the character of the employee, creates the context where corruption occurs after the failure of the proper machinery (de Graaf, 2007). If the organizational culture has a tolerance of corrupt practices, the employees will decide whether to conform, challenge the corrupt culture, or quit, since failing to conform is viewed as betraying the group (Klockars et al., 2000; Punch, 2000; de Graaf, 2007).

Although Organizational Culture theory has been applied at the organizational level, it has several limitations. This theory has been accused of perceiving views of organizational life being unique to specific organizations, which makes it difficult to generalize when comparing different organizations (West & Turner, 2007). This theory also fails to explain why some employees do not engage in corrupt practices (de Graaf, 2007, Beugré, 2010). Instead, this

theory is mostly interested in the contextual features that motivate the employee to engage in corrupt practices in an organization. In tackling corruption in an organization, there is a need to evaluate the organizational values and basic assumptions that influence members of an organization (Punch, 2000; Schein, 1993). This theory fails to determine the most dominant dimension of an organizational culture. Due to these limitations, this study will apply the competing values framework, to establish the dominant dimension of an organizational culture.

Competing Values Framework (CVF)

The Competing Values Framework (CVF) emerged from an empirical study, undertaken by Robert Quinn and John Rohrbaugh in 1983, has been used in different aspects and levels in organizations. This framework helps in identifying the underlying basic assumptions of an organization that influence the behaviors of the members (Cameron et al., 2006). The CVF suggests that most organizations can be characterized along two competing values, each representing alternative approaches to basic challenges that all organizations must resolve in order to exist (Quinn & Rohrbaugh, 1983; Cameron et al., 2006; Helfrich et al., 2007). The first set of competing values is the degree to which an organization emphasizes centralization and control over the organizational processes versus decentralization and flexibility (Quinn et al., 1991; Helfrich et al., 2007). The second set of competing values is the degree to which the organization is oriented toward its own internal environment and processes versus the external environment and relationships with outside entities, such as clients (Quinn et al., 1991; Helfrich et al., 2007). Cameron and Quinn (1999) found that some organizations were effective if they maintained efficient internal processes whereas others were effective if they maintained external positioning relative to customers and clients.

Together these two core competing values of CVF form four quadrants, which represent opposite or competing assumptions (Cameron & Quinn, 1999). The four dimensions of culture are clan, market, hierarchy, and adhocracy; they emerged from using Organizational Culture Assessment Instrument (OCAI) (Cameron & Quinn, 1999). Clan culture has a high sense of shared values, cohesions, goals, teamwork, and employee involvement. Hierarchy culture is characterized by structured and formalized rules and the concern of the organization is stability and performance with efficient and smooth operations. Market culture is oriented toward the external environment instead of internal affairs and its goal is to steer the organization towards results and outcomes competitively. In adhocracy culture, employees are willing to take risks and are open to new ideas, and commitment to innovation and entrepreneurialism holds the organization together (Cameron & Quinn, 1999). An organization rarely has only one culture type. Often, there is a mix of the four organizational cultures (Cameron & Quinn, 1999).

The CVF has been found to be an effective framework that can be applied in any organization both at the local and international level to evaluate the dominant dimensions of organizational culture (Al-Khalifa & Aspinwall, 2001; Cameron et al., 2006). As demonstrated by a study conducted in China applying the CVF and OCAI, the CVF framework can be applied in quantitative research and as a conceptual model, or in qualitative research to identify the four dominant dimensions in any given context (Yu & Wu, 2009).

Methodology and Research Design

This study utilized a multiple case study design with the purpose of explaining how organizational culture influences tolerance of corrupt practices in an organization. This study was selected based on the research question, ability to use multiple sources of data, and the

nature of the two phenomena (i.e corruption and culture). Sensitive research areas like corruption call for a research design that will capture the data that might not be willingly availed by the respondents (Seligson, 2006). According to Yin (2008), a case study investigates a phenomenon in-depth within its real life context while using multiple sources of evidence.

The study was conducted in two stages. The first stage selected 30 organizations located in Nairobi City. The NGOs were selected according to the nature of services provided, size, and age of the organization (Rowley, 2002; Seawright & Gerring, 2008). The small sample was selected due to time and cost constraints. A total of 185 respondents were selected from these organizations. The sample respondents were employed for at least twelve months in order to have an understanding of the existing organizational culture. In the second stage, six respondents from the participating organizations agreed to participate in telephone interviews. A larger number of participants were expected but the data in this stage was supplemental to the statistical data.

The study applied surveys and telephone interviews to gather data. A total fifteen scenarios in the form of a written narrative based on corrupt practices were used to gain understanding the tolerance corruption. Organizational Culture Assessment Instrument was used to measure to collect data on the organizational culture. All interviews were tape recorded on a digital hand-held recorder and transcribed at a later date.

The quantitative data was analyzed using descriptive statistics to determine the most dominant dimension and tolerance of corrupt practices. Bivariate correlations were applied to examine if there is an association between the dependent variables and predicting variables. A one way multivariate variance of analysis (MANOVA) was applied to test if there was a support

for the three propositions. The qualitative data was analyzed to look for any emerging themes from the six cases.

Organization of the Study

Chapter two provides an extensive and detailed review of the relevant literature related to the role of NGOs and their emergence in Kenya since the colonial era. The literature will also review the levels and dimensions of organizational culture. Organizational corruption and how the culture of tolerance is embedded in organizations will be extensively reviewed.

Chapter three describes the research methodology for this study in greater detail. This section includes a discussion of the research design, data collection, instruments, and analysis of the evidence.

Chapter four presents a detailed description of the analyzed evidence and explains any emerging themes and their relationship to the two phenomena. Finally, chapter five concludes the study with the research findings, implications for public policy, recommendations, and opportunities for future research.

Definitions and Terminology

Non-Governmental Organization (NGO) defined as organization that is not established by either public or private sector, organized or formal, voluntary membership, not-for-profit making, independent of government and business.

Organizational corruption is a behavior of an employee who is in place of power in an organization, which deviates from the accepted norms and violates both the written and unwritten policies laid by the organizational structure motivated by personal gain

Organizational culture is a pattern of basic assumptions developed by a given group of people in an attempt to deal with its challenges of external adaptation and internal integration

Values are standards that guide people into undertaking different actions and engaging in a certain behaviors over others (Schein, 1990).

Organizational values are the beliefs and attitudes that permeate an organization and have been considered as the proscribe behaviors that are expected or required in the organization's functioning.

Chapter Summary

This first chapter has provided a brief overview of the research study that includes how corruption is thriving among the NGOs in Kenya. The chapter has laid groundwork of how an organizational culture influences the tolerance of corrupt practices in an organization. While this chapter discussed the problem of corruption, the next chapter will discuss the relevant literature in organizational corruption and organizational culture.

Chapter Two

Literature Review

Introduction

The purpose of this chapter is to provide an overview of the existing literature related to this study and to provide a theoretical framework to guide the study to answer the research question whether a dominant dimension of organizational culture influence the tolerance of corrupt practices among NGOs in Kenya. This chapter is divided into three main sections. The first section will be a general overview of the drastic growth of NGOs, and the different factors that have led to their growth. The second section will review literature on organizational corruption, while the third section will discuss the organizational culture, Competing Values Framework (CVF), and development of the three propositions that will guide the study.

Non-Governmental Organizations (NGOs)

The term “Non-Governmental Organization” (NGO) which is a subset of the civil society sector describes a broad array of organizations variously known as “private voluntary organizations” (PVOs), “non-profit organizations” or “not-for-profit organizations” or “charitable organizations” (Vakil, 1997; McGann & Johnstone, 2005). Civil society, which has been named as the third sector after the private and public sectors, is a wider term that encompasses diverse and varied types of organizations, which range from religious institutions, community based organizations (CBO’s), self-help groups, academic institutions, foundations, charitable trusts, trade unions, and cooperatives societies or simply organizations that are not connected to government in any way (Barrow & Jennings, 2001). NGOs are organizations that are active in efforts of international and domestic socio-economic development to improve the

welfare of people living at the margins of society (Werker & Ahmed, 2008). These organizations work independently of any influence from government and private sectors, but alongside bilateral aid agencies from developed countries, self-help associations, and CBOs (Salamon et al., 2004; Werker & Ahmed, 2008).

For the importance of this study, an NGO is defined as an organization that is not established by either the public or private sector but is organized or formal, has voluntary membership, and has no intention of making a profit (Salamon et al., 2004). It is however, aimed at the relief of poverty through humanitarian aid, emergency relief, provision of health, education, welfare services and advocacy of democratic governance (Barrow & Jennings, 2001; Shivji, 2007). This study considers NGOs to exclude religious bodies (such as churches, mosques, and synagogues), social clubs, trade unions, charitable trusts, cooperatives, and informal organizations. It also excludes intergovernmental organizations like World Bank, International Monetary Fund (IMF), Organization for Economic Co-operation Development (OECD), United Nations' agencies and governmental organizations like the United States of America International Development (USAID) (Salamon et al., 2004).

Emergence of Non-Governmental Organizations

The emergence and growth of the NGO sector has not been a linear process of evolution; it has developed in a specific context in which it began to operate (Barrow & Jennings, 2001; Werker & Ahmed, 2008). The evolution of NGOs goes back to 1800s when NGOs existed as organized private groups that led to the abolition of the slave trade in Britain in 1807 (Werker & Ahmed, 2008); and offered humanitarian services during the war and famine period (Barrow & Jennings, 2001). Later, these organizations increased their scope beyond the

confines of North America and Europe to Asia, Africa, and South America (Werker & Ahmed, 2008). After World War II (WWII) they became the catalyst for the emergence of what has become the modern NGO sector and a force for change which has led the sector to take a broader role in humanitarian services (Werker & Ahmed, 2008; Sama, 2009). In 1945, United Nations formally recognized NGOs as the third sector along with private and public sectors (Edwards & Hulme, 1996). Since then, there has been a continuous proliferation of NGOs in both developed countries and in developing countries, especially in the 1980s which came to be known as the “NGO Decade” (Edwards & Hulme, 1996; Tegeen et al., 2004). By the end of the 20th century, NGOs were perceived as the panacea for many ills like corruption among developing countries, lack of accountability by some governments and the market failure by the private sector (Edwards & Hulme, 1996; Hearn, 2007).

Due to the evolution and broadened mission of NGOs, they gained a reputation for being efficient, effective, flexible, and more innovative than governments (Edwards & Hulme, 1996). They also gained a reputation for being ideologically committed to democracy, participatory in pro-poor development, in addition to a reputation for being more accountable and transparent than both the public and private sectors (Bratton, 1989; Fowler, 1991).

The drastic growth of NGOs both in their numbers, resources and the developmental role they play in the global arena has increased their influence and importance in the world and in developing countries in particular (Holloway, 1998; Werker & Ahmed, 2008). According to the most current data available, the number of international NGOs increased from less than 200 in 1909 to over 20,000 in 2005 (Igoe & Kelsall, 2005; Werker & Ahmed, 2008). The growth in NGOs numbers has led to an increase in scope, role, and financial power both in their socio-

economic and political arenas (Edwards & Hume, 1996; Solomon et al., 2004; Werker & Ahmed, 2008). In 2002, Salamon et al. (2004) concluded a study of 35 countries that found that civil society organizations represented a \$1.7 trillion industry (about five per cent of the combined world economies). Although the figures of remittances of NGOs vary widely due to variations in record maintenance, most sources agree that this sector has grown drastically over the years to become a reliable source of humanitarian aid and a development partner to many developing nations (Werker & Ahmed, 2008).

Emergence of Non-Governmental Organizations in Kenya

This section describes how NGOs emerged in Kenya by looking at three eras: the colonial period, the post-independence era, and the multi-party era. In the post-independence era, the review focuses on Kenyatta's and Moi's administration and their relationship with the NGO sector. Kibaki's administration is discussed during the multi-party era.

Colonial Period

While Kenyan philanthropy goes back before the coming of the Christian missionaries and colonization from early 1900s (Ndegwa, 1996), it was during the colonial period that it became institutionalized through building of hospitals, schools, and digging boreholes in semi-arid areas (Kanyinga et al., 2004). The missionaries started some organized groups like the Christian Council of Kenya (CCK), which later came to be known as the National Christian Council of Churches (NCCK), and the African Medical and Research Foundation (AMREF) (Kanyinga et al., 2004). These new organizations brought with them a new model which was supportive of colonial powers at the time (Kameri-Mbote, 2002). During this period, Kenya became a British colony with Europeans settling in Kenya among other African nations. The

indigenous people started to form organized groups that were independent of the missionaries and white settlers' influence (Kameri-Mbote, 2002).

According to Kameri-Mbote (2002), there are four discernible NGO groups which evolved during this era: 1) the local charitable organizations and foundations like the Young Men Christian Association (YMCA) that were largely Christian initiatives; 2), indigenous ethnic welfare associations which were mainly involved in self-help activities located in urban areas; 3), a group of secular services, and 4) a group which consisted of professional bodies and occupational associations. During the 1940's when the wave of decolonization in Kenya and among other African nations was at its peak, NGOs increased with the formation of Kenyan indigenous organizations as a move towards providing basic relief services and fighting for freedom (Osodo & Matsvai, 1998; Kameri-Mbote, 2002; Amutabi, 2006). Unfortunately, the progress by the NGOs was slowed down by violence that erupted in the 1950s between the British forces and the Kenya nationalist uprising forces led by the *Mau Mau* movement fighting for liberty (Amutabi, 2006).

Post-Independence Era

Kenyatta's Administration

After Kenya gained independence in 1963, the new government under President Kenyatta required a lot of resources to provide welfare services (Osodo & Matsvai, 1998). Due to his support for civil society and NGOs in particular, Kenya became a fertile ground for NGOs to multiply and offer their services in the education, agriculture, and health sectors, among other areas (Ndegwa, 1996; Amutabi, 2006). In addition to presidential support, severe drought and famine in the 1970s saw many NGOs coming to the aid of starvation-stricken

Kenyans. As a result, involved organizations such as the Ford, the Rockefeller, and Carnegie Foundations steadily enlarged their influence by increasing their aid and scope. Oxfam International was involved in promoting the use of chemical fertilizers and improved maize seed (*Katumani*) especially in the semi-arid areas, while CARE worked in water and livestock improvements programs in arid areas (Ndegwa, 1996; Amutabi, 2006). By the end of 1980, there were more than 500 organizations, both national and international, operating in Kenya which was a drastic rise from 272 organizations in 1970 (Kameri-Mbote, 2002).

Moi's Administration

Moi's administration came into power in 1979 following the death of President Kenyatta. The administration was characterized by an escalation of poverty and civil strife, and a general degeneration of socio-economic and political systems, which could be attributed to corruption, poor governance, and structural adjustment programs (SAPs) (Ndegwa, 1996; Kameri-Mbote, 2002; Brass, 2009). The SAPs, initiated in Kenyan society by the early 1980s by the World Bank and IMF, were linked to lower living standards, higher rate of unemployment, declined economy and the deterioration of the quality of welfare services such as health and education (Rono, 2002). By the end of the 1980s, Moi's administration was perceived as unaccountable and ineffective with the spending of foreign aid, leading to most foreign countries to search for alternative ways to assist Kenyans living in poverty (Anassi, 2004).

Due to its minimal performance in economic and political developments, Moi's administration felt threatened by the civil society, which took the center stage in pushing for pro-poor agendas, increased democratic space, and government accountability in spending economic resources (Ndegwa, 1996; Brass, 2009). This led to an upsurge of NGOs that stepped

in to provide services that the government could not due to corruption (Amutabi, 2005). As a way of increasing public participation and democratic space, the NGOs that were formed by Kenya's elite pushed for political liberalization, economic development, accountability, and transparency among government agencies in providing services (Kameri-Mbote, 2002).

The NGO's role of putting political pressure upon the administration and influencing the people to take an active role with public participation led to the claim that they were overstepping their mandates (Ndegwa, 1996). In 1989, President Moi issued a directive to create an agency to coordinate the activities of NGOs in Kenya (Kameri-Mbote, 2002). He also issued a directive that any future funding was to be channeled through the government (Osodo & Matsvai, 1998). These directives led to the introduction of the NGO Act and Regulations of 1990 that led to the formation of the NGO Coordination Board (Kameri-Mbote, 2002). This agency had the sole power to register and coordinate all NGOs in Kenya (Kameri-Mbote, 2002). The new law also gave the power to deregister errant organizations and to set the National Council of NGOs as a self-regulatory body (Osodo & Matsvai, 1998). Some scholars hold that this NGO Act was Moi's way of controlling and monitoring the activities of the NGO sector which was growing in terms of numbers, financial resources and political influence (Ndegwa, 1996; Kameri-Mbote, 2002; Brass, 2009).

Unfortunately, the NGO Act did not protect the NGOs from government harassment or award NGOs with full autonomy since the regime devised other instruments of intimidation (Osodo & Matsvai, 1998). This tense relationship saw some NGOs like Centre for Law and Research International (CLARION) deregistered in 1995, even after submitting the required paperwork, and the Greenbelt Movement in 1999 after its leader Professor Wangari Mathaai,

who won the Nobel Prize in 2004 for his work, challenged Moi's administration in matters of environmental protection (Kameri-Mbote, 2002; Brass, 2009). While these two NGOs were later registered after several appeals, other NGOs faced difficult relationships with government (Brass, 2009). For example, in 1996, NGOs were accused of "subversive activities" as they were seen to undermine Moi's government, which was a way of intimidating them (Ndegwa, 1996). Regardless of these suspicious relationships between the government and NGOs, there was consistent growth of NGOs throughout the latter half of Moi's rule of 24 years (Brass, 2009). By the end of the 1990s, Kenya's indigenous NGOs had grown by over 150 percent in a period of ten years (Kameri-Mbote, 2002). The estimated size of the NGO sector grew from about 500 in 1980 (Ndegwa, 1996) to nearly 3,200 in 2004 with the biggest growth occurring between 1996 and 2003, from 511 registered NGOs in 1996 to 2,511 (almost fivefold increase) in 2003 (World Resources Institute, 2005). Although these figures may slightly differ in various reports, due to inconsistencies in record keeping especially after the introduction of the NGO Bureau, there is no doubt that NGO sector grew rapidly.

Kibaki's Administration

When Kibaki's administration came into power in 2003, under the platform of change, good governance, and increased democratic space, it tapped some directors of established NGOs to take government positions (Brass, 2009). A good example is the Director of Transparency International Kenya, John Githongo, who was appointed as the Permanent Secretary in charge of the Ethics and Governance Department, in the Office of the President (Brass, 2009). NGOs became more open, cordial, and willing to collaborate together without suspicion with the government (Brass, 2009). Brass (2009) adds that NGOs today in Kenya are

involved in government policy by establishing boards, development committees and stakeholder forums; their strategies and policies are integrated into larger national and sub-national planning documents and their methods of decision-making have, over time, become embedded in the government's own decision-making processes.

By August 2008, there were approximately 5,461 registered NGO in Kenya, operating in various sectors of the economy and in every corner of the country (NGOs Coordination Board, 2009). By the end of 2008, it was estimated that the sector was contributing around 80 billion Kenya Shillings (around one Billion US dollars) annually to the Kenyan economy, which is equivalent to 2.5 Percent of the Gross Domestic Product (GDP). In 2009, the Kenyan government recognized the contribution of NGOs in national development, noting the sector contributed more than KSh.100 billion annually and was responsible for the employment of more than 100,000 people (NGOs Coordination Board, 2009). The amount of money injected into the economy and the number of jobs created by the NGO sector made it a major force to be reckoned with in matters of policy and decision making. Recently, the NGOs' Coordination Board has been quoted, stating that the sector is growing at a very high rate of over 400 organizations per year. By May 2011, the number of registered organizations stood at more than 7,000 (NGOs Coordination Board, 2009). The emergence of NGOs in Kenya has not been without challenges, but those challenges have led to a stronger sector playing a greater role.

Role of NGOs in Kenya

In Kenya, NGOs have diversified roles ranging everywhere in the country and work in almost every sector including: relief, water, agriculture, education, health, HIV/AIDS, microenterprise and microcredit, environment, wildlife, human rights, peace building and

conflict management (Barrow & Jennings, 2001; Kanyinga et al., 2004). In order to achieve these roles, NGOs in Kenya are engaged in service functions and expressive functions or sometimes both (Salamon et al., 2004; Kanyinga et al., 2004). Barrow & Jennings (2001) argue that NGOs dedicated to service functions such as relief, development, or welfare services have different strategies than those focused on expressive functions such as advocacy and community organizing. Many NGOs use advocacy as one of their development methodologies in consortium with other NGOs and coalition with the private and public sectors (Barr et al., 2003). Collaborative initiatives between the government and NGOs exist across diverse sectors both at the national and local levels (Brass, 2009).

Although, most NGOs in Kenya are involved in advocacy, service functions are performed as well and sometimes even in collaboration with the advocacy, for example, when it comes to water and health amenities (Kanyinga et al., 2004). In 2004, 60 percent of the NGO sector in Kenya was engaged in service functions compared to only 15 percent engaged in advocacy activities (Kanyinga et al., 2004; Dibie, 2008). These figures indicate that advocacy might not be enough since the government might not have sufficient funds or political will (Kanyinga et al., 2004). It can be acknowledged that advocacy alone does not provide the NGOs with credibility, leading to an expanding workforce in the field of health services, because of ever growing need. This transformation can be attributed to the environmental context in which NGOs operate, due to changes of environmental factors like need and the amount of funds available (O'Dwyer, 2007). Due to their close proximity with the poor people, NGOs have been playing a substantial role in providing health services, clean water, and quality education to the people in need (Kanyinga et al., 2004).

The literature indicates that it was during post-independence era and during Moi's administration in particular that these organizations grew in scope, role, and numbers (Ndegwa, 1996; Brass, 2009). However, during Kibaki's era the NGOs have been in collaboration with public sector and involved in setting agenda and civic engagement than in the previous administrations (Brass, 2009).

Factors Leading to Emergence of NGOs

Various factors have been attributed to NGOs' strong and impressive growth internationally as well as nationally, but most importantly in Kenya. These factors will be highlighted here below.

Government and Market Failure

When the government and private sector fail to deliver services in particular areas due to political and economic reasons, NGOs are looked upon as the "magic bullet" that can provide those services at low cost reaching those that are ignored (Weisbrod, 1988; Steiberg, 2006; Sama, 2009). Brown and Korten (1991) argue that NGOs could emerge in the case of market failure because markets tend to be potentially vulnerable to failure in developing countries. According to the public goods theory, NGOs arise to provide goods that both the government and private sectors will not provide (Teegarden et al., 2011). Any democratic government has the motivation and obligation to provide public goods and services, like health care and water, equally and fairly to its citizens (Holloway, 1998). But due to economic reasons (that can include limited resources and free rider problem) and political reasons the government opts to provide goods to the "median voter", leading to under provision (Steinberg, 2006; Teegarden et al., 2011). Since the market is profit- driven, it is unable to control the free riders and high profits

and only concentrates on providing those goods that its consumers are able to pay for (Steinberg, 2006; Teegarden et al., 2011).

When governments perform poorly, the consequences are wasted resources, undelivered services, and denial of social-economic protection for citizens especially the poor (Mbaku, 2009). The unsatisfied demands for public goods created by under provision and the exclusion of public goods could be attributed to the emergence of NGOs in Kenya (Anassi, 2004).

Cost Effectiveness

NGOs are considered cost effective and inherently more efficient than the government in service delivery through a combination of NGOs' freedom from bureaucratic constraints, their responsiveness to market signals and consumerism (Vivian, 1994; Green & Mathias, 1995). This lower cost can be attributed to factors like reliance on voluntary local inputs that do not incur transaction costs and the fact that NGOs tend to be run by altruistic people (Shivji, 2007; Sama, 2009). Based on this argument, failures among NGO-led projects when compared with those of the government, have fewer consequences on the economy as a whole, since nearly all NGO-led projects are carried out at the micro-level (Sama, 2009). Whether NGOs are more effective than the governments is still a question that many NGO scholars have been dealing with for some time (Zaidi, 1999). Some recent NGO impact studies and evaluations provide little evidence to suggest that NGOs actually are more effective than the governments in reaching the poorest with development assistance (Clayton et al., 2000). However, there is evidence that some large NGOs are able to provide some services more cost-effectively than the governments (Edwards & Hulme, 1996). This cost-effectiveness can be attributed to the economies of scale that allows the large company to operate at a reduced cost.

Lack of Trust (Contract Failure)

In the early 1980s, the developing nations were perceived as corrupt, inefficient, and unaccountable for the aid that they were receiving from Western nations (Zaidi, 1999). This led to distrust by donor agencies like OECD, USAID, and IMF among others from Western nations who were the main supporters of the development programs (Dibie, 2008). Lack of faith in governments and frustration due to the lack of desirable outcomes led the donor agencies both bilaterally and multilaterally to seek alternatives that could be trusted to deliver more favorable outcomes (Green & Mathias, 1995). According to the contract failure theory, when people confront difficulties in ascertaining truthful information about the quality and quantity of delivered services and goods, they tend to find NGOs as reliable agents (Sama, 2009; Steinberg, 2007). Hence, NGOs are considered more trustworthy as contractors between the people and entrepreneurs because the private sector is likely to be distrusted for taking advantage of people's ignorance for profit making (Sama, 2009; Teegerden et al., 2011).

Increased Public Participation

After the end of the Cold War in the early 1990s, the Western nations increased their focus on spreading democracy to the developing nations, because countries in the West had time and resources for other issues to take precedence. Consequently, once security became a less important issue, organizations were sent to aid governments that were transitioning from autocracies to democracies, to help with development and to increase stability (Smith, 2010). Critical in this was the growth of the civil society, and therefore, the support of NGOs became important, not only for programmatic concerns, but also as actors to strengthen civil society (Edwards & Hulme 1996; Smith 2010).

According to the civic diversity theory, NGOs came into existence to increase the public's participation in decision-making (Teegarden et al., 2011). The civic diversity theory argues that NGOs exist to bring more voices to the decision-making table (Teegarden, et al., 2011).

According to Mercer (2002), NGOs work with grassroots organizations that are often comprised of poor and marginalized groups. They influence the key decision-makers through lobbying, monitoring, and exposing the actions (and inactions) of others and by disseminating information to key constituencies (Hudson, 2002). A study conducted in Uganda by Barr et al. (2003) found that educating, sensitizing, and making the poor aware of their rights were by far the dominant activities of most advocacy NGOs in Uganda.

Similarly to Uganda, NGOs in Kenya try to raise awareness by seeking to educate, sensitize, train, and otherwise inform the poor about all kinds of issues they perceive as relevant, from AIDS and hygiene to nutrition and domestic violence (Harsh et al., 2010). Advocacy NGOs also organize local communities to deal with their own problems and to be heard by the local and national governments (Barr et al., 2003). This is reflected by the emphasis on advocacy and capacity building. For example, in Kenya, the grassroots mobilizing work of the Undugu Society in a Nairobi slum has been empowering the local community organizations that it supports to engage with the local state in order to pursue their interests (Ndegwa, 1996).

Innovation

NGOs are founded by creative individuals who most often are determined in finding new products and better ways to deliver goods and services (Teegarden, et al., 2011). Unlike the public and private sectors, NGOs experience fewer political implications and are not profit driven; hence, they are more likely to earn trust from the public (Werker & Ahmed, 2007).

Innovation theory points that NGOs arise from the public's need for new services and products because of the government's inability to act on this need until there is some certainty about the approach (Teegarden et al., 2011). This failure creates a situation where NGOs emerge as innovative responses to different types of problems because of their willingness to take risks (Sama, 2009; Teegarden et al., 2011). Although in the early days, NGOs were characterized by old and slow-moving technology, and ill-trained staff, today they benefit from advanced technology, trained professionals, and global positioning systems (GPS) (Sama, 2009).

Globalization

Globalization and increased human connectivity has led to a fast growing intermediateness of communication across borders, creating more awareness of the plight of humans around the globe (Greenlee et al., 2007). Emergencies like flood, drought, civil war, genocide, disease, and other disasters are no longer borne in isolation and what may occur in a remote corner of the world can be known worldwide within seconds, resulting in a public engagement that provides immediate help by donating funds to NGOs (Greenlee et al., 2007). This burgeoning sense of community has led to increased availability of funding to deal with issues such as poverty, disease, drugs, refugees, the environment, and economic interdependence that states cannot adequately manage (Greenlee et al., 2007). This increased funding and need has led to plethora of NGOs with some of them designed to tap and control resources from the donor community (Gugerty 2010). Several studies conducted in East Africa found that most of the Southern NGOs relied on donor funding from Northern countries revealing a 75 to 100 percent contribution that funded the income of East African NGOs (Edwards & Hume, 1996; Ngunyi, 1999; Barr et al.,

2003). Another recent study conducted in Uganda by Barr et al. (2003) indicated that most the Ugandan NGOs were funded by donors from Western countries.

However, the increased availability of funding due to globalization, has led to a plethora of NGOs that have been created by Kenyan's elite who do not use the funds to address the concerns of the funders and their constituents (Shivji, 2007; Gugerty, 2010). Currently, NGOs in Kenya are led by and composed of the educated elite who are well-versed in the language of modernization and located in urban areas (Shivji, 2007; Harsh et al., 2010). While some of the elites are well-intentioned individuals driven by altruistic motives to improve the conditions of those living on the margins, there is a career group that is motivated by the gains they receive from the organizations (Shivji, 2007). This career group is composed of those who were once government employees who shifted to the NGO sector to take advantage of the funds from donor countries (Shivji, 2007). This phenomenon is echoed by Fowler (1995) who says that NGOs in East Africa are created by civil servants who were "restructured" out of a job but who still retain contacts within government ministries. Other illegitimate NGOs are started by government officials who rely on friends and allies outside the government to serve as fronts (Smith, 2010). Due to their positions in the government, when funds are being allocated to the programs, they are able to make sure that their NGOs receive a huge share (Holloway, 2001). These kinds of NGOs have little or no accountability for the funding they receive; their mission is to enrich themselves without concern of the wider mission of NGOs to help those in need (Greenlee et al., 2007).

As the NGO sector has emerged and increased its role over the years, the different contributing factors have influenced it both positively and negatively. The negative effects have

revealed the vulnerability of NGOs to corrupt practices. This vulnerability of NGOs will be discussed in the continuing section that involves the cause, forms, and examples of corrupt cases in Kenya among the NGOs.

Organizational Corruption

In the recent years, corruption has been studied across a number of disciplines, including psychology, sociology, economics, law, and political science (Klitgaard, 1988; Rose-Ackerman, 1999; Mbaku, 2007; Pinto et al., 2008; Kimuyu, 2008). However, it has been a recent trend in the NGO sector, which has not developed into maturity in comparison to the private and public sectors (Klitgaard, 1988; Kimuyu, 2008). As a result, literature on this subject is still limited due to complexity of corruption in all sectors and simply within the NGO sector.

What is Corruption?

Although the problem of how best to define corruption might be considered as a thing of the past by some scholars but it is still an intricate issue due to cultural relativity (Colier, 2002; Seligson, 2006; Andersson & Heywood, 2008). According to Langseth (2006), there is no single, comprehensive, universally accepted definition of corruption because attempts to define it have faced legal, criminological, and political problems. Nevertheless, Transparency International (TI) published a report in 1995 which has defined a standard corruption as an “abuse of public office for private gain”. According to TI, any act that produces public damage in any public institution is defined as “corruption”, if the purpose is to promote personal or group undue advantages. However, this definition has been strongly critiqued for viewing corruption in a limited way as only happening in the public sector, while it occurs in other sectors as well (Klitgaard, 1988; Mbaku, 2007). To put corruption in its right context, abuse of

power can be for the benefit of one's party, class, tribe, race, family, friends, or country as opposed to just one's private gain (Mbaku, 2007).

There is a need for a definition that encompasses NGO sector, which are not public institutions and have no public power entrusted to them because they do not seek any mandate from the public and are not wholly private institutions motivated by profit (Holloway, 2004). Consequently, Holloway (2001) suggests that corruption among the NGOs is any "behavior for personal gain or for the benefit of another person or organization on the part of people who claim to represent an independent, not for profit, public benefit organization" (pg 2). This definition recognizes several aspects of corruption:

a) *Corruption is a norm-deviation.* Corruption is a violation of both written and unwritten policies set by the organization (Luo, 2005). Corruption is generally considered as unethical, although people may disagree on the norms that determine whether someone or an organization is corrupt (de Graaf, 2007). Some actions may be justified according to the customs of the organizations while others may not depend on a particular organization.

b) *Corruption is context-based.* Corruption varies in each culture (Luo, 2005; Andersson & Heywood, 2008) and it is manifested differently in various cultural settings (Collier, 2002). In some cultures there is no distinction between private and public life, and private appropriation of the acts is not regarded as morally wrong or banned (de Graaf, 2007).

c) *Corruption is power-based.* The person engaging in corrupt practices must be in a position of power created by market imperfections, or in an organizational position that grants them discretionary power (Vian, 2008; Luo, 2005). Gibelman & Gelman (2004) in their study found that all donor agencies had some experience with corrupt practices and that substantial

numbers of those activities involved top managers who had access to power and funds.

However, staff who may not be in position of absolute power in the organization, may still have access to power that manages the service recipients (Holloway, 2001).

d) *Corruption is gain-based.* The person engaging in corrupt practices is motivated by a gain which can be at the personal level or organizational level (Holloway, 2001). A study by Pinto et al. (2008) identified two types of corruption at the organizational level. First, is a corrupt organization and second, an organization of corrupt individuals. Pinto et al. (2008) explain corrupt organization as a group of mainly top management personnel or dominant persons who collectively act in a corrupt manner for the benefit of the organization. On the other hand, an organization of corrupt individuals is an organization in which a significant proportion of an organization's members act in a corrupt manner primarily for their personal benefit (Ashforth et al., 2008). In both cases the organization is the focal unit and corruption is motivated by rational self-interest (Beugré, 2010). For example, in police departments the corruption undertaken by individual officers can become so endemic that the department itself can be considered corrupt (Shover & Hochstetler, 2002). However, while all organizations are prone to criminal activities, it does not make them criminals until they engage in such activities.

Anecdotal Cases of Corrupt Practices among NGOs

Corruption is found everywhere, running across both developing and developed countries, sectors, and subsets of NGOs, hence; it is a common reality to NGOs' life (Holloway, 1998; Gibelman & Gelman, 2004; Greenlee et al., 2007). For example, in the United States scandals have been reported at well-known organizations such as the United Way of America, Goodwill Industries, the American Cancer Society, and the American Red Cross (Kearns, 1996;

Ebrahim, 2003a). A study conducted by Townsend and Townsend (2004) exploring the corrupt practices involving both Northern (developed countries) and Southern (developing countries) NGOs, found a lack of transparency, negative outcomes of the audit culture, and legitimating issues in all of them. Another study that was conducted by Gibelman and Gelman (2002) found that faith-based organizations, which are prominent in the developing nations, are susceptible to corrupt practices just like secular organizations. As a result, there is enough evidence indicating that NGOs are vulnerable to corruption just like any other sector and it is found across all the subsets of NGOs regardless of their religious orientation and altruistic values (Gibelman & Gelman, 2004).

Throughout the developing continents of Africa, Asia, and Latin America, which is a home to many NGOs, are known for a long list of phony and corrupt organizations, with a high account of funds embezzlement and loss of millions of dollars that fail to reach the intended recipients (Burger & Owens, 2003; Harsh et al., 2010; Smith, 2010). In 2007, World Bank conducted an independent study concerning allegations of corrupt, fraudulent, and coercive practices of NGOs in Bangladesh. The investigation found evidence indicating that five NGOs made corrupt payments to Bangladesh government officials through intermediaries in order to receive favorable treatment in the NGO selection process and other benefits. The study also found some evidence indicating that twenty-five NGOs that received contracts under the project had submitted fraudulent Non-Formal Education (NFE) experience certificates with their bid submissions (World Bank Group Integrity Vice Presidency Report, 2006). The result of this investigation led to those implicated NGOs to being forced to refund the money, as well as, discontinuation of funds and loss of credibility.

NGOs that operate in East Africa have equally faced increased corrupt practices by people who are motivated by self-interest and greed (Townsend & Townsend, 2004; Harsh et al, 2010). Barrow and Jennings (2001) conducted interviews with donors and interested observers in Dar es Salaam in 1997, which revealed that there were serious financial irregularities throughout the NGO sector, including at least three of the NGOs involved in civic education. Burger and Owens (2003) conducted a study in Uganda to examine NGOs' dishonesty in regards to financial transparency and community participation: they found a high incidence of misrepresentation of information among NGOs in attempts to cover the misuse of the donor funds. A more recent study undertaken in Tanzania by Assad and Goddard (2010) found that, despite the often proclaimed NGOs' objective of improving welfare to beneficiary groups, there appeared to be little accountability by NGOs to beneficiaries. They established that the credibility of the NGOs and its managers varied in different ways in how they accounted donor funding.

Just like NGOs from other parts of the world have been entangled in corrupt practices, the NGO sector in Kenya has been accused of being motivated by commercialism and the availability of donors' funds with no capacity to make a positive impact (Anassi, 2004). The accusations of NGOs have been recorded with the help of credible institutions just like Transparency International and government auditors. According to TI, Kenya chapter study in 2008, the Aggregate Index scale of 0-100 indicated a corruption level that ranked NGOs ranked as number 23 with a range of 14 score/percent, which was slightly lower than Foreign missions/ International organizations, which scored 16 points. These results indicate that the NGOs in Kenya are under a threat of corrupt practices, which might lead to loss of funds. This can be

confirmed by a scenario that occurred in April 2005, where 20 NGOs were ordered to refund money that had been misappropriated. This money was intended to support people infected with HIV by buying them medicine or setting them up with income generating activities. Instead, the money was used to pay inflated salaries, fraudulent allowances for covering water, electricity, telephone and home security bills by the leadership of NGOs that was meant to spearhead the operations (Transparency International, 2005).

Further, over the last two decades, there have been incidences of fictitious “brief case” NGOs that are complete fabrications led by individuals who write convincing proposals to seek funds (Anassi, 2004; Holloway, 2001). These fictitious NGOs have no offices or staff, and do not have existing projects or any intentions of starting one (Harsh et al., 2010). These opportunistic or “pretender” NGOs have only been interested in taking advantage of donations, while never caring for delivering quality services to the intended service recipients (Osodo & Matsvai, 1998). As a result, a so called “pajero culture”, has risen in the NGO sector in Kenya (Harsh et al., 2010). Pajero culture is a term widely used in Kenya to refer to the tendency of resources being diverted from their intended destination, to create an image in the donor world, which involves having big cars and big offices among other things (Harsh et al., 2010).

Forms of Corruption among NGOs

Corruption is a variety of different practices carried out among different people in different sectors and in different ways (Andersson & Heywood, 2008). Corruption ranges from the simple pocketing of donated funds, bribery, fraud, nepotism, to misrepresentation of the NGOs itself and what it can do (Holloway, 2001). A study by Trivunovic (2011) found that the most common forms of corruption in the NGO sector include: inflated, duplicate, or fictional

invoices for goods and services procured for a project; “ghost” employees, participating entities or beneficiaries that inflate the costs of project activities; kickback arrangements in the procurement of goods or services or in hiring of project staff; “double dipping”, or seeking or accepting funds from more than one donor for the same project; fictitious NGOs, or politically connected organizations set up to win public contracts (Trivunovic, 2011 p. 4). Unfortunately, bribery remains the most common form of corruption, which resulted in the misconception that it is the only corruptive behavior (Luo, 2005; Moleketi, 2008). Bribery is a form that has penetrated in all sectors in Kenya, where it has gained different code names such as “facilitation payment” and “*kitu kidogo*” (something small) or “*chai*” (a cup of tea).

Another form of corruption that has been subtle and least discussed is fraudulently or covertly deviating from organization’s original mission (Holloway, 2004; Townsend & Townsend, 2004). According to Townsend and Townsend (2004), an NGO can be accused of being corrupt when its commitment and mission to improve people’s lives changes to a desire to improve its own. A director of an NGO from Uganda admitted that some people viewed NGOs as a business, which helps them to survive as individuals before they consider others (Titeca, 2005). A similar sentiment was reported in Kenya where one respondent admitted that donor funding is the only option available of enriching oneself in this country (Fowler, 2005). It is no secret that some food aid groups have been accused of diverting food delivered from donor countries to local producers for a pay instead of distributing it to the needy (Anassi, 2004). Similarly, there have been some complaints about the expensive lifestyles of some of the founders and executive directors of some of these NGOs (Anassi, 2004).

Corruption among the NGOs in Kenya has involved the deviation from their missions as well (Anassi, 2004; Harsh et al., 2010). There are many cases of NGOs being motivated by commercialism and the availability of donated funds with no capacity to make a positive impact (Anassi, 2004). In a study conducted by Harsh et al, (2010), one of the respondents said: “Corruption is there. I . . . we can never run away from it. And the issues that are being raised more so with HIV/AIDS money . . . this is a justice element that basically has to be addressed” (Harsh, et al., 2010 p.264). In 2003, the *Neema* Children Home won about \$14, 000 from Kenya's National Aids Control Council (KNACC), the body that coordinates the government's anti-AIDS campaign. The money came from a World Bank grant intended to finance grass-roots work on AIDS (Lacey, 2003). According to the KNACC spokesman, auditors for the Council cut off funds to the *Neema* Home after failing to find a single orphan who had benefited from its work or anyone who worked for the organization. The *Neema* Home is one among many NGOs which have sprung up, lacking any office and mission as their intention is to make a livelihood out of the donors’ money as opposed to bringing change to the underprivileged. Finally, a case study conducted by Gurgety (2010) also found that there were 34 complaints reported to the NGO Council Review Board regarding their practices. Additionally, there have been complaints about the expensive lifestyles of some of the founders and executive directors of some of these NGOs (Anassi, 2004).

Causes of Corruption in an Organization

A framework developed by Vian (2008) suggests that corruption is driven by three main forces: the pressure to abuse power, the opportunity to abuse power, and the ability to

rationalize corrupt behavior. Vian's framework development is an important construction that helps understand the development of corrupt practices.

Pressure to Abuse Power

The pressure to abuse power can be identified through three internal forces: financial need, low wages, and human greed (de Graaf, 2007; Vian, 2008). Financial need can foster pressure to embezzle an organization's funds, as indicated by a study conducted in Kenya by the National Enterprise Survey (2008). According to the study, more than 40 percent of the respondents reported that financial need has been the main cause to engage in corrupt practices. Particularly in Kenya, corruption can be associated to the increased poverty with more than half of the people living below the poverty line (Harsh et al., 2010). Therefore, the NGO sector becomes more vulnerable to be misused as source of income and livelihood for the employees (Salamon & Anheier, 1996; Shivji, 2007; Harsh et al., 2010).

According to de Graaf (2007), low salaries and poor working conditions greatly increase the chances of engaging in corrupt practices. Although, it has been argued that low wages are main cause of corruption, some studies indicate that higher salaries do not necessarily reduce corruption, but can lead to better outcomes (Vian, 2008; Mbaku, 2007). However, human greed has been identified as cause of corruption and can be attributed to defective human character and an inclination towards criminal activity (de Graaf, 2007; Ashforth et al., 2008). According to clashing moral values theories, certain values and norms of the society have influence over the individual's norms and values influencing the decision to engage in corruption (Hofstede, et al., 2010; de Graaf, 2007). According to a study by the National Enterprise Survey (2008), more

than 50 percent of the respondents mentioned greed as the main cause of corruption in comparison to only 40 percent who thought poverty was the main cause.

Another source of pressure to abuse power comes from external stakeholders, such as suppliers, clients, friends and relatives (Vian, 2008). In some cultures an employee may be pressured by the obligations to help a friend or a family member to secure a job or some favors (de Graaf, 2007). Hence, an employee might engage in a corrupt practice in order to meet a moral value and a norm of the society. In return, the employee who secures a job for a friend or family member expects them in future to reciprocate the favor (de Graaf, 2007).

Opportunity to Abuse Power

Klitgaard (1988) points out that the opportunity to abuse power is greater in an organization where employees exercise discretion over service recipients because there are entrusted with monopoly power. Discretion refers to the autonomous power granted to a staff member to make decisions, such as hiring or deciding how funds will be used in the organization (Vian, 2008). Mirvis and Hackett (1983) found that employees in NGOs experience greater autonomy and less organizational control than employees in private sector. This greater autonomy among NGOs' operations and decision making can be related to the great number of stakeholders, who embark on a loosely organized structure to allow for greater flexibility and discretion (Shivji, 2007; Nair & Bhatnagar, 2011). The literature indicates that NGOs' agents are more prone to corruption when they enjoy a monopoly, wide discretion, and little accountability (Riley, 1998; Vian, 2008). As Keyton (2011) mentions organization that lacks internal checks and balances creates a culture with little accountability; in which dishonesty can flourish. When individuals with high discretion are left unchecked, their acts can lead to misuse

of authority. These acts can spread to other individuals and magnify in scope and audacity in ways that can eventually transcend individuals and groups and become embedded in an organizational culture (Pinto et al., 2008; Ashforth et al., 2008).

Rationalization

Rationalization is the process by which individuals who engage in corrupt acts use socially constructed accounts to legitimate their actions (Ashforth & Anada, 2003). This process not only offers employees justification of their corrupt practices, but encourages them to view their acts as obligatory and even sought-after (Berry, 2004). Organizational norms and values that exist in an organization can be a source of rationalizing corrupt practices of its staff (Vian, 2008). Therefore, a trustworthy culture is important in an organization (Berry, 2004).

When an organization has unclear or conflicting policies, the employees can rationalize their corrupt practices and will be supported by the leadership. Keyton (2011) argues that when an organization adopts “a code of silence”, unethical behaviors will go unchecked and unreported. According to Klockars et al. (2000), in some police agencies, the official policy formally requires that all types of corrupt activities even “marginally corrupt behavior”, such as acceptance of favors and small gifts to be reported (p.2). However, that official policy is made complicated by the unofficial policy that supports strongly by the administrators’ behavior, who permits and ignores such corrupt practices when committed in limited in scope and conducted subtly (klockars et al., 2000). This example shows that when employees think that their acts will be tolerated, they will rationalize to their personal gain.

In summary, causes of corruption among the NGOs can be linked to different factors including organizational culture (Vian, 2008; Ashforth et al., 2008). The next section will discuss

organizational culture in depth by looking at its characteristics, levels, and how it is developed within an organization.

ORGANIZATIONAL CULTURE

The link between culture and organization is a multidimensional concept, developed independently in several disciplines like sociology, anthropology, organizational behavior and psychology, which have often presented culture and ideology as integral parts of a functioning society (Schein, 1990; Boan & Funderburk, 2003; Keyton, 2011). The study of organizational culture can be traced back to the 1950s, but it was not until the 1980s that it made significant progress in the academic realm (Fisher & Alford, 2000; Baker, 2002). Hofstede et al. (1990) suggest that the term organizational culture entered the U.S academic literature in late 1970's with an article in *Administrative Science Quarterly*. Early in the 1980s, the book *In Search of Excellence*, by Peters and Waterman (1982), presented a strong case that the key to excellent business performance was to be found in the strong culture of an organization. During this period some literature emerged about particular areas of organizational culture, such as how to learn culture (Schein, 1990), dimensions of culture (Hofstede et al., 1990; Baker, 2002), and different types of organizational cultures (Cameron & Quinn, 1999). The study of organizational culture has since matured and has spread beyond the United States (Schein, 2004; Keyton, 2011) to Europe (Hofstede et al., 1990), and to other parts of the world. Organizational culture is more important today than it was back in the 1970s, when scholars started focusing on the effectiveness on an organization (Schein, 1992; Baker, 2002). In the present world, organizations are faced with increased competition, globalization, mergers, acquisitions, and alliances, which make the study of organizational culture timely.

Definition of Organizational Culture

There is a lack of precision and consensus among the scholars as to how to define the concept of organizational culture (Cooke & Rousseau, 1988; Hofstede et al., 1990; Schein, 1992; Delobbe et al., 2000). Fisher and Alford (2000) say that at one point there were more than 164 definitions of culture, indicating the depth of the issue, but at the same time the need for a consensus. While there are many definitions of organizational culture, some of them deserve to be mentioned. According to Hofstede (2001), organizational cultures are “the collective programming of the mind that distinguishes the members of one organization from another” (p. 391). It helps the members of an organization to attribute meaning of who they are, how they came to be who they are, and how they do things as a group or as an organization (SALÁNKI, 2010). This attribution of meaning is simply called *sense-making* among the employees in the organization (Keyton, 2011). Organizational culture refers to a system of values and beliefs that is shared by a particular group of members in lasting homogenization of their concepts about various things (SALÁNKI, 2010).

According to Schein (1990), organizational culture is a pattern of basic assumptions which are invented, discovered or developed by a given group, as it learns how to deal with its challenges of external adaptation and internal integration. Schein (1989) and SALÁNKI (2010) outline two fundamental functions of organizational culture: the function of internal integration of organizational culture and the function of external adaptation. Over time, especially if the organization competes successfully, its staff learns how to cope with external demands from clients and bureaucrats and to maintain internal stability to accomplish its missions (Schein, 1990). The function of internal integration determines “communication methods”, “criteria of

pertinence to community”, “norms that regulate status attribution to each of the members”, “rules which structure social relations, desirable and undesirable behaviors” (SALÁNKI, 2010 p.457). The main objective of function of external adaptation is “to establish a broad consensus relative to the organization’s position in the outside environment and public space in general” (SALÁNKI, 2010 p.457). It involves how the organization can maintain its image and mission within its outside world. Organizational culture can be summarized as the essence of organizational life that helps employees to make sense of how to deal with the daily challenges of work and meeting the mission of their organization.

According to the literature, all organizations including NGOs that have been in existence for a time have cultures (Teegarden et al., 2011), but some cultures are stronger and more focused on the outcomes than others (Chatman & Jehn, 1994; Baker, 2002). A strong organizational culture is viewed to be influential in those organizations where it is not easy to supervise the work due to high frequency off-site work, like for example in the service delivery sector (Chatman & Jehn, 1994). An organization with a strong culture is more effective and its emphasis is on adhering to a consistent and coherent set of beliefs, norms, practices, and basic assumptions; it is more effective, than when it has a weak, inconsistent, and incongruent culture (Baker, 2002; Yun Seok et al., 2010). A strong culture is important as it fosters motivation and uniformity which can be translated to internal integration (Schein, 1992; Baker, 2002). Unfortunately, a strong culture can contribute to a displacement of the organization’s mission, as the norms and practices become so important to the point of overshadowing the good intentions of the organization (Baker, 2002). Hence, an organization should be flexible enough to adapt to the external environment without losing its fundamental values and

destabilizing the assumptions that are pivotal to its success and survival (Schein, 1992; Baker, 2002). Due to the changing world, every organization requires a culture that is less pervasive in terms of prescribing particular norms and behavioral patterns to the detriment of adaptability.

Characteristics of Organizational Culture

According to Keyton (2011), there are five important characteristics of organizational culture.

1) Organizational culture is inextricably linked to organizational members

Organizational culture cannot exist independently of the group members who created it (Schein, 1992; Keyton, 2011). According to Schein (1990), any definable group with a common history and shared experiences will have a culture, which can be viewed in many different ways. Organizational culture must be shared by a group that can vary in size (Schein, 1992; Keyton, 2011). Culture, which is intangible, involves human behaviors of all members of the organization who interact with one another; and therefore communicate through organizational practices, values, stories, goals, and philosophies (Teegarden et al., 2011; Hofstede, 2001).

2) Organizational culture is dynamic, not static

Organizational culture is not easy to change once it stabilizes, yet, it is dynamic as it evolves depending on both internal and external circumstances (Keyton, 2011; Hofstede, 2001). However, changes happen when new people join the organization and others leave. The incoming employees bring perspectives that can influence the existing culture; they get socialized into the status quo and adjust to this evolved culture as the “way of doing things” (Cooke & Rousseau, 1988). Organizational culture can also change when leadership adopts

different approaches due to pressure in meeting its clients' needs or completing the mission successfully (Keyton, 2011).

3) Organizational culture has competing values and assumptions

Organizational culture is not a single entity but it has different dimensions (Cameron & Quinn, 1999). An organization may include several culturally different departments, which departments may consist of culturally different work groups (Hofstede et al., 1990). Group members have an opportunity to create more than one belief system, or subculture, with overlapping and distinguishing elements leading to multiple and potentially competing values and assumptions (Keyton, 2011). However, there will be a dominant culture, or a subculture within an organization, and it is not unusual to have a counter culture in a particular organization (Cooke & Rousseau, 1988; Schein, 1990; Cameron & Quinn, 1999). According to Cooke and Rousseau (1988), subcultures echo the performances of innumerable diverse work and social environments within an organization, while counter cultures are ways of thinking and believing that are in direct conflict with dominant cultures. Kondra and Hurst (2009) state that subculture members are likely to share a slightly different understanding about the organization due to internal influence from their specific department and altered frame of mind.

4) Organizational culture has a foreground and background

Group members make sense of their current actions (foreground) based on their understanding of the existing organizational culture (background) (Keyton, 2011). If the members create, enhance, or contradict the existing culture, it leads to a new background against which future responses are interpreted (Keyton, 2011).

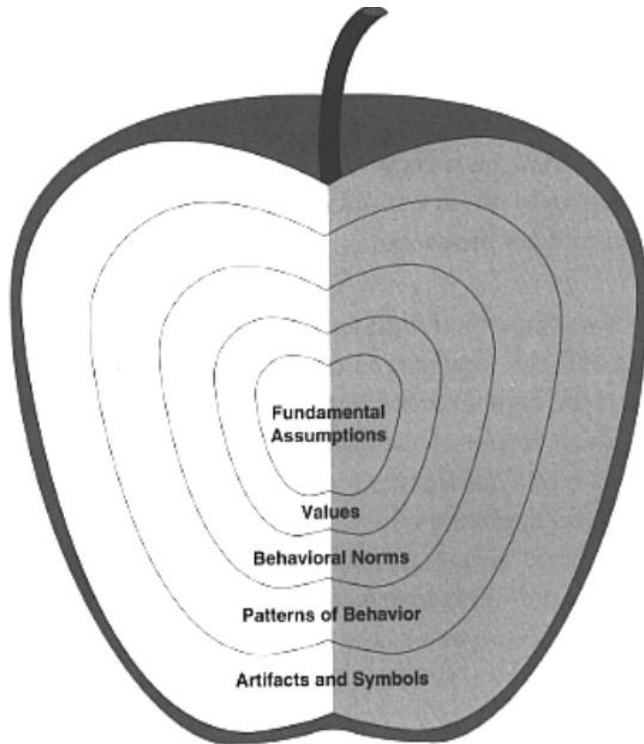
5) *Organizational culture helps in sense-making*

The different levels of organizational culture (i.e. artifacts, values, and basic assumptions) help in *sense-making*, in which is the process group members give meaning to their actions and also convey the emotions they experience in their work and its work environments (Keyton, 2011). Through the sense-making process, organizational culture helps its members to deal with pressures from work and from sources outside work, while the organization continues with its mission (Schein, 1990).

Levels of Organizational Culture

Organizational culture is a multilevel construct which is manifested through: a) artifacts and symbols, b) values, and c) basic underlying assumptions. These elements help the employees to make sense of the organization they work for, create a cognitive stability that helps them feel comfortable around others in the same organization and deal with external factors (Schein, 1990).

Figure 2a. Levels of Organizational Culture (Adapted from Schein 1985)



a) *Artifacts and symbols*

The first level of organizational culture deals with artifacts and symbols. The artifacts comprise visible and audible behavioral patterns among the members of the organization, as well as, a number of physical and technological features of the organization (Schultz, 1995). Artifacts include everything from “physical layout, the dress code, the manner in which people address each other, the smell and feel of the place, its emotional intensity, and other phenomena” (Schein, 1990 p.111). Artifacts also include the “more permanent archival manifestations such as company records, products, statements of philosophy, and annual reports” (Schein, 1990 p.111). On the other hand, symbols comprise words, gestures, and pictures that carry a particular meaning within an organization (Hofstede et al., 1990). Many of

the tangible, observable artifacts of an organization are under the scope of management (e.g., company logo, physical arrangement of the office) (Keyton, 2011; Cooke & Rousseau, 1988).

Although artifacts are visible and can be felt, they can deceive someone since they are not reliable indicators of how members of the organization feel (Schein, 1990). For example, the uniforms, the way people address each other, and how the offices are organized can indicate that one organization is more formal than another, but an outsider cannot tell what meaning it has to the employees (Schein, 1990). However, if an ethnographer lives long enough in an organization, he or she will understand the meanings of the artifacts and how they are perceived by the employees (Schein, 1993).

b) *Values*

The second level of organizational culture deals with values, or the professed culture of an organization's members (Schultz, 1995). A value is "a broad tendency to prefer certain states of affairs over others" (Hofstede, 2001, p.5). Values determine how a person perceives reality in a particular organization (Schein, 1993; Keyton, 2011). For individuals, values work as standards and principles that guide them into undertaking different actions and engaging in certain behaviors (Manz et al., 2005; West & Turner, 2007). While an individual may embrace personal values at this level, it is only the values shared by the group that are of use to organizational culture (Keyton, 2011). Organizational values are the beliefs and attitudes that permeate an organization and have been considered as the proscribed behaviors that are expected or required in the organization's functioning (Keyton, 2011). According to Schein (1992), a group reflects shared values, which are individuals' preferences regarding certain aspects of the organization's culture (e.g., loyalty, customer service). In accordance with Keyton (2011), values

that are often related to organizations and work include “prestige, wealth, control, authority, ambition, pleasure, independence, creativity, equality, tolerance, respect, commitment, politeness, and harmony” (p. 23). Values produce a high level of consciousness, because they are not accepted as the natural reality and can be made the object of discussion (Schultz, 1995).

Furthermore, Berry (2004) states that, the most important and influential values of an organization are unwritten and exist only in the shared norms, beliefs, and assumptions revealed in the organizational culture. Norms are informal rules that are unconsciously upheld, dictating how employees should behave in the organization and what reaction they should have to a particular behavior (Keyton, 2011). When organizational norms suggest a certain behavior, the employees of that organization will determine the appropriateness of going against the grain of those norms (Schein, 1992).

The emphasized values and existing norms in organizations will determine how employees perceive reality when dealing with external adaptation and internal integration (Schein, 1990; Keyton, 2011). Berry (2004) argues that organizational commitment to training employees about the written and unwritten values and beliefs, as laid down in the organization’s code of conduct and written policies, facilitates awareness and reduces negative activities. An organization must adequately and accurately address the employee’s ability to interpret the ethical standards of the organization as a way of promoting a shared understanding between both the written and unwritten code (Berry, 2004).

c) *Basic underlying assumptions*

Basic assumptions are found at the third and deepest level of organizational culture (Schein, 1990; Schultz, 1995; Keyton, 2011). Basic assumptions unconsciously guide the

behavior of employees by influencing them how to perceive, think, feel, and respond to situations in an organization (Schein, 1993). These assumptions include an individual's impressions on the trustworthiness and supportiveness of an organization, and are often deeply ingrained within an organization's culture (Schultz, 1995). According to Keyton (2011), members of the organization can hold these subtle and implicit assumptions concerning their relationships with other members, clients, customers, vendors, and other external stakeholders; considering their organizations and its performance.

Basic assumptions define the meanings of things in an organization, what an employee should pay attention to, and what actions they should take in various kinds of situations— all of which give the human mind cognitive stability, (Schein, 1993). Simply, the set of assumptions that make up the culture can be looked at as “defense mechanisms that permit the group to continue to function” (Schein, 1992 p. 23). Cognitive stability makes an employee feel comfortable around colleagues who share the same set of assumptions while cognitive instability results to discomfort and vulnerability in situations where a different set of assumptions operate (Schein, 1992). This emphasizes that an organizational culture cannot transfer between different organizations due to diverse cultural contexts.

Basic assumptions, which most often begin as values, develop slowly and have the tendency to be taken granted; hence, they are no longer examined and become less and less open to discussions (Schein, 1992). As a result, an organizational member who holds basic values is often unable to articulate them properly, hence, it is difficult to change them (Keyton, 2011). Once the basic assumptions stabilize and are held as the way of doing and interpreting things in an organization, it becomes difficult to change them, because they require deep

reexamination and a change in some of the stable portions of the human cognitive structure (Hofstede et al., 2010). Schein (1992) adds that such learning is essentially problematic because the reexamination of basic assumptions temporarily threatens an employee's cognitive and interpersonal world, letting loose quantities of basic nervousness.

Developing Organizational Culture in an Organization

Organizational culture is a learned behavior, which can be developed in different phases. When an organization is at its early stages, it relies mostly on the founder and its leaders in the forming of an organizational culture (Hofstede et al., 2010). In an organization, the founder plays a crucial role in culture formation by choosing the basic mission, the group members, the environmental context in which the new group will operate, and the initial responses the group makes in order to succeed and integrate within this environment (Schein, 1990). The founder's beliefs, values, and assumptions form the core of the organization from the start and are passed to new members. At the time of formation, the founder becomes the "definer" and creators who infuse values that he or she believes are necessary and good for achieving the mission (Denison, 1990).

Leaders and founders of the organization are the first and foremost influence in shaping the group thinking and creating an environment for organizational culture development because the group initially relies on their guidance (Schein, 1990). In addition, organizational leaders also have a major effect and impact on shaping the emerging culture in an organization (Schein, 1992). The leaders help to develop, shape, and maintain a desired organizational culture by creating and transmitting new sets of shared values and basic assumptions, which become routine in an organization (Jaskyte, 2004). According to Denison (1990), they transmit

culture in the thinking, feeling and behavior of the group. They also generate the employee's commitment to the organization's mission by stressing core values and promoting group loyalty, innovation, adaptability, and involvement (Denison, 1990).

As an organization grows and develops, the organizational culture is also influenced by the employees experience and practice (Schein, 1990). The existing employees draw on their own experiences, and the resulting culture reflects the group's experience as well as the parts of the leaders and founders' beliefs that seemed to work in practice (Schein, 1990). Later, when new members join the organization they are socialized to the existing culture but they also brings some individual values with them that influence how they adjust in the organization (Jaskyte, 2004). According to Jaskyte (2004), the learning experiences of group members evolves as new beliefs, values, and assumptions are brought into the organization by the new members and leaders. The leaders will motivate the group members toward achieving the mission of the organization. When new employees join an organization, they can reject the existing culture by introducing some competing values, which may tilt the existing culture if the group accepts the values (Ashforth &Anad, 2003; Beugré, 2010).

Embedding Corrupt Practices in an Organizational Culture

As mentioned above, organizational culture is developed by a founder's mission, leaders' values, and group's experience. While this organizational culture is formed, corrupt practices have the ability to be embedded in the organization's structure and therefore become part of the organizational culture (Ashforth & Anad, 2003). These corrupt practices can be embedded in the organizational culture through three different stages.

First, corrupt practices embed themselves into an organization when a first time critical incidence happens, in which the founder, leader, or even the group do not have a prior experience or laid guidelines of how to handle the occurring challenges (Schein, 1990). As Schein (1990) suggests in her study of critical incidents, the most important norms of a group are formed by the way they act to a critical occurring incidence. When pressure and the opportunity to engage in a corrupt practice begin to occur in a department, the underlying norms will be central to influence the member on how to respond (Vian, 2008). As a result, the responses of the management and employees, lead to the formation of a norm that becomes part of the organizational culture.

Those norms developed while a critical incidence takes place, become institutionalized in the second phase of developing an organizational culture that tolerates corrupt practices (Ashforth & Anad, 2003). Institutionalization is the process by which practices are enacted as a matter of routine, often without conscious thought about their propriety (Ashforth & Anad, 2003). As a practice becomes habitual, all the reflective triggers in the structures are ignored as a way to sustain the action without much thought (Ashforth & Anad, 2003). Institutionalized corrupt practices are not restricted to any single level in an organization and become an important part of daily activities to such an extent that the staff does not realize the inappropriateness of their actions (Ashforth & Anad, 2003). Routinizing not only breaks the corrupt practices into specialized tasks that are assigned to separate individuals, but it makes these individuals inter-dependent on another to fulfill their role making corruption less noticeable (Ashforth & Anada, 2003). As practices become a routine, corruption become normative, adaptive and enacted without much thought (Ashforth & Anada, 2003).

These routinized practices then lead to the third stage where they become socialized to the new members who join the organization (Keyton, 2011). An organization with a corrupt culture socializes new employees to corrupt practices who may have not initially engaged in corrupt practices in an organization if there was an alternative culture (Ashforth et al., 2008; Pinto et al., 2008; Vian, 2008). According to Schein (1990), the socialization process begins with the recruitment and selection of new members, who have inclinations toward the set of assumptions, beliefs, and values held in that particular organization. As a result, new employees begin to engage in questionable practices when they are socialized into an organizational culture that tolerates corrupt practices (Ashforth et al., 2008). However, Beugré (2010) argues that not every newcomer will embrace the corrupt practices, because some will have internalized societal norms of ethics which do not tolerate corrupt practices (Ashforth & Anad, 2003). Some of those new members who resist the existing corrupt culture may opt to leave the organization or create a counter culture which resists the dominant culture (Schein, 1990).

The new employees are socialized in using three tactics: cooptation, incrementalism, and compromise to introduce ongoing corrupt acts to new members (Ashforth & Anada, 2003; Manz et al., 2005). *Cooptation* utilizes rewards which work in a very subtle way by inducing new members to resolve the ambiguity prevailing in business scenarios while suiting their self-interests (Ashforth & Anada, 2003; Manz et al., 2005). In this way, new members are caught up unaware of their involvement in corrupt practices (Manz et al., 2005). *Incrementalism* encourages new members to engage in small acts of corruption, which may seem like they do not matter, are harmless, or irrevocable (Manz et al., 2005). The acts can create some cognitive conflict which is resolved by different types of rationalization techniques which the

organizational culture makes available for new members (Manz et al., 2005). Through the incremental socialization process, the newcomer starts to rationalize the corrupt behaviors which later become part of his or her routine (Ashforth & Anada, 2003). The new member *compromises* due to pressure coming internally from co-workers, and externally from friends individuals (often in good faith). The newcomer essentially reverts to corruptive tendencies under pressing dilemmas, role conflicts, or other problems (Manz et al., 2005; Vian, 2008).

As literature indicates, organizational culture can embed corrupt practices into the organization's structure through institutionalization process, socialization process, and when critical incidents occur. If the organization is tolerant of corrupt practices, they will become part of it and influence behaviors of the employees.

Theoretical Framework

Dimensions of Organizational Culture

Corruption has the possibility to enter the organizational culture due to its multiple dimensions that are measured differently depending on the organization dimensions, which vary according to the competing values in an organization (Cameron & Quinn, 1999). Studies indicate that that most organizations have some aspects of all dimensions and attributes of organizational culture (Schein, 1990; Baker, 2002). As a result, several organizational culture theorists such as Hofstede et al. (1990), Cameron and Quinn (1999), Denison and Spreitzer (1991), Cooke and Lafferty (1989) have conducted several studies to assess dimensions of organizational culture. These studies indicate that there are different dimensions of organizational culture, which show similarities as well as differences in their conceptual understanding (Baker, 2002). Out of these studies, there are different frameworks that have

been developed; out of these frameworks the Competing Values Framework (CVF) is the most important that will be used in this particular study to establish the different dimensions of organizational culture among the selected organizations. However, in order to evaluate the importance of CVF, there is the need to discuss previous studies that have looked into the dimensions of organizational culture.

Hofstede and his colleagues could be termed as the first scholars who laid the groundwork in a study conducted in the 1970's among European countries (Hofstede et al. 1980). Their study identified four major dimensions of national culture (power distance, uncertainty avoidance, masculine-feminine, and individualism-collectivism), which are distinct from organizational culture dimensions. This led to another study by Hofstede et al (1990) that focused on organizational culture and its development, establishing six dimensions of organizational culture, which include: *process oriented versus results oriented, employee oriented versus job oriented, parochial versus professional, open system versus closed system, loose versus tight control, and normative versus pragmatic*. According to Hofstede et al (2010) these dimensions describe the culture of an organization as opposed to being prescriptive, therefore, there is no position that is "intrinsically good or bad" (p. 370).

Following Hofstede's study, O'Reilly and his colleagues (1991) conducted a similar study in United States, using a sample of organizations, in which they identified seven dimensions of organizational culture. These seven dimensions are: innovative, stable, respecting of people, outcome oriented, detail oriented, team oriented, and aggressive (O'Reilly et al., 1991). O'Reilly's study came to a conclusion that the fit between an employee's inclination to a

particular dimension and the culture of the organization is related to commitment, satisfaction, and turnover (O'Reilly et al., 1991).

In the same time period of the early 1990s, when O' Reilly conducted his study, Daniel Denison established a model and framework in *Corporate culture and organizational effectiveness* that made significant contribution in understanding of the components and how organizational performance is influenced by culture. Denison (1990) identified four cultural traits (dimensions) labeled as: involvement, consistency, adaptability, and mission. These four dimensions describe the relationship between an organizational culture, its influences, and its effectiveness. According to Denison (1990), involvement refers to the level of participation by an organization's members in decision making. Consistency is the extent to which beliefs, values, and expectations are held consensually by members (Denison, 1990). Adaptability is the degree to which an organization has the ability to alter behavior, structures, and systems in order to survive in the wake of environmental change, while mission refers to the existence of a shared definition of the organization's purpose (Denison, 1990). Further, Denison (1990) mentions that involvement and consistency traits address the internal dynamics of an organization, but do not address the interaction of the organization with external adaptation. Adaptability and mission traits focus on the relationship between the organization and its external environment.

While the previous studies have established different dimensions of organizational culture, Delobbe et al. (2000) narrow them into four conceptual domains that are similar to the four dimensions established by Cameron and Quinn (1999) in the CVF. These domains include: people orientation, innovation orientation, outcome orientation, and bureaucratic orientation.

According to Delobbe et al. (2000), people orientation domain reflects a high prevalence of support, mutual support, respect, and cooperation among the members of an organization. Some of the dimensions that fit in this domain are “employee vs. job oriented” developed by Hofstede et al (1990), “clan culture” (Cameron and Quinn, 1999), “support culture”, and “team orientation” (O'Reilly et al., 1991). The domain of “innovation” reflects the willingness to take risks, to change, and a propensity to experiment (Delobbe et al., 2000). Some of the dimensions that fall under this category are “open vs. closed” (Hofstede et al., 1990); adhocracy culture (Cameron and Quinn, 1999) and innovation (O'Reilly et al., 1991). Control or “bureaucratic orientation” domain focuses more on the institutionalization of rules and procedures (Delobbe et al., 2000). Some of the dimensions that fall under this category are “loose vs. tight” (Hofstede et al., 1990) and “consistency” dimension (Denison, 1990). Hierarchy is prevalent in this domain and similar to hierarchy culture in the competing values framework and bureaucratic dimension prevalent in some instruments like Organizational Culture Index (Cameron & Quinn, 1999). The last domain is results orientation which focuses on the outcome and the level of expected performance in an organization (Delobbe et al., 2000). In Hofstede's practice dimensions, this dimension is bipolar: “process vs. results oriented” (Hofstede et al., 1990). In sum, these dimensions do not exist in a tangible sense, since they are constructs implying that just like values they cannot be directly observed but can be inferred from verbal statements and behaviors of the employees (Hofstede et al., 2010).

To allow comparisons across organizations and to study relationships between organizational culture and other constructs, several quantitative measurement instruments have been designed. These capture culture through a *priori* dimensions which are helpful only

to the degree that these dimensions are sufficiently relevant and generic. Among the measuring instruments, four of them have been viewed as the most commonly used in most organizational culture studies (Yun Seok et al., 2010; Delobbe et al., 2000). These instruments include (a) the Organizational Culture Profile (O'Reilly et al., 1991), (b) the Organizational Culture Index (Litwin & Stringer, 1968; Wallach, 1983), (c) the Organizational Culture Inventory (Cooke & Lafferty, 1989), and (d) the Competing Values Framework (Cameron & Quinn, 1999; Quinn & Spreitzer, 1991) which led to the development of the Organizational Culture Assessment Instrument (OCAI).

This study uses OCAI as the measuring instrument, which is a validated research method to examine organizational culture. The purpose of the OCAI is to assess six key attributes of organizational culture (Cameron & Quinn, 1999). The result is a profile of the current culture that is a combination of the four archetypes mentioned above. The six attributes include: dominant characteristics, organizational leadership, and management of employees, organizational "glue", strategic emphases, and criteria for success. According to Cameron and Quinn (1999), this list of six attributes is not comprehensive but it has proven to be adequate picture of the different dimensions that exists in an organization.

Competing Values Framework (CVF)

As the previous studies indicate, there are different frameworks that have established different dimensions of organizational culture; however, one of the most important frameworks is CVF. This framework was established by the researchers Robert Quinn and John Rohrbaugh in their article entitled "A competing values approach to organizational effectiveness" which was published in 1983. The CVF fits this particular study because of the

following reasons: it has few dimensions with broad implications and it includes only two competing dimensions which can be captured within the four dimensions of clan, hierarchy, market, and adhocracy. These four dimensions incorporate the essence of the most commonly accepted dimensions as analyzed by Delobbe et al. (2000). The CVF is empirically validated in cross-cultural research with a large number of studies establishing it as reliable framework that is relevant for this particular study (Yun Seok et al., 2010). In addition, OCAI has been applied in over 10,000 organizations making it one of the most used framework for the last two or three decades (Cameron & Quinn, 1999). The CVF has been considered as one of the most relevant model of our time in determining organizational culture (Cameron & Quinn, 1999).

According to Cameron and Quinn (1999), the CVF has been considered as one of the 50 most important models in management science. The CVF has been studied and tested in organizations for more than twenty five years by a group of thoughtful leaders from leading business schools and corporations. Several years back, the Ford Motor Company, in partnership with the University of Michigan, developed specific learning activities for management training and development programs in utilizing the CVF as a common construct for examining different complex issues and processes in an organization (Sendelbach, 1993). It has been found to be an extremely useful model for organizing and understanding a wide variety of organizational and individual phenomena, including theories of organizational effectiveness, leadership competencies, organizational culture, organizational design, stages of life cycle development, and organizational quality (Cameron & Quinn, 1999).

This framework has been used to investigate organizational culture in different areas such as sports, business, education, health, and the public sector, but has not been used to any

extent in the NGO sector (Yun Seok et al., 2010). The framework helps in identifying the underlying basic assumptions of an organization that influence the behaviors of its members (Cameron et al., 2006). It has also been used around the world and applied by researchers and practitioners to many aspects of organizations such as value, organizational culture, communication, and leadership among other areas (Cameron et al., 2006).

The CVF suggests that organizations can be characterized along two dimensions, each representing an alternative approach to basic challenges that all organizations must resolve for their survival (Cameron et al., 2006; Helfrich et al., 2007). The CVF's two core dimensions form four quadrants, each representing distinct cluster criteria that can be referred to any organizational relevant factors (Cameron et al., 2006). The framework reveals both the complexity of what the organizations and the decision makers face, and the integration of managerial and human resources concerns across organizations. According to the CVF, there are inherent tensions and contradictions that face different organizations and leaders as they adjust to the external environment and focus internally for their success (Quinn et al., 1991). The first set of competing values is the degree to which an organization emphasizes centralization and control over the organizational processes versus decentralization and flexibility (Quinn et al., 1991). For example, some organizations are viewed as effective due to their adaptability, organic nature, agility, and volatility which typify their performance and are keys to their success (Cameron & Quinn, 1999). Other organizations are viewed as effective if they are stable, predictable, and mechanistic—for instance, most universities and government agencies (Cameron & Quinn, 1999). The second set of competing values is the degree to which an organization is oriented toward its own internal environment and processes versus the

external environment and relationships with outside entities, such as clients (Quinn et al., 1991). Some organizations have great values associated with their harmonious internal characteristics while others have created value primarily by focusing on challenging or competing with others outside their boundaries.

The two dimensions discussed above create four quadrants, each representing a distinct set of core values that define what is seen as right and appropriate in a particular organization (Quinn et al., 1991). Each quadrant is competing with, or is contradictory to, the quadrant on the diagonal. According to Quinn et al. (1991), the vertical axis ranges from flexibility on one side and control on the other side; the horizontal axis ranges from internal focus on one side and external focus on the other. The four quadrants can be summarized as upper left quadrant (collaborate), for example, identifies value creation and performance criteria that emphasize an internal, organic focus, whereas the lower right quadrant (compete) identifies value creation and performance criteria that emphasize external, control focus. Similarly, the upper right quadrant (create) identifies value creation and performance criteria that emphasize external, organic focus whereas the lower left quadrant (control) emphasizes internal, control value creation and performance criteria (Quinn et al., 1991).

The CVF has been found to be an effective tool in a business setting for management training and development (Sendelbach, 1993; Thompson, 1993). Therefore, it has been used as a tool for education, training, and development of managerial leaders at various levels of application and at various levels of complexity. The CVF has been used in higher education institutions where it is being taught in many courses at both undergraduate and graduate levels (Thompson, 1993). According to a study conducted by Thompson (1993), most faculty members

that were interviewed indicated that the CVF is an economical and efficient tool for teaching because it accommodates the best material they have been using to teach management and leadership concepts. They added that, it has the capacity to capture the tensions and contradictions that are faced daily by managers in an organization.

This framework has been a holistic tool to organize and understand the apparent chaos of daily complexities that managers face in running their organizations. In his study Sendelbach (1993) demonstrates the strength of the CVF and how it can be used as a means of gaining a manageable perspective of complex situations due to the tensions and dilemmas that are inherent in organizations. While the previous study focused on government funded institutions, Dastmalchian, Lee & Ng (2000) study examined the concept of organizational culture using the CVF among thirty-nine Canadian and forty Korean organizations, which were from six different industries in Canada and South Korea. The study found that an organization scored either high or low depending on the industry. Hospitality and social services organizations consistently scored higher on both the innovative and employee-focused dimensions, while communications and utilities industries scored highest in the hierarchy and market dimensions.

Applying the CVF in an International Context

Further, this framework has been used not just in the United States but also worldwide including countries like Japan, China, Qatar, and South Korea; however, there is no literature indicating that the CVF has been used in any African countries to this point (Al-Khalifa & Aspinwall, 2001; Deshpande & Farley, 2004). Nonetheless, there are other studies that have applied the CVF in the international context, indicating that this framework has been successful in driving similar results in comparison to studies undertaken in the United States. For example,

Deshpande and Farley (2004) compared the impact of organizational culture on firm performance across several Asian countries, including China, Hong Kong, India, Japan, Thailand and Vietnam. The study found that the four dimensions of organizational culture were present among the studied organizations but the importance of each dimension differed significantly across countries. They concluded that externally oriented cultures outperform the internally oriented organizations.

Similarly, Kwan and Walker (2004) attempted to demonstrate that the CVF can be used not only to represent the culture of an organization but also to serve as a basis upon which an organization can be differentiated from others based on its organizational culture. The study was based on a survey administered to all academic staff in 7 out of the 8 government-funded higher education institutions in Hong Kong. Their empirical study in Hong Kong successfully confirmed the validity of the CVF as a tool in differentiating organizations on the basis of the four culture types. Another study conducted by Al-Khalifa and Aspinwall (2001) applied CVF to study the characteristics of organizational culture in Qatar industries in relationship to implementation of total quality management. This study which included respondents from Europe, U.S.A and Arab countries indicated that many industries in Qatar had a clan dominant dimension of organizational culture, but they also tended to be inclined towards a mix of hierarchical and rational characteristics. In addition, organizations in Qatar tend to emphasize measurement and documentation with the intention of bringing stability and control. Further, employees are expected to follow organizational rules, they are rewarded financially if they perform well, and managers are usually expected to monitor and co-ordinate activities to determine if the employees are complying with those rules (Al-Khalifa & Aspinwall, 2001).

These studies among others indicate modest support of CVF as a successful framework at both local and international context in determining the existence of the two competing values and the four dimensions of organizational culture (Panayotopoulou et al., 2003).

Organizational Culture Dimensions Based on Competing Values Framework

Looking at the CVF framework, Cameron and Quinn (1999) in their book *Diagnosing and Changing Organizational Culture* summarize organizational cultures into four groups, which have been cross-classified on two competing values dimensions. The four dimensions of culture are: clan, market, hierarchy, and adhocracy. These four dimensions fit in the four quadrants of the CVF. An organization inclines towards a particular quadrant or one dominant dimension, and therefore, do not have an ideal culture plot (Cameron & Quinn, 1999). An ideal culture plot implies that an organization does have all the four dimensions at the same time, however, these dimensions are not mutually exclusive; every organization expresses each dimension to some degree, yet most organizations emphasize some of these dimensions more than others (Quinn & Cameron, 1999). According to Cameron and Quinn (2011), more than 80 per cent of the several thousand organizations they have studied have been characterized by one or more of the culture dimension identified by the framework. However, those organizations that do not have a dominant culture type “either tend to be unclear about their culture or emphasize the four different cultural types nearly equally” (p. 52).

a) Clan culture

According to Cameron and Quinn (1999), a clan culture is similar to a family-type organization, which has a strong sense of shared values, cohesions, goals, teamwork, and employees’ involvement in decision making. The organization is committed to the welfare of its

employees because it views itself more as an extended family than an economic entity (Cameron & Quinn, 1999). Employees in this culture are viewed as partners and the main task of the leadership is to empower them and facilitate their participation, commitment, and loyalty (Cameron & Quinn, 1999). In Clan culture, which is similar to employee oriented culture discussed by Hofstede et al. (1990), employees' personal problems and welfare are considered when groups or committees are making decisions (Hofstede, 2001). Employees' involvement creates a sense of responsibility and ownership (Denison, 1990). In clan culture, success is defined in terms of the internal climate, concern for people and organization places a premium on consensus (Cameron & Quinn, 1999).

However, the clan culture view of an extended family may lead to an employee's inability to separate one's personal life from the organization's practices. This may create some pressure to engage in corruption so as to meet the needs of the family, relatives, friends, and community (de Graaf, 2007; Vian, 2008). A strong kinship and ethnic ties tend to be more conducive to cooperative type cultures, which are similar to clan culture found in developing nations, and are more likely to be engaged in corrupt practices (Duggars & Duggars, 2004).

b) Hierarchy culture

This culture is characterized by structured and formalized rules, which are the glue that holds the organization together resulting in stability, performance with efficiency, and a smooth operation (Cameron & Quinn, 1999). Hierarchy culture can be described as a tightly controlled culture, which is evidenced by large numbers of standardized procedures, multiple hierarchical levels, and an emphasis on rule-reinforcement (Hofstede et al., 1990). These structured rules and policies govern what the employees do within the organization (Cameron & Quinn, 1999).

These rules of hierarchical culture create consistency, with highly committed members and distinctive methods of doing business (Denison, 1990). However, this structured culture can overwhelm the employees at the expense of the rules (Baker, 2002). In this hierarchical culture, success is defined in terms of dependable delivery, smooth scheduling, and low cost. Its work environment is cost conscious as compared to a controlled loose culture which is less restrictive (Hofstede, 2001). The leaders pride themselves on being good coordinators and organizers who are efficiency-minded (Cameron & Quinn, 1999).

In hierarchical culture, employees have a clear set of do's and don'ts, which work as a guidance to them; hence, employees are aware of the cost of engaging in corrupt practices (Denison, 1990). An organization without proper checks and balances and with no accountability for both the power and resources entrusted to the office holders is more likely to be perceived as corrupt (Uneke, 2010). The employees from a hierarchy culture are left with limited discretion, because consequences of engaging in corruption are clearly stipulated (Vian, 2008). Therefore, a hierarchical culture that is consistent in its values and norms, with well socialized members, will lower the chances of employees engaging in corrupt practices.

Prop. 1. Organizations characterized by a dominant dimension of clan culture are likely to have higher tolerance of corrupt practices than organizations characterized by a dominant dimension of hierarchy culture.

c) Market Culture

An organization characterized by a market dimensions is oriented toward the external environment instead of internal affairs (Cameron & Quinn, 1999). It is focused on transactions with mainly external constituencies including suppliers, clients, licensees, contractors, and regulators. The underlying assumptions in this culture are that the external environment is

aggressive, competitive, and the clients are interested in quality. As a result, the goal is to steer the organization towards results and outcomes (Cameron & Quinn, 1999).

An emphasis on winning is the glue that holds the organization together (Cameron & Quinn, 1999). Therefore, organizations characterized by market dimension have a sense of external mission, combined with control, which can be very successful. A sense of mission provides purpose and meaning to the employees; it also provides a clear sense of direction and goals that define an appropriate course of action for the organization and its employees (Denison, 1990). Since market culture is perceived as aggressive and competitive, the high levels of competition among employees lowers the incentives to engage in corrupt practices due to the high risks of corrupt behaviors (Sandholtz & Taagepera, 2005). Therefore, high competitive organizations are less tolerant of corrupt practices than less competitive culture.

d) Adhocracy culture

One function of organizational culture is to adapt to the ever changing environment by being creative and able to reconfigure itself rapidly when a new circumstance occurs (Cameron & Quinn, 1999). Organization dominated by adhocracy culture emphasizes on being at the leading edge of new knowledge, products, and services (Cameron & Quinn, 1999). In addition, the organization's long-term emphasis is on rapid growth, acquiring new resources, and readiness for change. Denison (1990) characterizes this culture as a high adaptability culture as employees are willing to take risks and open to new ideas. In the adhocracy culture, which is similar to the result oriented culture in Hofstede's model, the employees are comfortable in new territories; perceive themselves prepared to face any new challenges as they put maximum effort into their work (Hofstede et al. 1990). In this culture, a commitment to

innovation and entrepreneurship holds the organization together, while success means producing unique and original products and services (Cameron & Quinn, 1999).

As an organization responds to its external environment, it requires the capacity to restructure and reinstitutionalize a set of behaviors and processes (Denison, 1990). These adjustments can open up a new frontier of confusion among employees as they figure out a new framework of norms and practices (Denison, 1990). Among organizations that are characterized by this dimension operate with a lot of flexibility and discretion so as to adapt themselves to new locations. The employees are likely to engage in corrupt practices so as to adapt themselves and gain some acceptance among local people (Rodriguez et al., 2005).

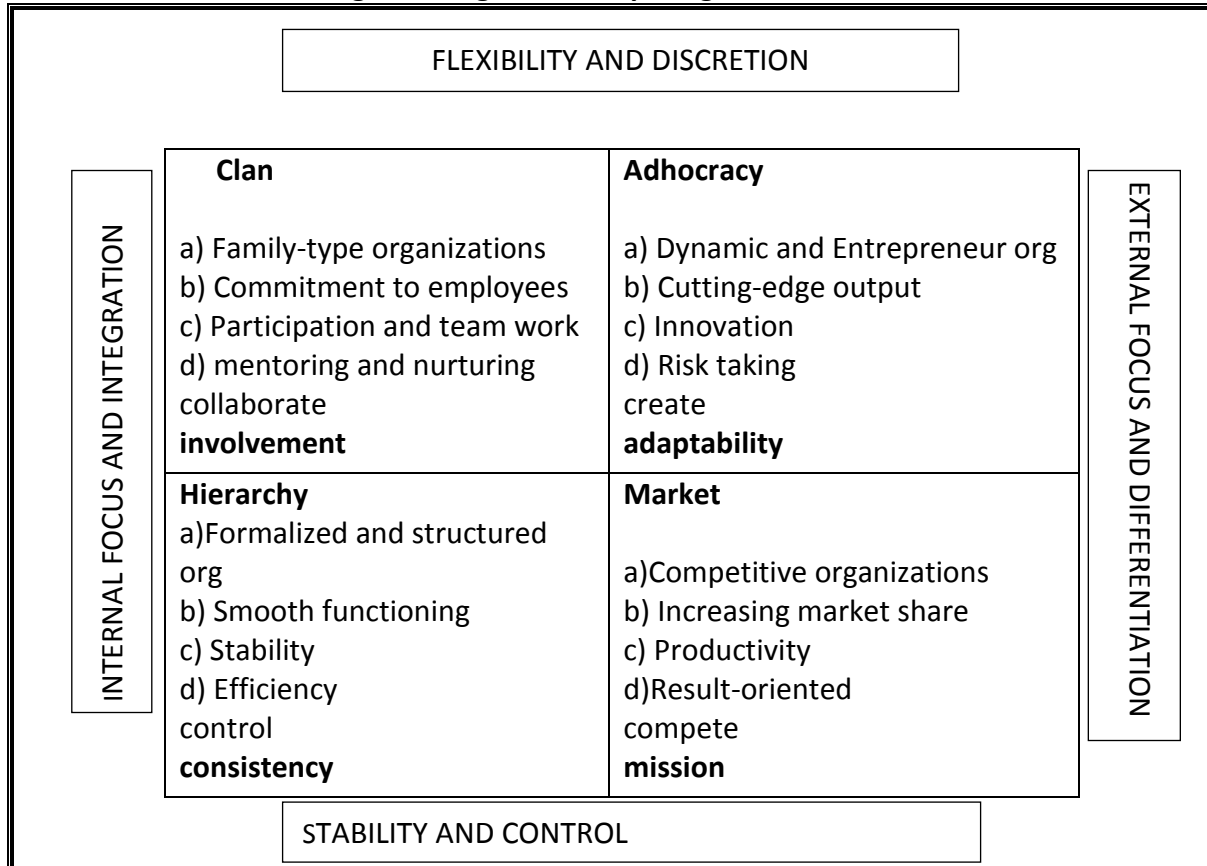
Prop. 2. Organizations characterized by a dominant adhocracy culture are likely to have higher tolerance of corrupt practices than organizations dominated by market culture.

In summary, the four dimensions focus on different aspects of culture but more importantly, they stress different functions of culture (Baker, 2002). An organization with an internal focus, an emphasis on control and adherence to rules leading to stability is placed in the lower left side of the quadrant-hierarchical culture (Helfrich et al., 2007). An organization with an internal focus, an emphasis on importance on flexibility, and participation is placed in the upper left side of the quadrant-clan culture (Helfrich et al., 2007). An organization with an external focus, an emphasis on flexibility, creativity, and innovation is placed in the upper right side of the quadrant-adhocracy culture (entrepreneurial culture) (Helfrich et al., 2007). Organizations with an external focus – with an emphasis on control and clarity of task and goal that are labeled as, market culture (rational culture) – are placed in the lower right side of the quadrant (Helfrich et al., 2007). Organizations that are in the upper quadrants which are

characterized by flexibility and discretion are likely to be perceived as more corrupt than organizations that are in the lower quadrants characterized by control and stability.

Prop. 3. Organizations that are characterized by dominant clan and adhocracy cultures are likely to have higher level of tolerance of corrupt practices than organizations that are characterized by dominant hierarchy and market cultures.

Fig. 2b Integrated Competing Values Framework



Source Cameron and Quinn (1999), *Diagnosing and Changing Organizational Culture: Based on the Competing Values Framework*, Addison-Wesley, New York, NY.

Chapter Summary

The literature review clearly indicates that the role of NGO sector in developing nations and Kenya in particular has been significant. However, some of them have been caught up in the web of corruption that has become engrained in the fabric of daily lives of most Kenyans.

Unfortunately, the influence of the different dimensions of organizational culture among the NGOs has not been given much attention as there is sparse literature. On the other hand, little literature exists that empirically that there is a link between organizational culture and corruption and especially among the NGOs. As a result, there is clearly a gap in the literature to be filled concerning in particular the link between organizational culture and tolerance of corrupt practices among the NGOs. The research question will attempt to start closing this gap when addressing whether there is a link between the organizational culture and corruption among the NGOs in Kenya. The CVF framework will be used to establish the four dimensions of organizational culture and how they influence the tolerance of corruption in an organization.

The next chapter will present the research methodology applied to support the three propositions used in this research to collect and analyze evidence on the relationship between organizational culture and tolerance of corruption among the NGOs in Kenya.

CHAPTER 3

RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY

Introduction

There is no doubt that Non-Governmental Organizations (NGOs) have played a huge role alongside private and public sectors in developing nations. A review of the organizational culture and corruption literature makes it clear that the culture of an organization is a major component for an effective organization performance (Cameron & Quinn, 1999). Organizational culture shapes organizational practices; helping employees to make sense out of their daily performances, hence, their attitudes toward corrupt practices are influenced positively or negatively (Keyton, 2011). This chapter addresses the research methodology and design used in this study. It describes the design of the study, data collection tools and how to analyze the data gathered. Finally, the Institution Review Board (IRB) process at Virginia Commonwealth University (VCU) is discussed.

Research question

Does a dominant dimension of organizational culture influence the tolerance of corrupt practices among NGOs in Kenya?

Research Design

In order to collect reliable information, a researcher needs a well-designed empirical strategy that gives respondents incentives to truthfully disclose their attitudes towards corrupt practices in an organization (Reinikka & Svensson, 2006). This study uses a case study research design. Case study research design has gained increased acceptance as a stand-alone research methodology applied in a variety of disciplines such as political science, sociology, public health,

and psychology (Bergen & While, 2000). According to Yin (2008), a case study is “an empirical inquiry that investigates a contemporary phenomenon in-depth and within its real-life context, especially when the boundaries between the phenomena and context are not clearly evident and in which multiple sources of evidence are used” (p.18). The essence of a case study is the in depth examination of a small sample in its real life context resulting in a comprehensive understanding of the case. The advantage of a case study research design is that the researcher can concentrate on the specific and relevant cases, which are likely to yield relevant data (Gerring, 2004).

Why Case Studies Design?

According to Yin (2008), the main factors that determine when to use a case study research design are: the research question, control over access to actual behavioral events, the degree of focus on contemporary rather than historical events, and the ability to use multiple sources. These three factors compelled the researcher to consider a case study research design as the best suited option for this study.

a) The research question

A case study research approach is considered to be particularly important to “*how*” or “*why*” questions, as opposed to questions of ‘*who*’, ‘*what*’, ‘*how many*’ or ‘*how much*’. The latter questions deal with frequencies and incidences and are more suitable to survey type approaches (Bergen & While, 2000; Yin, 2008). The research question in this study, which is whether the dominant dimension of an organizational culture influences tolerance in an organization, is designed to gain a deeper understanding of these two phenomena, i.e. organizational culture and corruption (Cooke & Rousseau, 1988). The detailed accounts

produced in this case study design will help to explain the complexities of the two phenomena in real-life situations, which may not be captured through experimental or survey research (Yin, 2008).

b) Control over access to actual behavioral events

According to Yin (2008), case study research design is preferred when the relevant behaviors cannot be manipulated in their context. Yin (2008) adds that it is difficult to manipulate the phenomenon and expect to receive the same results. Although studying corruption is complex because it is conducted in secret, Kaufmann (1997) argues that, with appropriate research methodology and interview techniques, respondents are willing to discuss corruption with remarkable sincerity. The need for a case study design arises out of the desire to understand a complex social phenomenon. A case study design allows the researcher to retain holistic and meaningful characteristics of real life events such as organizational culture and corruption.

c) Multiple sources of evidence

According to Heller (2008), a study of corruption requires multiple data sources or tools to offer a deeper and more nuanced understanding because no single data source or tool can offer a perfect measurement. This makes a single measurement index, like a quantitative or qualitative approach, insufficient as this does not provide an in-depth and detailed understanding of corruption (Heller, 2008). Yin (2008) states a case study design's unique strength is its ability to deal with multiple sources of evidence like documentation, interviews, observations, and artifacts. Therefore, the ability of a case study design to use multiple sources of data make the design best positioned to deal with unique phenomena like corruption. As a

result, the combination of both surveys and interviews in this study provides a more comprehensive understanding of the two phenomena (Creswell & Plato Clark, 2007).

Case study research design can be divided according to the number of cases in the research design (single-case vs. multiple-case), the number of units of analysis within each case (holistic vs. embedded), and their roles (exploratory, descriptive, explanatory or combined) (Yin, 2008). A single-case study is just an examination of one individual or group, while multiple cases involve examining more than one case. According to Gerring (2004), the number of cases (N) employed by a case study may be one, many, small or large, which determine whether it is a single-unit or multiple cases. Case study research design can be divided according to the number of units of analysis within each case (Yin, 2008). A holistic design includes a single unit of analysis and its aim is to study the global nature of the phenomenon. An embedded design includes multiple units of analysis, which may include main and smaller units on different levels looking for consistent patterns of evidence across units, but within a case (Yin, 2008).

Case study design can also be classified into three categories depending on the roles: the exploratory (traditional form), the descriptive, and the explanatory (Yin, 2008). Exploratory case study is aimed at defining the questions and hypotheses of a subsequent study or at determining the feasibility of the desired research procedures. Exploratory case studies explore those cases where limited research exists (Yin, 2008). A descriptive case study presents a complete description of phenomena within its context (Yin, 2008). According to Gerring (2004), a descriptive case study asserts how a component under study is different or similar to other comparable units. It does not make any assertions about the causal relationships occurring

beyond the units. An explanatory case study presents data bearing on cause-effect relationships, explaining which cause produced effects (Yin, 2008).

This study is a holistic, descriptive multiple case study design. Although the body of literature in a case study research remains limited in comparison to that of an experimental or a quasi-experimental study, the requirements and flexibility of a case study make it the only viable option in this study (Tellis, 1997). A multiple-case design is considered to have more compelling evidence than a single-case design (Yin, 2008). Even though a multiple-case design requires more resources and time, it is regarded as more robust than a single unit (Yin, 2008). It permits the researcher to make generalizations based on the observations of patterns or replications among cases (Gerring, 2004).

According to Yin (2008), there are four stages in a case study methodology: a) designing the case study, b) conducting the case study, c) analyzing the case study evidence, and d) developing conclusions, recommendations, and implications.

Designing a Case Study Design

According to Yin (2008), designing a case study design involves: a) defining the unit of analysis and the cases to be studied, b) developing propositions, c) identifying the case study design, and d) defining procedures to maintain case study quality. This section will begin with defining the unit of analysis, selecting the sample cases, and developing propositions and variables. The procedures to maintain case study quality will also be discussed at the end of the section.

Target Population

Population represents a total set of units that a researcher is interested in or the larger set from which a sample is drawn (O'Sullivan et al., 2008). According to the NGO Coordination Board website, there were 7,292 registered NGOs at the time of this study (NGO Coordination Board, 2011). This data is collected by the NGO Coordination Board, which is mandated to register and monitor all the NGOs' activities in Kenya. The NGO Board database contains information such as the NGO's name, postal and physical addresses, contact information, registration date, objectives, mission statement, origins, and its geographical location (NGO Coordination Board, 2011).

Sample Selection

A unit of analysis is the actual source of information, which may be a person, an organization or a department within an organization (Yin, 2008). The unit of analysis in this study was an individual respondent selected from each participating organization referred to as a case.

The sample size was drawn from 2,541 NGOs currently located in Nairobi City, which was the site of research. Nairobi City was selected as a research site due to its location, the number of organizations that are located and operating there, and the availability of reliable infrastructure (Ndegwa, 1996). It also serves as the headquarters for many prominent international organizations, including offices serving offices of the United Nations and international agricultural research institutes (Harsh et al., 2010).

Case selection must be determined by the research purposes (questions, objectives, propositions) and accessibility constraints (whether the data needed can be collected from an

individual case) (Rowley, 2002). The researcher in this study considered the accessibility of the selected cases in terms of collecting the needed information using less time and at a lower cost before deciding on the number of cases. According to Gerring (2004), the selected cases should be a sub-set of the target population with an aim of estimating the characteristics of the whole population. The sample size was purposively selected in quantitative and qualitative phases. In the quantitative phase, 30 organizations were purposively selected from the 2,541 organizations based in Nairobi.

The sample cases were selected based on organizational characteristics such as organizational size, the length of its existence, and services offered, in order to ensure there was a meaningful variation. The selected organization had more than 10 employees, which was enough to select five employees as participants. The selection of the number of participants is related to a study by Denison that selected organizations with at least 10 employees or more (Denison, 1996).

This study only chose organizations that had been in operation in Kenya for at least five years. The number of years in operation was deemed important due to the fact that organizational culture is developed over a long period of time, and previous studies have preferred organizations that have been in operation for five years or more (Denison, 1996). Similarly, Dastmalchian et al. (2000), who applied competing values framework (CVF) in their study, selected organizations that had existed for five years or more. The study indicated that organizations that had existed for five years or more had reliable outcomes.

NGOs in Kenya provide diversified functions like service and expressive functions (Barrow & Jennings, 2001). The study focused on those organizations providing human services,

such as famine relief, education, water, and health, as opposed to those organizations providing other services, like environmental protection, sports training programs, and other expressive functions (Barrow & Jennings, 2001). The decision to exclude some of the organizations was based on the limited resources and time.

Participants

The respondents were identified using the organization's web page, while other employees were selected by snowballing—relying on the respondents to give contacts of other potential respondents in the organization (Creswell, 2008). From each selected organization, at least five respondents were selected based on their title positions (managerial and non-managerial), in order to ensure meaningful variation. The respondents identified were employed in a particular organization for at least twelve months on a full time basis. According to Schein (1990), an employee needs to be part of the organization for a period of time before he or she can understand the organizational culture. Hence, this study was supposed to choose a participant who had worked in for twelve month mark in order to have better outcomes. Further, Gilboa's study clarifies that employees who work for an organization over a longer time have a distinct understanding of organizational culture (Gilboa, 2010).

Propositions

Propositions are statements that help direct attention to something that should be examined in a case study (Baxter & Jack, 2008). The three propositions developed in the literature review, are comparative in reference to the different dimensions of organizational culture. They increased the feasibility of completing the research by placing limits on the scope of the study (Baxter & Jack, 2008).

Prop. 1. Organizations characterized by a dominant clan dimension are likely to have a higher tolerance for corrupt practices than organizations characterized by a dominant hierarchy dimension.

Clan and hierarchy cultures focus on the internal dynamics of an organization, as opposed to interaction of the organization with external adaptation (Denison, 1990). Denison (1990) argues that a hierarchical culture, which emphasizes high control, will have lower tolerance of employees engaging in corrupt practices than a clan culture, which emphasizes centralization.

Prop. 2. Organizations characterized by a dominant adhocracy dimension are likely to have a higher tolerance of corrupt practices than organizations dominated by market dimension.

Market culture places emphasis on control and is characterized by clarity of tasks and goals, while adhocracy places emphasis on flexibility and has a high propensity to change (Delobbe et al., 2000; Helfrich et al., 2007). According to Sandholtz and Taagepera (2005), low levels of competition among employees increase the incentives to engage in corrupt practices, making highly competitive organizations less tolerant of corrupt practices. Therefore, an organization with higher competition among its employees is likely to have a lower tolerance for corruption as compared to an organization that emphasizes adaptability and change (Franke & Nadler, 2008).

Prop. 3. Organizations that are characterized by dominant clan and adhocracy dimensions are likely to have a higher level of tolerance for corrupt practices than organizations that are characterized by dominant hierarchy and market dimensions.

The literature suggests that employees are likely to be prone to corruption when they enjoy a monopoly, and have wide discretion with little or no accountability (Riley, 1998; Vian, 2008). According to Uneke (2010), an organization with proper checks and balances that

exercises accountability is likely to have less tolerance for corrupt practices. As a result, organizations with strong kinship and flexibility values are likely to have a higher tolerance of corrupt practices than organizations with individual achievement and control values.

Independent Variables

An independent variable is a variable that is hypothesized or manipulated to cause the change or influence the dependent variable (Frankfort-Nachimias & Nachimias, 2008).

The *dominant dimension of organizational culture* is the independent variable, which was indicated by the four dimensions, also referred to as types of organizational culture: clan, hierarchy, market, and adhocracy (Cameron & Quinn, 1999). The independent variable was measured using the OCAI instrument and six interview questions derived from OCAI. The strength of an organizational culture was determined by the number of points awarded to a particular cultural dimension. The score awarded to a particular cultural dimension indicated its dominance among the other three dimensions.

The OCAI tool was selected because it is the most succinct questionnaire, consisting of six questions, and each question had four alternatives, thus making a total of 24 items, very convenient for practical operations. Each question was worth 100 points, and the respondents were required to divide the 100 points among these four alternatives, depending on the extent to which each alternative is similar to their own organization. The respondents were expected to award a higher number of points to the alternative that was most similar to their organization. For example, in question one, if a respondent thought alternative *A* was very similar to his or her organization, alternatives *B* and *C* somewhat similar, and alternative *D*

hardly similar, he or she could give 55 points to *A*, 20 points each to *B* and *C*, and five points to *D* (Cameron & Quinn, 2011).

Scoring OCAI requires simple arithmetic calculations. The first step is to add together all *A* responses and divide by 6. That is, compute an average score for the *A* alternatives. Next, add together all *B* responses and divide by 6. This computation is repeated for the *C* and *D* alternatives (Cameron & Quinn, 2011). Column *A* is clan culture, *B* is adhocracy, *C* is market culture, and *D* is hierarchy culture.

Dependent Variable

A dependent variable reflects the influences of the independent variable (Creswell, 2008). The dependent variable in this study is *tolerance of corrupt practices*.

Tolerance of corrupt practices (TC)

The tolerance of corruption in an organization can be determined by the attitude of employees towards corruption in an organization, the likelihood of corrupt practices occurring in an organization, and the policy that guides an organization in dealing with corrupt practices (Gorta, 2001). The attitude of an employee regarding corruption is defined as how one perceives a practice to be acceptable or justifiable (Gorta, 2001). Although corruption is morally wrong in nearly all cultures, some corrupt practices may be perceived as acceptable depending on how an employee rationalizes the practice (Gorta, 2001).

The tolerance for corrupt practices was measured by the perception of likelihood of a corrupt practice occurring in an organization (Gorta, 2001). According to Truex (2011), when the level of corruption increases in an organization, the employees will in turn engage in more corrupt behaviors because the expected rate of detection and punishment decreases. As a

result, the likelihood of corrupt practices occurring in an organization may be a reflection of an environment that tolerates corrupt practices.

This study tested whether a practice was considered justifiable by asking if it was corrupt or not. According to the National Nonprofit Ethics Survey (2007), an organization with well-implemented ethics and a compliance policy is likely to avoid an increase in corrupt practices. Additionally, values promoted through informal communications should be complementary and congruent with an organization's official values (NNES, 2007). For example, tolerance for corruption can be determined by how organizational leadership encourages employees to engage in some practices and how management handles reported cases of corrupt practices (Ashforth & Anad, 2003). An organization that is consistent in its written and unwritten anti-corruption policies will have a low tolerance for corruption (Denison, 1990).

To collect information about the dependent variable, the study used 10 scenarios during the survey and five scenarios in the face-to-face interviews, which maximized the response rate and minimized respondent fatigue (Gorta, 2001). The scenarios highlighted different types of corrupt practices (favoritism, nepotism, bribery and kickbacks, abuse of power, theft of inventory, negligent of duty, fraudulent claims, and conflicts of interest) that could potentially occur in an organization to measure the level of tolerance (Gorta, 2001). Scenarios or vignettes mostly take the form of a written narrative, which can be used in self-administered questionnaires and in face-to-face interviews (Finch, 1987; Hughes, 1999). They are based on simulations of real events, which can be related easily without the respondents implicating anyone in corrupt practices (Gorta, 2001). Due to the complex nature of corruption, vignettes are the most appropriate techniques for collecting data on corruption (Spalding & Philips,

2007). In addition, the respondent is not likely to bias his report consciously while looking for social approval from the interviewer (Alexander & Becker, 1978). However, vignettes have been criticized because respondents are required to make judgments, which are too abstract. As a result, the respondents answer the vague questions in their own mental picture as opposed to a real situation (Alexander & Becker, 1978).

The scenarios used in this study were modified from previous studies undertaken in the public sector to measure the attitudes of employees regarding corruption (Gorta, 2001; van der Merwe & Harris, 2011). One of the studies was conducted by the Independent Commission Against Corruption (ICAC) Research Unit in Australia, which was based on the premise that employee or work place attitudes toward corruption are more salient in governing behavior than formally imposed definitions (Gorta, 2001). Similarly, van der Merwe and Harris (2011) used scenarios in their study on the attitudes of students toward public sector corruption in South Africa. In both studies, the number of scenarios used varied; however, they were within a range of ten scenarios in each study so as to minimize fatigue (Gorta 2001). Nonetheless, the modified scenarios in this study were based on various acts of corruption and designed around five activities which are common to public and private sectors: the use of office resources for personal use, the tendering process, staff recruitment selection, falsification of documents, and appropriation of an organization's funds (Tanzi, 1998; Holloway, 2004). This modification was based on the fact that corruption is not a single activity but includes different acts such as theft, fraud, bribery, extortion, nepotism, patronage and laundering of illicit proceeds, and any deviation of funds for personal gain (Groenendijk, 1997; Holloway, 2001).

The respondents were asked the same questions, which involved considering if the act was corrupt, acceptable and likely to occur and rate them on a five point scale. The collected data from the ten scenarios was then averaged according to the four variables. An average of each variable was calculated, which became the new variables (*corruptionaverage*, *likelihoodaverage*, *acceptanceaverage*, and *policyaverage*) that were used in this study as the variables for the tolerance of corrupt practice.

Demographic Variables

Gender

Gender was a dichotomous variable that was measured by asking the respondent to select male (0) or female (1). This variable was intended to examine whether being male and female had any significant correlation with tolerance of corrupt practices.

Age in Years

Participant's age was a categorical variable consisting of five categories: (1) =20-29, (2) =30-39, (3) =40-49, (4) =50-59, and (5) =60 years and above. This variable was included to determine if age was significantly correlated with tolerance of corrupt practices.

Education

The respondent educational level variable had five categories: 1= high school education or some college education, (2) = four years degree, (3) = master's degree, (4) = doctoral degree and (5) = professional degree. Education variable was used to examine if education had any significant correlations with the tolerance of corrupt practices.

Years of Employment

The number of years one had worked in an organization was used to predict if it was significantly correlated with tolerance of corrupt practices. The years of employment was a categorical variable with three groups: (1) = those employed between 1 and less than 3 years; (2) = those who were employed between 3 to 5 years; and (3) = those employed more than 5 years.

Position Title

This variable was included to predict if one's position within an organization had any correlation with tolerance of corrupt practices. It was a categorical variable that consisted of two groups: (1) = management; (2) = non-management.

Language Used

This variable was meant to determine the language used in the office, and whether it was correlated to tolerance of corrupt practices. Language variable was a categorical variable that consisted of three groups: (1) = English; (2) = Kiswahili; (3) = Other.

Scale Reliability and Validity of the Scales

To determine the internal consistency of the scales, Cronbach's alpha coefficient (α) was used. It is considered to be the most widely used measure of instrument reliability that estimates the internal consistency or average correlation of items in a survey instrument (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007). Cronbach's alpha is a measure of reliability that ranges from 0 to 1, with values above 0.5 being the lower limit of acceptability. An acceptable alpha level (.70) indicates that the scale items are tightly connected (Frankfort-Nachmias & Nachmias, 2007).

There are several studies that indicate OCAI to be a reliable and valid instrument in measuring organizational culture, as well as an effective tool in measuring organizational performance in the U.S.A. and at the international level (Quinn & Spreitzer, 1991; Cameron & Quinn, 1999; Yun Seok et al., 2010). Quinn and Spreitzer (1991) reported a Cronbach's alpha coefficient for reliability that was greater than 0.70, using a sample of 800 participants from 86 different public organizations.

This study also found the OCAI to be reliable, as all four dimensions reported a Cronbach's alpha coefficient for reliability that was greater than 0.70, which is the conventional cut-off. Clan culture had an alpha of .847, adhocracy culture had .724, and market culture had .831 and .818 for hierarchy culture. Adhocracy culture had the lowest reliability estimate of .724.

Tolerance of corruption was measured using four variables with ten items each. The first variable, *acceptance of corrupt practice*, had .848 Cronbach's alpha score; *corrupt variable* is the second variable with .817; *likelihood variable* has .878 alpha, and the fourth variable which is the organization *policy variable*, had .928 Cronbach's alpha score. The four variables had a reliability coefficient of above .8, thus each scale was found to be reliable. Therefore, it appears that the data collected from the instrument was reliable. Unfortunately, there was no existing study to compare with the Cronbach's alpha score.

Conducting the Case Study

Before a researcher starts collecting case study data, he or she should develop case study protocol, conduct a pilot study, and gain approval for human subjects (Yin, 2008).

Pilot Case Study

Before collecting data, the researcher conducted a pilot study. The pilot case study helps the researcher to refine data collection plans with “respect to both the content of the data and the procedures to be followed” (Yin, 2008, p.92). Creswell (2008) recommends the pilot test to be conducted using a small group of people who are similar to the sample population. Four employees familiar with the operations of the NGOs were selected for the pilot test. The pilot test provided feedback that helped in refining the questionnaire and the scenarios.

Internal Review Board (IRB) Process

In order to protect the privacy and confidentiality of human subjects, the researcher sought the University’s Institutional Research Board (IRB) approval. The purpose of the IRB is to ensure that the study will not impose any physical, social, economic, or psychological risk to the subject (Creswell, 2009). Because this study involves human subjects, the IRB proposal documents were approved after being submitted for expedited review, as the study did not involve more than minimal risk to the participants.

Data Collection

In collecting case study evidence the researcher is required to follow case study protocol. Case study protocol includes: a) an overview of the case study project, b) field procedures, such as the use of different sources of information and access arrangements to the sources, and c) case study questions, or the questions that the case study needs to keep in mind when collecting data (Rowley, 2002; Yin, 2008). In addition to case study protocol, Yin (2008) says that there are three key principles of data collection that every researcher needs to observe regardless of the gathering evidence tool used. The first protocol is usage of multiple

sources of evidence for triangulation. Triangulation uses data from different sources to corroborate the same findings. This increases the degree of accuracy and confidence in one's interpretation of a phenomenon (Rowley, 2002).

The second protocol involves creating a case study database. This principle encourages the organization and documentation of the collected data for the case study in a formal and presentable way, so that other investigators can review the evidence directly without any limitation. The third protocol is maintaining a chain of evidence. According to this principle, the researcher needs to maintain a chain of evidence to increase reliability of the gathered evidence (Yin, 2008). Additionally, the report should reveal the circumstances in which the evidence was collected, so that circumstances should be consistent with the specific procedures and questions contained in the case study protocol.

The three protocol principles were observed in data collection. This study applied both survey and questionnaires as data collection tools based on the rationale that a single data collection method is insufficient to provide adequate and accurate results. Multiple tools used in this study provided detailed information concerning each organization. The final report was documented in a formal and presentable way to make sure it could be reviewed by an external person without a limitation. Proper documentation and appropriate citations of documents and interviews were maintained on the case study databases to enable an external observer to follow the derivation of evidence from the initial research question to the ultimate conclusion of the study.

Gaining Initial Access

In the first phase, the researcher sent an electronic mail (e-mail) to the organizations introducing the study, including its purpose and, uses of gathered information, and requesting an opportunity to conduct the study of the selected organizations (Stake, 1995). The participants were reached directly after the researcher identified the participating organizations.

Surveys

The study used a web-based survey composed of the OCAI instrument and ten scenarios. The web-survey was a self-administered questionnaire. The advantages of a self-administered questionnaire include: a) potential anonymity of the respondent, which can lead to valid responses; b) the respondent can fill out the questionnaire at their convenience; and c) no bias from the interviewer (McNabb, 2007). The main weakness of a self-administered questionnaire is a low response rate, but this study raised the response by sending more than seven reminders to the respondents (Dillman et al., 2009). The survey was intended to take 30 minutes.

The questionnaire was sent via electronic mail to each respondent so that it could reach the respondents on time (Dilman et al., 2009). Electronic survey methods, which include web-based surveys and email surveys, have been on the rise as the number of people accessible through e-mail or the internet continues to grow even in the developing nations (Bradley, 1999). Electronic mail surveys can be divided into simple e-mail, an e-mail attachment, and a URL embedded e-mail. An e-mail survey was sent with URL link. Respondents were required to simply click on this hypertext link that presented them with a web-based questionnaire.

A web-based survey was selected due to lower delivery costs, less transmitting time, faster responses, and less data processing when compared to mail and telephone surveys (Fan, 2010). In a web-based survey, interviewers do not have to be hired or trained, no postage or printing bills must be paid, and no one has to transfer paper questionnaires into an electronic version (Schaefer & Dillman, 1998). In comparison with other survey modes, information and messages sent by e-mail will reach Nairobi, Kenya within minutes, while it can take almost three weeks by mail delivery from U.S.A (Fan, 2010). According to a study by Smee and Brennan (2000), the response speed concerning mail surveys was between 9.79 and 21 days, whereas the electronic surveys only took 2.5 to 9.6 days. This indicates that electronic response is faster and seemingly more efficient in comparison with the mail survey. However, Fan (2010) points out that e-mail surveys response rate is on average 11 percent lower than that of other survey modes.

Response Rate

As shown on Table 3.1, there were 185 participants that were purposively selected from the 30 organizations. The participants were contacted using electronic mails that included consent forms highlighting the purpose of the study and requesting their participation. Twenty of the emails were returned with an error message that indicated that either the person no longer worked for that particular organization or the email contact was wrong. The failed contacts were deleted from the database and 165 participants were left for the study. Later, ten participants declined to participate and requested to be removed from the database. The request was immediately implemented and their contact information was deleted from the database. After several weeks, three survey emails were returned with an error message

indicating the organization had blocked them. The emails came from specific organizations. A total of 50 participants never responded, despite receiving ten follow-up emails within a period of two months.

Table 3.1 Response Rate

Respondent Status	N	%
Total Usable Survey	105	56.8
Incomplete	1	0.5
Blocked survey	9	4.9
Failed Delivery	20	10.8
Not Responded	50	27.0
Total Survey	185	100

Overall, the analysis indicated that 105 survey responses were usable and only one survey was incomplete. The incomplete survey was excluded from the analysis. Using a multi-phase survey process, Dillman (2000) indicates that a response rate greater than 50 percent can be possibly attained. According to the analysis, 56.8 percent of the survey was usable. This response rate is quite high for an electronic survey, and therefore it is acceptable.

As shown in the table 3.2 below, two organizations had eleven respondents each (6.7%), while one organization had six employees who responded (3.3%). Two organizations had five respondents each (6.7%), and one organization had six respondents. Eight organizations had four respondents (26.7%), while six organizations (16.7%) had three respondents. Additionally, four of the organizations had only one respondent per organization (13.3%), and seven organizations had only two respondents (26.7%).

Table 3.2 Organizations and the Number of Respondents

Respondents	Organizations	% of Total Organizations
1	4	13.3
2	7	26.7
3	6	16.7
4	8	26.7
5	2	6.7
6	1	3.3
11	2	6.7
105	Total 30	100

According to the analysis, 60 percent of the organizations had three or more respondents, compared to 40 percent of the organizations with either two or less respondents. According to the literature, a good analysis of organizational culture will require more than one individual response (Schein, 1992). These four organizations were not excluded, as their responses increased the predicting value of the dominant organization culture. However, the researcher notes that it is difficult to conclude the dominant culture of an organization based on a single respondent.

Qualitative Phase

The goal of this phase was to elicit well-informed and detailed responses that could be used for analysis. After the electronic survey responses were analyzed, twenty respondents from four organizations that had the highest dominant organizational culture were purposefully selected. The investigator reached the respondents through emails. Only four respondents agreed to participate in the first request. Five emails from the same organization returned as failed delivery, while two participants from a different organization declined and requested to be removed from the database. Another request was sent and two more respondents agreed to participate. Several other requests were made with no success.

The makeup of the interview respondents included six respondents who represented different organizations. The total respondents (n=6) were composed of five males and one female. Five of them had master's degrees and one had a college degree; only one respondent was between 20-29 years of age and the rest of the group was between 30-39 years old. Three of the participants considered their positions as non-management, while the rest referred to their positions as management. They all reported that they had worked more than one year in their organizations, while one of the respondents mentioned that he had worked more than five years.

Data Collection

Telephone interviews were used to collect data for the qualitative phase due to lower cost compared with face to face interviews (Frankfort- Nachimias & Nachimias, 2008). In general, interview remains one of the most important and essential sources of case study information (Yin, 2008). Interviews enhance the surveys by acquiring information that might not become available through a questionnaire (Creswell, 2008). As a result, a standardized interview approach was used to ensure that each informant was asked the same questions, in the same way, and in the same order during the interview (Frankfort- Nachimias & Nachimias, 2008). The interviewer asked follow up questions to probe for more information. The structured interview limited interviewer bias and increased the reliability of the data collection tool (Creswell, 2008).

Conducting the Interviews

Before the interview the researcher thanked the interviewee for participating. After the introduction, the investigator addressed any questions or concerns from the informants.

Confidentiality was emphasized before the interview began (Frankfort- Nachimias & Nachimias, 2008). The researcher requested permission to turn on a tape recorder and proceed with the interview while taking short notes.

The interview questions guide consisted of two sections. The first section had six questions designed to gather information about the organizational culture. These questions investigated the six attributes of organizational culture: dominant characteristics, how success is measured, leadership, values, what holds the organization together and how information is shared in an organization (Cameron & Quinn, 1999). The second section focused on tolerance of corruption using five scenarios. Reinikka and Svensson (2006) recommend that corruption related questions should be asked after the interviewer has established the necessary credibility and trust. Two closing questions were asked at the end of the end of each interview. The closing questions were supposed to ensure that there were no misunderstandings of the information received.

All interviews were recorded on a digital hand-held recorder and transcribed at a later date (Yin, 2008). So as to preserve the confidentiality and privacy of the subjects, the name of the respondents and organization were not recorded, but special numbered codes were used to conceal the subjects' identities. The tape recorded information was downloaded on a password-protected personal computer using digital voice manager software. All of the tape-recorded interviews and the computer were securely maintained. The tapes, notes and codes were securely stored at the student interviewer's residence. The information from the tapes was integrated into the written research findings. The tapes and notes will be destroyed later (Creswell, 2008).

Post-interview Activities

After concluding the interview the researcher thanked the respondent for taking time to participate. Later, the researcher sent a thank you note to each respondent. Upon completion of the first interview, the researcher transcribed the interview in order to organize and analyze the data (Creswell, 2008).

Data Analysis

According to Yin (2008), case study analysis techniques have not been well developed but there are four strategies that can be used in analyzing the evidence: 1) relying on theoretical propositions and other strategies, 2) developing a case description, 3) using both qualitative and quantitative data, and 4) examining rival explanations. This study relied on the theoretical propositions, which were analyzed using both qualitative and quantitative data.

Statistical Data Analysis

The data collected from the surveys in the first phase was analyzed using descriptive statistics (O'Sullivan et al., 2003). Although descriptive statistics do not allow for conclusions regarding any hypotheses, descriptive statistics help in describing or summarizing data in a meaningful way. The measures of central tendency and distribution of the data were examined on the demographic data, organizational culture variables, and the ten scenarios measuring tolerance of corrupt practices. The variables were tested for distribution of the variables, as well as the measures for central tendency, and for frequencies. Before testing the three propositions, bivariate statistics were conducted to examine the significant relationship on the three DVs and IVs. The tests gave the mean difference between each group and a p value to

indicate whether any of the organizational culture had significant relationship with any of the dependent variables.

The three propositions were tested using the one way Multivariate Analysis of Variance (MANOVA). The MANOVA is based on the general linear model in which factors are assumed to have a linear relationship to the dependent variables (Field, 2005). MANOVA is used when there are multiple dependent variables as well as independent variables within the model which the researcher wishes to test. MANOVA deals with the multiple dependent variables by combining them in a linear manner to produce a combination which separates the independent variable groups. MANOVA can be used to examine all of the DVs at the same time, which leads to a better chance of discovering factors that are truly significant. Additionally, MANOVA controls Type 1 error (the probability of rejecting the null hypothesis when it is true) across all of the DVs in the model (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007). Finally, the dependent variables should be largely uncorrelated. If the dependent variables are highly correlated, there is little advantage in including more than one in the test given the resultant loss in degrees of freedom.

Multivariate analysis of variance was used to determine whether the four organizational variables and demographic variables on their own or in combination with demographic variables had a significant effect on the four dependent variables measuring tolerances of corrupt practices. In each of the three models presented under each proposition, Wilk's Lambda multivariate statistics (similar to the *F* values in univariate analysis) was presented as the indicator of significance. Wilk's lambda multivariate statistics is considered the most reliable of the multivariate measures and offers the greatest protection against Type I errors with small sample sizes (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007).

Testing of the Assumptions

Prior to performing the multivariate analysis of variance, normality, and linearity assumptions were tested. Linearity assumes that the data follow a straight line. The linearity assumption is important, given that regression only tests for a linear relationship between IVs and the DV (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007). On the other hand, normality assumes that the residuals will be normally distributed and consist of constant variables over sets of independent variable values (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007). The assumption of normality prescribes that the distribution of cases fit the pattern of a normal curve. Normality of variables can be checked by either statistical or graphical methods. Graphical methods include the histogram and normality plot. Normal distribution was performed and found that all the dependent variables were normally distributed except the policy variable.

Normality was tested using the normal Q-Q Plot. According to the Q-Q Plot, the data points of the three variables (acceptance, corruption, and likelihood) were close to the diagonal line, while data points of the policy variable strayed from the line in a non-linear pattern. According to the Q-Q plot, the policy variable was not normally distributed (as indicated by the graphs on the appendices), and policy variable was not included in the analysis because of having skewed results. Before exclusion, attempts were made to transform the variable but there were some outliers. Logarithmic transformation was conducted on policy variable to create a near normal distribution. Unfortunately the transformation did not improve the normality in a significant way and there were missing cases. The decision was made to exclude the policy variable after transformation attempts could not improve its normality (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007).

The four organizational culture independent variables were a linear combination and were tested for multicollinearity. Multicollinearity is a condition in which independent are very highly correlated and can cause logical and statistical difficulties (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007). Multicollinearity is considered a problem when the variance proportion is high (.80+) (O'Sullivan et al., 2003). As shown in Table 3.3, there was no threat found among the four independent variables. However, there was a potential multicollinearity problem as clan dimension was highly correlated to both market ($r = -.628, p < .01$), and clan hierarchy dimensions ($r = -.407, p < .01$). Adhocracy was also highly correlated to market dimension ($r = .289, p < 0.01$) and hierarchy dimension ($r = -.628, p < .01$). Market dimension was also highly correlated hierarchy dimension ($r = -.325, p < .01$). Market and hierarchy dimensions were significantly correlated to both clan and adhocracy, but clan was not significantly correlated to adhocracy dimension. When a correlation coefficient between two independent variables is high, the rule of thumb is to compare the IV's correlation coefficients with the DV and exclude the IV that has a smaller coefficient with the DV. Based on the bivariate correlation between the independent and dependent variables, none of the variables were highly correlated to be dropped.

Table 3.3 Independent Variables Correlations

		Clan	Adhocracy	Market	Hierarchy
Clan	Pearson Correlation	1	-.151	-.628**	-.407**
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.123	.000	.000
Adhocracy	Pearson Correlation	-.151	1	.289**	-.628**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.123		.003	.000
Market	Pearson Correlation	-.628**	.289**	1	-.325**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.003		.001
Hierarchy	Pearson Correlation	-.407**	-.628**	-.325**	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.001	
N		105	105	105	105

** . Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

Testing Propositions

In order to establish if there was any significant association between the two phenomena, the four organizational culture dimensions were dummy-coded into new variables—*clandummy* (clan dominant), *adhocracydummy* (adhocracy dominant), *marketdummy* (market dominant), and *hierarchydummy* (hierarchy dominant). Simply, the new organizational dummy variables involved coding a respondent according to mean score calculated from the responses of all the participants, which determined the dominant dimension of each organization. A respondent was from an organization that was characterized as clan dominated, clan dimension was coded as (1) and the other three dimensions were coded as (0). The same case applied for respondents from the organizations dominated by adhocracy, market, or hierarchy dimensions. The analysis revealed that there were 66 respondents from organizations dominated by clan dimension, 3 respondents from adhocracy

dominated organizations, 11 respondents from market dominated organizations, and 25 respondents from hierarchy dominated organizations.

The first proposition involved comparing the organizations characterized as clan or hierarchy dimension dominated. Respondents from organizations that were coded (1) for clan or hierarchy dimensions were compared together after filtering organizations that were dominated by adhocracy or market dimensions. This left 91 cases. The second proposition could not be tested as there were not enough cases to compare between the organizations dominated by adhocracy or market dimensions. In order to compare these organizations and find out if there was a meaningful difference in their mean scores, the predictive power should not be less than 30 cases, and these organizations had 14 cases in total. In order to compare the third proposition, organizations characterized as hierarchy or market dimensions were combined together to make the *markethierarchydummy* (market or hierarchy dominant) variable, while organizations characterized as clan or adhocracy dimensions were combined together to make the *clanadhocracydummy* (clan or adhocracy dominant) variable. The two new dummy variables were compared.

The dimension pairs were combined based on the understanding that market and hierarchy dimensions focus on control and stability, while clan and adhocracy dimensions focus on innovation and flexibility (Cameron & Quinn, 1999; Helfrich et al., 2007). The clan and adhocracy dimensions are placed on the upper quadrants of the CVF framework, while hierarchy and market dimensions are placed on the lower quadrants (Helfrich et al., 2007). Additionally, literature indicates that organizations, which are characterized by flexibility and

discretion (upper quadrants), are likely to be perceived as more corrupt than organizations, which are characterized by control and stability (lower quadrants) (Riley, 1998; Vian, 2008).

Qualitative Analysis

Qualitative data analysis involves the analysis of various forms of narrative data, including data stored in audio, so as to determine the relationships, different categories, and assumptions that inform the respondent's view of the world in general and of the topic in particular (McNabb, 2008; Teddlie & Tashakkori, 2009). A computer software program NVivo was used to help in some stages such as storing and coding, creating classification systems, enumeration, attaching memos, and finding relationships (Creswell, 2009). The researcher carefully read the transcribed data line by line so as to identify a set of relevant categories for analysis.

After conceptualizing the data, which means reducing it into workable, ordered information or dividing it into meaningful segments, it was coded (McNabb, 2008). Coding is one of the significant steps taken during analysis to organize and make sense of textual data; it involves subdividing the data and marking the data with symbols, and descriptive words, as well as assigning categories (Frankfort-Nachimias & Nachimias, 2008). The study used existing codes to help in comparing results (Creswell & Plato Clark, 2011).

The codes were summarized and the researcher searched for relationships in the data between organizational culture and tolerance of corruption in an organization. The emerging themes were compared and contrasted with the literature with and the three working propositions. The data was compared to see if it supported the statistical analysis or the derived patterns had clear differences (Yin, 2008). The results were matched together to assess

for any convergence and support of the three propositions. The results were then converged together in order to address the overarching research question

Validity and Reliability

The results of a study need to be valid and reliable to be regarded as knowledge and integrated in the knowledge base (Rowley, 2002). As a result, this study applied multiple sources of data in order to establish validity. The multiple sources of data (interview and survey) also helped in reducing the selection bias (Yin, 2008). Additionally, key respondents reviewed the qualitative data draft to make sure that the information was correct. In order to establish chain evidence, the final analysis findings were compared to other previous studies, proper citations of documents and interviews were used (Yin, 2008). Although the findings of this study could not be generalized, ten scenarios were applied in the survey while five scenarios were used in the interviews with an aim to show replication with greater rigor using the Competing Values Framework. According to Rowley (2002), if the case study design has been appropriately informed by theory, there can be analytical generalization as opposed to statistical generalization.

Thorough documentation of procedures and appropriate record keeping was observed to ensure that the collected data was reliable (Rowley, 2002; Yin, 2008). This also guarantees that an independent researcher can replicate the same study and get the same conclusion. As a result, a standardized questionnaire was used in each interview to make sure that the same questions were asked through the whole process. Finally, the instruments applied to collect data were tested for internal consistency and found to be reliable.

Chapter Summary

In this chapter, the researcher has given a detailed description of the case study approach that was used to collect and analyze the evidence. The survey instruments used to collect the data were tested and found to be reliable and valid. The assumptions of MANOVA were tested to make sure there were no potential threats. The data collection process was discussed in length after the IRB approved the study. The next chapter reports the statistical and qualitative findings. The qualitative analysis explains any emerging themes and their relationship to the two phenomena

CHAPTER 4

RESEARCH FINDINGS AND ANALYSIS

This chapter analyzes the survey responses and interviews conducted with participants in order to answer the research question. The research question is “Does a dominant dimension of organizational culture influence the tolerance of corrupt practices among NGOs in Kenya?” This chapter is organized into two sections. The first section focuses on analyzing the quantitative data collected through web-based surveys. This section includes descriptive and bivariate statistics of the variables. This section also reports the testing of the three propositions using one way Multivariate Analysis of Variance (MANOVA). The second section includes the findings of the qualitative data collected by telephone interviews. This section includes descriptions of the respondents and content analysis findings. The summary findings are included on the last section of the chapter.

Statistical Analysis

Descriptive Statistics

This study conducted 105 electronic surveys to gather data among 30 organizations located in Nairobi, Kenya. The number of respondents was 185 and only 105 were usable. The survey response rate was 56.8 percent.

Demographic Data

The demographic variables included gender, age, level of education attained, number of years worked in an organization, and the position of the respondent. The Table 4.1 shows that the majority of the 105 participants were male (56.2%), between the ages 30-49 (73.3%) and with working experience of five years or more in their current organization (44.8%). The table

reveals that the majority of participants held management positions (69.5%), had a graduate degree (63.8%), and used English as the primary language in their place of work (96.2%). Additionally, this table indicates that only fewer than 4 percent used other languages than English in the office and were 60 years and older.

Table 4.1: Descriptive Statistics of the Demographic data

Variables	N= 105	Frequency (%)
<i>Gender</i>		
Male	59	56.2
Female	46	43.8
<i>Age in Years</i>		
21-29	13	12.4
30-39	44	41.9
40-49	33	31.4
50-59	11	10.5
60+	4	3.8
<i>Years of Employment</i>		
1<3	32	30.5
3-5	26	24.8
5+	47	44.8
<i>Position</i>		
Management	73	69.5
Non-management	32	30.5
<i>Level of Education</i>		
Some college education	4	3.8
Four year degree	34	32.4
Master's degree	58	55.2
Doctoral degree	3	2.9
Professional degree	6	5.7
<i>Language used in office</i>		
English	101	96.2
Swahili	2	1.9
Other	2	1.9

Organizational Culture

The means, standard deviations, and minimum and maximum values for the four scales are illustrated in Table 4.2. A mean of the six variables was taken to determine the most dominant dimension of the four types of organizational culture of each participating organization.

As shown in Table 4.2, clan culture, which places emphasis on collaboration and employees' involvement, had the highest mean score of 32.57 (SD 12.12) indicating that it was the most dominant dimension. Hierarchy culture that is described as a tightly controlled culture, and which is evidenced by a large degree of standardized operational procedures, had the second highest mean score of 26.82 (SD 12.33), indicating that it was the second most dominant dimension. Market culture, which is focused on transactions with mainly external constituencies, including suppliers, was found to be the third most dominant dimension with a mean score of 20.44 (SD 9.670).

Finally, adhocracy culture, which places emphasis on being at the leading edge of new knowledge, creativity and adaptability to new environments, had the lowest mean score of 20.17 (SD 6.782), indicating that it was the least dominant dimension. Market and adhocracy dimensions mean score had less than half point difference, even though the standard deviation was different. Hierarchy and market dimensions had the lowest value of 0, although they had high values of 60 and 72, respectively. Clan dimension had a minimum value of 7, which was higher than any of the other three dimensions.

Table 4.2: Descriptive Statistics of the Four Dimensions of Organizational Culture

Dimensions	Respondents (n)	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Standard Deviation
Clan	105	7	72	32.57	12.122
Adhocracy	105	5	37	20.17	6.782
Market	105	0	60	20.44	9.670
Hierarchy	105	0	72	26.82	12.33
Total	105				

As Table 4.3 indicates, two organizations had eleven respondents each (6.7%), while one organization had six employees who responded (3.3%). Two organizations had five respondents each (6.7%), and one of them had six respondents. Eight organizations had four respondents (26.7%), while six organizations (16.7%) had three respondents. Additionally, four of the organizations had only one respondent per organization (13.3%), and seven organizations had only two respondents (26.7%).

As shown in the Table 4.3, among the 30 organizations that were represented by the respondents, 18 organizations were dominated by clan culture (60%), 6 organizations had hierarchy culture (20%), 4 organizations (13%) had market as the dominant culture and only two of the organizations had adhocracy culture as the most dominant (7%). According to the analysis, 24 organizations (80%) were dominated by clan and hierarchy dimensions, while only 6 organizations (20%) were dominated by market and adhocracy cultures. The table indicates that, clan dimension had 66 respondents, adhocracy dimension had 3 respondents, market dimension had 11 respondents, and 25 respondents from hierarchy dimension.

The table also reveals that the 18 organizations dominated by clan dimension had hierarchy dimension as the second most emphasized dimension, while adhocracy and market dimensions were third and fourth. The next 2 organizations characterized by adhocracy culture had market as the second dominant dimension, while clan and hierarchy dimensions came in

third and fourth. Four organizations dominated by market culture had hierarchy as the second most dominant culture, followed by clan and adhocracy dimensions. The last 6 organizations characterized by hierarchy culture had clan dimension as the second most dominant dimension, followed by market and adhocracy dimensions.

Overall, none of the organizations had a perfect plot or balanced culture. However, three organizations had mean scores where the second most dominant dimension was less than half a point different from the dominant dimensions. The 3 organizations were still categorized depending on the highest mean score regardless of the difference between the highest mean and the second highest score in the four dimensions. This decision was based on the trend of the previous studies that have categorized these dimensions as the most dominant regardless of the difference between the mean scores (Quinn & Spreitzer, 1991; Yun Seok et al., 2010).

Table 4.3 The Mean Scores of the Dominant Dimensions in 30 Participants Organizations

	Organizations	Clan	Adhocracy	Market	Hierarchy	Respondents
1	FHG	39.167	23.444	20.72	16.667	3
2	AID	35.833	25.0	16.667	22.5	3
3	FOD	29.792	18.542	23.417	28.25	4
4	CAR	34.583	20.417	24.167	20.833	2
5	COM	49.583	17.917	11.25	21.25	4
6	FUN	32.792	22.125	27.792	17.292	4
7	GAA	34.583	14.583	17.917	32.917	2
8	CAP	40.833	13.333	11.667	34.167	1
9	IC	36.667	16.433	17.933	28.967	5
10	JGO	28.50	22.125	22.042	27.333	4
11	MF	54.583	10.417	7.083	27.917	2
12	NCK	31.389	26.944	20.556	21.111	3
13	FAM	35.0	22.50	20.0	22.50	2
14	PT	40.208	19.792	18.333	21.667	4
15	PEN	44.583	25.0	15.833	14.583	2
16	SC	32.722	22.028	15.083	30.167	6
17	SJS	35.417	15.75	13.458	35.375	4
18	WV	34.773	18.5	20.455	26.273	11
	Average	37.278	19.714	18.021	24.987	
19	PCT	26.667	35.0	29.167	9.1667	1
20	HA	24.167	30.833	27.0	18.0	2
	Average	25.417	32.917	28.083	13.583	
21	CPS	24.167	9.5833	34.167	32.083	2
22	CS	22.833	26.467	29.567	21.133	5
23	IM	15.0	16.667	50.0	18.333	1
24	ICL	26.389	25.278	26.944	21.389	3
	Average	20.667	17.572	37.911	23.85	
25	ACD	35.0	15.833	12.50	36.667	1
26	CDF	28.303	19.349	16.333	36.015	11
27	CNW	25.875	21.958	21.375	30.792	4
28	CRC	28.333	19.583	23.333	28.75	2
29	LF	28.333	15.833	21.944	33.889	3
30	RCK	25.625	16.458	25.0	32.917	4
	Average	28.578	18.169	20.081	33.172	
	Total	31.485	19.876	22.918	25.721	105

Tolerance of Corrupt Practices

The descriptive statistics for the tolerance of corrupt practices were measured by the means, standard deviations, and frequencies of the three variables scales. Overall, the ten practices were considered unacceptable with a mean score of 4.138 (SD .666). Additionally, these practices were considered corrupt and unjustifiable, with a mean score of 2.1952 (SD .714), and they were also considered neither likely nor unlikely to occur, as indicated by a mean score of 3.5476 (SD .849).

Acceptance variable

Table 4.4 shows that favoritism in recruitment was considered less acceptable, with the lowest mean score of 3.43 (SD 1.285). Abuse of power in tendering process was considered the second less acceptable with a mean score of 3.89 (SD 1.022), while embezzlement of funds by employees came in as the third less acceptable practice, with a mean score of 3.92 (SD 1.044), followed by nepotism with a mean score of 3.98 (SD .961).

On the other hand, the extortion of funds from donors was considered the most unacceptable practice, with the highest mean score of 4.50 (SD 1.030), while conflict of interest was considered the second most unacceptable practice, with the second highest mean score of 4.44 (SD 1.037). Making fraudulent expense claims was considered the third most unacceptable practice with a mean score of 4.35 (SD .877), followed by theft of inventory with a mean score of 4.33 (SD 1.016) and bribery the fifth most unacceptable practice with a mean score of 4.30 (SD .929).

Overall, avoiding advertising a job opening and filing the open position internally was considered the least unacceptable, while receiving funds from donors and spending it for

personal use was considered extremely unacceptable. Favoritism, nepotism, abuse of power, and embezzlement practices had mean scores that were lower than the acceptance variable mean of 4.138 (SD .666). The other six practices had mean scores higher than the acceptance variable mean score.

Table 4.4: Descriptive Statistics of the 10 Practices Measured by Acceptance Variable

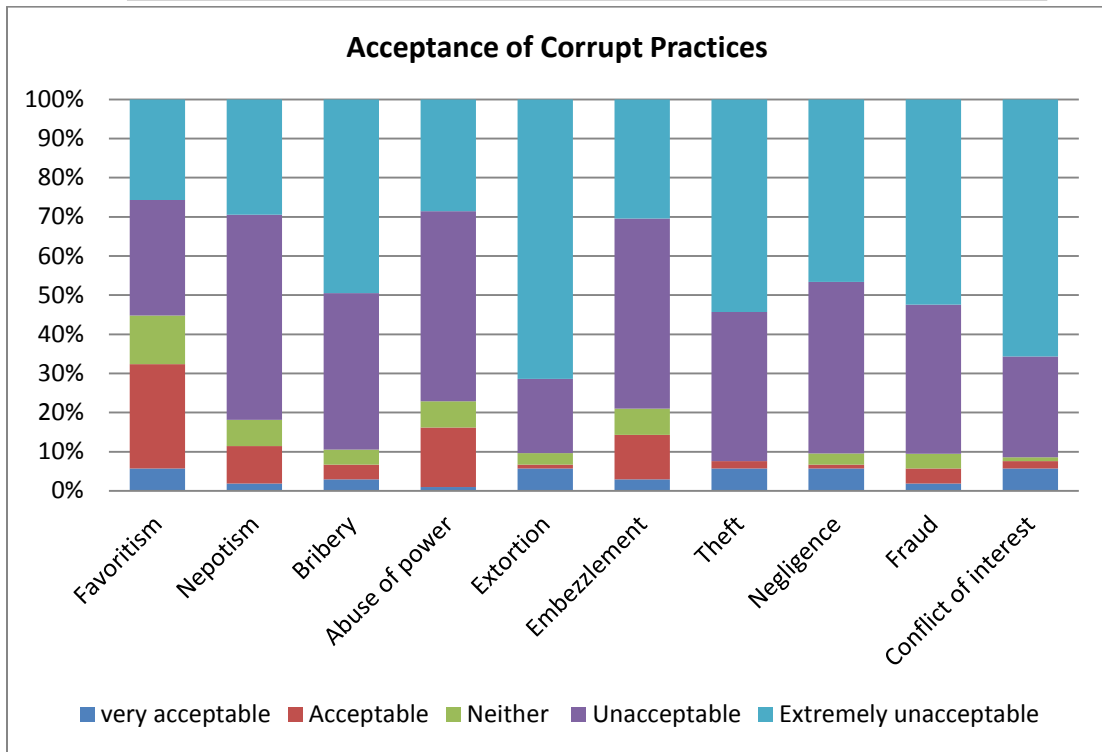
Scenarios	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
1 Favoritism in Recruitment	105	1	5	3.43	1.285
2 Nepotism in Recruitment	105	1	5	3.98	.961
3 Bribery in Tendering Process	105	1	5	4.30	.929
4 Abuse of power in Tendering Process	105	1	5	3.89	1.022
5 Extortion of Donors	105	1	5	4.50	1.030
6 Embezzlement of Funds	105	1	5	3.92	1.044
7 Theft of inventory	105	1	5	4.33	1.016
8 Negligence of duty	105	1	5	4.25	.998
9 Fraudulent Expense Claim	105	1	5	4.35	.877
10 Conflict of Interest	105	1	5	4.44	1.037
Acceptanceaverage	105	1.00	5.00	4.1381	.66642

Graph 4a indicates that favoritism had the highest number of participants (32%) who considered it acceptable, followed by abuse of power in the tendering process, with 16 percent considering it acceptable. Embezzlement of funds had more than 14 percent of the respondents considering it acceptable, while nepotism had more than 11 percent. The rest of the practices had less than 10 percent of participants considered them acceptable, with fraudulent of expense claims acceptable to less than 6 percent of the participants.

Favoritism in the hiring process had the lowest number of participants considering it unacceptable (55%), while the rest of the practices put together had more than 70 percent of the participants considering them as unacceptable or extremely unacceptable. The abuse of power in the tendering process had the second lowest number of participants who considered

it unacceptable. As seen in Graph 4a, more than 92 percent of the participants considered theft of inventory to be unacceptable, and none of the participants considered it either acceptable or unacceptable. On the other hand, more than 12 percent of the participants did considered favoritism in recruitment as either unacceptable or acceptable.

Graph 4a: Number of Participants in % and Acceptance of Each Practice



Corrupt or Justifiable Variable

As shown in Table 4.5, favoritism was considered corrupt but justifiable, with the highest mean score of 3.05 (SD 1.457), while embezzlement of funds had the second highest mean score of 2.69 (SD 1.332) indicating that it was corrupt and unjustifiable. On the other hand, conflict of interest had the lowest mean score of 1.50 (SD .845) indicating that it was very corrupt and unjustifiable. The extortion of donors, bribery in the tendering process, and theft of

inventory had means lower than 2.0 indicating that they were considered extremely corrupt and unjustifiable.

Table 4.5: Descriptive Statistics of the Ten Practices Measured by Corrupt or Justifiable Variable

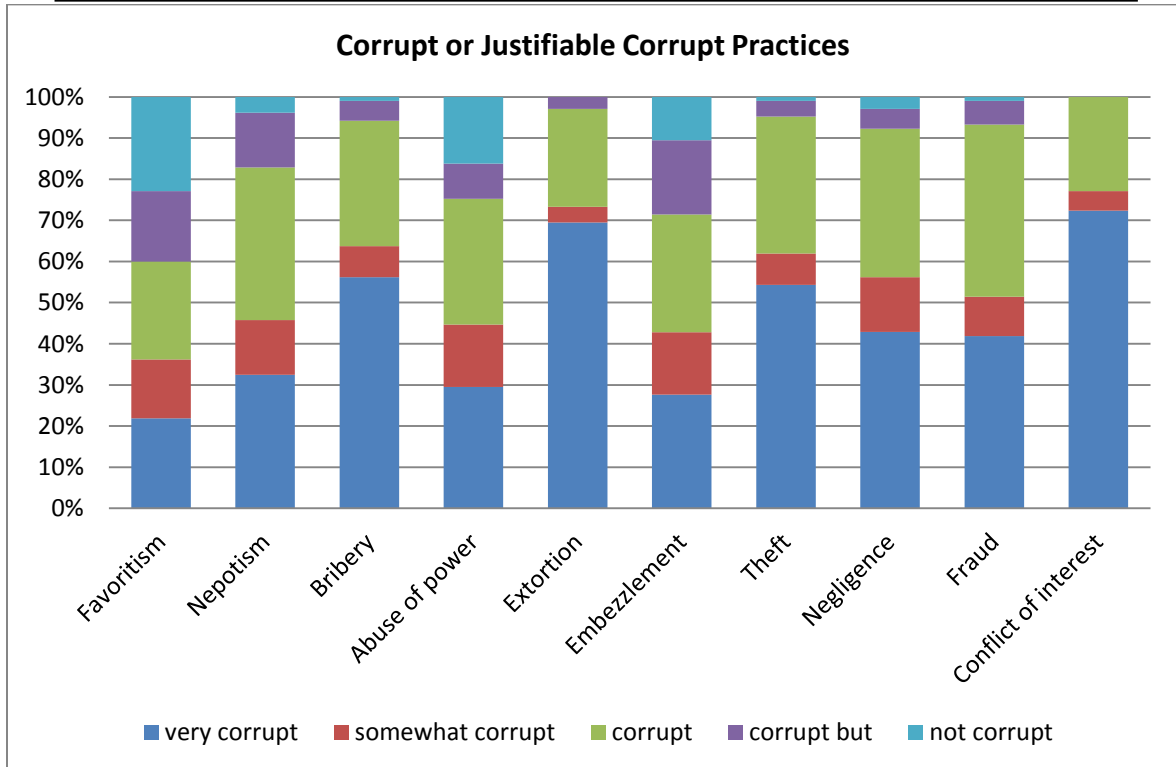
Scenarios	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
1 Favoritism in Recruitment	105	1	5	3.05	1.457
2 Nepotism in Recruitment	105	1	5	2.43	1.184
3 Bribery in Tendering Process	105	1	5	1.87	1.066
4 Abuse of power in Tend. Process	105	1	5	2.67	1.405
5 Extortion of Donors	105	1	4	1.60	.947
6 Embezzlement of Funds	105	1	5	2.69	1.332
7 Theft of inventory	105	1	5	1.90	1.055
8 Negligence of duty	105	1	5	2.11	1.112
9 Fraudulent Expense Claim	105	1	5	2.14	1.069
10 Conflict of Interest	105	1	3	1.50	.845
Corruptaverage	105	1.00	3.60	2.1952	.71419
Valid N (listwise)	105				

Overall, all the ten practices were considered to be corrupt. However, Graph 4b shows that almost a quarter of the respondents perceived favoritism as uncorrupt, while 17 percent of the participants considered it corrupt but justifiable. The rest of the participants (60%) considered favoritism corrupt or extremely corrupt. None of the participants considered extortion of donors and conflict of interest uncorrupt, while bribery, theft of inventory, and fraudulent expense claims were considered uncorrupt by only one percent of participants.

On the other hand, 97 percent of the participants considered extortion to be corrupt, followed by embezzlement with 95 percent, while negligence was considered corrupt by 92 percent of the participants. Even though the other scenarios were perceived as corrupt by a significant number of respondents, only the tenth scenario was perceived as corrupt by all

respondents. A small number of the respondents considered some of the scenarios either corrupt and not justifiable or not corrupt at all.

Graph 4b: Number of Participants in % and Justification of Each Practice



Likelihood Variable

As Table 4.6 indicates, the mean scores of nine practices indicate that these practices were considered either likely or unlikely to occur, while extortion that was considered as unlikely to occur. The table shows that negligence of duty had the lowest mean score of 3.13 (SD 1.184), followed by favoritism, and nepotism in the recruitment process with a mean score of 3.29 (SD 1.306) and 3.33 (SD 1.349) respectively. This indicates that these practices were either likely or unlikely to occur. Embezzlement of organization’s funds was considered as either likely or unlikely to occur, indicated by a mean score of 3.36 (SD 1.178). On the other hand, extortion had the highest mean score of 4.30 (SD 4.30) indicating that it was considered

as unlikely to occur. Bribery had the second highest mean score of 3.89 (SD 1.146), followed by conflict of interest with a mean of 3.79 (SD 1.149).

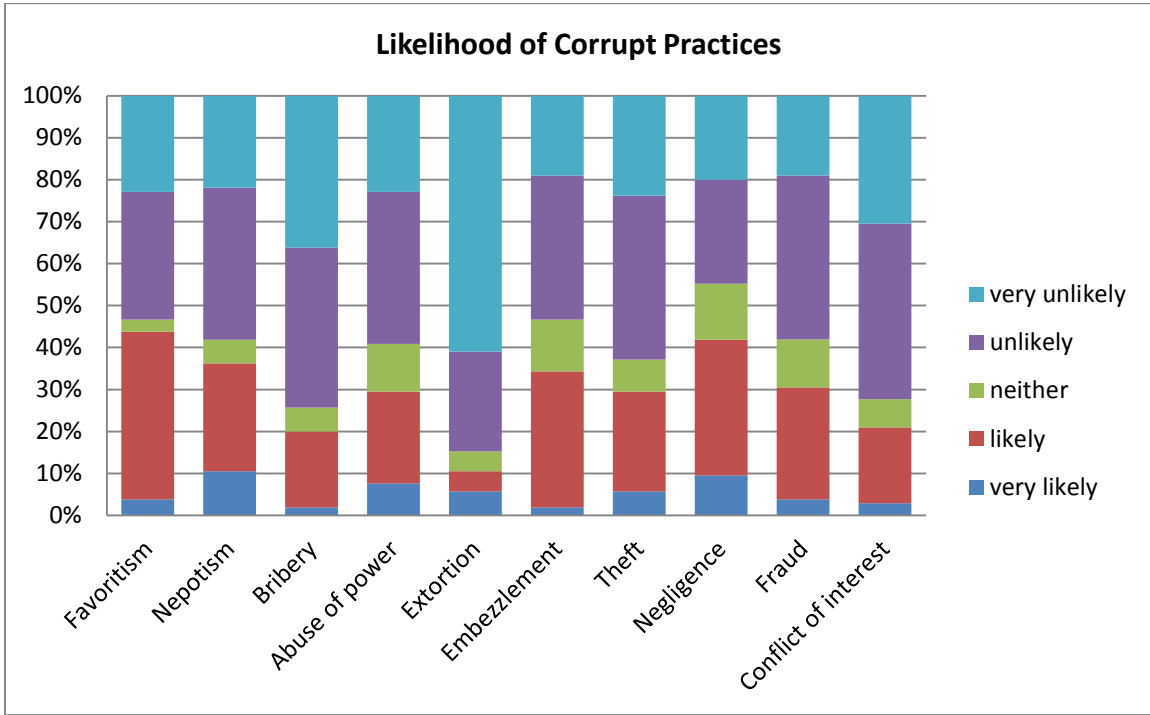
Table 4.6: Descriptive Statistics of the Likelihood of Each Practices Occurrence

Scenarios	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
1 Favoritism in Recruitment	105	1	5	3.29	1.306
2 Nepotism in Recruitment	105	1	5	3.33	1.349
3 Bribery in Tendering Process	105	1	5	3.89	1.146
4 Abuse of power in Tend. Process	105	1	5	3.45	1.271
5 Extortion of Donors	105	1	5	4.30	1.134
6 Embezzlement of Funds	105	1	5	3.36	1.178
7 Theft of inventory	105	1	5	3.51	1.249
8 Negligence of duty	105	1	5	3.13	1.323
9 Fraudulent Expense Claim	105	1	5	3.43	1.184
10 Conflict of Interest	105	1	5	3.79	1.149
likelihoodaverage	105	1.70	5.00	3.5476	.84956
Valid N (listwise)	105				

As shown by Graph 4c, favoritism had the highest number of participants (44%) who considered it at least likely to occur in their organization. Negligence of duty had more than 42 percent also considering it likely to occur, while 13 percent considered it as neither likely nor unlikely to occur. However, only 11 percent who considered extortion of donor as likely to occur, and 20 percent considered bribery as likely to occur.

There was a low number of participants who considered these practices as neither likely to occur nor unlikely to occur. The graph indicates that less than 5 percent considered extortion as neither likely nor unlikely to occur. The graph shows that close to 85 percent considered extortion as unlikely to occur. More than 70 percent of the participants considered bribery and favoritism as unlikely to occur, while only 53 percent considered embezzlement as unlikely to occur. According to the graph, all the scenarios had a chance of occurring within the selected organizations.

Graph 4c: Number of Participants in % and the Likelihood of Each Practice Occurring



The Table 4.7 shows that the ten corrupt practices were considered as neither acceptable nor unacceptable in 9 organizations, while the rest of the organizations considered them as unacceptable, and with one organization indicating that it was extremely unacceptable. All the ten practices were considered to be corrupt and unjustifiable according to the mean. In 11 organizations, participants perceived these practices as very corrupt while only 2 organizations considered these practices unjustifiable. None of the organizations reported that these practices were very likely to occur, however the participants reported that they were likely to occur. In 4 organizations, the respondents reported that these practices were likely to occur. In 20 organizations, these practices were reported as neither likely nor unlikely to occur. In 6 organizations, the participants reported that these practices were unlikely to occur.

Bivariate Statistics: Correlation

Bivariate correlation was used to measure the size and direction of the linear relationship between two variables (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007). Pearson’s Product Moment *R* correlation was used to measure the strength and direction of association between the DVs and IVs. As shown on Table 4.8, clan culture has a weak, negative association with corrupt variable ($r = -.228, p < .05$). The number of years working in an organization had a small and positive association with the acceptance variable ($r = .220, p < .05$). The rest of the predicting variables – hierarchy, adhocracy, and market dimensions were not significantly correlated to the dependent variables ($p < 0.05$). Likewise, demographic variables (gender, age, education, language) did not have significant impact on any of the dependent variables ($p < .05$).

Table 4.8: Summary of Pearson Correlation Matrix

	Acceptance	Corrupt	Likelihood
Clan	0.003	-0.228*	0.152
Adhocracy	0.147	-0.044	0.045
Market	-0.058	0.102	-0.160
Hierarchy	-0.039	0.168	-0.048
Gender	-.007	0.160	0.52
Age	0.183	-.192	0.20
Employment Years	0.220*	-.163	.096
Position	-0.097	.112	-.057
Education level	0.066	-.107	.060
Language	0.013	0.090	-0.048

*Correlation is significant $p < .05$ level (2-tailed)

Multivariate Analysis of Variance (MANOVA)

A one-way multivariate analysis of variance (MANOVA) was conducted to determine the effect of the four dimensions of organizational culture (clan, adhocracy, market, and hierarchy) on three dependent variables (acceptance, corrupt, likelihood).

Prop. 1. Organizations characterized by a dominant clan dimension are likely to have a higher level of tolerance for corrupt practices than organizations characterized by a dominant hierarchy dimension.

As shown on Table 4.9, when organizations dominated by clan dimensions were compared to organizations dominated by hierarchy dimension, none of the dimensions was significantly related to tolerance of corrupt practices (model 1). A one-way MANOVA did not reveal any significant multivariate main effect for clan dimension. Similarly, *years of employment* variable was added as a covariate, neither hierarchy nor years of employment were significantly related to tolerance of corrupt practices (model 2). A one-way MANOVA did not reveal any significant multivariate main effect for clan dimension and years of employment. Thus, proposition 1 was not confirmed due to lack of significant association between the phenomena.

Table 4.9: Organizations Tolerance of Corrupt Practices

Effect	Model 1		Model 2	
	F value	Sig	F value	Sig.
Hierarchy Dominant	0.289	.833	.216	.885
Years of Employment			1.278	.270

Although there was no significance of the overall test, the univariate main effects were examined for influence of predicting variables on the individual DVs. As indicated on Table 4.10, clan or hierarchy dimensions did not have a significant influence on the acceptance, justification, or likelihood of corrupt practices in the organizations that were dominated by any of the two dimensions (model 1). As model 2 in Table 4.10 shows, when the hierarchy dimension was tested, while the years of employment was added as covariate hierarchy dimension did not have significant influence on the three dependent variables. However,

significant univariate main effects for years of employment were obtained for acceptance of corrupt practices, $F(2, 91) = 3.177, p < .05$.

Table 4.10 Tests of Between-Subjects Effects Table

Source	Dependent Variable	df	Model 1		Model 2	
			F Value	Sig.	F Value	Sig
Hierarchy Dominant	Acceptance	91	.327	.569	.096	.758
	Corrupt	91	.014	.906	.000	.986
	Likelihood	91	.129	.720	.246	.621
Years of Employment	Acceptance	91			3.177	.047
	Corrupt	91			.543	.583
	Likelihood	91			.676	.511

Prop. 2. Organizations characterized by a dominant adhocracy dimension are likely to have a higher level of tolerance for corrupt practices than organizations dominated by market dimension.

This proposition could not be tested because there were insufficient number of cases for comparison between organizations dominated by either adhocracy or market dimensions. As indicated earlier, adhocracy dimension was only dominant in 2 organizations, while market dimension was only dominant in 4 organizations. In addition, the 6 organizations had only 14 respondents. It is necessary to have more cases in order to increase the chance of finding a significant effect.

Prop. 3. Organizations that are characterized by dominant clan or adhocracy dimensions are likely to have a higher level of tolerance for corrupt practices than organizations that are characterized by dominant hierarchy or market dimensions.

Table 4.11 shows that one-way MANOVA did not reveal any significant multivariate main effect for organizations that were dominated by clan and adhocracy dimensions in comparison to organizations that were characterized by market and hierarchy dimensions. Model 2 in Table 4.11 also indicates that one-way MANOVA did not reveal any significant multivariate main effect for organizations that were dominated by clan and adhocracy

dimensions while controlling for the *years of employment*. However, the Roy's Largest Root test, which is considered as the more liberal test, revealed a significant multivariate main effect for years of employment Roy's $\lambda = .086$ $F(3, 105) = 2.869$, $p < 0.05$.

Table 4.11 Multivariate Tests Table

Effect	Model 1		Model 2	
	F value	Sig.	F value	Sig.
Clan or Adhocracy Dominant	0.461	.710	.216	.794
Years of Employment			1.278	.138
Years of Employment (Roy's Largest Root)			2.869	.040

Although clan and adhocracy dimensions were not significant on the overall test, the univariate main effects were examined to find out if predicting variables had significant impact on the individual DVs. Table 4.12 indicates that there was no significant univariate main effect for the organizations dominated by clan and adhocracy dimensions compared to hierarchy and market dimensions. In model 2, significant univariate main effects for *years of employment* were obtained for the acceptance of corrupt practices, $F(2, 105) = 3.485$, $p < 0.05$.

Table 4.12 Tests of Between-Subjects Effects Table

Source	Dependent Variable	df	Model 1		Model 2	
			F Value	Sig.	F Value	Sig.
Clan or Adhocracy Dominant	Acceptance	105	.021	.885	.135	.714
	Corrupt	105	.006	.938	.033	.856
	likelihood	105	1.196	.277	1.016	.316
Years of Employment	Acceptance	105			3.485	.034
	Corrupt	105			1.534	.221
	likelihood	105			.736	.482

Overall, none of the independent organizational culture variables were significant in predicting any of the three dependent variables. However, years of employment had a significant impact on acceptance of corrupt practices.

Qualitative Analysis

The qualitative data was collected from 6 telephone interviews conducted with respondents who had participated in the surveys. Charmaz (2006) points out that through coding, the investigator defines what is happening in the data and grapples with its meaning. After the data was coded, it was read and carefully reviewed line by line in order to identify expressions that were relevant to each of the descriptive elements. Finally, the emerging themes were identified, organized under each code and then categorized according to the questions in the two sections. The identified themes revealed the major findings and commonalities among expressions by informants.

Organizational Culture

This section had six questions that were based on the survey instrument. The six key categories were *dominant characteristics, employee management, criteria for success, strategic emphasis, organization glue, and organizational leadership*. The themes under each category were then placed in one of the four dimensions (clan, hierarchy, adhocracy, and market).

a) *Dominant characteristics*

The dominant characteristics category had diverse responses and respondents did not distinguish any single aspect that cut across all the organizations represented. Three themes stood out in this category. The first theme was *concern for the employees' welfare*. This theme was indicated by two employees. One of the respondents stated that “...we cherish family...ignite passion, master communication...we must equip our staff if one needs a car or computer..” The second theme was *results oriented*. This was reported by two respondents. One of the respondents pointed out that they had a distinct ability to organize the community

better than other NGOs. The last theme was the emphasis of *accountability and integrity*. Three respondents expressed that integrity and accountability were part of their core values or principles. One of the respondents stated that *international reputation* was an important principle of the organization.

b) Employee Management

The employee management attribute was focused on how an organization managed its employees in order to achieve its outlined mission. The four themes emerged were distinguished by key words such as *self-independence, open door policy, freedom, strong relationships, teamwork, self-accountable and transparent*. The first theme was *consensus building*. This was indicated by three employees. One respondent mentioned that her organization was focused on an *open door policy* that allowed the employees to interact freely. This was also supported by another response stating that “*we have a strong relationship and team work. Everybody is self-accountable including the manager. You don’t have to make a decision and run with it because you are the boss.*”

The second theme was *creativity* in service delivery. This was reported by two respondents. One respondent mentioned that the organization ensured that employees had the freedom to innovate in order to achieve the set goals. Another respondent spoke of *self-independence to be creative*. The third theme was *predictability*. This theme was indicated by two respondents. One of the respondents indicated that employees were guided by a *humanitarian code of conduct* document that was in conformity with the United Nations and NGOs. The fourth theme was *goal achievement*. Only one respondent stated that achieving the

organizational goal was important, and that employees were required to be accountable and transparent with both the community and the donors.

c) Criteria for Success

This attribute questioned the foundation of defining success within an organization. Some of the main words that came up were *target, procedures, objectives, performance, and results* that were categorized under one theme. Mission-oriented was the only theme that was indicated by all of the six respondents. The general consensus among all the respondents was that meeting the target was the basis of measuring success. However, the respondents differed on how each organization referred to success. One of the respondents said that they defined success “*by the number of children we are able to relieve from poverty.*” Another respondent mentioned that the organization measured its success by how it helped communities to articulate their concerns and solve their problems. One respondent added that using the *right way and procedures* was mostly emphasized in her organization. None of responses in this category focused on the employees’ development or teamwork in performing the goals. A concern of having enough resources to achieve the task was highlighted by one respondent.

d) Strategic Emphasis

Strategic emphasis involves the factors that are considered to be most important in decision making within an NGO. Two themes came up in this category. The first theme placed an emphasis on *human development*. Three respondents mentioned *integrity, stewardship, honesty, and transparency* as important developmental values. Another participant mentioned that a failure of an employee to practice these values could lead to potential job loss. *Task-achievement* was the second theme. This theme was mentioned by three respondents. One

respondent stated that *“the emphasis is mostly on the goals, relief, and beneficiary is basically about the task.”* Another respondent pointed out the organization’s ability to assist its beneficiaries in exploring new opportunities.

e) Organization Glue

The organization glue attribute refers to the elements that hold employees together as part of an internal integration. Mutual trust was indicated by all the respondents. The respondents said that sharing the same history, belief, and objectives were the necessary components for establishing mutual trust in their organizations. *Faith and belief in God* were two main concepts that were mentioned by three respondents. One respondent said that *“our organization is a Christian organization and what holds us together is our faith.”* One of the respondents described faith as employees coming to similar understandings in order to achieve their common objectives. Mutual trust is also built by sharing the *same goals or common objectives*. One respondent explained this theme as *“having the staff from the CEO to the lowest cleaner sharing the same objectives and goals and we maintain equality throughout the organization. Like.. so nobody is better than the other irrespective of your position.”*

f) Organizational Leadership

Three themes emerged under organizational leadership. The first theme was *participative leadership* style, which facilitates openness and consensus building, and nurtures the employees. Two respondents mentioned open *leadership*, which allows for open access and interaction with employees at all levels. Another respondent talked of *democratic leadership* that considered input from all the employees. The second theme was *innovative leadership* that was flexible, entrepreneurial, and that is open to criticism. One respondent stated that his

organization was open to innovation and any working idea offered by an employee was considered for adoption. The respondent added that “*innovation is rewarded*” in his organization. The third theme was *bureaucratic leadership*, which involves sharing collective objectives within an organization. One respondent talked of “...*achieving the objectives, there are shared across the organization management from the top to the implementing office*”. One respondent mentioned that his organization had two lines of operation in order to enhance smooth delivery.

In summary, all the themes were categorized according to the four dimensions of organizational culture established by the competing values framework. The number of themes categorized under clan dimension exceeded the other three dimensions. As shown in Graph 4d, the first category was clan dimension, which considers the organization as a personal place that is like an extended family, and that places emphasis on teamwork, consensus, and participation (Cameron & Quinn, 1999). Themes categorized under clan dimension included *consensus building, concern for employees’ welfare, human development, nurturing leadership, and teamwork*. The second category was adhocracy dimension, which emphasizes the freedom to be creative as well as the willingness to take risks (Cameron & Quinn, 1999). Themes in this category included *creativity, innovative leadership, mission-oriented and innovation*. The third category was hierarchy dimension, which put emphasis on formal procedures that generally governed employees’ actions (Cameron & Quinn, 1999). Themes in this category included *achieving the target, predictability, bureaucratic leadership, and mission-oriented*. The last category was market dimension, in which an organization’s major concern is getting the job done in a competitive way and building strong relationships with external stakeholders

(Cameron & Quinn, 1999). Themes in this category included *goal achievement, task-achievement, result-oriented, and mission-oriented and efficiency*. There were other themes such as *mutual trust and mission-oriented* that overlapped in all the organizations

Graph 4d: Organizational Culture Themes



Tolerance of Corrupt Practices

In this section, the questionnaire contained five scenarios and four questions that were asked after each scenario. Follow up questions were asked for clarification. The collected information was coded according to the scenarios and organized according to the four existing themes: corrupt, acceptable, likelihood, and policy.

a) Favoritism

The first scenario described the *recruitment process*. The organization manager wanted to hire his sister, who was qualified, without going through the recruitment process. This

practice could be considered nepotism even though the manager justified his decision on the grounds that his sister was qualified and he was cutting advertisement costs.

Corruptibility was the first theme. The question asked the respondents about how the practice described in a scenario would be considered in their organization. All six respondents agreed that it would be considered a corrupt practice in their organization. Some of the respondents added that it was a serious offence and that any employee caught engaging in the practice would lose his or her job.

The second theme was *acceptability*. All the respondents said that this practice was unacceptable and could not be tolerated in any way in their organizations. One respondent referred to it as *inconceivable and conflict of interests*. One respondent added that it was unacceptable because her organization *believed in fairness*. The respondent felt that failure by the manager to advertise the vacancy, as well as the manager's decision to hire his sister without going through the recruitment process, was against the organization's policy.

The third theme was *the likelihood of the practice* occurring in an organization. The respondents were divided on the likelihood of the practice occurring. One of them said that *we believe in fairness and we also believe in equal opportunity...believing in that does not mean that we have not experienced such case... something that we have experienced in the past*. Another respondent said that it might occur without the knowledge of the management but it was still considered unacceptable. Another one added that there was a 20 % chance of this practice occurring in their constituent offices but not in the *headquarter office*. On the other hand, some respondents reported that this practice was not likely to occur, and if it did occur; it could be detected very easily.

The fourth theme was the violation of the *organization's policy*. All the respondents reported that there was a policy in their organization that guided them in the hiring process. Although some of the respondents could not explain the details of the policy, they were fully aware that there was an existing document that explained how to deal with the recruitment process in order to protect the organization from showing nepotism and favoritism. According to the respondents, the hiring department was required to advertise any open position and the board members had final authority. Another respondent said that the recruitment policy required all job openings to be advertised on the organization's website, local newspaper, at the chief's office, or at the market place, especially in rural areas.

b) Bribery/Kickback

The second scenario involved giving kickback or bribes in order to be awarded a tender during the procurement process. Although the justification seemed very reasonable, as the procurement officer used the money to pay for his child's medical bill, all the respondents agreed that it was corrupt. Some of the respondents referred to the practice *as fraud, illegal and immoral*. The respondents added that this practice was not tolerated in their organization and had severe consequences including losing one's job.

This practice was considered unacceptable by all the respondents. One of the respondents said that the procurement process was expected to be transparent and fair, and to award equal opportunity to all suppliers. The lack of an open process could lead to loss of one's job, cancellation of the tender, and refunding all incurred expenses. One respondent mentioned that *"for any tender to be accepted, there is a procurement committee that select,*

and if you have any interest in the organization you have to declare. But it is the procurement committee that will make decision.”

Although this practice was not tolerated in any of the organizations, the respondents seemed divided on the likelihood of it occurring in an organization. Some of the respondents clearly said that it was unlikely to occur in their organizations, while other respondents pointed out that it had either occurred in the organization or it was likely to occur. One of the respondents mentioned that it would require *high collaboration* to occur, while another respondent stated that the employees know the consequences of engaging in such a practice.

All the respondents reported that they had an existing official policy with guidelines for the procurement process. However, the policy was referred to by different names like *fraud and anti-corruption policy and procurement policy*.

c) Theft of Resources

In the third scenario, the employees took computers for personal use that were designated for beneficiaries. All the respondents considered this practice corrupt. According to the respondents, funds or any kind of donations should go to the intended beneficiaries and any form of diversion was supposed to be treated seriously. One respondent stated that “*one thing we believe in an organization.... our beneficiary comes first because that is the ultimate purpose of why we are here.*” One of the respondents reported that this behavior was taken seriously and if one was caught with a stolen pencil he would be dismissed. Another one said that it may *lead to dismissal. But it is not as worse as those other scenarios.*

All the respondents agreed that this practice was unacceptable. However one of the respondents said *that it would be considered not key.* Although some of the respondents did

not think this practice was likely to occur in their organization, some of them thought there was a chance it could occur. One of the respondents said that there was a 10 % chance that it could happen, while another one reported that it was not likely to occur, but if it did occur the cost would be high. He added that *there are people who have been fired even for taking calculators*. Another said that it was likely to occur although it had not happened in the past.

All the organizations except one had a policy on how to deal with donated equipment. One respondent reported that her organization did not have a policy, while the others said that they did have an existing policy. One of the respondents explained they had a donor policy that dealt with how to dispose of any equipment purchased with donors' funds.

d) Fraud

The fourth scenario involved fraud. The employee attempted to receive more money than the actual cost incurred during a trip by justifying that the rest of the money would be donated to a charitable organization. The respondents were divided on how this practice could be considered in their organizations. One respondent referred to the practice as fraud, while another respondent mentioned that this was allowed in his organization. He added that at times some of the costs may be *disallowed*. Nearly all the respondents indicated that this practice was treated with leniency and one was likely to receive a warning letter if he or she was caught. This scenario was different from the other scenarios, in which the respondents strongly indicated that an employee could lose his or her job in case they were found.

Although the participants were divided on whether this practice would be perceived as corrupt or not in their organizations, they all agreed that this practice was unacceptable. One of the respondents mentioned that the incurred cost should not be above the market value that is

determined by the organization. She added that *“there is a policy of how much you can receive. There is a policy explaining the different levels of how much you can receive.”* This means that if an employee incurred more than the actual cost incurred during the trip, the organization would not reimburse the extra cost. However, if the employees incurred less than the market value, they would receive the balance. This practice was also considered as unlikely to occur by all the respondents except one. One respondent said that it was unlikely to occur *“because their consequences are known and records are kept.”*

The respondents reported that their organization had a policy and the practice was a clear violation of the policy. One stated that *“it is violation of the official policy. One of our core principles is called integrity.”* Another respondent said that *we have fraud and anticorruption policy.* Although they agreed that their organizations had a policy that guided them, one of the respondents mentioned that this practice was not comprehensive. He mentioned that this was likely to occur especially when one goes on an international trip.

e) Conflict of Interest

The last scenario concerned sharing confidential information regarding the organization’s donors with an employee from another organization. The respondents were divided about how the practice would be considered in their organizations. While some respondents considered it corrupt, two respondents did not consider the information confidential. One respondent pointed out the challenge of technology in maintaining confidentiality with donor information. Due to technological advancement, information has become easily accessible. The respondents agreed that it was unacceptable in their organizations. One respondent said *“that one is not debatable. You have to go. If it is accidental*

you will be given a chance to defend yourself.” However, one said that this practice was acceptable only for people allowed to share the organization’s information.

The respondents agreed that it was not likely to occur, but one respondent disagreed, stating that it was likely to occur because this is a murky area due to the increasing use and reliance of technology such as *email addresses and online communications*. To ensure that violation of donors’ privacy or confidentiality did not occur, any questions regarding donors were supposed to be handled by the organization’s director. Unlike the other practices, this practice was not considered likely to lead to job dismissal but the offender would be given a warning letter, unless it was habitual. The respondents reported that they had a policy in their organizations that stipulated how to share donors’ information.

Overall the respondents were divided on how these practices were tolerated within their organizations. Some of the practices were tolerated more than others. Some of the practices were considered corrupt and unacceptable, while the respondents were divided on whether the practices were likely to occur in their organizations. All the participants considered most of these practices corrupt and unacceptable, and as having severe consequences that included losing one’s job, but none of the respondents mentioned that the offender could be prosecuted in a court of law in addition to these other consequences. All the respondents except one reported that there were policies in their organizations that stipulated how to deal with the specified practices.

Table 4.13: Summary of Tolerance of Corrupt Practices N=6

	Corruptible	Acceptable	Likelihood	Policy
Favoritism	Yes	No	Divided	Yes
Bribery/Kickback	Yes	No	Divided	Yes
Theft	Yes	No	Divided	Divided
Fraudulent claim	Divided	No	Divided	Yes
Conflict of interest	Divided	No	Divided	Yes

Summary of the Findings

The quantitative research found that the majority of participants had at least a college degree, and that English was the language most often used in each participant’s office. The findings also showed that all of the participating organizations had all four dimensions of organizational culture. Clan culture was the most dominant dimension according to the statistical analysis. The qualitative analysis found key themes that were categorized among all four dimensions. Although none of the organization had a perfect plot, some organizations had mean scores that were very close across the four categories. The qualitative analysis also found that responses overlapped in all four dimensions.

The findings revealed that the participants’ perception of corrupt practices varied. All fifteen scenarios in both analyses were described as corrupt and unacceptable by a majority of the respondents. The participants were also divided about whether these corrupt practices were likely to occur in their organizations. The qualitative findings supported the statistical analysis that these corrupt practices were likely to occur in these organizations, but the chances of occurring were minimal.

The bivariate statistics revealed that clan was significantly related to the corrupt variable, while the number of years worked in an organization was significantly correlated to

the acceptance variable. However, the hierarchy, adhocracy, and market dimensions were not significantly correlated to any of the three dependent variables. Overall, the findings indicated that there was no significant association of the IVs and DVs. However, years of employment had significant association with the acceptance of corrupt practices.

Chapter Summary

This chapter presented the findings of quantitative and qualitative research. The data was reliable, as the reliability coefficients for all study variables were above the .70 threshold. The descriptive statistics for variables were first analyzed, bivariate statistics examined the correlations, and MANOVA was used to test for the three propositions. The findings of the qualitative interviews complemented and enhanced the results of the statistical analysis. The next chapter explores the interpretations and relevance of the findings, and discusses conclusions, implications for leadership, recommendations, and suggestions for future research.

CHAPTER 5

DISCUSSIONS, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Corruption undermines the public's faith and trust in any sector, resulting in the collapse of social institutions. Due to the perceived high moral principles of the Non-Governmental Organizations' (NGOs) sector, any form or magnitude of corruption poses a huge problem to their future. This study was interested in critically examining if there is an association between dominant dimensions of organizational culture and tolerance of corrupt practices among the NGOs in Kenya. The overarching research question is *Does organizational culture influence the tolerance of corrupt practices among the NGOs in Kenya?*

This chapter is divided into three sections and interprets the quantitative and qualitative findings, draws conclusions, and makes recommendations towards the end. The first section discusses the limitations of this research, while the second section presents a discussion of the findings from chapter four and practical implications. The final section presents recommendations, contributions, future studies, and a summary of this chapter.

Limitations of the study

The first limitation was sample selection bias because it was not randomized. Due to limited funding and accessibility, the population sample was drawn from organizations that are located only in Nairobi the capital city of Kenya. There were only 185 participants purposefully selected from 30 organizations. In the selection process, it was difficult to establish the total number of employees because the target organizations declined to participate or disclose the contacts of their employees due to privacy reasons. One organization in particular responded by mentioning that they had limited resources and in an effort to be good stewards of the funds

entrusted to them, they could not respond to my requests. Instead they directed me to visit their website. As a result, most of the contacts for the participants were found from online documents, organizations' websites, and recommendations by other employees. The recruitment process of both the organizations and participants included only those participants who agreed to participate, even though case study methods require subjective and judgmental elements (Walshe, 2011). The sample selection bias, limited scope of organizations, and use of contacts received from the internet affected the reliability of the data.

Although, I hoped to conduct 20 face to face interviews in the qualitative phase only six individuals agreed to participate. Even after sending several email requests and calling some of the targeted participants directly, they declined. The low response rate in the qualitative phase could be attributed to fatigue on the side of the participants who had already completed the surveys as well as lack of additional time. Additionally, the response rate might be related to change of interviewing technique, from face to face to telephone, due to lack of funding. A higher number of interviews would have enhanced my results, thus increasing the understanding of the two phenomena. The literature suggests that nonrandomized methods can sometimes achieve the same results as randomized methods and sometimes not (Cook, Shadish, and Wong, 2008).

Another limitation was lack of generalization. The results of this study could not be generalized due to the small size of the sample, which was not randomly selected. A sample of 30 organizations was not representative because there are more than 7,200 NGOs operating in Kenya. The analysis of the respondents from each organization revealed that 4 organizations had only one respondent per organization and 7 organizations had two respondents per

organization. According to the literature, a good analysis of organizational culture requires more than one individual response; however, the 11 organizations were retained in the analysis (Schein, 1992). Generalizing is difficult or impossible because one person or small group cannot represent all similar groups or situations (Stake, 1995). In addition, the study could not establish causality or existence of association of the two phenomena. The data collection was limited because it only reflected the perceptions of participants at a fixed point in time. Therefore, it could not determine if there ongoing concerns that were yet considered relevant at the time (Frankfort- Nachimias & Nachimias, 2008).

Multicollinearity was another limitation. According to the data analysis, the four dimensions of organizational culture were highly correlated because they were a linear combination and not all the IVs could be tested at the same time. Based on the bivariate correlation between the independent and dependent variables, none of the variables were highly correlated to be excluded (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007). The policy variable was dropped after failing the normality assumption even after logarithmic transformation was conducted in order to create normal distributions and strengthen the power of the model.

Another limitation was the nature of corruption. Corruption is a difficult phenomenon to measure. Even when one is able to clearly define what corruption is in a particular jurisdiction or sector, the fact that the act is illegal means that it is more likely to be perpetrated in secret (Tanzi, 1998). Corrupt practices are considered unacceptable and illegal with severe consequences (Samford et al., 2006). However, those who engage in any of the practices benefit in some way. The beneficiaries are reluctant to disclose any information regarding practices taking place in their organizations. This kind of fear is justified because such activities

can lead to a negative image as well as loss of funding and jobs (Brass, 2009). Nevertheless, the survey was self-administered; the employees may have feared implicating themselves or their organizations, hence their reluctance to participate in the survey and the telephone interviews. For example, some participants wrote back inquiring how I accessed their contact information, while others openly reported that the topic was “very sensitive” and expressed concerns that the results would appear in the media.

As a result, the participants were likely to be influenced to answer the survey questions in a socially desirable way due to fear of implications as well as the self-reported measures of tolerance of corrupt practices; the subjects responded to survey and interview questions in the way they believed that the researcher wanted them to respond (Seligson, 2005). In order to reduce the effects of social desirability, the researcher asked probe questions during interviews. Additionally, the survey was self-administered and contained clear instructions about how to respond. Self-administered surveys have been shown to have valid responses and no bias from the interviewer (McNabb, 2007; Dillman et al., 2009).

Discussion of Findings

Background of the Study

This study conducted 6 telephone interviews and 105 electronic surveys to gather data among 30 organizations located in Nairobi, Kenya. The survey response rate was 56.8 percent, which was high and acceptable for an electronic survey (Frankfort-Nachimias & Nachimias, 2008). The instruments used in this study were determined to be reliable and valid by internal consistency and construct validity testing. The Organizational Culture Assessment Instrument (OCAI), which is a succinct questionnaire, was applied to measure the four dimensions of the

Competing Values Framework (Quinn & Spreitzer, 1991; Yun Seok et al., 2010). The OCAI instrument was found to be reliable and valid with a Cronbach's alpha (α) between .70 and .80, which indicated that the scale items were tightly connected. The tolerance of corruption was measured using four variables with ten items each. The four variables had a reliability coefficient of above .80, thus each scale was found to be reliable. The interview questions were designed based on the OCAI instrument and the four variables of tolerance of corrupt practices.

Descriptive Statistics

The study revealed a gender gap, where 56 percent of the participants were male, while 44 percent were female. This finding should not be interpreted as an actual representation of the gender ratio of employees working in more than 7,000 NGOs in Kenya. This only indicates the gender composition of the sample selected among the 30 organizations that participated. Furthermore, this finding is not supported by other previous studies that indicated a greater ratio of women to men in the nonprofit sector compared to the private sector (Mirvis & Hackett, 1983; Benz, 2005). Although the sample consisted of staff working in the head office, Ahmad (2002) found that more women than men worked in NGOs as fieldworkers in Bangladesh. However, Ahmad's study did not indicate whether the uneven distribution of workers was the same for non-field positions. In another study conducted across nonprofits in the United States and Great Britain covering the 1990s, Benz (2005) found that approximately 68 percent of employees were women. However, if the gender ratio reflected by the sample is an accurate reflection of employees of the NGO sector in Kenya, it suggests a gender imbalance. The gender imbalance may be attributed to different factors such as biased hiring of

male employees or working conditions that do not favor female employees. Therefore, NGOs should be aware of any bias and the benefits of a diverse workforce.

The demographic statistics findings revealed that the majority of the respondents had at least a college degree. Although the relevance of the impact of education on the NGOs' management was outside the scope of this study, the analysis indicated that the participants were young (30-39), were highly educated with a graduate degree, and most of them held management positions. This evidence is in line with previous literature showing that NGOs in Kenya are composed of the educated elite, who are in positions of leadership, are well-versed in the language of modernization, and are located in urban areas (Shivji, 2007; Harsh et al., 2010).

Research shows that high staff turnover is likely to affect the organization's productivity and staff morale (Schein, 1992). The findings revealed that almost 70 percent of the participants held their positions for more than three years in their present organizations. This analysis suggests that the employees in the NGO sector are positively influenced by employment stability, hence the low turnover. Guthrie (2001) found a positive association between employee retention and firm productivity in New Zealand. Likewise, Shaw (2011) found that when individuals in key positions quit, the effects are highly detrimental to the workforce performance outcomes, investments, and the organization's stability, as well as external relationships. Employee retention is necessary in all organizations but it is critical for the NGO sector, which has multiple stakeholders with different level of investments.

Organizational Culture

The qualitative analysis found key themes such as *employees' involvement, goal achievement, teamwork, creativity, predictability, participatory leadership, innovative leadership, bureaucratic leadership, and human development*, which were categorized in the four dimensions (clan, adhocracy, market, hierarchy) of Competing Values Framework. It is worth noting that these four dimensions are not mutually exclusive; every organization expresses each dimension to some degree, yet most organizations emphasize some of these dimensions more than others (Quinn & Cammeron, 1999). On that note, the qualitative findings indicated that the number of themes categorized under clan dimension exceeded the other three dimensions.

Similarly, the statistical analysis indicated that the four dimensions were present in all selected organizations. This analysis was supported by previous studies that found that the four dimensions of organizational culture were present among the studied organizations in China, Hong Kong, India, Japan, Thailand, and Vietnam (Deshpande & Farley, 2004). The study did not find any evidence of a perfect plot or balanced culture in the 30 organizations. However, 3 organizations had mean scores of the second most dominant dimension at less than half a point of difference from the most dominant dimension. This was consistent with the qualitative findings that some themes such as *mission-oriented* overlapped in all dimensions. This implies that those organizations put emphasis on or value the attributes of the two dimensions at the same level.

The study found that clan dimension was the most dominant culture among the selected organizations, with the highest mean score. This finding can be related to a previous

study by Hofstede (1983) that classified East African countries' national culture as collectivistic rather than individualistic. According to Hofstede (1983), in collectivistic culture, people are born in extended families that protect them and are emotionally dependent on organizations or institutions. Similarly, an organization dominated by a clan culture has a strong sense of shared values and is committed to the welfare of its employees because it views itself more as an extended family than an economic entity (Cameron & Quinn, 1999). This implies the majority of the NGOs in Kenya provide that nurturing to their employees.

Hierarchy dimension had the second highest mean score. This implies that these organizations dominated by hierarchy dimension are likely to emphasize rule-enforcement in order to bring stability (Hofstede et al., 1990). This can be confirmed by the overwhelming majority who responded that their organizations had clear policies that guided them in how to deal with corrupt practices. This study found that more than 93.5 percent reported having an organizational policy. In addition, this evidence did not support the widely held perception that NGOs in the developing countries enjoy greater flexibility and discretion because they are loosely organized, with no rules to create internal checks and balances (Shivji, 2007; Nair & Bhatnagar, 2011).

This study found that market dimension had the third highest mean score. Although only 4 organizations could statistically fit in this dimension, the six respondents in the qualitative analysis indicated that their organizations measured their success by their performance. This suggests that these organizations are focused on productivity and maintaining a strong relationship with the external stakeholders and service recipients.

According to Cameron & Quinn (1999), these organizations put emphasis on quality and conquering a market that is assumed to be aggressive.

Adhocracy culture was the least dominant dimension according to the findings. It had the lowest mean score. This implies that the employees in these organizations have the freedom to be creative as they develop new ways of delivering services efficiently. This also implies that they are comfortable in adapting themselves to new challenges as they put maximum effort into their work (Hofstede et al., 1990). In the qualitative analysis, some respondents mentioned that their organizations rewarded employees who were creative and had fresh ideas for how to deliver services efficiently. This study was hoping to find innovation as one of the most dominant cultures, because literature indicates that NGOs are founded by creative individuals who most often are determined to find new products and better ways to deliver goods and services (Teegarden, et al., 2011). Furthermore, innovation theory points out that NGOs arise from public need for new services and products that both the market and the government fail to meet (Teegarden et al., 2011). However, the findings were in line with a study conducted in Gambia by Fyvie and Ager (1999), which found that NGOs are not as innovative as many stakeholders assume.

In general, this analysis points out the inherent tensions and contradictions that are likely to face organizational management as they adjust to the external environment and focus internally on their success (Quinn et al., 1991). For example, the 18 organizations that highly emphasized participation and employees' welfare (clan dimension) were inclined towards operating in an environment that was stable and controlled by policies and had less emphasis on creativity, discretion, and competition. The study by Al-Khalifa and Aspinwall (2001) also

found that many industries in Qatar had a clan dominant dimension of organizational culture, but they also tended to be inclined towards a mix of hierarchical and rational characteristics. In the same way, the 6 organizations that put more emphasis on stability and control were also inclined more towards involvement and less towards competition, creativity and discretion. In other words, these 24 organizations were focused on internal integration rather than external adaptation.

On the other hand, 4 organizations that put emphasis on competition and results were inclined to stability, control and less inclined to employees' involvement and creativity. This inclination indicates the tension that exists in these organizations as they attempt to balance stability and control and put less emphasis on discretion. This suggests that organizations emphasizing competition and outcomes want to operate within an environment that is stable and predictable. Fyvie and Ager (1999) found that as the NGOs grow to large-scale service delivery they are increasingly obliged to change their ways of operations and to "complicate and bureaucratize their structures" (p.1394). This can explain why there were only two organizations that were dominated by adhocracy culture (innovation) and were inclined more to competition and less towards involvement and stability.

Ultimately, this evidence reveals the complexity of what NGOs face in balancing mission achievement through innovation, reputation, a good relationship with the stakeholders, and integration of human resources. Simultaneously, these organizations have to balance the external adaptation, which involves how the organization can maintain its image and mission within its outside world, with the internal integration that involves the employees' welfare and

participation. This study reveals that the NGO sector is diverse and complex, making it difficult to be explained by one overarching organizational culture framework.

Tolerance of Corrupt Practices

Literature on corruption shows the use of office resources for personal use, tendering process, staff recruitment selection, falsification of documents, and appropriation of organization's funds as the most prevalent practices (Holloway, 2004; Trivunovic, 2011). The fifteen scenarios used in this study were based on the most common forms of corruption such as kickbacks, bribes, nepotism, favoritism, fraud, theft, embezzlement, and extortion. These fifteen practices were categorized into five main groups that contained three forms of corrupt practices. Overall this study found that the participants in both qualitative and statistical analysis had varied responses on how they perceived and justified the practices described in all the scenarios. The findings implied that the employees were likely to justify and rationalize the various corrupt practices depending on the organizational culture.

Acceptance variable

According to the findings, *favoritism in the recruitment process, abuse of power in the tendering process, nepotism, and embezzlement of funds* had the lowest mean. These practices had a mean score lower than the acceptance variable mean and a higher number of participants who considered them acceptable. For example, 32 percent of the participants considered *favoritism* acceptable, while 16 percent considered abuse of power acceptable. The *embezzlement of funds* had more than 14 percent of the respondents who considered it acceptable, while *nepotism* had more than 11 percent. These findings suggest that these practices were considered less acceptable.

On the other hand, *the extortion of funds from donors, conflict of interest, making fraudulent expense claims, theft of inventory, and bribery* were viewed as the most unacceptable practices. Unlike the other four practices, these six had a mean score higher than the acceptance variable mean score. These practices had less than 10 percent of participants who considered them acceptable, while more than 92 percent of the participants considered theft of inventory unacceptable. The qualitative analysis indicated that all five practices, including favoritism, were considered unacceptable by the respondents.

The difference in the perception of these practices can be attributed to how the employees rationalize them (Gorta, 2001; Ashforth & Anand, 2003). Individuals use rationalizations in order to reduce any perceived stigma that may be associated with engaging in corrupt acts. According to Anand et al (2004), employees can justify their actions by arguing that some of the norms can be breached in order to achieve an important goal. This might explain why favoritism was perceived more favorably than the other practices. According to Anand et al (2004), when a group becomes highly cohesive, the employees uphold the needs of the in-group, regarding them as more important than those of outside groups or society.

Corruption variable

The statistical and qualitative analysis revealed that the participants' responses varied depending on how they considered the different corruption acts. In qualitative analysis, all six respondents agreed that *favoritism, bribery/ kickbacks, and theft* were corrupt acts, while their responses varied on making *fraudulent expense claims* and *conflict of interest*. Although statistical analysis indicated that the ten corrupt practices were considered corrupt and unjustifiable, nearly all the practices had individual respondents who considered them

justifiable. The analysis revealed that almost a quarter of the respondents considered *favoritism* not corrupt, while 17 percent of the respondents viewed it as corrupt but justifiable.

The findings suggest that these corrupt practices were judged unfavorably by a significant number of respondents. An individual attitude towards corrupt practices and incongruent values can perpetuate the continuation of the practices in an organization (Gorta, 2006). For example, only one percent of the respondents considered *fraudulent expense claims*, *bribery*, and *theft of inventory* uncorrupt while *extortion of donors* and *conflict of interest* were perceived as corrupt by all the respondents. The findings raise concerns over the high number of respondents who considered favoritism as uncorrupt or corrupt but justifiable. This suggests that the employees are likely to justify corrupt practices when the benefits go to one of them internally. According to the results, these organizations have a certain degree of corruption permissiveness, which for the most part allows the respondents to justify some of the corrupt practices more than others. The findings raise the issue of whether or not the respondents were influenced by social desirability biases, making it difficult to admit that such practices were indeed justifiable (Moreno, 2002).

Likelihood Variable

The findings indicated that the respondents were divided on the likelihood of corrupt practices occurring in their organizations. The qualitative analysis indicated that the respondents acknowledged there was a chance of these corrupt practices occurring within their organizations. Some of the respondents reported that some of the practices had either happened before, or there was a chance of them happening in the future. One respondent said there was a 10 percent chance that some corrupt practices could happen, while another

mentioned that it was likely to occur. In an attempt to show zero-tolerance for corruption, one respondent said, *there are people who have been fired even for taking calculators*. This was taken as an admission that some of the corrupt practices had occurred or were likely to occur in their organizations.

The statistical analysis revealed that the responses were distributed over all five categories ranging from *very likely* to *very unlikely*. However, some practices were perceived as more likely to occur than others. For example, negligence of duty was considered as likely to occur by more than 42 percent of the participants, while 44 percent considered favoritism likely to occur. However, nearly 85 percent considered extortion unlikely to occur, while more than 70 percent of the participants considered favoritism unlikely to occur. Although bribery remains the most common form of corruption in Kenya (Luo, 2005), only 20 percent of the respondents thought that it was likely to occur in their organization, while more than 70 percent of the participants considered bribery and favoritism unlikely to occur. These findings are confirmed by the TI Kenya chapter study (2008) indicating that only 27 percent of the public perceived bribery likely to occur in NGOs, compared to 93 percent of the public who considered bribery likely to occur in the Police department. This represent a drop from the previous year, when 46 percent of the public indicated that bribery was likely to occur in the NGOs and only 64 percent in the Kenya Police. On the other hand, a study conducted in Palestine found that half of the participants perceived that there was corruption within NGOs. However, nepotism was the most common form of corrupt practice followed by favoritism in service provision, excessive salaries for the executives, and making personal use of the organizations' facilities (NAZAHA, 2006).

According to the TI Kenya chapter study in 2008, the Aggregate Index scale of 0-100 indicated a corruption level that ranked NGOs as number 23 with a range of 14 points, which was slightly lower than Foreign missions/International organizations, which scored 16 points. As previous studies indicate, NGOs are vulnerable to corrupt practices regardless of their religious orientation and altruistic values (Gibelman & Gelman, 2004). Overall, the findings revealed that there was a chance of corrupt practices occurring within the NGOs in Kenya.

Policy Variable

The statistical and qualitative analysis indicated that all the organizations had policies guiding the employees in nearly all fifteen practices. In general, only a very small number of respondents reported that their organizations did not have a policy guiding any of the practices described in the ten scenarios. Only favoritism had more than 20 percent of the respondents reporting that they did not have a policy in their organizations. As a whole, only one organization reported that it did not have an anti-corruption policy. Therefore, the statistical analysis could not trigger any policy implications. However, the qualitative analysis indicated some policy disconnect as one of the respondents mentioned that one can only be reimbursed the set limit regardless of the actual cost, whether more or less. According to the participants, sanctions included oral or written warnings, performance improvement plans, suspension, transfer or termination of employment.

Multivariate Statistics

Prop. 1. Organizations characterized by a dominant clan dimension are likely to have a higher level of tolerance for corrupt practices than organizations characterized by a dominant hierarchy dimension.

The first proposition assumed that organizations characterized by clan culture were likely to have a higher tolerance of corrupt practices compared to organizations dominated by the hierarchy dimension. Although previous studies had concluded that organizations with values of strong kinship culture were more likely to be engaged in corrupt practices, this study found that clan culture did not have significant influence on the tolerance of corrupt practices. Similarly, the hierarchy dimension was not related to tolerance of corrupt practices. This implies that neither clan nor hierarchy dimensions are likely to influence the employees' involvement in corrupt practices. Previous studies found that employees from organizations dominated by hierarchy culture are likely to have lower chances of engaging in corrupt practices because of the rules that ensure proper checks and balances, in comparison to clan dominated organizations (Duggars & Duggars, 2004; Vian, 2008; Uneke, 2010). This study reveals that other factors such as the *years of employment* had significant influence, which can be attributed to the employees' involvement in corrupt practices.

Prop. 2. Organizations characterized by a dominant adhocracy culture are likely to have higher tolerance of corrupt practices than organizations dominated by market culture.

The second proposition assumed that organizations characterized by market dimension are more competitive and have lower incentives to engage in corrupt practices due to the high risks when one is caught (Sandholtz & Taagepera, 2005). On the other hand, in organizations dominated by adhocracy dimension, employees are likely to have more incentive to engage in

corrupt practices to adapt themselves to the environment (Rodriguez et al., 2005). However, this proposition could not be tested because there were insufficient cases to compare the relationship between the two dimensions and tolerance of corrupt practices.

Prop. 3. Organizations that are characterized by dominant clan and adhocracy dimensions are likely to have a higher level of tolerance for corrupt practices than organizations that are characterized by dominant hierarchy and market dimensions.

The third proposition assumed that organizations that emphasize flexibility and discretion (clan and adhocracy dimensions) were likely to tolerate corrupt practices more than organizations that emphasize stability and control (market and hierarchy dimensions). However, the findings indicated that organizations dominated by clan or adhocracy dimensions, compared to organizations dominated by hierarchy or market dimensions, did not have a significant correlation with tolerance of corrupt practices. That implies that none of the organizational culture dimensions significantly influence the attitudes towards corrupt practices in their particular organizations. However, the *years of employment* had a significant effect on the acceptance of corrupt practices.

In summary, the three propositions were not supported by the findings. The three propositions did not establish a link that organizational culture was significantly correlated to the level of tolerance among the NGOs in Kenya. Although the analysis indicated that there was tolerance of corrupt practices among the NGOs, this study could not find any association of organizational culture and tolerance of corrupt practices. However, the bivariate correlations indicated that clan dimension was negatively correlated to the participants' perception of corrupt practices. Contrary to results from the previous studies, which indicated that in organizations dominated by clan culture the employees have close connections like in an

extended family, raising chances of corruption occurring. However, this analysis was not supported. A study by Duggars and Duggars (2004) concluded that organizations with values of strong kinship culture are more likely to be engaged in corrupt practices. Likewise, Seleim and Bontis (2009) concluded that people from collectivist societies are more likely to be corrupt because they give the goals of their close friends and colleagues (in-group) a higher priority than the goals of the public. So an employee may be pressured to engage in a corrupt practice in order to comply with a moral value and a norm of the in-group (de Graaf, 2007). However, this study found that clan culture is likely to influence the employees' perception of corruption as unfavorable. This can explain why the majority of the participants considered the practices corrupt and unjustifiable, except for favoritism.

The years of employment were positively correlated to the acceptance of corrupt practices. This suggests that the longer an employee had worked in a particular organization, the more they were likely to perceive corrupt practices as justifiable. This implies that employees who have worked longer in an organization are likely to be socialized in the existing culture and perceive corrupt practices as acceptable, while new employees are likely to perceive these practices as less acceptable. Ashforth and Anada (2003) found that through an incremental socialization process, new employees rationalize the corrupt behaviors, which become part of their routine. Therefore, if the organization is tolerant of corrupt practices, those corrupt practices will be embedded in the organization and will influence the behaviors of the employees (Manz et al., 2005).

On the other hand, the study did not find any supporting evidence that the demographic data such as gender, age, education, and the primary language used in an office was

significantly correlated to the three dependent variables. Previous studies have found that gender has a significant correlation to corruption. A study by Torgler and Valev (2006) found that being a female increased the probability of a person stating that engaging in corrupt practices, such as accepting bribes, was not justifiable. They concluded that females had higher norms than males regarding bribery, which meant that they were less likely to accept or ask for bribes. Swamy et al (2001) also found that women were less likely to condone bribe taking than men in general. Additionally Torgler and Valev (2006) found that age was correlated to justification of corrupt practices in an organization, indicating that older people are more likely to have higher social norms than younger people.

Favoritism in the hiring process was considered as more acceptable, less corrupt, and more likely to occur in any of these organizations. The favorable consideration can be attributed to rationalization and justification as earlier mentioned. However, it can be attributed to the pressure from the donors to maintain administrative costs at unfeasible low level (Walsh & Lenihan, 2006). Walsh and Lenihan (2006) point out that NGOs are required to spend less than 10 percent of their overheads even though the average administrative costs are three times or higher. As a result, some NGOs find means and ways to bury these costs under other headings or cut corners such as hiring internally without advertising. Since a majority of the participants were at managerial position, they are likely to rationalize the act and justify it as a way of helping their organization (Holloway, 2006). Holloway (2006) points out that “it becomes a slippery slope for individual NGO staff people to carry out corrupt practices to benefit their organization, and yet to avoid benefiting themselves” (P.23).

Extortion of funds from donor was considered as the most unacceptable practice by more than 90 percent of the respondents, while 97 percent of the participants considered it as unjustifiable, and 85 percent considered it as unlikely to occur. These responses could be attributed to the increasing number of people who claim to start NGOs but are motivated purely by the “chance of extracting income from donor organization” (Holloway, 2006 p.23). Those who start and lead these kinds of NGOs are interested in personal income as opposed to employees’ welfare and the mission of the NGO sector. The question remains how the employees would have reacted if the funds benefitted them directly as opposed to the director’s personal use. It is clear that personal benefits derived from a corruption culture create difficult moral choices for the employees (Holloway, 2006).

Practical Implications

The results of this research have a number of important practical implications for the future of the NGO sector in Kenya. This study found that corrupt practices were likely to occur in the selected NGOs. Therefore, there is a definite need for the NGO sector in general and individual organizations in particular to develop a framework that seriously addresses any chance of corruption occurring. Any existence of corrupt practices in the NGO sector affects its organizational sustainability, which includes financial stability. Organizational sustainability focuses on the ability of an organization to secure and manage sufficient resources, which enable it to fulfill its mission effectively and consistently over time without excessive dependence on any single funding source.

According to Eisenberg (2004) public trust is essential to the organizational sustainability and fiscal health of the NGO sector. Although the NGO sector in Kenya has been

in existence for several decades, it has not matured to where it can fully sustain itself financially, as it receives most of its funding from donors. Several studies conducted in East Africa found that 75 to 100 percent of most East African NGOs' income was mainly from donor funding (Edwards & Hume, 1996; Barr et al., 2003). Ngunyi (1996) conducted a study of eleven institutions promoting democracy and human rights in Kenya and found that nine of the NGOs were donor-created or prompted to affect their missions. According to Gugerty, (2010), the NGO sector has seen an increase in donor funding due to a high level of trust; however, this funding is likely to be affected by implications of corruption and lack of accountability. Subsequently, the lack of resources will affect the organization's ability to fulfill its mission and provide quality services that impact the beneficiaries. Therefore the NGO sector requires a full commitment from all the stakeholders, including the employees and donors, for its survival.

Evidence of corruption will lead to the loss of public influence in advocacy and lobbying for the welfare of the poor. In other words, chances of corruption occurring will lead the NGO sector to lose its voice and esteemed position, which has empowered the sector to challenge the government, especially during the Moi administration. NGOs such as Transparency International and humanitarian organizations have stood as the beacon of hope for combating corrupt practices in the public sector (Anassi, 2004). The NGO sector has also increased the public participation in decision-making through lobbying, advocacy, and exposing the actions and inactions of the government (Barr et al., 2003). Additionally, the NGOs today in Kenya are influencing public policy formulation as they are involved in establishing boards, development committees, and stakeholders' forums at the grassroots level (Brass, 2009). Some of these

organizations represent the interests of the poor and marginalized groups through campaigning on their behalf to bring positive change (Mercer, 2002).

Corruption can contribute to the decline of influence, social impact and effectiveness. Therefore, corrupt practices need to be addressed by establishing safeguards such as anti-corruption policies, critical self-assessment analysis, and introducing monitoring activities. Those organizations that tolerate any corrupt behavior should work out their own ethical dilemmas before they can claim any credibility. In a culture where corruption is rampant, the NGOs' detractors will have a field day exposing any corrupt acts associated with the NGO sector in order to cause NGOs to lose their public influence and trust.

The findings also suggested that NGOs in Kenya put more emphasis on the employee's involvement, welfare and control, and less on innovation and outcomes. When an organization lacks creativity and innovation but instead emphasizes control, it can be viewed as managing the status quo, which can be attributed to fear of change. According to the innovation theory, NGOs arise from the need for new and improved quality services, which the government is unable to provide due to the political implications, such as accusation of waste of resources or "big government" (Teegarden et al., 2011). Although innovation is traditionally a term associated with the business sector, in recent years, innovation and adaptability have come to be perceived as key attributes of NGOs working in the field of development (Fyvie & Ager, 1999). Fyvie and Ager (1999) concluded that NGOs have the potential to be innovative, but they are restricted by requirements of large-scale service provision as they grow in size and have multiple accountabilities to the stakeholders. However, the analysis confirmed the long held assumption that NGOs have a natural tendency towards centralization, bureaucracy and

control (Edwards & Hulme, 1994). According to the Center for the Study of Social Policy (2007), a lack of necessary change and competition in order to improve the quality of services can lead to customer dissatisfaction and lowering revenue. There is no doubt that creativity, flexibility, and willingness to innovate are the keys to success of any organization's growth and promotion of true stakeholder participation.

The demographic data of the participants revealed that there was gender imbalance and age difference, which indicates a lack of diversity. Literature indicates that diversity can improve group performance because the group has a wide range of views and skills (Milliken & Martins, 1996). A study by Kiavitz (2003) indicated that there was an overall positive effect of female participation on an organization's performance. The unique attributes of the individual members increase the knowledge base and motivate the employees to consider other options, thus, the incentives to generate more innovative solutions for their specific organizations and the NGO sector in general. However, diversity can also be detrimental to group cohesion and performance because personal backgrounds and experiences have the potential to exert a negative influence.

Contributions of the Study

This study makes several contributions to the literature of organizational culture, corruption, and the NGO sector in general, based on the findings. First, the findings add substantially to our understanding of the most dominant dimension of organizational culture among the NGOs in Kenya. Literature indicates that the study of organizational culture has not received much attention among the NGOs in general and developing countries in particular (Boan & Funderburk, 2003; Keyton, 2011; Teegarden et al., 2011). Although scholars may

question whether the competing values framework (CVF) applied in this study is the most appropriate framework to measure organizational culture, this study has established that CVF can be applied to NGOs and elsewhere in the world. Furthermore, the study established that all the CVF dimensions were present among the selected organizations.

Second, the present study provides additional evidence with respect to tolerance of corrupt practices among the NGOs in Kenya. The research on corruption among the NGOs' organizational life is not fully developed because of the assumption that these organizations are above any form of corruption; this study confirms that NGOs are vulnerable to corruption (Harsh et al., 2010). The analysis provides a basis from which existing and new organizations can develop measures to curb any corrupt practices, which have adverse implications like loss of funding and public trust.

Third, though this study did not find a link between organizational culture and tolerance of corrupt practices, it has established that it is possible to test whether organizational culture impacts tolerance of corrupt practices. This is the first study to attempt to establish this association in the NGO sector in Kenya.

Recommendations

This study revealed practical implications that affect the organizational culture and tolerance of corrupt practices among NGOs in Kenya. Consequently, there are a number of important changes which need to be made for the future of this "noble" sector based on the findings. These recommendations may not apply to all the different types of NGOs the same way due to the idiosyncratic differences among them. However, these recommendations can be domesticated according to the unique needs of a particular site.

First, the NGO sector should ensure an organizational culture that emphasizes all the attributes necessary to ensure healthy survival and achieve its mission with the available resources. The findings suggest that the majority of the organizations were dominated by clan, followed by hierarchy culture, and very few that were dominated by adhocracy culture. There is no doubt that in the 21st century, the NGO sector has to balance innovation with other organizational attributes such as control, flexibility, and stability. Each organization should have the ability to be flexible to adapt to the external environment without losing its fundamental values and destabilizing the basic assumptions that are pivotal to its survival (Schein, 1992; Baker, 2002).

Therefore, I recommend a strong organizational culture that upholds these attributes. Research shows that NGOs' donors prefer investing in an organization with a strong culture, which is effective due to its adaptability, stability, innovation, and competition (Edwards & Hulme, 1996). In order to model a culture that is most preferred by the employees, practitioners can apply the organizational culture assessment instrument to measure the current culture. After a five minute break, the same instrument can be applied to measure the most preferred culture and then compare the difference between the two outcomes. This will assist them to model a culture that is consistent and congruent in its beliefs, norms, and basic assumptions of their organization (Baker, 2002; Yun Seok et al., 2010).

Second, this study found evidence that NGOs are likely to tolerate corrupt acts, thus confirming other studies that NGOs are equally vulnerable to corruption as the public sector. Any form and magnitude of corruption poses a huge problem to the public and donor view of the economic future of NGOs (Holloway, 1998; Gibelman & Gelman, 2004). Although the NGOs

have little hope of eradicating contextual corruption in Kenya, they can and should take steps to prevent or address corruption within their own organizations. This evidence can be used to develop targeted interventions aimed at addressing any likelihood of corrupt practices happening. The existing culture should not make it easy for a perpetrator to engage in corrupt practices. According to de Graaf (2007), corruption gains are tough to influence but costs can be raised by imposing steeper penalties that include losing one's job and being arraigned in court. In other words, the focus should be on improving the chances of catching the perpetrator by ensuring greater surveillance, auditing, and developing a culture of transparency.

The starting point should be the willingness of the NGOs to expose corrupt activities that are reported and proved in their organizations. The literature indicates that the majority of NGOs believe that exposing corruption in their organizations poses major financial consequences, which undermine their credibility and reputation (Holloway, 1998). Exposure of corrupt practices is likely to enhance transparency culture and promote openness. In the same vein, exposing corrupt practices in an organization does not necessarily appear to negatively affect donor perception at an irreversible rate (Holloway, 2001). This exposure of corrupt practices can ensure that organizations do not fall into a trap of hiring an employee who might have been fired from his or her job for engaging in corruption or other unethical behaviors.

The study indicated that all the organizations had anti-corruption policies, and the analysis of the responses revealed loopholes in how the NGOs safeguard against corruption. Some of the corrupt practices, such as favoritism and nepotism, were perceived as justifiable, acceptable, and more likely to occur by a majority of the respondents. Therefore, the NGO sector should ensure that all anti-corruption policies, including whistle-blowing mechanisms

that encourage the employees to report any corrupt practice occurring in the organization, are put in place. According to Transparency International (2010), whistle-blowing mechanisms empower the staff to speak against corruption in order to create an avenue to receive suggestions on how to address suspected corruption, thus increasing accountability within an organization. The staff should have a right to report any violations of the code of conduct in confidence and with protection from any reprisals. I would suggest that the policies should protect any employees who want to report any corrupt practices.

In addition, the NGOs can mandate that they form an investigative committee, which is composed of staff and other stakeholders. The central committee should ensure that an organization has updated policies that address any new and existing corrupt practices. Many theories of corruption indicate that the causes and effects of corruption are a mix of issues bordering on poverty, greed, pressure, opportunity, and the rationalization of associated risk (Klitgaard 1988; Rose-Ackerman, 1997; Vian, 2008; Mbaku, 2008). This committee should make sure that the policies are fair and equitable in order to address all aforementioned causes such as need and opportunity. The committee should take a role of sensitizing the employees, beneficiaries and other stakeholders to the dangers of engaging in corruption. The committee should enhance safeguards against potential wrongdoings with greater alertness and increased sensitivity to the implications of loss of credibility due to corruption.

Similarly, the committee should ensure that any reported allegation of corruption is properly investigated and if proven, the staff is dealt with according to the organization's policy as well as the country's anti-corruption laws. Although the respondents reported that their organizations had strict policies, it was observed that none of the respondents ever mentioned

reporting any of the corrupt practices to the police. According to Transparency International (2010), corruption should always be reported to the local police and the case should be pursued in the courts of law. However, it is advisable to consider the severity and scale of the corrupt practices, the cost, and the likelihood of proving a criminal claim.

Literature indicates that organizational culture can embed corrupt practices into the organization's structure through institutionalization process, socialization process, and occurrence of critical incidents (Ashforth & Anada, 2003; Manz et al., 2005). If an organization is tolerant of corrupt practices, corrupt practices will become part of it and influence behaviors of the employees. Therefore, the organizational leadership, with the help of the committee where it exists, should ensure that norms and organizational values do not tolerate corrupt practices. According to Schein (1990), the socialization process begins with the recruitment and selection of new members, who have inclinations toward the set of assumptions, beliefs, and values held in a particular organization. As a result, new employees begin to engage in questionable practices when they are socialized into an organizational culture that tolerates corrupt practices (Ashforth et al., 2008). As a means of reducing the incidence of questionable practices, new employees should be introduced to the anti-corruption policies and the consequences of engaging in corrupt practices. In the qualitative analysis, some of the respondents reported that their organizations have a policy requiring all the employees to declare any conflict of interests and that they will uphold a culture that does not tolerate corruption.

Although the NGO Act of 1990 set standards that indicate effective governance structure that help to identify and restrict the opportunities of fictitious organizations, the culture in the NGO Coordination Board and among the public officials have continued the registration of less

well-resourced organizations (Brass, 2009). As a result, both the registering board (NGO Coordination Board) and NGO council should be autonomous of any influence from the government, private sector, or NGOs themselves so as to deal with all organizations fairly and independently. The NGO Coordination Board has set some standards that are not often followed due to limited resources and lack of well-qualified staff (Brass, 2009). The board should be self-sustaining, equipped with enough resources and power to deregister any organization that is engaged in corruption. In other words, registered organizations should be in a position to account for their funds and how they are used. The annual returns filed with the NGO Bureau Board should be open to the public to ensure for vertical accountability (Ebrahim, 2003a). Upon registration, the registering staff should do a follow up after six months of registration to ensure that the organization is in operation in the physical address it gave so as to overcome the “briefcase NGOs.” In the case of a particular non-existent organization, its registration certificate should be cancelled and its officials should explain the circumstances behind its failure to begin operations.

The stakeholders, especially funders, should visit the projects, which have been found to be an effective mechanism of corruption prevention and detection (Trivunovic, 2011). However, the process is expensive and time consuming, especially for Northern donors, but should be engaged in often. One way of cutting the costs is building collaboration between international and local donors. The local donors should be in a position to visit the projects and give a comprehensive report that would be more reliable. International organizations can also engage the local NGOs to conduct projects on their behalf as this will cut costs.

The NGOs should establish horizontal accountability that emphasizes integrity among themselves. Any registered organizations should demonstrate ethical standards and should be held accountable by others in the sector. Failure to change should be reported to the NGO council pending severe penalties including deregistration. Therefore, NGOs need to collaborate in order to mitigate the impact on the NGO sector and in other sectors as well (Knox, 2009; Holloway, 2006). NGOs in Kenya should collaborate specifically in establishing a code of conduct that sets standards and values, and promotes accountability in the NGO sector. The NGO council, which has been less effective in promoting self-regulation in the sector, should ensure all NGOs' commitment to the implementation of the code of conduct.

Finally, corruption in Kenya is systemic, costly, and intertwined with the fabric of Kenyans' daily life (Anassi, 2004; Kimuyu, 2009). It is difficult for a single sector to influence a change of the prevailing culture without the support of other sectors. Therefore, NGOs need to collaborate with the public and private sectors, in order to mitigate the impact on the NGO sector and in other sectors as well (Knox, 2009; Holloway, 2006). Literature indicates that public awareness has a significant effect on reducing the corruption incidences (Seligson, 2001). A study conducted in Bangladesh by Knox (2009) found that mobilization of all sectors and their stakeholders led to increased awareness of the implications of corruption, thus increasing accountability and reduction of petty corruption. Therefore, the three sectors can increase public awareness to decrease chances of engaging in corruption. *"One hand washes the other."*

Recommendations for Future Research

Limitations encountered in this study definitely provide a starting point for future studies. One purpose of this current study was to determine if organizational culture influenced

tolerance of corrupt practices, but the findings indicated that there was no association. Due to the different types of NGOs, more research is needed to establish what is likely to work for each organization or subset. Based on a multiple case study research design, a theory can be built in order to determine if there is a link between the two phenomena.

In order to gain an in-depth understanding of organizational culture among NGOs, future research may be conducted using other organizational culture framework that has been established. Since the findings revealed that NGOs are vulnerable to corruption, further research should explore risk factors of corruption among the NGOs in Kenya and other developing countries. Does the traditional social structure encourage corruption among the NGOs in Kenya?

A comparative study should be conducted between international NGOs and national NGOs to examine which have higher tolerance of corrupt practices. There is an assumption that the international organizations behave the same way as the national organizations because of the influence of the national culture. Therefore, comparative research should examine organizational behavior, especially among international organizations that operate in developing nations, as well as national organizations. I believe that a better understanding of organizational behavior can benefit the NGO sector and generate great insights from comparative analysis of different cultures.

The major limitation of this study was a small sample size that was conveniently selected. For example, the second proposition could not be tested because there were limited cases to compare. Therefore, future research should ensure a larger sample that is randomly selected in order to cover the whole country and the different types of NGOs in Kenya. This will

make it easier to generalize the results and enhance the integrity of the data. In addition, it will be possible to test the three propositions and examine whether there is any association between the two phenomena. The results can lead to a theory that can explain if any relationship exists.

Chapter Summary

This chapter reviewed the problem and purpose statements of the study, along with the research methodology and limitations. The summary and interpretation of the findings from chapter 4 provided the main results of the quantitative and qualitative data, their explanations, and integration within the established framework. The findings of the quantitative and qualitative data were complementary and extensive in testing the three propositions and addressing the research question.

Finally, this study raises awareness and consciousness among the NGOs. This study has helped in exposing some of the areas requiring further strengthening and is also useful in setting the agenda for future research. It is a reminder to all NGOs to cultivate a culture of openness and accountability in order to cope with the ambiguities and unprecedented leadership and financial complexities that face the sector daily. On the other hand, the study is good news for the NGO sector, which has not yet been tangled by bureaucratic and administrative limitations like the public and private sectors. According to this study, the NGO sector has a chance of modeling a strong culture that encourages participation, efficiency, creativity, and competition. A strong organizational culture will increase stakeholders' confidence that these organizations are operating with high integrity, transparency, and sound governance that does not tolerate any corrupt practices.

NGOs that intend to remain relevant in the 21st century ought to take a long and a sober look at themselves. If NGOs in Kenya want to remain as the *favored child with the magic bullet* they have to be aggressive in modeling culture that promotes transparency and accountability.

References

- Ahmad, M.M. (2002). Who cares? The personal and professional problems of NGO fieldworkers in Bangladesh. *Development in Practice*, 12(2), 177-91.
- Al-Khalifa, K. N. and Aspinwall, E. M. (2001). Using the competing values framework to investigate the culture of Qatar industries. *Total Quality Management*, 12(4), 417-428.
doi:10.1080/09544120120066037.
- Alexander, C. S. and Becker, H. J (1978). The use of vignettes in survey research. *Public Opinion Quarterly*, 42, 93-104.
- Amutabi, M. N. (2006). *The NGO factor in Africa: The case of arrested development in Kenya*. New York: Routledge.
- Anand, V., Ashforth, B. E. and Joshi, M. (2004). Business as usual: The acceptance and perception of corruption in organizations. *Academy of Management Executive*, 18 (39).
- Anassi, P. (2004). *Corruption in Africa: The Kenyan experience: A handbook for civic education on corruption*. Victoria, BC: Trafford.
- Andersson, S., and Heywood, P. M. (2008). The politics of perception: use and abuse of Transparency International's approach to measuring corruption. *Political Studies*, 57(4), 746-767.
- Apaydin, C. and Balci, A. (2011). Organizational corruption in secondary schools: A focus group study. *Education*, 131(4), 818-829.
- Ashforth, B. E., Gioia, D. A., Robinson, S. L., and Treviño, I. K. (2008). Re-viewing organizational corruption. *Academy of Management Review*, 33(3), 670-684.

- Assad, M. and Goddard, A. (2010). Stakeholder salience and accounting practices in Tanzanian NGOs. *International Journal of Public Sector Management*, 23(3), 276 – 299.
- Baker, M. (2002) *Organisational culture, principles of organizational behavior*. 3rd ed., Fincham and Rhodes, Oxford University Press.
- Barr, A., Fafchamps, M. and Owens, T. (2003). Non-governmental organizations in Uganda. *Draft report to the Government of Uganda*, April 2003.
- Barrow, O. and Jennings, M. (eds) (2001). *The charitable impulse. NGOs and development in east and north-east Africa*. Bloomfield, CT: Kumarian Press.
- Baxter, P. and Jack, S. (2008). Qualitative case study methodology: Study design and implementation for novice researchers. *The Qualitative Report*, 13(4), 544-559.
<http://www.nova.edu/ssss/QR/QR13-4/baxter.pdf>
- Benz, M. (2005), Not for the profit, but for the satisfaction? – Evidence on worker well-being in non-profit firms. *Kyklos*, 58: 155–176. doi: 10.1111/j.0023-5962.2005.00283.x
- Bergen, A. and While, A. (2000). A case for case studies: Exploring the use of case study design in community nursing research. *Journal of Advanced Nursing*, 31(4), 926-934.
- Berry, B. (2004). Organizational culture: A framework and strategies for facilitating employee whistleblowing. *Employee Responsibilities & Rights Journal*, 16(1), 1-11. Retrieved from EBSCOhost.
- Beugré, C. D. (2010). Resistance to socialization into organizational corruption: A model of deontic justice. *Journal of Business & Psychology*, 25(3), 533-541. doi:10.1007/s10869-010-9176-3.

Boan, D. and Funderburk, F. (2003). *Healthcare quality improvement and organizational culture*. The Delmarva Foundation.

Bradley, N. (1999). Sampling for internet surveys: An examination of respondent selection for Internet research. *Journal of the Market Research Society*, 41(4), 387-395.

Brass, J. N. (2009). NGOs and changing patterns of governance: Clear roles or growing complexity? *APSA 2009 Toronto Meeting Paper*. Available at SSRN: <http://ssrn.com/abstract=1450747>

Bratton, M. (1989). The politics of government–NGO relations in Africa. *World Development*, 17(4), 569–87.

Brown, L. D. and Korten, D. C. (1991). “Working more effectively with nongovernmental organizations,” in S. Paul and A. Israel (Eds.), *Nongovernmental organizations and the World Bank*. Washington, DC: The World Bank, 44-93.

Burns, J. (2009). *Facilitating development: The potential of NGOs, corporations and the US government to alleviate poverty in Kenya* (Doctoral dissertation, Wesleyan University).

Burger, R. and Owens, T. (2011). Promoting transparency in the NGO sector: Examining the availability and reliability of self-reported data. *Centre for Research in Economic Development and International Trade*, University of Nottingham. <http://www.nottingham.ac.uk/credit/documents/papers/08-11.pdf>

Caiden, G., Dwivedi, O., and Joseph, J (eds). (2001). *Where corruption lives*. Bloomfield: Kumarian Press.

Cameron, L., Chaudhuri, A., Erkal, N., and Gangadharan, L. (2006). Propensities to engage in and punish corrupt behavior: Experimental evidence from Australia, India, Indonesia and

Singapore. *Journal of Public Economics*, 93(7/8), 843-851.

doi:10.1016/j.jpubeco.2009.03.004

Center for the Study of Social Policy, (2007). *Customer satisfaction improving quality and access to services and supports in vulnerable neighborhoods. What the research tells us.*

<http://www.cssp.org/publications/constituents-co-invested-in-change/customer-satisfaction/customer-satisfaction-what-research-tells-us.pdf>

Chabal, P. and Daloz, J. P. (1999). *Africa works: Disorder as political instrument*. London: James Currey.

Charmaz, K. (2006). *Constructing grounded theory: A practical guide through qualitative analysis*. Thousand Oaks: Sage Publications.

Chatman, J. A., and Jehn, K. A. (1994). Assessing the relationship between industry characteristics and organizational culture: How different can you be? *Academy of Management Journal*, 37(3), 522-553. doi:10.2307/256699

Clayton, A., Oakley P. and Taylor, J. (2000). Civil Society Organization and Service Provision. For *UNRISD (United Nations Research Institute for Social Development) Program paper NO. 2.*

Collier, M. W. (2002). Explaining corruption: An institutional choice approach. *Crime, Law and Social Change*, 38(1), 1.

Cook, T., Shadish, W., and Wong, V. (2008). Three conditions under which experiments and observational studies produce comparable causal estimates: New findings from within-study comparisons (PDF). *Journal of Policy Analysis and Management*, 27(4), 724-750.

- Cooke, R.A., and Lafferty, C.J. (1989). *Organizational culture inventory*. Plymouth, MI: Human Synergistics.
- Cooke, R. A., and Rousseau, D. M. (1988). Behavioral norms and expectations. *Group & Organization Studies*, 13(3), 245-273. Retrieved from EBSCOhost.
- Creswell, J. W. (2008). *Research design: Qualitative, quantitative, and mixed method approaches*. Thousand Oaks, Calif: Sage Publications.
- Creswell, J. and Plato Clark, V. (2011). *Designing and conducting mixed methods research*. Los Angeles: Sage Publications.
- de Graaf, G. (2007). Causes of corruption: Towards a contextual theory of corruption. *Public Administration Quarterly*, 31(1), 39-86.
- Dastmalchian, A., Lee, S., and Ng, I. (2000). The interplay between organizational and national cultures: A comparison of organizational practices in Canada and South Korea using the Competing Values Framework. *International Journal of Human Resource Management*, 11(2), 388-412.
- Deal, T. E. and Kennedy, A. A. (1982). *Corporate cultures: The rites and rituals of corporate life*. Reading, Mass: Addison-Wesley Pub.
- Delobbe, N., Haccoun, R.R., and Vandenberghe, C. (2000). *Measuring core dimensions of organizational culture: A review of research and development of a new instrument*. Paper presented at the Annual Conference of the Society of Industrial and Organizational Psychology, Toronto, Canada.
- Denison, D. (1990). *Corporate culture and organizational effectiveness*. New York: Wiley.

- Denison, D and Spreitzer, G. (1991). Organizational culture and organizational development: A competing values approach. *Organizational Change and Development*, 5, 1-21.
- Deshpande, R. and J. U. Farley. (2004). Organizational culture, market orientation, innovativeness, and firm performance: An international research odyssey. *International Journal of Research in Marketing*, 12(1), 3-22.
- Dibie, R. A. (2008). *Non-Governmental Organizations (NGOs) and sustainable development in sub-saharan Africa*. Plymouth, Lexington Books.
- Dillman, D (2000). *Mail and internet surveys: The tailored design method*. New York. Wiley
- Dillman, D. A., Smyth, J. D., Christian, L. M., and Dillman, D. A. (2009). *Internet, mail, and mixed-mode surveys: The tailored design method*. Hoboken, N.J: Wiley & Sons.
- Duggars, E. and Duggars, M. (2004). Corruption, culture and organizational Form. Available at SSRN: <http://ssrn.com/abstract=770889>
- Ebrahim, A. (2003a). Making sense of accountability: Conceptual perspectives for northern and southern nonprofits. *Nonprofit Management and Leadership*, 14(2), 191–212.
- Edwards, M. and Hulme, D. (eds) (1996). *Making a difference: NGOs and development in a changing world*. London: Earthscan.
- Ethics Resource Center (2007). The national nonprofit ethics survey. An inside view of nonprofit sector ethics. *Ethics Resource Center*, Arlington, VA.
http://www.ethics.org/files/u5/ERC_s_National_Nonprofit_Ethics_Survey.pdf
- Fan, W. (2010). Factors affecting response rates of the web survey: A systematic review. *computers in human behavior*, 26(2), 132-139.

- Finch, J. (1987). The vignette technique in survey research. *Sociology* 21(1) 105 DOI: 10.1177/0038038587021001008
- Fisher, C., and Alford, R. (2000). Consulting on culture. *Consulting psychology: Research and Practice*, 52(3), 206-217.
- Fowler, A. (1991). *New scrambles for Africa: Non-Governmental development organisations and their donors in Kenya*. (mimeo).
- Fowler, A. (1995). "NGOs and the globalization of welfare: Perspectives from East Africa", in J. Semboja and O. Therkildsen (eds), *Service Provision under Stress in East Africa*, pp. 51–69. London: James Currey.
- Franke, G.R. and Nadler, S.S. (2008). Culture, economic development, and national ethical attitudes. *Journal of Business Research*. 61 (3), 254 -264.
- Frankfort-Nachmias and Nachmias (2007). *Research Methods in the Social Sciences*, 7th ed. New York: Worth Publishers.
- Fyvie, C. and Ager, A (1999). NGOs and innovation: Organizational characteristics and constraints in development assistance work in the Gambia. *World Development*, 27 (8), 1383–1397.
- Gerring, J. (2004). What is a case study and what is it good for? *The American Political Science Review*, 98(02), 341-354.
- Gibelman, M. and Gelman, S. (2002). Should we have faith in faith-based social services? Rhetoric versus realistic expectations. *Nonprofit Management & Leadership*, 13(1), 49-65.
- Gibelman, M. and Gelman, S. (2004). A loss of credibility: Patterns of wrongdoing among

- nonprofit organizations. *Voluntas*, 15, 355-381.
- Gilboa, L. (2010). Organizational culture perceptions and employee satisfaction after a separation type of acquisition. D.Mgt. dissertation, Webster University, United States -- Missouri. Retrieved February 11, 2012, from Dissertations & Theses: Full Text (Publication No. AAT 3437370).
- Gorta, A. (2006). "Corruption Risk Areas and Corruption Resistance" in Sampford, C. C., Shacklock, A. A., & Connors, C. C. (2006). *Measuring corruption*. Ashgate, Hampshire, United Kingdom. Retrieved from EBSCOhost.
- Green, A and Mathias, A. (1995). NGOs-A policy panacea for the next millennium? *Journal of International Development*, 7 (3), 565-573.
- Greenberg, J. (2002). Who stole the money, and when? Individual and situational determinants of employee theft. *Organizational Behavior & Human Decision Processes*, 89(1), 985-1003. Retrieved from EBSCOhost.
- Greenlee, J; Fischer, M; Gordon, T. & Elizabeth, K. (2007). An investigation of fraud in nonprofit organizations: Occurrences and deterrents. *Nonprofit and Voluntary Sector Quarterly*, 36, 676.
- Groenendijk, N. (1997). A principal-agent model of corruption. *Crime, Law and Social Change*, 27(3-4), 207-229.
- Gugerty, M. K (2010). The emergence of nonprofit self-regulation in Africa. *Nonprofit and Voluntary Sector Quarterly*, 39(6), 1087–1112.
- Guthrie, P. (2001). High-involvement work practices, turnover, and productivity: Evidence from New Zealand. *The Academy of Management Journal*, 44 (1), 180-190.

- Harsh, M., Mbatia, P. and Wesley, S. (2010). Accountability and inaction: NGOs and resource lodging in development. *Development and Change*, 41(2), 253–278.
- Hearn, J. (2007). African NGOs: The new compradors? *Development and Change* 38(6), 1095–110.
- Helfrich, C. D., Yu-Fang, L., Mohr, D. C., Meterko, M., and Sales, A. E. (2007). Assessing an organizational culture instrument based on the competing values framework: Exploratory and confirmatory factor analyses. *Implementation Science*, 213-14.
doi:10.1186/1748-5908-2-13
- Heller, N (2008). Defining and measuring corruption: Where have we come from, where are we, & what matters for the future? *Global Integrity Report*
- Hofstede, G. (1980). Culture and organizations. *International Studies of Management & Organization*, 10(4), 15-41.
- Hofstede, G. (1983). National cultures in four dimensions: A research-based theory of cultural differences among nations. *International Studies of Management & Organization*, 13(1/2), 46-74.
- Hofstede, G., Neuijen, B., Ohayv, D., and Sanders, G. (1990). Measuring organizational cultures: A qualitative and quantitative study across twenty Cases. *Administrative Science Quarterly*, 35(2), 286-316. Retrieved from EBSCOhost.
- Hofstede, G. (2001). *Culture's consequences: International differences in work related values*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications, Inc

- Hofstede, G. H., Hofstede, G. J., and Minkov, M. (2010). *Cultures and organizations: Software of the mind: intercultural cooperation and its importance for survival*. New York: McGraw-Hill.
- Holloway, R. (1998). NGOs losing the moral high ground: Corruption and misrepresentation discourse. *A Journal of Policy Studies*, 1(2), 9–12.
- Holloway, R. (2001). [Corruption and civil society organizations in Indonesia](#). *Nonprofit and Voluntary Sector Quarterly*, 36, 676.
- Holloway R. (2004). NGO advocacy in Timor Leste: What is possible? in R. Holloway (ed.) *Aspects of Democracy in Timor-Leste – NGOs Advocating for Social Change*, Dili: Catholic Relief Services, 7-15.
- Holloway, R. (2006). *NGO Corruption Fighters' Resource Book – How NGOs can use monitoring and advocacy to fight corruption*. Available at: <http://www.ndi.org/files/NGO-Corruption-Fighters-Resource-Book-ENG.pdf>
- Hudson, A. (2002). Advocacy by UK-Based development NGOs. *Nonprofit and Voluntary Sector Quarterly*, 31(3), 402-418.
- Hughes, R. (1998). Considering the vignette technique and its application to a study of drug injecting and HIV risk and safer behavior. *Sociology of Health and Illness*, 20, 381–400.
- Huntington, S. (1989). Modernization and corruption. In *Political corruption: A handbook*, edited by Arnold J. Heidenheimer, Michael Johnston, and Victor T. LeVine. New Brunswick, N.J.: Transaction.

- Igoe, J., and Kelsall, T. (2005). "Introduction: Between a rock and a hard place," in J. Igoe and T. Kelsall (eds), *Between a rock and a hard place: African NGOs, donors and the state*, pp. 1–33. Durham, NC: Carolina Academic Press.
- Jaskyte, K. (2004). Transformational leadership, organizational culture, and innovativeness in nonprofit organizations. *Nonprofit management & leadership*, 15(2), 153-168.
- Kameri-Mbote, P. (2002). [The operational environment and constraints for NGOs in Kenya](http://www.ielrc.org). International Environmental Law Research Centre, <http://www.ielrc.org>
- Kanyinga, K., Mitullah, W. V., and Njagi, S. (2007). *The non-profit sector in Kenya: Size, scope, and financing*. Nairobi: Institute for Development Studies, University of Nairobi.
- Kaplowitz, M. D., Hadlock, T. D., & Levine, R. (2004). A comparison of web and mail survey response rates. *Public opinion quarterly*, 68(1), 94-101.
- Kaufmann, D. (1997). Corruption: The facts. *Foreign Policy*, 107,114-31.
- Keyton, (2011). *Communication and organizational culture: A key to understanding work experiences*. Los Angeles: Sage Publishers.
- Kiavitz, D. (2003). More women in the workplace: Is there a payoff in firm performance? *Academy of Management Executive*, 17 (3), 148.
- Kimuyu, P. (2007). Corruption, firm growth and export propensity in Kenya. *International Journal of Social Economics*, 34(3), 197-217. doi:10.1108/03068290710726748.
- Klockars, C., Sanja K., William E., and Maria R. H. (2000). *The measurement of police integrity*. Washington, DC: National Institute of Justice.
- Klitgaard, R. E. (1988). *Controlling corruption*. Berkeley: University of California Press.

- Knox, C. (2009). Dealing with sectoral corruption in Bangladesh: Developing citizen involvement. *Public Administration and Development*, 29, 117–132. doi: 10.1002/pad.523
- Kondra, A. Z., & Hurst, D. C. (2009). Institutional processes of organizational culture. *Culture & Organization*, 15(1), 39-58.
- Kwan, P. and A. Walker. (2004). Validating the competing values model as a representation of organizational culture through inter-institutional comparisons. *Organizational Analysis*, 12(1), 21-39.
- Lacey, M. (2003). Kenya starts crackdown on fake charity groups. Published in July 10th 2003 in New York Times. <http://www.nytimes.com/2003/07/10/world/>
- Langseth, P. (2006). "Measuring corruption" in Sampford, C. C., Shacklock, A. A., & Connors, C. C. (2006). *Measuring corruption*. Ashgate, Hampshire, United Kingdom.
- Litwin, G. and Stringer, R (1968). *Motivation and organizational Climate*. Boston HUP
- Luo, Y. (2005). An organizational perspective of corruption. *Management & Organization Review*, 1(1), 119-154. doi:10.1111/j.1740-8784.2004.00006.x
- Manz, C. C., Joshi, M. and Anand V. (2005). The role of values and emotions in newcomers' socialization into organizational corruption. *Academy of Management Best Conference Paper*, SIM, J1–J6.
- McGann, J. and Johnstone, M. (2005). The power shift and the NGO credibility crisis. *Brown Journal of World Affairs*, 10 (2).
- McNabb, D. E. (2008). *Research methods in public administration and nonprofit management: Quantitative and qualitative approaches*. Armonk, N.Y: M.E. Sharpe, Inc.

- Mbaku, J. M. (2007). *Corruption in Africa: Causes, consequences, and cleanups*. Lanham, MD: Lexington Books.
- Mercer, C. (2002). NGOs, civil society and democratization: A critical review of the literature. *Progress in Developmental Studies*, 2 (1), 5–22.
- Milliken, F. J., & Martins, L. L. (1996). Searching for common threads: Understanding the multiple effects of diversity in organizational groups. *Academy of management review*, 402-433.
- Mirvis, P. and Hackett, E (1983). Work and work force characteristics in the nonprofit sector. *Monthly Labor Review*, 106(4), 3-12.
- Moleketi, G. (2007). Towards a common understanding of corruption in Africa. *International Journal of African Renaissance Studies*, 2(2), 239-249.
- Moreno, A. (2002). Corruption and democracy: A cultural assessment. *Comparative Sociology*, 1(3-4), 495-507.
- Nair, N. and Bhatnagar, D. (2011). Understanding work place deviant behavior in nonprofit organizations. *Nonprofit Management & Leadership*, 21(3), 289-309.
doi:10.1002/nml.20026.
- NAZAHA (2006). Strengthening civil society through enhancing the accountability and good governance in the NGO sector. Special issuance: *Public opinion poll concerning the state of NGO's in Palestine*. <http://www.aman-palestine.org/english/activities/NAZAHA/Project.html>
- Ndegwa, S. N. (1996). *The two faces of civil society: NGOs and politics in Africa*. West Hartford, Conn: Kumarian Press.

NGOs Coordination Board. www.ngobureau.or.ke

Ngunyi, M. (1999). *Promoting democracy through positive conditionality*. University of Leeds (mimeo).

O'Dwyer, B. (2007). The nature of NGO accountability: Motives, mechanisms and practice. In J. Unerman, J. Bebbington, & B. O'Dwyer (eds.), *Sustainability accounting and accountability*. London and New York: Routledge.

O'Reilly, C., Chatman, J. and Caldwell, D. (1991). People and organizational culture: A profile comparison approach to assessing person-organization fit. *Academy of Management Journal*, 34, 487-516.

O'Sullivan, E., Rassel, R. G., and Berner, M. (2008). *Research methods for public administrators* (4th ed.). New York: Longman, Inc.

Odiwuor, M. (2012). NGO worker charged with defrauding public Sh10.2m. Published on 06/02/2012 in the Standard Newspaper. <http://www.standardmedia.co.ke/news/>.

Osodo, P. and Matsvai, S. (1998). *Partners or contractors? Kenya and Zimbabwe: Relationship between official agencies and NGOs*. INTRAC.

Peters, T. J., and Waterman, R. H. (1982). *In search of excellence: Lessons from America's best-run companies*. New York: Harper & Row.

Pinto, J., Leana, C. R. and Pil, F. K. (2008). Corrupt organizations or organizations of corrupt individuals? Two types of organization-level corruption. *Academy of Management Review*, 33(3), 685-709. Retrieved from EBSCOhost.

Panayotopoulou, L., Bourantas, D., and Papalexandris, N. (2003). Strategic human resource management and its effects on firm performance: an implementation of the competing

- values framework. *International Journal of Human Resource Management*, 14(4), 680-699.
- Punch, M. (2000). Police corruption and its prevention. *European Journal on Criminal Policy and Research*, 8(3), 301–324.
- Quinn, R. E. and Cameron, K. S. (1999). Diagnosing and changing organizational culture. Reading: Addison-Wesley
- Quinn, R.E and Rohrbaugh, J. (1983). A competing values approach to organizational effectiveness. *Public Productivity Review*, 122-140.
- Quinn, R. E., Hildebrandt, H. W., Rogers, P. S., and Thompson, M. P. (1991). A competing values framework for analyzing presentational communication in management contexts. *Journal of Business Communication*, 28(3), 213-232. Retrieved from EBSCOhost.
- Quinn, R.E., and Spreitzer, G.M. (1991). The psychometrics of the competing values culture instrument and an analysis of the impact of organizational culture on quality of life. *Research in Organizational Change and Development*, 5, 115-142.
- Reinikka, R. and Svensson, J. (2006). Using micro-surveys to measure and explain corruption. *World Development*, 34 (2), 359–70.
- Riley, S. P. (1998). “The political economy of anti-corruption strategies in Africa.” Pp. 129–59 in Mark Robinson, ed., *Corruption and development*. London: Frank Cass.
- Rodriguez, P., Uhlenbruck, K., and Eden, L. (2005). Government corruption and the entry strategies of multinationals. *Academy of Management Review*, 30(2), 383-396. Retrieved from EBSCOhost.

- Rono, J.K. (2002). The impact of the structural adjustment programmes on Kenyan society. *Journal of Social Development in Africa*, 17(1), 81-98.
- Rose-Ackerman, S. (1997). The political economy of corruption. *Corruption and the global economy*, 31-60.
- Rowley, J. (2002). Using case studies in research. *Management Research News*, 25 (1), 16–27.
- Salamon, L.M. and Anheier, H.K. (1996). *The emerging nonprofit sector: An overview*. Manchester:Manchester University Press.
- Salamon, L. M., and Sokolowski, S. W. (2004). *Global civil society: Volume 2*. Bloomfield, Conn: Kumarian.
- SALÁNKI, V. (2010). Organizational culture and communication in the library: A study on organizational culture in the Lucian Blaga central university library cluj. *Philobiblon*, 15455-523. Retrieved from EBSCOhost.
- Sama, T. B. (2009). *Conceptualizing non-governmental organizations: Still searching for a Theory*. Department of Social Sciences and Philosophy, University of Jyväskylä <http://www.egpa2009.com/documents/psg8/Sama.pdf>
- Sampford, C. C., Shacklock, A. A., and Connors, C. C. (2006). *Measuring corruption*. Ashgate, Hampshire, United Kingdom. Retrieved from EBSCOhost.
- Sandholtz, W., & Taagepera, R. (2005). Corruption, culture, and communism. *International Review of Sociology*, 15(1), 109-131. doi:10.1080/03906700500038678.
- Schaeffer, D. R. & Dillman, D. A. (1998). Development of standard e-mail methodology: Results on an experiment. *Public Opinion Quarterly*, 62(3), 378-397.
- Schein, E. H. (1990). Organizational culture. *American Psychologist*, 45(2), 109-119. Retrieved

from EBSCOhost.

Schein, E.H. (1992). *Organizational Culture and Leadership*. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass Publishers.

Schein, E. H. (1993). Legitimizing clinical research in the study of organizational culture. *Journal of Counseling & Development*, 71(6), 703-708. Retrieved from EBSCOhost.

Schein, E. H. (2004). *Organizational Culture and Leadership*. John Wiley & Sons, Inc. (US). Retrieved from EBSCOhost.

Schultz, M. (1995). *On Studying Organizational Cultures: Diagnosis and Understanding*. Berlin: W. de Gruyter.

Seawright, J., & Gerring, J. (2008). Case selection techniques in case study research: A menu of qualitative and quantitative options. *Political Research Quarterly*, 61(2), 294-308.

Seleim, A and Bontis, N (2009). The relationship between culture and corruption: A cross-national study. *Journal of Intellectual Capital*, 10 (1), 165 – 184.

Seligson, M. (2006). The measurement and impact of corruption victimization: Survey evidence from Latin America. *World Development*, 34(2), 381-404.

Sendelbach, N. B. (1993). The competing values framework for management training and development: A tool for understanding complex issues and tasks. *Human Resource Management*, 32(1), 75-99.

Shaw J. D (2011). Turnover rates and organizational performance: Review, critique, and research agenda. *Organizational Psychology Review*, 1, 187.

Shivji, I. G. (2007). *Silences in NGO discourse: The role and future of NGOs in Africa*. Oxford: Fahamu.

- Shleifer, A. and Vishny, R. (1993). Corruption. *Quarterly Journal of Economics*, 108, 599–617.
- Shover, N. and Hochstetler, N (2002). Cultural explanation and organizational crime. *Crime, Law and Social Change*, 37(1), 1-18.
- Smee, A. and Brennan, M. (2000). Electronic surveys: A comparison of e-mail, web and mail. *Proceedings of the ANZMAC 2000 Visionary Marketing for the 21st Century: Facing the Challenge, November 28-December 1, Griffith University, Queensland, Australia* (pp. 1201–1204). Gold Coast, Queensland: Australia and New Zealand Marketing Academy.
- Smith, D. (2010). Corruption, NGOs, and development in Nigeria. *Third World Quarterly*, 31(2), 243-258.
- Spalding, N., and Phillips, T. (2007). Exploring the use of vignettes: From validity to trustworthiness. *Qualitative Health Research*, 17(7), 954-962.
- Stake. R.E. (1995). *The art of case study research*. SAGE Pub., Thousand Oaks: CA.
- Steinberg, R. (2006). “Economic theories of nonprofit organizations” In Walter Powell and Richard Steinberg (eds) (2006). *The nonprofit sector: A research handbook*. Yale University Press, New Haven.
- Swamy, A., Knackb, S., Azfard, O. (2001). Gender and corruption. *Journal of development economics*, 64, p. 25-55.
- Tabachnick, B.G. and Fidell, L.S. (2007). *Using multivariate statistics (5th ed.)*. New York: Allyn and Bacon.
- Teddlie, C., and Tashakkori, A. (2009). *Foundations of mixed methods research: Integrating quantitative and qualitative approaches in the social and behavioral sciences*. Los Angeles: SAGE.

- Teegarden, P. Hinden, D., and Paul S. (2011). *The nonprofit organizational culture: Revealing the hidden truths that impact performance*. San Francisco, CA : Jossey-Bass.
- Teegen, H., Doh, J. P. and Vachani, S. (2004). The importance of nongovernmental organizations (NGOs) in global governance and value creation: an international business research agenda. *Journal of International Business Studies*, 25 (6), 463–83.
- Tellis, W. (1997). Introduction to case study. *The Qualitative Report*, 3(2)
<http://www.nova.edu/ssss/QR/QR3-2/tellis1.html>
- Thompson, M. P. (1993). Using the competing values framework in the classroom. *Human Resource Management*, 32(1), 101-119.
- Titeca, K. (2005). *The political economy of civil society organisations on a local level: Case study kasese district, Uganda*. Paper presented at AEGIS Conference, London.
- Torgler, B., and Valev, N. T. (2006). Corruption and age. *Journal of Bioeconomics*, 8(2), 133-145.
doi: <http://dx.doi.org/10.1007/s10818-006-9003-0>
- Townsend, J. and Townsend, A. (2004). Accountability, motivation and practice: NGOs north and south. *Social and Cultural Geography*, 5, 271–84.
- Transparency International (2005). *Global Corruption Report 2005*. Available at:
www.transparency.org
- Transparency International Kenya Chapter (2006). *Global Corruption Report 2006*. Available at:
www.transparency.org
- Transparency International (2010). *Preventing Corruption in Humanitarian Operations*. Berlin:
Transparency International. Available at

- http://www.transparency.org/publications/publications/humanitarian_handbook_feb_2010 [accessed 30 May 2012].
- Truex, R. (2011). Corruption, attitudes, and education: Survey evidence from Nepal. *World Development*, 39 (7), 1133–1142. doi:10.1016/j.worlddev.2010.11.003
- Trivunovic, M (2011). Countering NGO corruption: Rethinking the conventional approaches. *Anti- Corruption Resource Centre*. www.U4.no
- Uneke, O. (2010). Corruption in Africa south of the Sahara: Bureaucratic facilitator or handicap to development? *Journal of Pan African Studies*, 3 (6), 111-128.
- van der Merwe, A. and Harris, G. (2012). Attitudes toward public sector corruption: A study of university students in kwazulu-natal. *The international business & economics research journal*, 11(2), 171.
- Vakil, A. (1997). Confronting the classification problem: Toward a taxonomy of NGOs. *World Development*, 25 (12), 2057-70.
- Vian, T. (2008). Review of corruption in the health sector: Theory, methods and interventions. *Health Policy Plan*, 23, 83–94.
- Vivian, J. (1994) 'NGOs and sustainable development in Zimbabwe: No magic bullets. *Development and Change*, 25(1), 167–93.
- Wallach, E. J. (1983). Individuals and organizations: The cultural match. *Training & Development Journal*, 37(2), 28-36.
- Walshe, C. (2011). The evaluation of complex interventions in palliative care: An exploration of the potential of case study research strategies. *Palliative Medicine*, 25(8), 774-781.
- Weisbrod, B. A. (1988). *The Nonprofit Economy*. Cambridge: Harvard Univ. Press.

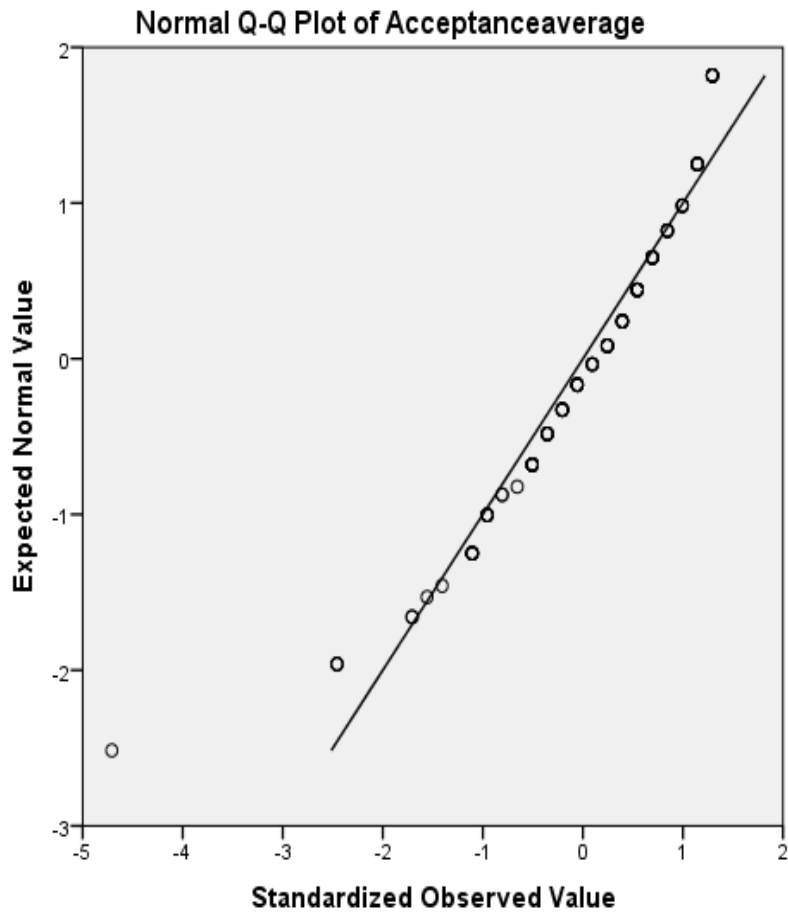
- Werker, E. and Ahmed, F. Z. (2008). What do nongovernmental organisations do? *Journal of Economic Perspectives* 22 (2), 73–92.
- West, R. L., and Turner, L. H. (2007). *Introducing communication theory: Analysis and application*. Boston: McGraw-Hill.
- World Bank (2006) Anti-corruption [online]. Available from:
[http://web.worldbank.org/wbsite/external/topics/extpublicsectorandgovernance/extant
ticorruption/0,,menuPK:384461~pagePK:149018~piPK:149093~theSitePK:384455,00](http://web.worldbank.org/wbsite/external/topics/extpublicsectorandgovernance/extant anticorruption/0,,menuPK:384461~pagePK:149018~piPK:149093~theSitePK:384455,00)
- Yin, R. K. (2008). *Case study research: Design and methods 4th ed.* Thousand Oaks: Sage Publications.
- Yu, T. and Wu. N. (2009). A review of study on the competing values framework. *International Journal of Business and Management*, 4(7), 37-47.
- Yun Seok, C., Minhee, S., Scott, D., and Martin, J. (2010). Validation of the organizational culture assessment instrument: An application of the Korean version. *Journal of Sport Management*, 24(2), 169-189. Retrieved from EBSCOhost.
- Zaidi, S. A (1999). NGO failure and the need to bring back the state. *Journal of International Development*, 11, 259–271.

Appendix A Table and Graphs

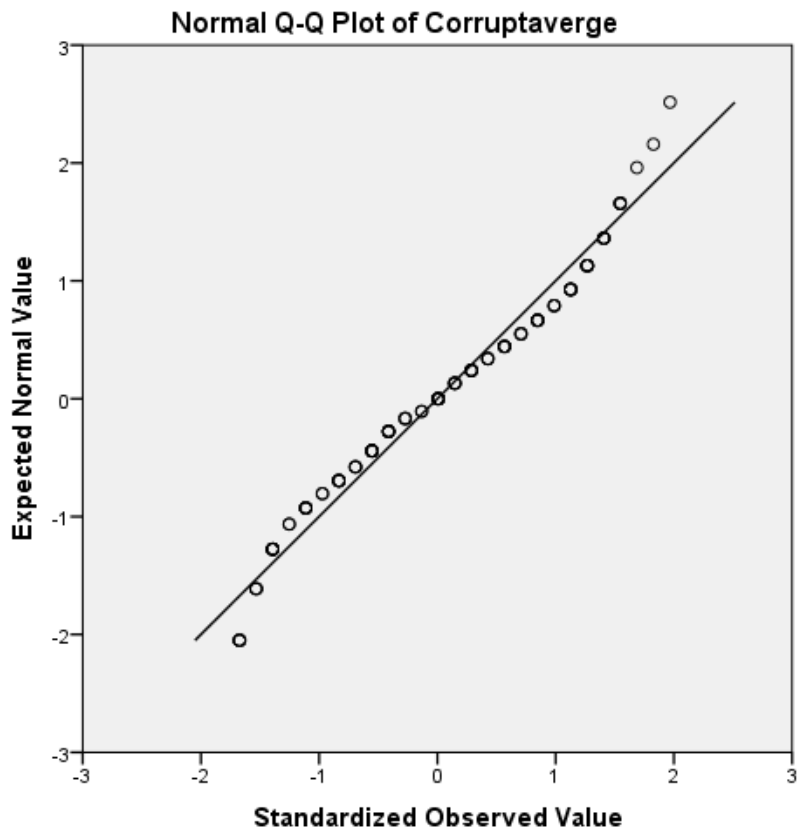
Table 4.7: Organizations according to the Corrupt Practices Variables

	Organizations	Acceptance	Corrupt	Likelihood	Policy
1	FHG	3.40	2.13	2.77	1.23
2	AID	4.27	2.37	3.63	1.00
3	FOD	4.28	2.08	3.80	1.03
4	CAR	4.75	1.45	4.85	1.05
5	COM	4.60	1.75	4.35	1.00
6	FUN	3.93	2.35	3.33	1.10
7	GAA	4.00	2.95	3.70	1.30
8	CAP	3.90	3.30	3.10	1.20
9	IC	3.42	2.46	3.78	1.06
10	JGO	3.55	2.28	2.85	1.30
11	MF	4.55	1.85	3.90	1.05
12	NCK	4.77	1.73	3.97	1.00
13	FAM	4.75	1.70	3.85	1.00
14	PT	4.00	2.53	3.25	1.15
15	PEN	4.65	1.30	4.50	1.05
16	SC	4.01	2.23	3.85	1.47
17	SJS	3.90	2.90	3.43	1.58
18	WV	4.40	1.96	3.13	1.07
19	PCT	4.80	1.30	4.10	1.00
20	HA	4.50	3.00	4.70	1.00
21	CPS	4.20	2.70	3.00	2.10
22	CS	3.82	2.50	3.14	1.68
23	IM	4.00	2.50	2.60	1.00
24	ICL	4.27	1.83	3.57	1.07
25	ACD	5.00	1.00	4.80	1.00
26	CDF	4.33	2.16	3.15	1.18
27	CNW	4.50	1.45	4.33	1.03
28	CRC	3.15	2.95	2.95	1.80
29	LF	4.50	2.00	3.40	1.07
30	RCK	3.75	2.88	3.68	1.30
	Total	4.20	2.19	3.65	1.20

Graph 3a Q-Q Acceptance Variable

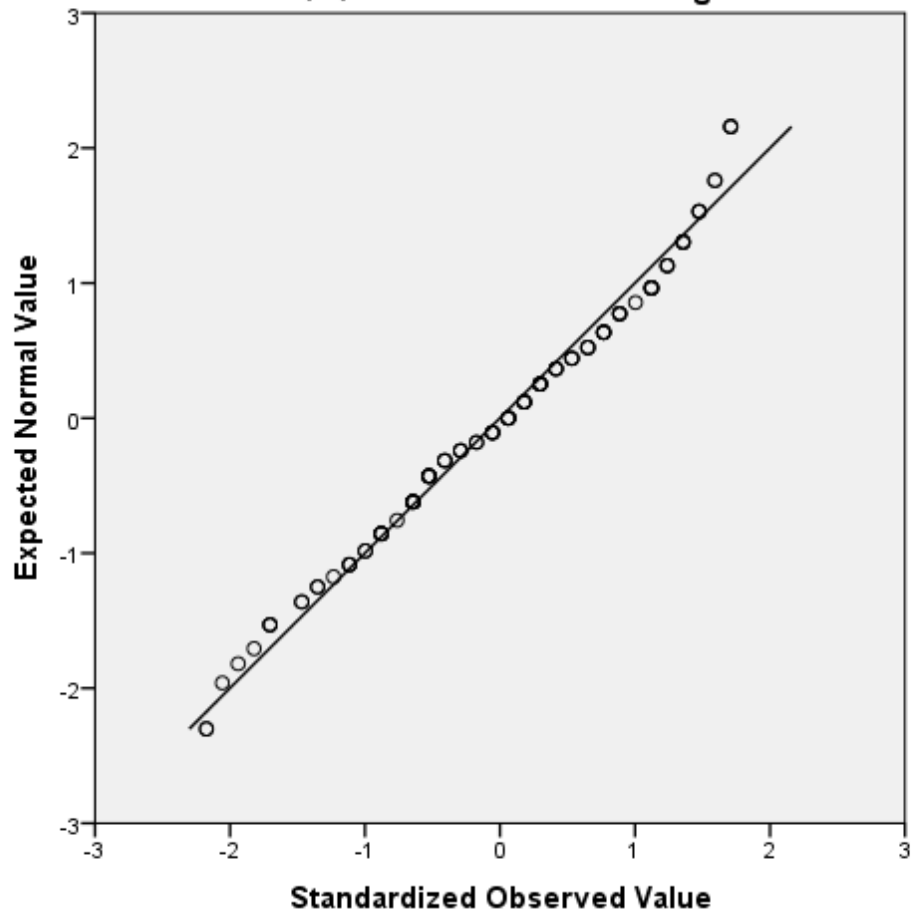


Graph 3b Q-Q Corrupt Variable

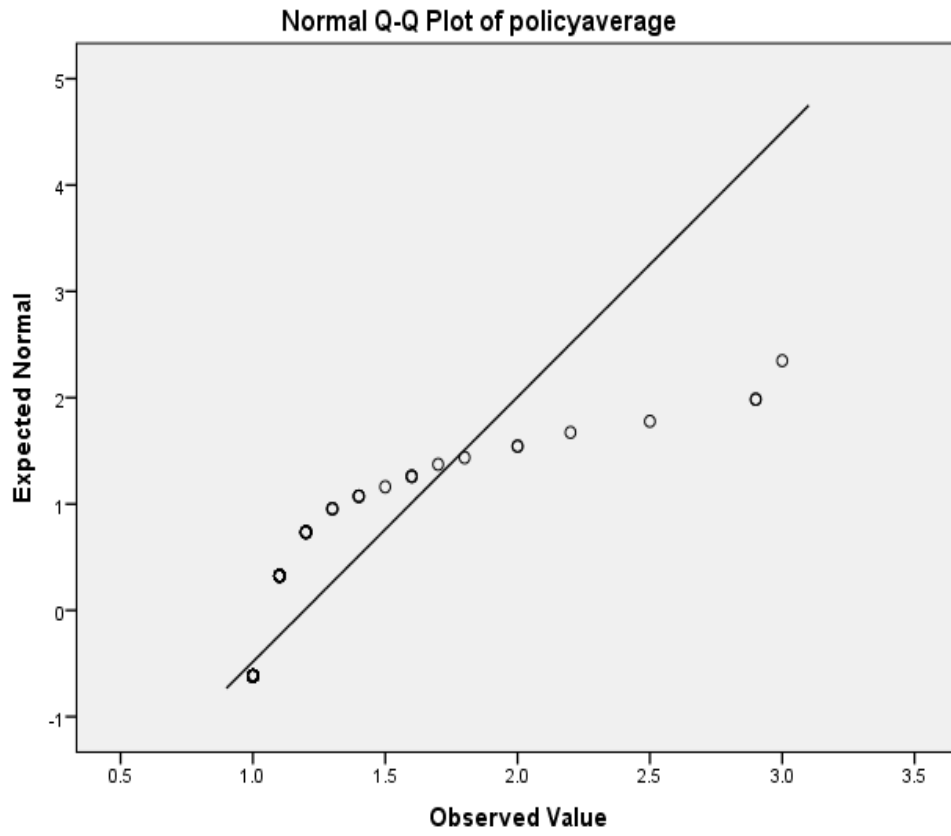


Graph 3c Q-Q Acceptance Variable

Normal Q-Q Plot of likelihoodaverage



Graph 3d Q-Q Policy Variable



VCU Memo

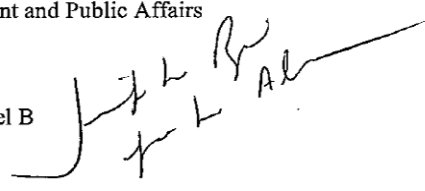
V i r g i n i a C o m m o n w e a l t h U n i v e r s i t y

Office of Research Subjects Protection
BioTechnology Research Park
BioTech One, 800 E. Leigh Street, #114
P.O. Box 980568
Richmond, Virginia 23298-0568
(804) 828-0868
(804) 827-1448 (fax)

DATE: June 4, 2012

TO: Nancy B. Stutts, PhD
Wilder School of Government and Public Affairs
Box 842028

FROM: Lisa M. Abrams, PhD
Chairperson, VCU IRB Panel B
Box 980568



RE: **VCU IRB #: HM14441**
Title: Organizational Culture and Its Influence on Corruption: Case of NGO's in Kenya

On June 4, 2012, the following research study was approved by expedited review according to 45 CFR 46.110 Category 7. The approval reflects the revisions received in the Office of Research Subjects Protection on May 29, 2012, and May 31, 2012. This approval includes the following items reviewed by this Panel:

RESEARCH APPLICATION/PROPOSAL: None

PROTOCOL (Research Plan): Organizational Culture and Its Influence on Corruption: Case of NGO's in Kenya, received 5/31/12, version date 5/31/12

- VCU IRB Study Personnel Roster, received 5/14/12, version date 5/10/12
- Interview Questionnaire, received 5/29/12, version date 5/29/12
- Web-Based Survey Questionnaire, received 5/14/12, version date 5/10/12

CONSENT/ASSENT (attached):

- Research Subject Information and Consent Form, received 6/4/12, version date 6/4/12, 3 pages
- Web-Based Survey Consent Form, received 5/14/12, version date 5/10/12, 2 pages
- Waiver of Documentation of Consent for Online Survey: One of the conditions set forth in 45 CFR 46 117(c) (2), for waiver of documentation of consent has been met and the IRB Panel has waived documentation of consent.

ADDITIONAL DOCUMENTS (attached):

- Recruitment Letter: Organization, received 5/29/12, version date 5/29/12
- Recruitment Letter: Participants, received 5/29/12, version date 5/29/12

This approval expires on May 31, 2013. Federal Regulations/VCU Policy and Procedures require continuing review prior to continuation of approval past that date. Continuing Review report forms will be mailed to you prior to the scheduled review.

The Primary Reviewer assigned to your research study is Mrs. Emily Rossiter. If you have any questions, please contact Mrs. Rossiter at rri@infionline.net; or you may contact Jennifer Rice, IRB Coordinator, VCU Office of Research Subjects Protection, at irbpanelb@vcu.edu and 828-3992.

[Attachment – Conditions of Approval]

Conditions of Approval:

In order to comply with federal regulations, industry standards, and the terms of this approval, the investigator must (*as applicable*):

1. Conduct the research as described in and required by the Protocol.
2. Obtain informed consent from all subjects without coercion or undue influence, and provide the potential subject sufficient opportunity to consider whether or not to participate (unless Waiver of Consent is specifically approved or research is exempt).
3. Document informed consent using only the most recently dated consent form bearing the VCU IRB "APPROVED" stamp (unless Waiver of Consent is specifically approved).
4. Provide non-English speaking patients with a translation of the approved Consent Form in the research participant's first language. The Panel must approve the translated version.
5. Obtain prior approval from VCU IRB before implementing any changes whatsoever in the approved protocol or consent form, unless such changes are necessary to protect the safety of human research participants (e.g., permanent/temporary change of PI, addition of performance/collaborative sites, request to include newly incarcerated participants or participants that are wards of the state, addition/deletion of participant groups, etc.). Any departure from these approved documents must be reported to the VCU IRB immediately as an Unanticipated Problem (see #7).
6. Monitor all problems (anticipated and unanticipated) associated with risk to research participants or others.
7. Report Unanticipated Problems (UPs), including protocol deviations, following the VCU IRB requirements and timelines detailed in VCU IRB WPP VIII-7:
8. Obtain prior approval from the VCU IRB before use of any advertisement or other material for recruitment of research participants.
9. Promptly report and/or respond to all inquiries by the VCU IRB concerning the conduct of the approved research when so requested.
10. All protocols that administer acute medical treatment to human research participants must have an emergency preparedness plan. Please refer to VCU guidance on <http://www.research.vcu.edu/irb/guidance.htm>.
11. The VCU IRBs operate under the regulatory authorities as described within:
 - a) U.S. Department of Health and Human Services Title 45 CFR 46, Subparts A, B, C, and D (for all research, regardless of source of funding) and related guidance documents.
 - b) U.S. Food and Drug Administration Chapter I of Title 21 CFR 50 and 56 (for FDA regulated research only) and related guidance documents.
 - c) Commonwealth of Virginia Code of Virginia 32.1 Chapter 5.1 Human Research (for all research).

010507

Appendix C

RESEARCH SUBJECT INFORMATION AND CONSENT FORM

TITLE: ORGANIZATIONAL CULTURE AND ITS INFLUENCE ON CORRUPTION: CASE OF NGOs IN KENYA

VCU IRB NO.: HM14441

PURPOSE OF THE STUDY

You are invited to participate in an interview on organizational culture and practices among Non-Governmental Organizations (NGOs). The purpose of this research study is to examine how organizational culture influences organizations in dealing with corruption by applying best practices.

You are being asked to participate in the study because you participated in the survey phase of this study which was conducted some few weeks ago.

DESCRIPTION OF THE STUDY

Your participation of this study will require you to sign this consent form after all of your questions have been answered.

You will be asked to answer 26 questions that will be in two sections. The first section will be about the organizational culture; while the second part will involve four questions and five scenarios about how organizations deal with corrupt scenarios by applying best practices.

Let me know if there is any question that you prefer not to answer or if there is any answer that you would prefer not to recorded or used as part of the dissertation.

BENEFITS TO YOU AND OTHERS

The information gathered from this study will help me to complete the requirements for my dissertation research. Further, the information gathered will help NGOs determine organizational culture that may have low tolerance of organizational corruption.

COSTS

There are no costs for participating in this study other than the time you will spend responding to the questions.

PAYMENT

You will not be receiving any compensation for participating in this study. Your participation in this study is completely voluntary; however, I hope you choose to participate. If you chose to participate, you may opt of the research survey at any time.

CONFIDENTIALITY

Data is being collected for research purposes only. Special codes will be established to identify the subjects and their organizations. The names of the subjects and their organizations will not be used anywhere. The data responses will be coded in such a way that nobody else will identify it except the student researcher.

Potentially identifiable information about you will consist of interview notes and recordings. The interview notes and recordings will remain in the possession of the student interviewer until incorporated into the written research study dissertation. After that time, notes and recording will be destroyed. No information incorporated into the written research study dissertation will identify individual by name.

Access to all data will be limited to the student interviewer and dissertation committee if necessary. A data and safety monitoring place is established to ensure that your privacy and confidentiality is maintained. Special codes that will be accessible to the student researcher alone will be used to protect any of the information that you will provide.

Information from the study and the consent form signed by you may be looked at or copied for research or legal purposes by Virginia Commonwealth University. What we find from this study will be published in a research dissertation and may be presented at meeting or published in a research dissertation and may be presented at meeting or published in other papers, but your name will not be used in any of these presentations.

The interview session will be audio taped, but your name and organization will not be recorded. However, you will be asked to identify your position with your organization. Your organization will be identified using a number coded system accessible to the student interviewer only. The collected information will be protected in a password-protected laptop only accessible to the researcher at the student interviewer's residence. After the information from the tapes is integrated into the written research findings, the tapes will be destroyed.

IF AN INJURY HAPPENS

There is no risk of injury during the interview process

VOLUNTARY PARTICIPATION AND WITHDRAWAL

You do not have to participate in this study. If you chose to participate, you may stop at any time. You may choose not to answer particular questions that are asked in the study.

QUESTIONS

If you have any questions, complaints, or concerns about your participation in this research, contact:

Nancy Stutts Ph.D.
Interim Chair, Master of Public Administration Program
Wilder School of Government and Public Affairs
Virginia Commonwealth University

921 W. Franklin St.
Richmond, VA 23284-2028
Phone: 804-828-2164 Fax: 804-827-1275 e-mail: nbstutts@vcu.edu

Should you like to contact me directly about this study, Cellular Telephone: (901) 336-8510. My email address is kimemiadk@vcu.edu.

The researcher/study staff named above is the best person(s) to call for questions about your participation in this study.

If you have any general questions about your rights as a participant in this or any other research, you may contact:

Office of Research
Virginia Commonwealth University
800 East Leigh Street, Suite 113
P.O. Box 980568
Richmond, VA 23298
Telephone: (804) 827-2157

Contact this number for general questions, concerns or complaints about research. You may also call this number if you cannot reach the research team or if you wish to talk with someone else. General information about participation in research studies can also be found at <http://www.research.vcu.edu/irb/volunteers.htm>.

CONSENT

I have been given the chance to read this consent form. I understand the information about this study. Questions that I wanted to ask about the study have been answered. My signature says that I am willing to participate in this study. I will receive a copy of the consent form once I have agreed to participate.

Participant name printed	Participant signature	Date
--------------------------	-----------------------	------

Signature of Person Conducting Informed Consent Discussion / Witness	Date
---	------

Principal Investigator Signature (if different from above)	Date
--	------

Appendix D
Web-Based Survey Consent Form

You are invited to participate in a survey on organizational culture and practices among Non-Governmental Organizations (NGOs). The purpose of this research study is to examine how organizational culture influences organizations in dealing with corruption by applying best practices.

My name is Douglas Kimemia and I am a PhD student at Virginia Commonwealth University in Public Policy and Administration. This research project is a doctoral dissertation prepared in partial satisfaction of the requirements of this degree under Dr. Nancy Stutts, who is the principal investigator. The information gathered from this study will help me to complete the requirements for my dissertation research. Further, the information gathered will help NGO sector to determine how organizational culture and best practices affect corruption within an organization.

There are no costs for participating in this study other than the time you will spend responding to the questions. Your participation in this study is completely voluntary; however, I hope you choose to participate. If you chose to participate, you may opt of the research survey at any time.

Your survey responses will be strictly confidential and data from this research will be reported only in a summary report. Special codes will be established to identify the subjects and their organizations. The names of the subjects and their organizations will not be used anywhere. The data responses will be coded in such a way that nobody else will identify it except the researcher. Access to all data will be limited to the student interviewer and dissertation committee, if necessary. The collected information will be protected in a password-protected laptop only accessible to the researcher. The survey responses will remain in the possession of the student researcher until incorporated into the written research study dissertation and later destroyed. No information incorporated into the written research study dissertation will identify an individual by name.

It will take approximately 45 minutes to complete the questionnaire. Your valuable contribution in this study conducted among the NGOs in Kenya is sincerely appreciated.

Should you have any question about the study or its process, please feel free to contact my supervisor:

Nancy Stutts Ph.D.
Interim Chair, Master of Public Administration Program
Wilder School of Government and Public Affairs
Virginia Commonwealth University
921 W. Franklin St.
Richmond, VA 23284-2028
Phone: 804-828-2164 Fax: 804-827-1275

e-mail: nbstutts@vcu.edu

Should you like to contact me directly about this study, Cellular Telephone: (901) 336-8510. My email address is kimemiadk@vcu.edu.

To access the survey, you need to click on the link below. By clicking on that link it indicates that you are well informed of the purpose of the study and you are consenting to participate voluntarily. However, you are free to opt at anytime.

Thank you very much for your time and support.

PART 1
ORGANIZATIONAL CULTURE ASSESSMENT

Instructions for completing the Organizational Culture Assessment Instrument (OCAI)

In completing this questionnaire, you are providing information that will be used to develop a picture of your organization's culture. There is no right or wrong answer. **Please answer the questions based on your experience of the current organization as accurately as you can.**

This section consists of six questions. Each question has four alternatives. Allocate the 100 points among these four alternatives based on your perceptions of the current situation in your organization. For example, in question one, if you think alternative A is very strong in your organization, alternatives B and C are somewhat less but similar, and alternative D is hardly present at all, you might give 55 points to A, 20 points to B and C, and five points to D. Just make sure your total equals 100 points for each question.

HINT: After filling in three of the four alternatives, the fourth one will be calculated automatically by the web-browsers!

The Organizational Culture and Assessment Instrument

1	Dominant Characteristics	Points
A	The organization is a very personal place. It is like an extended family. People seem to share a lot of themselves.	
B	The organization is a very dynamic entrepreneurial place. People are willing to stick their necks out and take risks.	
C	The organization is very results oriented. A major concern is with getting the job done. People are very competitive and achievement oriented.	
D	The organization is a very controlled and structured place. Formal procedures generally govern what people do.	
Total		
2	Organizational Leadership	
A	The leadership in the organization is generally considered to exemplify mentoring, facilitating, or nurturing.	
B	The leadership in the organization is generally considered to exemplify entrepreneurship, innovating, or risk taking.	
C	The leadership in the organization is generally considered to exemplify a no-nonsense, aggressive, results-oriented focus.	
D	The leadership in the organization is generally considered to exemplify coordinating, organizing, or smooth-running efficiency	
Total		
3	Management of Employees	
A	The management style in the organization is characterized by teamwork, consensus, and participation.	
B	The management style in the organization is characterized by individual risk-taking, innovation, freedom, and uniqueness.	
C	The management style in the organization is characterized by hard driving competitiveness, high demands, and achievement.	
D	The management style in the organization is characterized by security of employment, conformity, predictability, and stability in relationships.	
Total		
4	Organization Glue	
A	The glue that holds the organization together is loyalty and mutual trust. Commitment to this organization runs high.	
B	The glue that holds the organization together is commitment to innovation and development. There is an emphasis on being on the cutting edge.	
C	The glue that holds the organization together is the emphasis on achievement and goal accomplishment. Aggressiveness and winning are common themes.	
D	The glue that holds the organization together is formal rules and policies. Maintaining a smooth-running organization is important.	
Total		
5	Strategic Emphases	
A	The organization emphasizes human development. High trust, openness, and participation persist.	
B	The organization emphasizes acquiring new resources and creating new challenges. Trying new things and prospecting for opportunities are valued.	
C	The organization emphasizes competitive actions and achievement. Hitting stretch targets and winning in the marketplace are dominant.	

D	The organization emphasizes permanence and stability. Efficiency, control and smooth operations are important.	
Total		
6	Criteria for Success	
A	The organization defines success on the basis of the development of human resources, teamwork, employee commitment, and concern for people.	
B	The organization defines success on the basis of having the most unique or newest products. It is a product leader and innovator.	
C	The organization defines success on the basis of winning in the marketplace and outpacing the competition. Competitive market leadership is key.	
D	The organization defines success on the basis of efficiency. Dependable delivery, smooth scheduling and low-cost production are critical.	
Total		

Part 2: Organizational Practices

Survey Questions

- i) *How acceptable would this behavior be in your organization?*
 - 1) Very acceptable
 - 2) Acceptable
 - 3) Neither
 - 4) Unacceptable
 - 5) Extremely unacceptable

- ii) *How do you think this behavior would be considered in your organization?*
 - 1) Very corrupt
 - 2) Somewhat corrupt
 - 3) Corrupt
 - 4) Corrupt but
 - 5) Not corrupt

- iii) *Do you think this behavior would be likely to occur in your organization?*
 - 1) Very likely
 - 2) Likely
 - 3) Neither
 - 4) Unlikely
 - 5) Very unlikely

- iv) *Would this behavior be regarded as a violation of official policy in your organization?*
 - 1) Yes
 - 2) No
 - 3) No official policy on corruption

The following scenarios are likely to occur in an organization. I would like you to think about your organization and rate how they would be handled.

Scenarios

Recruitment Selection

Favoritism in hiring process

1. To avoid the hassle of advertising, a human resource manager appoints a colleague to a vacant position. That colleague has the reputation of being the best person for the job.

Nepotism

2. An organization director uses her position to get a friend from her tribe a job in her organization without advertising for the position. The new employee turns out to be very reliable and hardworking.

Tendering Process

Bribery

3. A contractor acquires a tender to supply stationery after promising to donate money towards a local organization started by the procurement official.

Abuse of power

4. To hasten the process, the procurement official bypasses tendering procedures and selects a company known **for its excellence** to provide Kshs. 150,000 computer training package.

Appropriation of Organization's Funds

Extortion

5. A director receives funds from her organization's donors and deposits the money in her personal account so as to start a home for the orphans.

Embezzlement

6. An employee takes money from the petty cash to buy medication with intent to return it later.

Misuse of Office Resources

Theft of inventory

7. An employee occasionally takes home stationeries, books, and cleaning supplies from the office stores to supplement her income.

Negligence of duty

8. An employee regularly spends part of the work day to organize his private catering business.

Falsification of documents

Fraudulent expense claim

9. An employee regularly adds extra days onto her business trips to visit her sick mother at the hospital. She claims the extra days as part of her travel expenses.

Conflict of interests

10. An employee, responsible for buying office equipment, takes a second job selling stationery to his own department at a higher price.

PART 3: DEMOGRAPHICAL DATA

Before we close our discussion, I would like to ask you some personal information. I need to be able to validate my final report of this study by accurately recording whom I interviewed. All the information that you give remain confidential, and can only be divulged upon your approval.

1. Are you male or female?

- Male
- Female

2. Which category below includes your age?

- 18-20
- 21-29
- 30-39
- 40-49
- 50-59
- 60 or older

3. Please, indicate the number of years you have worked for your organization.

- 1 to <3 years
- 3 -5yrs
- 5 years +

4. What is your position in your organization?

- Management
- Non-management

5. What is the highest level of education you have completed?

- High School
- Some college
- Four year degree (e.g. BA, BS)
- Master's
- Doctoral degree
- Professional degree

6. What is your primary language while in the office?

- English
- Kiswahili
- Other

Appreciation

I want to take this opportunity to thank you for your time, dedication, and commitment to this work! Your insights are greatly appreciated, honored, and valued. Your participation actively contributes to increased understanding of organizational culture and corruption among the NGOs, which make huge differences in our society.

Phase two

The study has the second phase that will involve interviewing some of the participants. I would like your approval to contact you if I will need your help.

Appendix E

Interview Questionnaire Guide

This interview guide is designed to start the conversation. In order to build confidence between the interviewer and the interviewee, and to elicit maximum information from the interviewee, the interview will use standardized questions and more like a discussion. In addition, the interviews will take place after the responses to assessment questionnaire have been collated. There will be more specific questions to seek clarification of issues contained in these responses.

General

- (1) Expression of appreciation to the interviewee for accepting to be interviewed-giving informed consent
- (2) Self-introduction by the researcher (interviewer), and stating the purpose and the potential benefits of the research.
- 3) The respondent will be asked not to report of actual cases of corruption or actual people in their organization

All the interviewees will be asked to provide their views on the following questions, which the study seeks to answer. The interview will be guided by the some of the questions contained in the assessment questionnaire and scenarios developed. The interview is supposed to take 45-60 minutes.

Interview Questions

I will read some questions and I would like you to tell me what you think about them in regard to your organization.

Part I: Organizational Culture

- 1) What are most dominant characteristics of your organization? (dominant characteristics)
- 2) What kind of style guides the employees' behavior in your organization? (employees management)
- 3) How is success defined in your organization? (Criteria for Success)
- 4) What is mostly emphasized in your organization? (emphasis)
- 5) What do you think holds your organization together? (Glue)
- 6) How would you describe the leadership of your organization?

Part II: Tolerance of Corrupt Practices

In this section, I will read some scenarios and ask you what you think about them following some questions.

Questions

- 1) How would this behavior be considered in your organization? Please explain.....
- 2) How acceptable would this behavior be in your organization? Please, explain
- 3) Do you think this behavior is likely to occur in your organization? Please, give some examples.....
- 4) Would this behavior be regarded as a violation of official policy in your organization? Do you have any official policy that guides in handling such a behavior?

Tolerance of Corrupt practices

Favoritism

1. The manager arranges for his sister to get a job (for which she is qualified) in his department without having to go through the normal application and selection procedures so as to save the organization costs like advertising. (Favoritism)

Bribery/Kickback

2. An employee is offered Kshs. 20, 000 from a company to accept a tender which is before him. He only takes the money to cover his child's hospital bills. (Bribery and kickback)

Theft

3. The organization requires refurbished computers to be donated to the local high school, but some employees have been taking them for personal use. (Theft)

Fraudulent Claim

4. A manager submits claims for travel reimbursements which are far above the real cost and donates the extra money to a local organization. (Fraudulent claim)

Conflict of Interest

5. An employee often gives confidential information about department donors to a friend who works in another organization. (Conflict of interest)

PART III: DEMOGRAPHICAL DATA

Before we close our discussion, I would like to ask you some personal information. I need to be able to validate my final report of this study by accurately recording whom I interviewed and some information about the agencies they represent. All the information that you give remain confidential, and can only be divulged upon your approval.

7. Are you male or female?

- Male
- Female

8. Which category below includes your age?

- 18-20
- 21-29
- 30-39
- 40-49
- 50-59
- 60 or older

9. Please, indicate the number of years you have worked for your organization.

- 1 to < 5 years
- 5 years +

10. What is your position in your organization?

- Management
- Non-management

11. What is the highest level of education you have completed?

- High School
- Some college
- Four year degree (e.g. BA, BS)
- Master's
- Doctoral degree
- Professional degree

12. What is your primary language while in the office?

- English
- Kiswahili
- Other

Closing questions

- 1) Reviewing the questions I have asked and all we have discussed is there any response you would like to amend?
- 2) Is there anything of importance that I did not ask that you believe I should have asked?

Appreciation

I want to take this opportunity to thank you for your time, dedication, and commitment to this work! Your insights are greatly appreciated, honored, and valued. Your participation actively contributes to increased understanding of organizational culture and corruption among the NGOs, which make huge differences in our society.

Appendix F Recruitment Letters

Recruitment Letter: Organization

Dear.....

I am a doctoral student in the Wilder School of Government and Public Affairs, at Virginia Commonwealth University. As part of the requirements for my PhD degree, I am conducting a dissertation research on the influence of organizational culture and best practices on how to deal with corrupt practices among the Non-Governmental Organizations (NGOs).

To accomplish this study, I will conduct survey and interviews among various NGOs located in Nairobi. To accomplish this process, I have selected your organization as one of my case study. The organization was selected based on the available information on the number of years it has been operating in Kenya, services provided, and number of full time employees. Most of this information has been collected from the organization's website in addition to the NGO Coordination Board website.

There are no costs for your organization participation in this study. In addition, participation is completely voluntary; however, I hope you choose to participate. If you choose to participate, your organization will NOT be identified by name and the collected information will be protected in a password-protected laptop only accessible to the researcher. The responses will remain in the possession of the student researcher until incorporated into the written research study dissertation and later destroyed. No information incorporated into the written research study dissertation or in a public presentation will identify either the individual organization or the subject by name.

If you opt to participate in this study as an organization, please submit the contact list of your full time employees (should be over 18 years), and have worked for the organization for at least 12 months. Please, include either their email address or telephone number or both.

If you decide not to participate as an organization, please feel free to check in opt out box and reply back your response via my email. If a response is not received after two weeks, a follow up email will be sent.

- Opt in
- Opt out

Should you have any question about the study or its process, please feel free to contact my supervisor:

Nancy Stutts Ph.D.
Interim Chair, Master of Public Administration Program
Wilder School of Government and Public Affairs
Virginia Commonwealth University

921 W. Franklin St.
Richmond, VA 23284-2028
Phone: 804-828-2164 Fax: 804-827-1275 e-mail: nbstutts@vcu.edu

Should you like to contact me directly about this study, Cellular Telephone: (901) 336-8510. My email address is kimemiadk@vcu.edu.

I am very grateful for your assistance with this research.
Regards,

Douglas Kimemia

Recruitment Letter – Participants

Dear _____,

I am a doctoral student in the Wilder School of Government and Public Affairs, Virginia Commonwealth University. As part of the requirements for my Ph.D. Degree, I am conducting a dissertation research to determine whether organizational culture influences on the best practices of dealing with corrupt practices in an organization.

To accomplish this project, I will be conducting surveys, which will be followed by interviews of selected participants among the Non-Governmental Organizations (NGOs).

The purpose of this letter is to request your participation in this study. You have been identified as participant based on the length of employment and role in your organization. I would like to set a meeting with you so that I can ask you a few questions about your perceptions on the existing organizational culture and evaluate several scenarios that will be presented.

You are not required to report any actual/suspect cases of corrupt practices in you organization or mentions names of the people as that is not part of the purpose of this study.

All your responses will be kept confidential and will not be shared with anyone else except my study supervisor. I anticipate that the interview will take less than one hour. I will contact you within the next few weeks to schedule the interview. I will make every effort to ensure that we meet only at a time and place that is convenient to you.

Should you have any question about the study or its process, please feel free to contact my supervisor:

Nancy Stutts Ph.D.
Interim Chair, Master of Public Administration Program
Wilder School of Government and Public Affairs
Virginia Commonwealth University
921 W. Franklin St.
Richmond, VA 23284-2028
Phone: 804-828-2164 Fax: 804-827-1275 e-mail: nbstutts@vcu.edu

Should you like to contact me directly about this study, Cellular Telephone: (901) 336-8510. My email address is kimemiadk@vcu.edu.

I am very grateful for your assistance with this research.
Regards,

Douglas Kimemia

Appendix G

Vitae

Douglas Kimemia
Wilder School of Government & Public Affairs
Virginia Commonwealth University
9014 Patterson Ave Apt 31 Richmond, VA 2322901-336-8150
Email: kimemiadk@vcu.edu, kimemiaken@yahoo.com

Education

Virginia Commonwealth University, Richmond, VA

Ph.D. in Public Policy and Administration, May, 2013

- Specialization: Public Management and Non-Profit Studies
- Dissertation: "Organizational Culture and Corruption: A Multiple Case Study of Non-Governmental Organizations in Kenya"

Masters of Divinity, July, 2007

Memphis Theological Seminary (MTS), Memphis, TN

- Concentration: Old and New Testament studies
- Graduated magna cum laude
- Hyatt Hack Award on Sacraments and Ecumenism, 2007

Masters of Arts in Religious Studies, July, 2006

Memphis Theological Seminary (MTS), Memphis, TN

- Concentration: African Studies
- Thesis: African Independent Pentecostal Church of African Before and After Kenya Independence
- Graduated cum laude

Bachelor of Arts Degree in Bible and Theology, July, 2002

Pan Africa Christian University (PACU), Nairobi, Kenya

- Graduated magna cum laude

Teaching Experience

Instructor: June/July, 2012

African Government and Politics

Co-taught Non-profit Organizations & Society, Fall 2012

Co-taught Human Societies and Globalization, Fall 2012

Virginia Commonwealth University, Richmond, VA

- Designed the course curriculum and assessment tools
- Created a learning environment where students were actively engaged
- Provided timely feedback to students on their research topics

Graduate Teaching Assistant, August, 2008 to May, 2013

Virginia Commonwealth University, Richmond, VA

Courses: U.S Government and Politics, International Relations

- Prepared and made copies of study and examination material
- Support instruction and social development of the students
- Assist in student assessment and examination proctoring
- Conduct research on different topics such U.S Foreign policy on China

Conferences and Papers

- “Non-Governmental Organizations and Corruption: Case of Kenya.” Paper presented at International Conference on Democratic Governance: Challenges in Africa and Asia, University of Pennsylvania, PA, August, 2012.
- “Organizational Culture and Its Influence of Corruption: Case of Kenya”. Paper presented at ARNOVA's November, 2012 Conference in Indianapolis.
- “Organizational Culture and Its Influence on NGOs Management in Kenya”. Paper to be presented at 13th International Conference on Knowledge, Culture and Change in Organisations, held between 2013/06/13 and 2013/06/14, BC, Canada.

Publication and Working Papers

Kimemia, D. (2006). Anglican perspective on the human embryonic stem cell. *MTS Journal*, 42, 50-71.

Title: “Case of Representation of Women in Kenya”, manuscript accepted for publication review at the *Current Politics and Economics of Africa*, a peer-reviewed journal.

Title: “Non-Governmental Organizations and Corruption: Case of Kenya” to be published as a book chapter, June, 2013

Title: “Organizational Culture Among the NGOs in Kenya” paper submitted to *Journal of Nonprofit Management*, March, 2013

Grants and Fellowship

The State of Non-Profit Studies in Higher Education Fellowship Summer 2011

- Analysis of higher education institutions that offer non-profit related programs.
- Made recommendations to the steering committee on how to set a Center for Non-profit studies, Virginia Commonwealth University

Memberships

Association for Research on Nonprofit Organizations and Voluntary Action (ARNOVA)