EMPLOYEE VIEWS ON ORGANISATIONAL EFFECTIVENESS OF CHINESE ORGANISATIONS OPERATING IN KENYA

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ABSTRACT

Over the years there has been a growing interest in the relations between Africa and Asia. This is attributed to what is perceived as increasing Chinese influence and presence in Africa. During the past decades, China has experienced rapid economic growth and expansion which has contributed to its need for additional resources and expanding its geographic footprint into Africa and especially Kenya. The growing presence of Chinese organisations in Africa has also faced challenges. Chinese organisations operating in Kenya have been cited as facing cultural challenges, human resource management issues and external pressures which affect Chinese organisations thus impacting organisational effectiveness and performance.

While there has been an abundance of research conducted at a macro level, mainly anecdotal knowledge on Chinese organisational values and management, little information exists at the organisation and community level. This study aimed to contribute an in-depth understanding of Chinese and Kenyan employee relationships in organisations at a micro level. Furthermore, this study assesses employees' views on organisational effectiveness in a cross-cultural research setting of selected Chinese organisations operating in Kenya using the Burke-Litwin model (1992) of organisational effectiveness.

This study is qualitative in nature within the interpretivistic research paradigm and used a case study approach to generate detailed comprehensive understanding of the phenomenon under investigation. Two Chinese organisations specialising in importing and exporting of diverse products, which had expanded its operations to Kenya in order to reach Africa's growing consumer markets were selected for this study. The selected organisations were chosen under the premises that they had been operating in Kenya for more than 20 years, they are reputable organisations in their industries and were international role players.

Non-probability convenience sampling was used to select the two organisations who were willing to participate. Purposive sampling was used to identify employees from different job levels and types of work in the selected organisations who were willing to participate in this study.

Data was collected by means of face-to-face open-ended semi-structured interviews, with five Chinese and 12 Kenyan employees.

The findings of this study were guided by the dimensions of the Burke-Litwin model, comprising the external environment, transformational dimensions (including mission and strategy, leadership and organisational culture) and transactional dimensions (including management practices, organisational structure, systems [policies and procedures], motivation, work climate, task requirements and individual skills and abilities). Based on the findings, organisational culture was the dominant theme that had a large influence on the organisational performance. Within the context of organisational culture, the main challenges faced by employees were religious, work ethic and communication barriers. Leadership and the organisational structure set by senior managers was also impacted by culture. It is evident that the Chinese organisations are dominated by Chinese employees at senior managerial levels – except for one Indian Kenyan manager – and non-managerial levels are dominated by Kenyan employees. Between these two managerial levels there is lack of trust as well as trade union interference favouring Kenyan employees. Leadership of the selected organisations aimed at recruiting candidates who have the necessary skills to contribute toward organisational effectiveness and performance. However, recruited Kenyan employees indicated that they require strategy visibility, effective communication, and structured processes in order to be effective. Despite challenges faced, Chinese and Kenyan employees both strongly agree with and support the efforts of management for providing training and development and creating an environment that accommodates personal growth. The external environment has exerted pressure on the said Chinese organisations. The Kenyan trade unions favour Kenyan employees and place huge pressure on Chinese management. In addition the trade unions bribe locals while making it difficult for Chinese organisations operating in Kenya to conduct business.

Through the empirical development of organisational-level research on the case of Chinese organisations operating in Kenya, insightful management knowledge was gathered and shared to assist Chinese and Kenyan employees in their individual and organisational performance.

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CHAPTER 1
INTRODUCTION

1.1. INTRODUCTION TO THE STUDY

South-South cooperation is "a broad framework for collaboration among countries of the South in the political, economic, social, cultural, environmental and technical domains. Involving two or more developing countries, it can take place on a bilateral, regional, sub regional or interregional basis. Developing countries share knowledge, skills, expertise and resources to meet their development goals through concerted efforts. Recent developments in South-South cooperation have taken the form of increased volume of South-South trade, South-South flows of foreign direct investment, movements towards regional integration, technology transfers, sharing of solutions and experts, and other forms of exchanges." (United Nations Office for South-South Cooperation, 2015).

South-South relations were initiated in 1955 at the Asian-African conference held in Bandung, Indonesia where the newly independent developing African and Asian nations came together to promote economic, technical and cultural relations in order to decrease their dependence on developed countries (Poon, 2013:1). According to the United Nations Development programme (2015:16), the South-South relationship is bold, innovative, and intends to "strengthen cooperation for the achievement of the Sustainable Development Goals, the global plan of action for people, planet and prosperity to eradicate poverty". South-South relations provide the opportunity for Asian and African countries to trade with each other (Ross & Chan, 2002). Over the years there has been a growing interest in the relations between Africa and Asia. This is attributed to what is perceived as increasing Chinese influence and presence in Africa (Grell-Brisk, 2018).

Over the past decades, China has experienced rapid economic growth and expansion, which have contributed to its need for additional resources (Alessi & Xu, 2015). As asserted by Jackson, Louw and Zhao (2013), China's expansion into Africa is propelled by the motives of seeking resources, markets and political ties.

Kenya is one of the African countries that trades with China. China-Kenya diplomatic relations began in December 1963 (Onjala, 2008:4). Import trade relations between China and Kenya have increased rapidly while imports between Europe and Kenya have been decreasing in the past decade (Onjala, 2010:1). Exports from Kenya to China have also been increasing steadily (Patroba, 2012:10). China is currently Kenya's largest trading partner with Chinese imports far exceeding Kenyan exports to Europe, the world's largest economy (Omondi, 2016:1). China also invests heavily in the construction industry and infrastructure in Kenya and in Africa at large (Omondi, 2016:1). As the economic and diplomatic interactions increase between the two countries, Kenya has also shown interest in developing an association between their aviation industries (China Defence, 2013) and the manufacturing sector because of growth opportunities (Mulupi, 2015). Although the Kenyan manufacturing sector has been underperforming because of Kenya's weak exports and poor infrastructure, Kenya can boost its growth endeavours in the manufacturing sector if it continues to attract foreign direct investment from China (Sanghi & Johnson, 2016:1, 3).

Jackson, Louw and Zhao (2013) observe that while there has been an abundance of research conducted at a macro level, with mainly anecdotal knowledge on Chinese organisational values and management, little information exists at a micro level. Consequently, the aim of this study is to assess employee views on the organisational effectiveness of Chinese organisations operating in Kenya.

Organisational effectiveness has evolved over the past decades. In the 1980's and 1990's "organisational effectiveness" referred to how effectively the organisational culture, processes and structures were operating in relation to how the organisation is performing (French & Bell, 1999). It also involved looking at the extent to which an organisation achieves its goals and produces the intended output (Mondy, 1990; Daft, 1983). In the 21st century organisational effectiveness involves measuring the efficiency of an organisation in achieving its goals with the aid of given resources without placing pressure on its employees (Bhasin, 2020). To evaluate organisational effectiveness means to examine the current condition of an organisation to enhance its performance in relation to diagnostic findings (Lee & Brower, 2006:172). Assessing organisational effectiveness is viewed as a well-structured and well-executed diagnostic process that is generally considered to be part of a comprehensive organisational management strategy (Cummings & Worley, 2005; French & Bell, 1999).

Organisational effectiveness can be assessed using diagnostic models such as the Nadler and Tushman congruence model (1992), the Galbraith STAR model (1995), the Weisbord six-box model (1976), the McKinsey 7s model created by Peters, Waterman and Jones (1982), or the

Burke-Litwin model (1992). While a brief description of each of these models is provided in the following section, a detailed discussion of each model is undertaken in Chapter 2.

According to Martins and Coetzee (2009:145) the Nadler and Tushman congruence model (1992) is sustainable in the short term and can lead to organisational effectiveness and performance but results in resistance in the long term. The Galbraith STAR (1995) model is applicable when extensive change is occurring; however, it neglects the external environment as an influencer and crucial elements of inputs and outputs such as culture (Stanford, 2007:22; Martins and Coetzee, 2009:145). Falletta (2005:11) and Stanford (2007:22) highlight that the Weisbord six-box model (1976) fails to identify interdependencies between the boxes and places little emphasis on the external environment. Nonetheless, the model includes some useful diagnostic questions. While the McKinsey 7s model (Peters, Waterman & Jones, 1982) provides a multivariable framework, it has no performance variables and neglects the external environment (Stanford, 2007:22). The Burke-Litwin model (1992) outlines the relationship between the internal and external environment and the 12 organisational dimensions that are crucial for organisational effectiveness and change (Burke-Litwin, 1992). This model adopts a multidimensional approach in assessing the dimensions which influence overall effectiveness (Martins & Coetzee, 2009:145), differentiating between transformational and transactional relationships (Martins & Coetzee, 2009:146). It is particularly appropriate within a cross-cultural research context (Martins & Coetzee, 2009:145).

The external or macro environment has forces that affect organisational performance – specifically competitors, suppliers, legislation, political, economic, social, technological, ethical, environmental and legal (Chand, 2017). Transformational dimensions include vision, mission and strategy, leadership (management), organisational culture and individual and organisational performance (Martins & Coetzee, 2009:146). These dimensions are concerned with internal and external environmental pressures exerted on the employee and how employee behaviour can be influenced by such pressures (Armenakis & Bedeian, 1999:296). On the other hand, transactional dimensions include structure, management practices, systems [policies and procedures], work climate, task requirements and individual skills and abilities, in addition to individual needs, values and motivation. These dimensions are associated with human behaviour or the everyday interactions and exchanges that establish the work climate of the organisation (Martins & Coetzee, 2009:145-146). The Burke-Litwin model (1992) is the most appropriate model for this study.

Individual and organisational performance is used to assess effectiveness of the Burke-Litwin change model. This can be measured at different levels of the organisation and is assessed for individuals, groups and the holistic organisation (Sambul, 2020; Burke & Litwin, 1992). From the viewpoints of Chinese and Kenyan employees, assessing organisational effectiveness using the Burke-Litwin model (1992) as a diagnostic framework will assist in understanding an organisation's current functioning while facilitating problem-solving and contributing to improving organisational effectiveness (Martins & Coetzee, 2009:144)

The Burke-Litwin model "adds great value to the outcomes of an organisational diagnostic process" (Martins & Coetzee, 2009:146). Despite the merits of this model, Martins and Coetzee (2009:146) also caution that the complexity of integrating all dimensions needs to be considered.

1.2. PROBLEM STATEMENT

"Numerous research studies have focused on intercultural collaboration as well as on intercultural conflict management and negotiation in intercultural and international management cooperation" (Mayer, Boness & Louw, 2017:2). Cultural differences have been a key challenge and area of dispute between Africa and China (Mayer, Louw & Boness, 2019). Wang (2019) asserts that the differences between Chinese and African culture can be easily identified and misinterpreted. It has also been highlighted by Sishuwa (2015) that the increase of China's presence in Africa poses several threats to African culture in terms of Africa's past of neo-colonialism and the increase of Chinese Confucius schools. However, to obtain more in-depth knowledge about China's investment and its impact in Africa, it is crucially important to adopt a cross-cultural analysis at a micro level that allows for interaction between individuals, within organisations and communities (Horwitz, Hemmant & Rademeyer, 2008:11).

Consequently, it is imperative for management scholars to investigate and understand the relationship between China and Africa and its impact on management and organisational knowledge and values (Jackson, 2012:182 cited in Mayer, Boness & Louw, 2017:2). As a result, this study aims to add to the growing empirical knowledge on Chinese management dimensions within organisations in the African context. Through the empirical development of organisational-level research on the case of Chinese organisations operating in Kenya, insightful management knowledge can be gathered and shared to assist Chinese and Kenyan employees in their individual and organisational performance.

1.3. PURPOSE AND OBJECTIVES OF THE STUDY

The main purpose of this study is to assess employees' views on organisational effectiveness in a cross-cultural research setting of selected Chinese organisations operating in Kenya using the Burke-Litwin model (1992) of organisational effectiveness.

In order to achieve the purpose of this study, the following objectives have been formulated:

- Describe the viewpoints of Chinese and Kenyan employees regarding the 12 organisational effectiveness dimensions of selected Chinese organisations operating in Kenya.
- Explore the key relationships that emerge and identify and highlight similarities between Chinese and Kenyan employees' viewpoints based on the 12 organisational dimensions of organisational effectiveness for the selected Chinese organisations operating in Kenya.
- Make recommendations on how organisational effectiveness can be improved, from a cross-cultural perspective, based on the organisational diagnosis conducted for the selected Chinese organisations operating in Kenya.

1.4. RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

This study is part of a comprehensive international research project entitled "Chinese organisations in sub-Saharan Africa: New dynamics, New synergies". As such, the data used for this study was collected under the auspices of that international research project. While an overview of the research methodology is provided next, a comprehensive explanation of the research methodology used in this study is provided in Chapter 4.

In the international research project, an interpretivist research paradigm (Collis & Hussey, 2014:44; Dilthey, 2002;18-17) was adopted, and likewise in this study. The interpretivistic paradigm tends to produce qualitative data (Collis & Hussey, 2014:50). The study adopts qualitative methodology which is in line with the larger research project. The interpretivistic research paradigm and qualitative research method is associated with the case study method (Collis and Hussey, 2014:60) which is adopted for this study. The case study analysis focuses on two selected Chinese organisations operating in Kenya and is the most suitable methodology because it provides detailed understanding of the phenomenon under investigation, since the research tactic accommodates the inquiry to materialise in natural settings (Yin, 2018; Creswell, 2013; Baxter & Jack, 2008).

For this study, two organisations that specialise in importing and exporting of products were selected. Organisation A imports and exports tiles, ceramics, sanitary ware, doors, PVC ceiling boards, bathtubs, wall and floor tiles, double loading tiles and glazed tiles. Organisation B imports and exports aviation products and technology such as fighters, trainers, bombers, helicopters, unmanned aerial vehicles, transport aircraft, general aviation aircraft, missiles, associated airborne equipment, and ground support equipment, including various components and spare parts required to support these products. Both organisations have been operating in Kenya for many years and are well known in their fields as international role players. Organisation A has over 20 years' experience, while organisation B has over 40 years of experience. These organisations were willing to participate in the research study and both signed the required institutional permission letter.

The participants in the selected organisations were chosen using non-probability purposive sampling. According to Bernard (2011:189) and to Lewis and Sheppard (2006), purposive sampling (also known as judgement sampling) allows the researcher to seek participants who can and are willing to provide relevant information by virtue of knowledge or experience. Participants were chosen based on their experience, job description and level at which they work. As such, participants working at management and non-management levels voluntarily participated in this study. Twelve Kenyans and five Chinese employees in total were willing to participate in the study.

Data was collected by means of face-to-face open-ended semi-structured interviews undertaken by a Chinese research associate and a research assistant from the comprehensive international research project. Both interviewers are bilingual Chinese nationals, one female and one male who are proficient in Mandarin and English. Accordingly, Chinese research participants were interviewed in Mandarin, and Kenyan research participants were interviewed in English. The Chinese responses were transcribed into English by the two interviewers with each validating the other's transcriptions to ensure that the translation was accurate.

To ensure consistency in the data gathered for the overall international research project, two interview guides were generated by the project leaders. As shown in Annexure A, an interview guide was generated for employees in managerial positions and a second interview guide was generated for non-managerial employees as seen in annexure B. These interview guides allowed for the collection of very comprehensive data beyond the scope of this study. Consequently, the data gathered could be analysed in terms of the theoretical framework provided by the Burke-Litwin model (1992).

Data was analysed by using thematic analysis. According to Nowell, Norris, White and Moules (2017:2), thematic analysis is widely used in qualitative research. It is "a method for identifying, analysing, organising, describing, and reporting themes found within a data set" (Nowell, et al., 2017:2). The credibility of the data was confirmed through interactions with the research associate and other team members. Furthermore, in analysing the data, the quality criteria of credibility, transferability, trustworthiness and confirmability were adhered to by the researcher (Collis & Hussey, 2014:172).

1.5. ETHICAL CONSIDERATIONS

The data collected complied with the research ethics requirements of the Rhodes University Ethics Standards Handbook and approved by the Department of Management's Human Research Ethics Committee. Permission to use the data collected under the auspices of the comprehensive international research project was given to the researcher by the same Human Research Ethics Committee.

In particular, the participants were informed about the purpose of the research and data usage and storage. Informed oral consent was captured on a tape recorder, and participants' identities were kept anonymous by using pseudonyms. Participants were also given the opportunity and freedom to withdraw from the research process if they wished to do so. Informed consent form is seen in Annexure C.

1.6. STRUCTURE OF THE THESIS

Chapter 1 of this thesis focused on the context of the research, briefly outlining the growing phenomenon of the Chinese presence in Africa. The chapter further explored the macro factors that have influenced trade between China and Africa, in particular with Kenya, and outlined the use of the Burke-Litwin (1992) model to assess organisational effectiveness of Chinese organisations operating in Kenya. The problem statement, purpose and objective of the study, research methodology and ethical considerations were briefly highlighted.

Chapter 2 explores organisational effectiveness approaches, theories and diagnostic models. It brings into focus organisational effectiveness and the literature surrounding this concept. The perspectives and approaches to, theories on and diagnostic models used for analysing organisational effectiveness are further discussed. The chapter concludes with the framework selected for this study and its applicability in comparison to existing models.

Chapter 3 elaborates on the 12 Burke-Litwin management dimensions (Burke & Litwin, 1992). These include the external or macro environment, a range of transformational dimensions, various transactional dimensions, individual and organisational performance.

Chapter 4 provides an explanation of the research design and methodology of this research study. Furthermore, the chapter justifies the research methods and the sampling strategy methods used and details the process through which data was collected and analysed.

Chapter 5 presents the findings of the research. This chapter answers the first objective, namely "to describe the viewpoints of the Chinese and Kenyan employees of the 12 organisational effectiveness dimensions of the selected Chinese organisations operating in Kenya". The findings are presented according to the Burke-Litwin model.

Chapter 6 responds to the second objective of this research, which is "to explore the key relationships that emerge and identify and highlight similarities between Chinese and Kenyan employees' viewpoints based on the 12 organisational dimensions of organisational effectiveness for the selected Chinese organisations operating in Kenya." Furthermore, the chapter will conclude by responding to the third objective namely, "to make recommendations on how organisational effectiveness can be improved, from a cross-cultural perspective, based on the organisational diagnosis conducted for the selected Chinese organisations operating in Kenya." Lastly chapter 6 will highlight limitations and how this study has contributed to overall research.

CHAPTER 2
AN OVERVIEW OF ORGANISATIONAL EFFECTIVENESS: APPROACHES, THEORIES AND DIAGNOSTIC MODELS

2.1 INTRODUCTION

Chapter 1 presented an overview of the research context, methodology, China-Africa relations and context of the research direction of this study. Chapter 2 focuses on the concept of organisational effectiveness and the literature surrounding the concept. In this chapter, organisational effectiveness will be defined and various perspectives and approaches, theories and relevant diagnostic models used for analysing organisational effectiveness will be discussed. Lastly the model selected for this study and its applicability in comparison to existing models will be outlined.

2.2 DEFINING ORGANISATIONAL EFFECTIVENESS

Organisational effectiveness has been one of the most widely investigated concepts since the early development of organisational theory (Rojas, 2000). The ability of an organisation to survive and make progress determines how effective it will become (Amah, 2012:212). To understand how organisations operate effectively, the concept should be defined and explained.

Organisational effectiveness is difficult to define accurately; it cannot be narrowly measured by a single, distinct criterion because of its multidimensional nature (Ahmad, Gilkar & Darzi, 2008:379). There is very little agreement on how to conceptualise, measure and explain organisational effectiveness (Martz, 2008:26-27). Several decades ago, organisational effectiveness was described as being divergent in relating to an array of stakeholders, comprehensive with a variety of dimensions, complex because there is no relationship between the dimensions, and mutable because it is made up of different standards at different stages of an organisation's evolution in growth (Cameron, 1978:604). This definition is also linked to the ability of an organisation to access and capture resources and subsequently accomplish its objectives (Federman, 2006). In the contemporary business environment, organisational effectiveness is viewed as a multidimensional concept that is quite vague and complex (Gish, 2017).

It is challenging to discuss the concept of organisational effectiveness because there are diverging seminal viewpoints on its definition (Burnes, 1998:101; Georgopoulos & Tannenbaum, 1957:534; Price, 1972:3). The concept has been investigated for many years (Sinha & McKim, 2000). Oghojafor, Muo and Aduloju (2012:82) highlight that organisational effectiveness is multifaceted. Eydi (2015:462) and Martz (2008:2) add that organisational effectiveness is an ambiguous concept with individuals interpreting the concept in various ways; organisational effectiveness requires the measuring of several criteria and the assessment of different organisational dimensions using diverse attributes and considering processes and outcomes. The difficulty of defining organisational effectiveness also stems from the notion that the concept means different things to different people depending on their viewpoint and frame of reference (Oghojafor, Muo & Aduloju, 2012:85).

The concept is always evolving. In the 1980s, Zammuto (1982:21) revealed that organisational effectiveness is a topic that has significant relevance for administrative and organisational sciences and research on this topic is constantly being developed through numerous articles, books and professional meetings. In more recent times, AIHR Digital (2020) highlight that organisational effectiveness acts as a barometer to measure how successful an organisation is at achieving their goals. Additionally, the concept continues to be a popular topic in management settings, seminars, and research projects (Eydi, 2015:460).

In 1957, Georgopoulos and Tannenbaum (1957:534) questioned whether it was possible to formulate a definition of organisational effectiveness and standardise requirements that will be applicable across organisations. Twenty-five years later, Zammuto (1982:21) pointed out that the exploration of this concept is directed towards formulating and validating a universal framework applicable to all organisations. Researchers are yet to fully agree on a suitable definition of organisational effectiveness, and to obtain a general agreement on its dimensions (Das & Chaudhury, 2015:230).

Current literature on organisational effectiveness is founded on an array of theories, almost all of which acknowledge the significance of organisational effectiveness and its connection to organisational performance (Maloney, 2019; Glunk & Wilderom, 2015:2-4; Oghojafor, Muo & Aduloju, 2012:82; Baruch & Ramalho, 2006; Lee & Brower, 2006). The definition of organisational effectiveness varies from different scholars and theorists as shown in Table 2.1 below, which summarises the progression of the definition of organisational effectiveness found in literature, dating as far back as 1972 to 2020.

Table 2.1: Definitions of organisational effectiveness

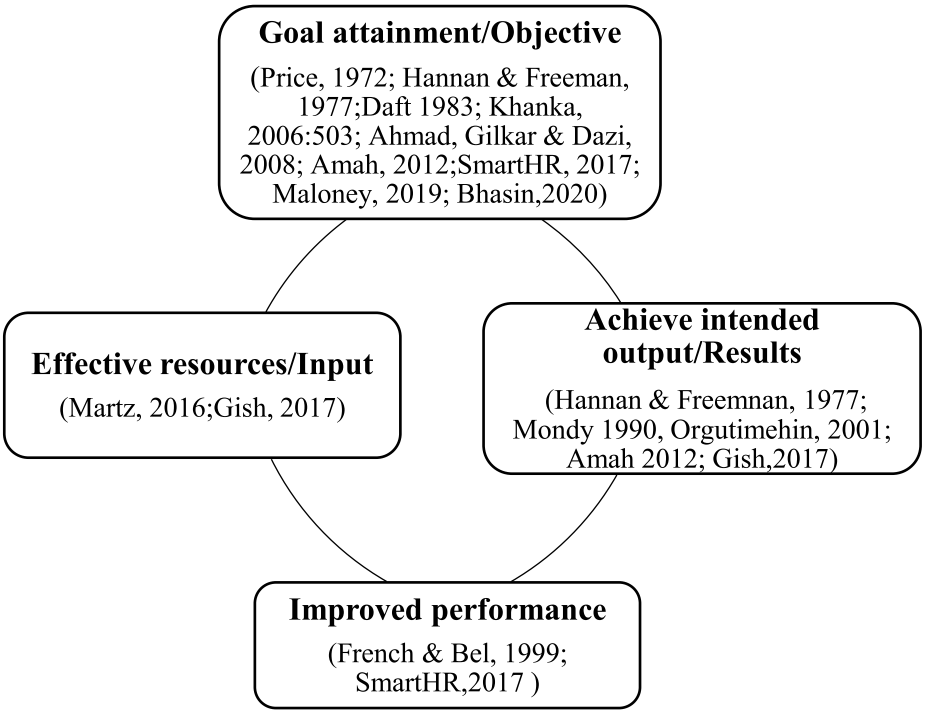
Author	Definition
Price (1972)	The severity of goal attainment. The larger the depth to which an organisation attains its objectives according to its approach – the more effective it is.
Hannan and Freeman (1977)	The degree of alignment between organisational objectives and noticeable outcomes.
Daft (1983)	The depth to which an organisation achieves its objectives.
Mondy (1990)	The depth to which an organisation produces the desired outcome.
French and Bell (1999) cited in Martins and Coetzee (2009:144)	"Organisational effectiveness illustrates the soundness of an organisation's culture, processes and structure in terms of its overall system performance."
Oguntimehin (2001)	Organisational effectiveness is the ability to produce desired results.
Ahmad, Gilkar and Darzi (2008:379-380)	"Effectiveness is the degree to which organisation realises its goals … The ability of an organisation to mobilise its centres of power for action production and adaptation."
Amah (2012:216)	"The ability of an organisation to fulfil its mission by achieving its objectives through a combination of sound management, strong governance and a continuous rededication to assessing and achieving results."
Khanka (2006:503)	Organisational effectiveness encompasses goal attainment, systems resource, strategic constituencies and competing values.
Martz (2013:2)	"The extent to which the organisation provides sustainable value through the purposeful transformation of inputs and exchange of outputs, while minimising harm from its actions."
Gish (2017:1)	"The effectiveness of a business constitutes its ability to perform a function with optimal levels of input and output."
SmartHR (2017:1)	"Organisational effectiveness refers to the organisation formulating goals and pursuing these goals through completion of relevant tasks. Effectiveness is concerned with getting the job done."
Maloney (2019)	Organisational effectiveness assesses how effectively and efficiently an organisation achieves its organisational objectives.
Bhasin (2020)	Organisational effectiveness evaluates the efficiency of an organisation in achieving its goals with the

	assistance of outlined resources without exerting undue pressure on its employees.

(Source: Researcher's own compilation based on the cited authors)

Although there are some variations in the definitions of organisational effectiveness, there are common dimensions and similarities in Table 2.1 and as shown in Figure 2.1 below. Organisational effectiveness is the degree to which an organisation realises its goals or objectives through completion of organisational tasks and achieving the organisational mission. Based on the author's viewpoint, objectives or goals are essential in measuring organisational effectiveness and ensuring that tasks are completed and measured against objectives (Bhasin, 2020; Maloney, 2019; SmartHR, 2017; Amah, 2012; Ahmad, Gilkar & Dazi ,2008; Khanka, 2006:503; Daft, 1983; Hannan & Freeman, 1977; Price, 1972). Gish (2017:1) and Martz (2016:2) add that organisational effectiveness is governed by organisational inputs and how they are utilised within the organisation to generate a desired outcome or result. An organisation is effective if organisational inputs are utilised effectively to achieve the desired outcome or result. Gish (2017:1), Amah (2012:216), Orgutimehin (2001), Mondy (1990), Hannan and Freemnan (1977) agree that organisational effectiveness is outcome- or output-based, indicating that if an organisation achieves its results or desired outcome it is considered effective. The output dictates how effective an organisation is. Overall organisational effectiveness is concerned with organisational performance and ensuring that the organisation performs optimally (SmartHR, 2017:1; French & Bell,1999).

Figure 2.1: Common dimensions of organisational effectiveness



(Source: Researcher's own compilation based on the cited authors)

Overall, experts still do not agree on one distinct meaning or on the dimensions of organisational effectiveness (Oghojafor, Muo & Aduloju, 2012:85).

2.2.1 Organisational effectiveness approaches

In the conceptualisation of organisational effectiveness, initially the focus was on goal achievement (goal attainment). However, gradually the resources and processes relevant to achieve those goals were included (systems resource approach), powerful dimensions that gravitate around the organisation (the strategic constituencies model). Organisational effectiveness can be defined using four approaches, namely goal attainment, systems resources, strategic constituencies and competing values (Khanka, 2006:503). McCann (2004) states that organisational effectiveness is a barometer of an organisation's successful accomplishment of their purposes through core strategies. According to Balduck and Buelens (2008:4-5) organisational effectiveness can be determined by the interaction of these four approaches. Each approach will be explored to better understand its contribution to organisational effectiveness.

2.2.1.1 Goal attainment approach

Goals are clear, consensual, time-bounded and measurable (Love & Skitmore, 1996:4). A goal is considered an image of what is to come in the future (Rao & Rao, 1999:210). This is one of the oldest, most used approaches of measuring effectiveness because organisations operate primarily to achieve certain objectives (Rao & Rao, 1999:210; Strasser, Eveland, Deniston & Romani, 1981). The goal attainment approach is frequently used for appraisal of organisational effectiveness (Banerjee, 1995:334). Rao and Rao (1999:210) further highlight that "organisational effectiveness is appraised in terms of accomplishment of ends rather than means". This approach is divided into two categories. First is the prescribed goal approach which focuses on the formal operations of the organisation or on the personnel (top management) as they provide the most accurate, valid source of information pertaining to organisational goals (Yuchtman & Seashore, 1967:892). Second is the derived goal approach. With this approach the investigator is the one who determines the most suitable goal for the organisation based on their intentions and members should be aware of them (functional theory) (Yuchtman & Seashore, 1967:892).

2.2.1.2 Systems resource approach

The systems resource approach focuses on the relationship between the organisation and the environment, organisational goals and the resources required to achieve them (Cetin & Cerit, 2010:195). A clear connection ought to exist between inputs and output (Love & Skitmore, 1996:4). The systems resource approach views an organisation as an identifiable social structure or entity, emphasising the interdependency processes of the organisation in relation to the environment (Yuchtman & Seashore, 1967:897). Organisations are viewed as open systems (Love & Skitmore, 1996:6) whereby an organisation is constructed of interrelated subsystems (Kast & Rosenzweig, 1985). However, if any of the subsystems do not function effectively, the performance of the entire system is impacted. Moreover, for an organisation to be effective it must receive an abundance of resource inputs from the environment (Love & Skitmore, 1996:6).

The systems approach ensures that the organisation is flexible enough to adjust to an ever-changing environment (Chitale, Mohanty & Dubey, 2012:552). Furthermore, having good relationships with the organisation's constituencies and stakeholders will result in the sustainability of the organisation, since the constituencies and stakeholders could influence organisational operations negatively (Love & Skitmore, 1996:6).

2.2.1.3 Strategic constituency approach

In the strategic constituency approach, organisational effectiveness is measured by its ability to satisfy the stakeholders' interests; these interests vary from stakeholder to stakeholder as Oghojafor, Muo and Aduloju (2012:90) point out: "effectiveness lies in the eyes and minds of the beholder but some beholders are more powerful than others" depending on their ranking in the organisation. Stakeholders are powerful influencers with their own demands that need to be met by the organisation (Khanka, 2006:503). Internal stakeholders are employees, managers and owners, while external stakeholders can be suppliers, society, government, shareholders, customers and creditors (Minning, 2019).

The preferences of stakeholders change over time; some stakeholders are more influential than others, and internal and external stakeholders have different interests while society itself is constantly evolving, all of which has an impact on organisational effectiveness (Oghojafor, Muo & Aduloju, 2012:86). The stakeholders who determine organisational effectiveness are owners, managers, employees, customers, suppliers and government. This approach incorporates both the goal attainment and system resources approach to effectiveness, resulting in a special case of multi-constituency effectiveness (Chitale, Mohanty & Dubey, 2012:522).

2.2.1.4 Competing values approach

The competing values approach highlights that individuals within the organisation have different goals. Therefore, the agreement on which goal should take precedence over the other and what should constitute effectiveness should be decided on (Oghojafor, Muo & Aduloju, 2012:98; Robbins, 1990). The reason for the complexity of agreeing on goals is that individuals base their goals on their personal values, preferences and what interests them (Robbins, 1990; Scott, 1987). It is assumed that the different individual preferences can be combined and systematically arranged into a holistic organisational effectiveness approach (Love & Skitmore, 1996:8).

Three value dimensions that exist in this approach, namely internal-external, control flexibility and the "means-end" which were established by Campbell in 1977 (Yu & Wu, 2009:37). The internal-external dimension focuses on the internal and external organisation and places emphasis on the micro and macro issues such as well-being and development of people within the organisation and the well-being and development of the organisation externally as a whole (Yu & Wu, 2009:37). The second dimension of "control flexibility" focuses on organisational structure and emphasis is placed on stability and flexibility. These two aspects can affect organisational effectiveness if there is an over-emphasis on one dimension over the others. More emphasis on internal integration, neglecting the external organisation components, will result in organisational ineffectiveness (Denison & Mishra, 1995:209). The third aspect places emphasis on both internal-external and control flexibility. The "means-end" dimension is concerned with developing human resources, providing employees with autonomy and opportunities to develop, and outlining goals and sub-goals that need to be attained in the organisation while being cognisant of the macro environment and adopting an open system organisational flow (Oghojafor, Muo & Aduloju, 2012:98).

The four approaches of organisational effectiveness are summarised in Table 2.2.

Table 2.2: Approaches of organisational effectiveness

Approach	**Definition**	**Condition of Use**
Goal attainment	It accomplishes its stated goals.	Goals are clear, consensual, time-bounded, measurable
System resources	It acquires needed resources.	A clear connection exists between inputs and performance
Strategic constituencies	All strategic constituencies are at least minimally satisfied	Stakeholders have powerful influence on the organisation, and organisation is responsible for catering to stakeholder demands.
Competing values	The emphasis is placed on internal-external, control flexibility and the "means-end" dimension	The organisation is unclear about its own criteria, or change in criteria over time are of interest

(Source: Love & Skitmore, 1996:4)

Overall, Eydi (2015:460) asserts that numerous authors have attempted to reduce the complexity of the effectiveness theory by narrowing the concept from which it is viewed and/or measured. Accordingly, the above-mentioned approaches are used to measure organisational effectiveness. To better understand the concept of organisational effectiveness, theories surrounding organisational effectiveness will be further unpacked.

2.3 THEORIES ON ORGANISATIONAL EFFECTIVENESS

"Very little consensus exists among researchers about which theories explain or support the topic of organisational effectiveness" (Abston & Stout, 2006:749). Organisational researchers Hannan and Freeman (Markgraf, 2017) used the basis of organisational ecology to highlight that organisational effectiveness is governed by the environment in which the organisation operates. Furthermore, the practical use of assessing organisational effectiveness originates from the objective to analyse the organisation's current position to improve the performance of the organisation based on the diagnostic findings (Lee & Brower, 2006).

Although current literature on organisations provides numerous diverse theories on the concept of organisational effectiveness, there is agreement that organisational effectiveness enhances organisational performance (Martins & Coetzee, 2009:144; Baruch & Ramalho, 2006). A brief analysis of theorists such as Fredrick Taylor, Henri Fayol and Elton Mayo provides more insight into the development of organisational effectiveness and its relationship with organisational performance.

2.3.1 Fredrick Taylor: The principles of scientific management

Fredrick Taylor formulated the scientific management theory (Dininni, 2011). Taylor proposed that an organisation should recognise the most effective way to do the job, train its employees to tackle each dimension of work in a pre-determined manner, and formulate an equitable framework for rewards in order to improve productivity (Dininni, 2011). Willyard (2016) adds that managers can control the production process internally through economic incentives and formal restrictions and influence employees' rationality to boost efficiency and effectiveness. Organisational effectiveness can also be increased if managers regulate the labour process and applying scientific management practices to maximise employee incentives (Taylor, 1970 cited in Willyard, 2016). According to Kadian-Baumeyer (2016), Fredrick Taylor posited that employees should be considered as machines, therefore ensuring product maximisation and organisational effectiveness.

2.3.2 Henri Fayol: Bureaucracy theory

Henry Fayol modified 14 general principles of management that can be applied in all management contexts irrespective of the nature of the organisation (Kalpana, 2016). These principles – namely division of work, authority, discipline, unity of command, unity of direction, subordination of individual interests to the general interest, remuneration, centralisation, order, equity, stability of tenure, initiative and *esprit de corps* ("unity is strength") – place emphasis on the entire organisation rather than just on "work" (Kadian-Baumeyer, 2016). Fayol (Kadian-Baumeyer, 2016) further highlighted that managers require specific functions to be able to manage work and employees, resulting in organisational effectiveness. Forecasting, planning, organising, commanding, coordinating and controlling are the six functions that managers should possess to effectively manage an organisation (Kalpana, 2016). The positives of this theory are that it provides a guideline on how an organisation can effectively be managed through various management practices from a managerial level to an organisational level.

2.3.3 Elton Mayo: Hawthorne studies

Mayo's management theory was developed from observing employees' productivity levels under variable environmental conditions (Dininni, 2010). This management theory reasons that employees are highly motivated by relational factors, namely attention and fellowship opposed to monetary rewards or environmental factors such as lighting, humidity and many more (Dininni, 2010). Relational rewards result in satisfied employees, leading to organisational effectiveness. Elton Mayo believed that management should understand employee concerns and make efforts to address them (Chand, 2016).

For the present study, it is essential to understand the underpinning theories that have contributed to the concept of organisational effectiveness by highlighting the progression and backdrop of the concept. Owing to the ambiguity of this concept, the theories of Frederick Taylor, Henri Fayol and Elton Mayo together create a solid basis upon which to begin exploring this concept, as summarised in Table 2.3.

Table 2.3: Authors' contribution towards organisational effectiveness theory

Author	**Theory**	**Theory overview**
Frederick Taylor	Scientific theory	Product maximisation Cost minimisation Technological excellence
Henri Fayol	Bureaucracy theory	Clear authority Discipline within an organisation
Elton Mayo	Human relations theory (Hawthorne studies)	Productivity Employee satisfaction

(Source: Willyard, 2016; Poddar, 2014; Dininni, 2011)

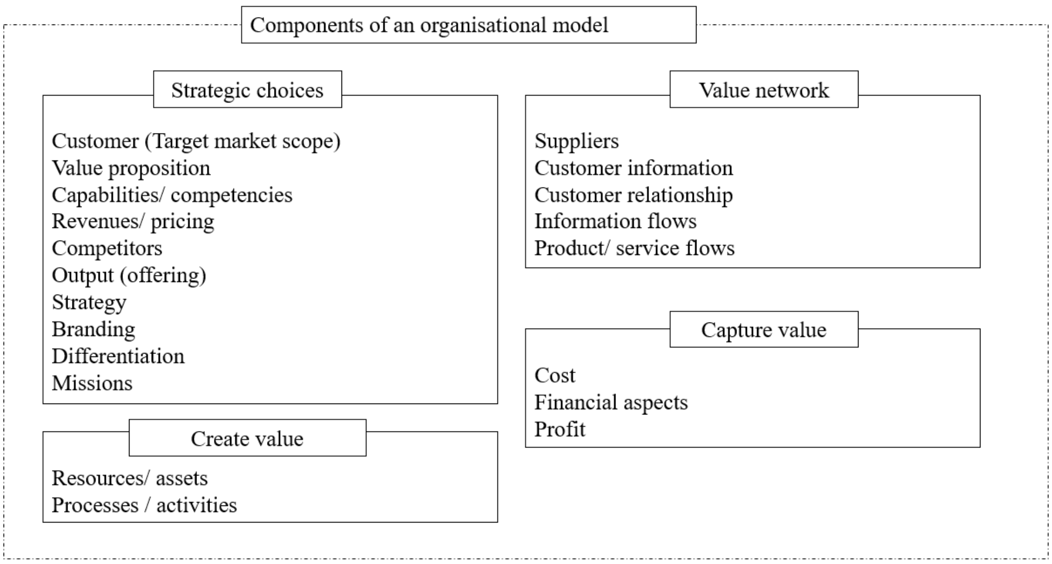
In the next section various diagnostic models will be investigated in order to better understand the concept of organisational effectiveness.

2.4 ORGANISATIONAL EFFECTIVENESS DIAGNOSTIC MODELS

Organisational effectiveness can be assessed by using numerous diagnostic models. These organisational models play a positive and influential role in managing corporate organisations (Shafer, Smith & Linder, 2005:199). Models act as powerful instruments for analysing, implementing, and communicating strategic choices (Shafer, Smith & Linder, 2005:200) and play a pivotal role in guiding the analysis and action process (Nadler & Tushman, 1980:36). The models are also used as a building plan or blueprint and a simple representation of reality about how an organisation should conduct business (Osterwalder, Pigneur & Tucci, 2005:2; Shafer, Smith & Linder, 2005:202). They are used to assess an organisation's performance and organisational symptoms and are considered to contain a "set of objects, concepts and their relationships with the objective to express business logic of a specific firm" (Osterwalder, Pigneur & Tucci, 2005:2).

According to Shafer, Smith and Linder (2005:202) an organisational model should contain the following components highlighted in Figure 2.2.

Figure 2.2: Components of an organisational model



(Source: Shafer, Smith & Linder, 2005: 202).

According to Shafer, Smith and Linder (2005:202), as shown in Figure 2.2, for an organisation to be effective it should use an organisational model that has four components. First, it should make strategic choices (acts as a representation of an organisation's underlying core logic and strategic choices for establishing and obtaining value within a value network). Second, it needs a value network (creating value for key stakeholders such as suppliers and many more). Third, it should create value (create value through organisational processes and assets), and fourth, it should capture value (when value is created through processes and assets, it will result in value being captured through profit and other financial aspects). These four components as outlined by Shafer, Smith and Linder (2005:202) are present in the diagnostic models that will be discussed in the next section.

2.4.1 Organisational effectiveness diagnostic models

The construct of organisational effectiveness is embedded in the heart of all organisational models. In organisational research, organisational effectiveness is considered the ultimate dependant variable (Martz, 2008:26). Belkhamza and Wafa (2012:42) note that the major issue of exploring organisational effectiveness is identifying an evaluation model with the relevant criteria to be used in a specific context. The issue with organisational effectiveness is that there is no single criterion to measure effectiveness, making it difficult to identify the most suitable criteria and models to guide the research and practice (Oghojafor, Muo & Aduloju, 2012:85). According to Martins and Coetzee (2009:144), depending on the situation or research setting, it is crucial to identify a well-researched diagnostic model that pays attention to the environmental impact, organisational performance, change and effectiveness in a cross-cultural context. Jones and Brazzel (2006) suggest that there is no "best diagnostic model" and the model chosen for the research is dependent on the style of the researcher or practitioner and the particular lens they adopt.

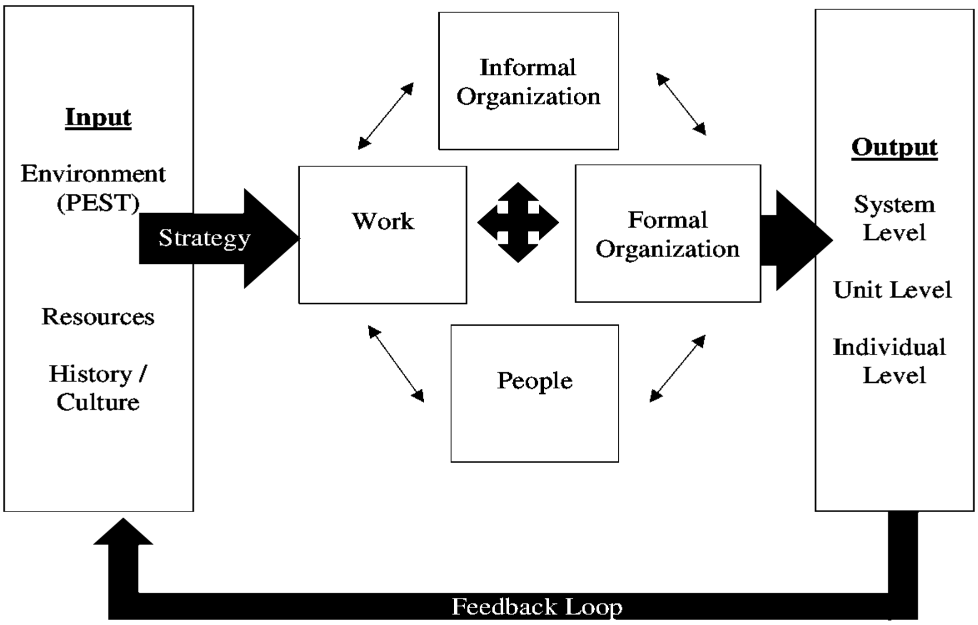
A discussion of the most frequently used models for assessing organisational effectiveness is presented in the remainder of this chapter. The four models inter alia, the Nadler and Tushman congruence model (1992), Galbraith STAR model (1995), Weisbord six-box model (1976), McKinsey 7s model generated by Peters, Waterman and Jones (1982) and Burke-Litwin's model (1992).

2.4.1.1 Nadler and Tushman congruence model

The Nadler and Tushman congruence model, introduced in 1992, is an analytical tool that considers organisational functioning, the inputs, transformation process and output (Nadler & Tushman, 1980:37). This model is applied when a comprehensive analysis or system perspective is required (Martins & Coetzee, 2009:145), emphasising that for the organisation to be effective, the subsections or components of the organisation must be consistently structured and managed accordingly to reach a state of congruence (Mecer Delta Consulting, 2004:20; Nader & Tushman, 1980:36-37). The organisation is most effective when the strategy is aligned with the environment and the organisational components are congruent with the tasks required to implement the strategy inputs (environment, resources and history), and

transformational components (tasks, individuals, informal organisation, formal organisation arrangement), resulting in the output (Nadler, Tushman & Nadler, 1997:34).
According to Nader and Tushman (1980:37) this congruence model considers organisations as an open system that engages with the environment and the interrelated dimensions that make up the mechanism that uses inputs from the environment, then transforms them and produces output. The input components are derived from both internal and external sources (Mecer Delta Consulting, 2004:20), as shown in Figure 2.3.

Figure 2.3: Nadler and Tushman congruence model



(Source: Nadler, Tushman & Nadler, 1997)

Diagnostic models such as the Nadler and Tushman congruence model have their strengths and limitations.

The strengths of this model are that it takes into account the external environment which has a huge influence on the internal environment. The model suggests a cause-and-effect relationship and highlights any mismatches or congruence in the organisation (Martins & Coetzee, 2009:145). Another strength of this model is that it provides a graphic depiction of the organisation as a social and technical system (Mecer Delta Consulting, 2004:10). An important aspect of the model is that it does not favour a specific approach to organising, so there is no single structure or ideal culture. What matters most is that there is a "fit" between inputs, transformation process and output. The congruency model is highly adaptable to any outlined structural and social circumstance (Mecer Delta Consulting, 2004:11). The notion that the model views organisations as an open system allows managers to pinpoint areas of misalignment and risk (Cawsey & Deszca, 2007:58).

The limitations of the model are that effectiveness and performance can only be improved if there is congruence in the short term. However, in the long run, congruence can result in resistance to change (Jones & Brazzel, 2006). The model is very problem-focused as opposed to solution-focused and lacks reference to powerful components such as vision and setting goals (Cameron & Green, 2015:117). Martins and Coetzee (2009:145) suggest that the model outlines a picture that might be too convoluted and onerous to understand. The model places huge emphasis on the internal dimensions affecting performance, with little regard for external components affecting performance (Belyh, 2020). According to Sabir (2018:37) applying the model can be a lengthy and costly process, specifically for multinational organisations with numerous departments and a large workforce.

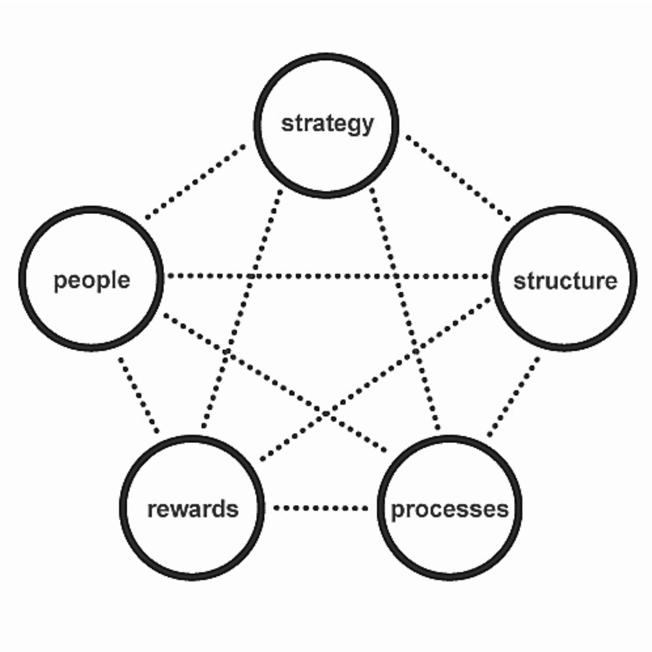
2.4.1.2 Galbraith STAR model

This model introduced in 1995 is a widely used and accepted organisational diagnostic model (Corporate Leadership Council, 2009:3). It is considered a diagnostic model that acts as a foundation for organisations to base their design choices on, comprising a series of design polices that are controlled by management and can have an impact on employee behaviour (Galbraith, 2016:1). The policies act as tools that management uses. With these tools, management is advised to skilfully shape the decisions and behaviours of the organisation to reach organisational effectiveness (Galbraith, 2016:1).

The policies are designed with a focus on five categories. Four of these are strategy, which dictates the direction; structure, which dictates the location of decision-making power; processes that are responsible for the flow of information and responding to information technologies; and rewards and systems that address organisational goals and motivate employees to perform. The last category of the model looks at policies directed to people (human resource policies), that influence and govern employee mindsets and skills (Galbraith, 2016:1).

The diagnostic model emphasises the idea of alignment, ensuring that all four of the five categories support the strategy leading to effectiveness. Flexibility is crucial to ensure that the organisation can adjust to opportunities and threats (Kates & Galbraith, 2010). The model can be applied when radical change is required, when the organisational hierarchy is burdened, or if the organisational design is under review (Martins & Coetzee, 2009:145). Although this diagnostic model can be used in numerous scenarios, it has strengths and weaknesses.

Figure 2.4: Galbraith STAR model



(Source: Galbraith, 2016)

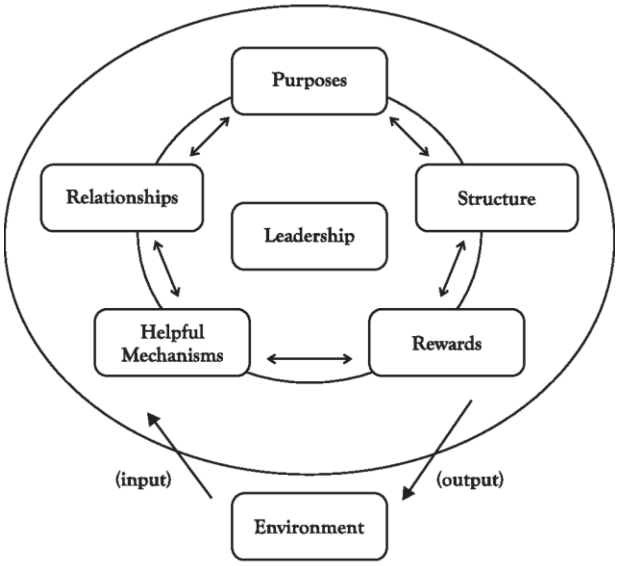
Its strengths are that the model adopts a systematic approach and views an organisation as an information-processing entity (Martins & Coetzee, 2009:145). Furthermore, it recognises the interaction between the dimensions and thoroughly outlines the importance of the behaviour and performance (Stanford, 2007).

The limitations of this model are that it does not consider the external environment as a major contributor to organisational functioning. In certain contexts, it may be considered too simple (Martins & Coetzee, 2009:145). For this study in particular, the model is not sufficiently complex because it only factors in five components: strategy, structure, human resource management (people), reward systems, and business process and lateral links. It does not consider the input and output dimensions (Stanford, 2007) and neglects other transactional and transformative components such as organisational culture and individual needs and values that are critical to a cross-cultural study context. This is, however, an easy diagnostic model to adopt when dealing with organisational change.

2.4.1.3 Weisbord six-box model

The Weisbord six-box model was introduced in 1978. This model views organisations as open systems that constantly engage with the external environment for interchanging inputs and outputs. To be sustainable in a dynamic market, the model highlights that organisations are required to have a feedback loop that connects its outputs to its inputs (HR Intelligence Report, 2008). As the name suggests, the model comprises six categories that are used to conduct an organisational diagnosis: purposes, structure, relationships, rewards, leadership and helpful mechanisms (Hamid, Ali, Reza, Arash, Ali & Azizollah, 2011:86), as shown in Figure 2.4. These six categories ensure that the organisation is effective and succeeds (Weisbord, 1978:9). The model's central focus is on internal issues that may be identified through diagnostic questions that determine the gap between the dimensions (Kontic, 2012:147). Five of the six components involve leadership, including management, which is responsible for ensuring that all five components are synchronised and working effectively (Stanford, 2007). The purpose dimension outlines that the organisation's purpose encompassing organisational goals, values and mission ought to be clear to all employees and all employees must adhere to them regardless of their personal viewpoints (Bhasin, 2019). The structure of the organisation regulates power and formal relations between departments of teams of the organisation (Hamid, et al., 2011:86). Rewards in the model outline various incentives and promotions created by the organisation to recognise employees who integrate resources to innovate, create and deliver a product or service (Weisbord, 1976:437). "Helpful mechanisms are methods which help the staff coordinate their activities" (Hamid, et al., 2011:85). The concluding relationship dimension highlights relationships to management that exist within individuals, departments and the nature of their work, and places emphasis on conflict management (Bhasin, 2019). The six dimensions are all impacted by the external environment.

Figure 2.5: Weisbord six-box model



(Source: Weisbord, 1978)

This diagnostic model is most commonly used in an attempt to adopt a systematic approach or when critiquing relationships between the variables that may influence how the organisation operates (North West Leadership Academy, 2016). When the quality of the organisation needs to be improved or when a pattern in problems experienced in the organisation needs to be found, this diagnostic model is applied (Hamid, et al., 2011:86). It is advised to use this model when a quick diagnosis is required or if the environment does not influence the organisation to a large extent (Martins & Coetzee, 2009:145).

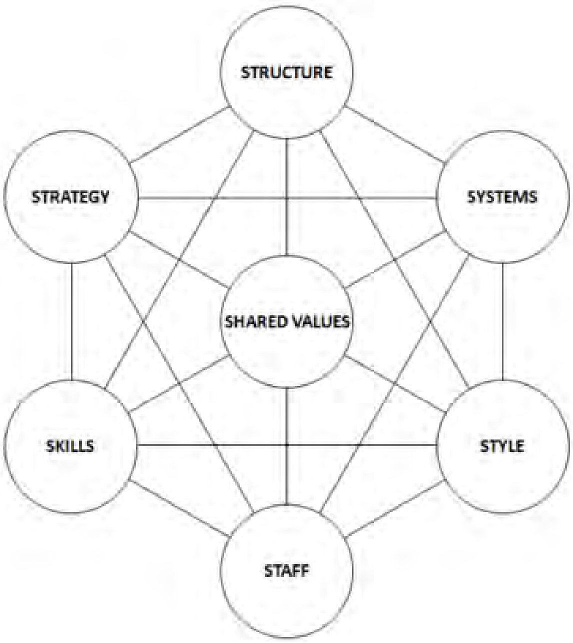
One of the main advantages of the model is "simplicity and successful implementation of strategic choice under time pressure" (Kontic, 2012:147). The model is widely known, aids in identifying and focusing priorities and can be easily explained (Martins & Coetzee, 2009:145). In addition, the model contributes significantly to the survival and short-term success of the organisation, which encourages effectiveness by solving problems that stem from ineffectiveness that may arise due to the disconnect in the dimensions (Harrison & Shirom, 1998:20). However, according to Jones and Brazzel (2006) the model fails to show interdependencies clearly and does not factor in the external environment influences. For the purposes of the present study, the model fails to distinguish between transformational and transactional diagnosis in organisational behaviour. Also, it does not offer enough dimensions to extract lucrative information and lacks cross-cultural dimensions required for analysis.

2.4.1.4 McKinsey 7s model

The McKinsey 7s model, formulated by Peters, Waterman and Jones (1982) in 1982, is associated with the behavioural science approach (North West Leadership Academy, 2016). It is implemented when an organisation is undergoing change, introducing a new strategy, facilitating a merger, or when an organisation requires a multivariable framework to determine why the organisation is not performing effectively (Jurevicius, 2013; Martins & Coetzee, 2009:145).

This diagnostic model analyses the organisation's design by observing seven dimensions, namely strategy, structure, systems, skills, style, staff and shared values (Shiri, Anvari & Soltani, 2014:232; Jurevicius, 2013), as shown in Figure 2.5. One of the model's main functions is to highlight that organisations are only effective and successful if there is integrated harmony among the three "hard S's" that are easy to identify and manage, namely strategy, structure, systems – and the four "soft S's" namely skills, staff, style and shared values, that are more challenging to identify and manage (Jurevicius, 2013; Kaplan, 2005:41; Higgins, 2005). The shared values dimension is crucial in the McKinsey 7s model because it contains the vision and/or mission of the organisation. According to the Corporate Finance Institute (2015) shared values are the foundation of every organisation and play a central role in aligning on key dimensions to maintain an effective organisational design.

Figure 2.6: Mckinsey 7s model



(Source: Singh, 2013)

This diagnostic model aids in fostering an understanding of internal issues that should be addressed to achieve organisational goals and effectiveness (Feurer & Chaharbaghi, 1995:12). The model assumes that if the organisational strategy is changed, it will immediately affect the organisation's skills, shared values, structure, and in turn govern the requirements for the remaining dimensions (Feurer & Chaharbaghi, 1995:12). Hrebineak (2006) points out that if the organisational strategy is not effectively implemented, the strategy will not fulfil it intended mission.

The strengths of the model are that is has been widely used by academics and practitioners since its inception and is one of the most favoured strategic planning tools (Ravanfar, 2015:7). Furthermore, the model is for this because organisational effectiveness is not dependent on a single dimension such as strategy and structure. It can separate hard and soft dimensions, places emphasis on coordination of crucial tasks and is considered as one of the best models to use when connecting academic research with managerial practice (Fleisher & Bensoussan, 2007). In addition, the model provides an in-depth internal view for understanding the interrelated aspects that may be attributed to organisational issues (Caraballo, 2015).

However, the model may also be considered too simple (Martins & Coetzee, 2009:145). Other critiques are that it is difficult for analysts to explain what is required for the implementation process, it is challenging to effectively assess the degree of fit and congruence (Fleisher & Bensoussan, 2007). It has also been found to fail to integrate the external factors that may affect organisational performance (Caraballo, 2015).

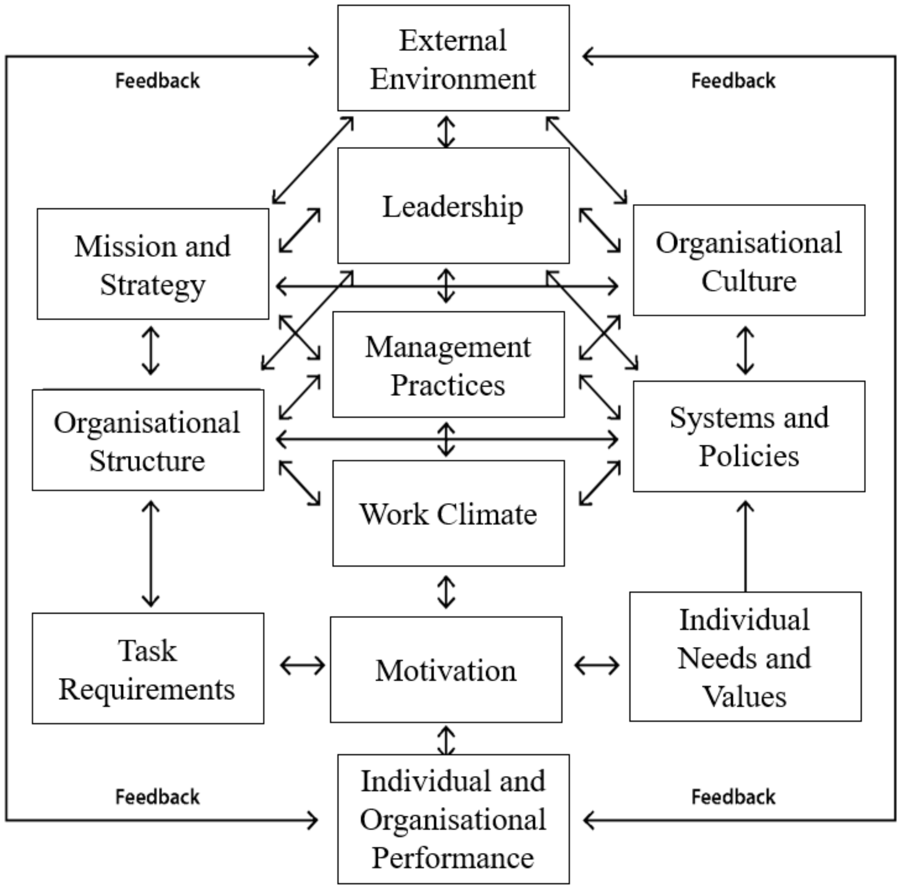
All models have their merits and demerits. Researchers have agreed that administering organisational diagnosis using models to assess organisational effectiveness should be done from a systems viewpoint using a multidimensional approach and analysing dimensions that impact on organisations' performance and effectiveness (Baruch & Ramalho, 2006; Lee & Brower, 2006; Baker & Maddux, 2005; Cummings & Worley, 2005; Burke & Litwin, 1992). The Burke-Litwin model (1992) has been identified as a conceptual model which outlines the relationships between different dimensions of the organisation, as well as its surroundings and effectiveness (Cummings & Worley, 2005). This model, together with its merits and demerits will be discussed in the next section.

2.4.1.5 Burke-Litwin model

The Burke-Litwin model (Burke & Litwin, 1992) is a diagnostic tool to model fundamental organisational change and predict individual and organisational performance. It is concerned with organisational conditions and the resultant effects (Filej, Skela-Savič, Vicic & Hudorovic, 2009:173; Armenakis & Bedeian, 1999:296). It is based on a functional cause-and-effect framework, focusing on linkages that propose how organisational performance and overall effectiveness are influenced as well as how deliberate and effective change can be influenced (Martins & Coetzee, 2009:145). In addition, this cause-and-effect functionality highlights the relationship between the internal and external organisational environment. As an open system model of inputs, throughput and output consisting of a feedback loop, the model highlights a causal order of the dimensions and takes into cognisance the complexity of the relationships in organisational systems (Di Pofi, 2002:157). The diagnostic model aims to bring forth change in the performance of a team or an organisation by formulating links between performance and the internal and external factors which influence performance and effectiveness (Business Technology, 2013).

The Burke-Litwin model of organisational performance and change is depicted below in Figure 2.7.

Figure 2.7: Burke-Litwin model

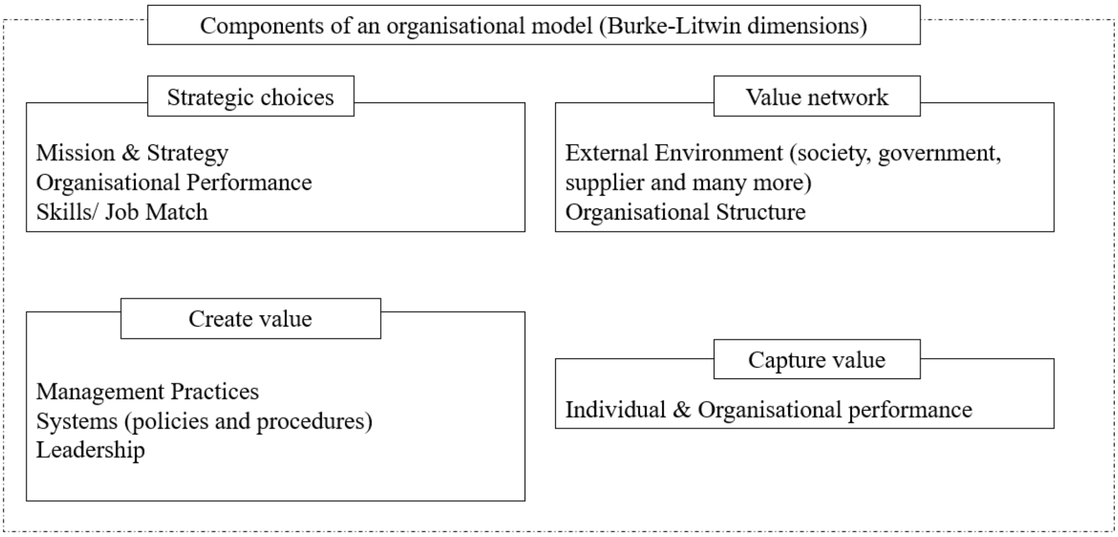


(Source: Burke & Litwin, 1992)

The Burke-Litwin model implicitly includes the components highlighted by Shafer, Smith and Linder (2005:202), as shown in Figure 2.2 above. The strategic choices found in the Burke-Litwin model are mission and strategy, organisational performance, and skills or job match. Furthermore, the Buke-Litwin dimensions consider the value network by considering the external environment (such as society, government, suppliers) and organisational structure. Value is created for various stakeholders through management practices, systems [policies and procedures] and good leadership. Value can be measured or captured by assessing individual and organisational performance.

The components of an organisational model highlighting Burke-Litwin dimensions is depicted in Figure 2.8 below.

Figure 2.8: Components of an organisational model (Burke-Litwin model dimensions)



(Source: Researcher's own compilation based on Shafer, Smith and Linder, 2005:202 and Burke-Litwin model 1992)

Aspects of organisations that this model examines are external environment, leadership, mission and strategy, organisational culture, structure, management practices, systems, work climate, tasks, motivation, individual needs and values, task requirements and individual skills and abilities as well as individual and organisational performance. These dimensions have been grouped into four categories within the organisation, namely the external environment, transformational dimensions, transactional dimensions, and performance (Accipio, 2014). Each of these dimensions will be introduced next and further explained in Chapter 3.

a) External environment

The external environment factors are believed to be the most crucial driver of change and most change is induced by the external environment (Burke & Litwin, 1992). The external environment consists of macro and competitive environments (which will be expanded on in the following chapter). Examples of external macro factors are legislation, competition, markets, technical, political, cultural, economy (Boone, 2012:406; Burke & Litwin, 1992). The crucial external factors that affect organisational effectiveness should be identified and their direct and indirect influence on the organisation should be clearly outlined (Business Technology, 2013). Furthermore, the input of the organisation is the external environment variable and the individual and organisational performance variables represent organisational output (Brain Mass, 2004).

b) Transformational dimensions

According to the Burke-Litwin model, the transformational aspects of the model are affected by the external environment and, in turn influence the transactional dimensions (see Chapter 3 section 3.2). Transformational dimensions are considered the fundamental blocks of the structure of an organisation (Robinson, 2019). These dimensions are concerned with human transformation and human behaviour (Martins & Coetzee, 2009:146). By focusing on areas in which modification is usually prompted by an interrelationship with environmental factors (both internal and external), a new behaviour set is required from members in the organisation (Chawane, Van Vuuren & Roodt, 2003). Mission and strategy, leadership and organisational culture (Burke & Litwin, 1992; Accipio, 2014; Boone, 2012) are transformational dimensions which are the three key drivers of organisational performance, which in turn is heavily impacted by the external environment (Robinson, 2019; Wooten, 2014:6-7).

If any of the transformational dimensions are altered, they will result in the organisation experiencing some form of change (Accipio, 2014; Michela & Burke, 2000:239). Typically, transformational dimensions refer to areas in which the organisation requires adjustments; therefore, the interaction between the internal and external environmental components have a huge influence on the result of the employee behaviour set (Martins & Coetzee, 2009:146).

c) Transactional dimensions

As mentioned, the transactional dimensions of an organisation are affected by transformational dimensions (leadership, mission and strategy and organisational culture) (Burke & Litwin, 1992). Transactional dimensions consist of management practices, organisational structure, systems [policies and procedures], motivation, work climate, task requirements and individual skills and abilities (Armenakis & Bedeian, 1999:296; Burke & Litwin, 1992). They are concerned with everyday activity and exchanges that establish the work climate of the organisation (Martins & Coetzee, 2009:146). Armenakis and Bedeian (1999:296) assert that transactional dimensions tackle psychological and organisational variables that predict and control the motivational and performance consequences of an organisation's work climate. These dimensions and interlinkages as depicted in Figure 2.7 affect individual and organisational performance. The interlinkages are further explored in depth in the chapters to follow.

"The Burke-Litwin (1992) model is novel in explicitly distinguishing between transformational and transactional dimensions requiring long- versus short-term attention" (Armenakis & Bedeian, 1999:296). Transformational dimensions take a long-term view focusing on strategic dimensions, while transactional dimensions focus on short-term operational, individual and personal dimensions. It is advisable to distinguish between transformational and transactional dimensions – and the Burke-Litwin model manages to do that (Martins & Coetzee, 2009:145-146). Transformational and transactional dynamics are deep-rooted in leadership theory and in the differences between leaders and managers. Based on the model, transformational change is more leadership-centred, while transactional change is related more to management or day-to-day operations (Falletta, 2005:29).

Furthermore, as mentioned in the introduction to the Burke-Litwin model (section 2.4.1.5), this model is based on a cause-and-effect framework highlighting the relationship and congruence between the internal and external organisational environment and connections between organisational performance and overall organisational effectiveness (Martins & Coetzee, 2009:145). This is the most suitable model for the present study because it meets the criteria of both Levinson and Burke (Jones & Brazzel, 2006) for selecting a diagnostic model. According to Levinson (Di Pofi, 2002:157) the model is comprehensive, tackles important organisational functions including the external environment's influence on internal operations, highlights which data is required for analysis, and provides a platform for a researcher to understand and implement the process. Burke (1992 cited in Jones & Brazzel, 2006) as well as Martins and Coetzee (2009:145) note that the Burke-Litwin model is thoroughly understood by organisational diagnosis practitioners; it fits the client organisation quite closely and allows data to be obtained about the organisation within the model's parameters without missing any crucial details. This model consists of variables similar to those of other open system models (Cawsey & Deszca, 2007:64) such as the Nadler and Tushman model. This model is considered the best-known and most influential model for looking at the role of work climate in organisational operations (Furnham & Gunter, 1993).

The strengths of the Burke-Litwin model are two-fold, addressing individual and organisational performance and how to conceptualise and implement change (Michela & Burke, 2000:238) while providing an assessment of a broader institutional context and the nature of change in organisations (Business Technology, 2013). It serves as a diagnostic model that describes the relationships between the different dimensions as well as the notion of effectiveness (Cummings & Worley, 2005). The complex nature of organisations is considered by this model, in providing a category of crucial organisational dimensions that guide data collection and diagnosis (Chawane, Van Vuuren & Roodt, 2003). The model can predict behaviours and performance consequences (Burke & Litwin, 1992) while adding value to outcomes of the organisational diagnostic process in a cross-cultural research context (Furnham & Gunter, 1993; Howard, 1994; Jones & Brazzel, 2006). In addition, the Burke-Litwin model is considered a diagnostic framework that assesses the components impacting organisational effectiveness in a cross-cultural setting (Martins & Coetzee, 2009:144). Researchers can use the model to outline crucial organisational dimensions, whereas practitioners can utilise the model to assist in guiding change effort (De Smet, 1998). Applying this model to the current study yields rich data from the Kenyan and Chinese employee responses as well as being able to explain relationships between and themes among the dimensions.

The limitations of the model are that it is considered relatively complex; however, its contribution to the results of the organisational diagnostic process in cross-cultural research context is regarded as important (Martins & Coetzee, 2009:145; Jones and Brazzel, 2006; Furnham & Gunter, 1993). According to Spangenberg and Theron (2013:31) there are two drawbacks of the Burke-Litwin model. First, the structuring of the model to include the Bass and Avolio leadership model comprising transformational and transactional leadership results in a problematic layout of the Burke-Litwin model (Bass & Avolio, 1994; Burke & Litwin, 1992; Bass, 1985). Second, its relevance could be declining because it has not been adapted since 1992.

To conclude this chapter, a summary and comparison of each of the diagnostic models is provided in Table 2.4.

Table 2. 4 Comparing organisational effectiveness models

Diagnostic model	**Strengths**	**Limitations and weaknesses**	**Evaluation**
Nadler and Tushman congruence model	Suggests a cause-and-effect relationship Provides a graphic depiction of the organisation as a social and technical system Model is highly adaptable	Model is very problem-focused Lacks reference to powerful components in the long run Congruence, can result in resistance to change	Does not include transactional and transformational diagnosis
Galbraith STAR model	Widely used and accepted Impact on employee behaviour Model used for radical change Emphasis on alignment	Does not consider the external environment Too simple for certain situational contexts	Simplistic Neglects other transactional and transformational components Limited framework
Weisbord six-box model	For quick diagnosis Widely known model Short-term success	Fails to show interdependencies	Fails to distinguish between transformational and transactional diagnosis Too simple resulting in vague analysis.
Mckinsey 7s model	Widely utilised by academics and practitioners In-depth internal view	Challenging to effectively assess the degree of fit/ congruence Static model	Too simple Fails to integrate the external factors
Burke-Litwin model	Two-fold model Predicts behaviours and performance outcomes Assesses the components impacting organisational effectiveness	Complex problematic layout	Comprehensive model suitable for this study Tackles important organisational effectiveness Highlights which data is required for analysis Provides platform for researcher to

			understand and implement the process

(Source: Researcher's own compilation based on Martins & Coetzee, 2009:146)

2.5 SUMMARY

In this chapter the definition of organisational effectiveness was provided, theories and schools of thought on organisational effectiveness were outlined, diagnostic models used for organisational effectiveness were explained. The chosen model was introduced and its applicability to this study was explained.

According to literature, organisational effectiveness is a concept that is widely investigated and is a difficult concept to accurately define, because it cannot be narrowly measured by a single, distinct criterion owing to its multidimensional nature. However numerous theorists have contributed towards defining organisational effectiveness and acknowledge the significance of organisational effectiveness and its connection to organisational performance. Organisational effectiveness is measured using organisational diagnostic models, namely the Nadler and Tushman congruence model, the Galbriath star model, the Weisbord six-box model, the McKinsey 7s model and the Burke-Litwin model. All models were explained in this chapter. The Burke-Litwin model was selected for this study as it is founded on a cause-and-effect framework encompassing transformational dimensions (leadership [management], mission and strategy, and organisational culture), transactional dimensions (management practices, organisational structure, systems [policies and procedures], motivation, work climate, task requirements, and individual skills and abilities), and the external environment. Transformational, transactional dimensions and the external environment all exert pressure on individual and organisational performance which will be further explored in Chapter 3.
The following chapter will discuss the 12 management dimensions of the Burke-Litwin model in depth as well as providing a Kenyan and Chinese cultural context for each of these dimensions.

CHAPTER 3
CONCEPTUALISATION OF BURKE-LITWIN DIMENSIONS

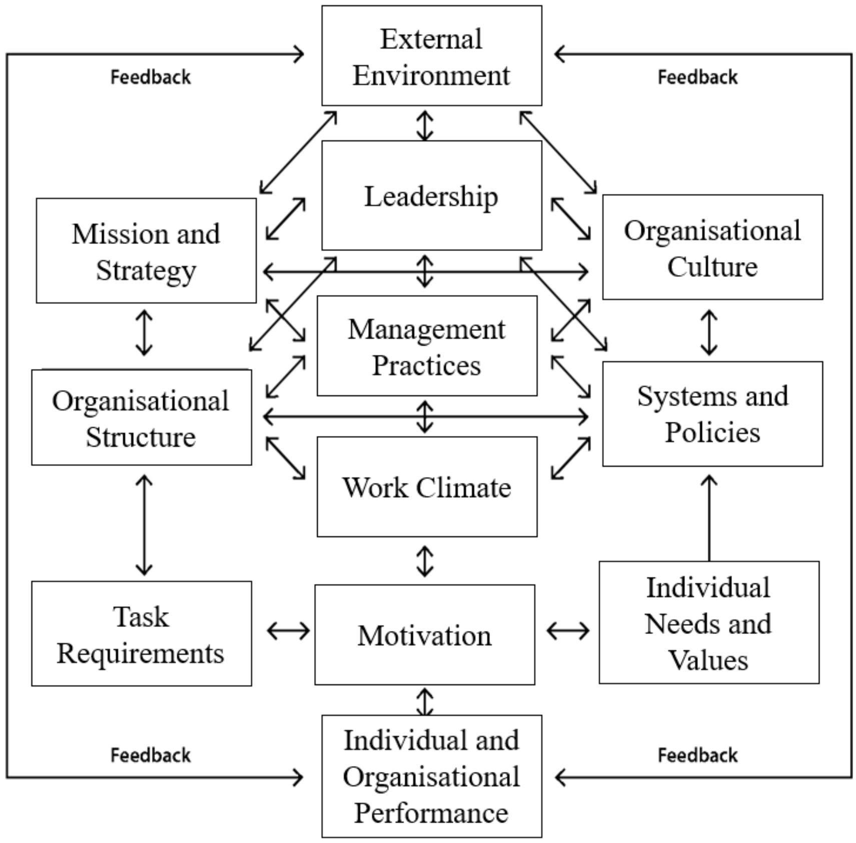
3.1. INTRODUCTION

Chapter 2 provided an overview of organisational effectiveness and how it has emerged over the years as well as outlining the approaches to, theories on and diagnostic models used for analysing organisational effectiveness. This chapter explores the dimensions of the Burke-Litwin model from a theoretical perspective and provides the Chinese and Kenyan perspectives on these dimensions.

The Burke-Litwin dimensions will be discussed in terms of the following categories: external environment, transformational dimensions (including leadership or management, mission and strategy and organisational culture), and transactional dimensions (including management practices, organisational structure, systems [policies and procedures], motivation, work climate, task requirements and individual skills and abilities). All of these dimensions influence organisational performance and effectiveness.

The dimensions of the Burke-Litwin model of organisational performance and change are depicted below in Figure 3.1.

Figure 3.1: Burke-Litwin model



(Source: Burke & Litwin, 1992)

3.2. EXTERNAL ENVIRONMENT AFFECTING ORGANISATIONAL PERFORMANCE AND EFFECTIVENESS

The external environment – also known as the macro environment – indirectly affects the organisation's operations and working conditions. These external factors are competitors, suppliers, and legislation, and involve political, economic, social, technological, ethical, environmental, and legal aspects over which the organisation is unable to exercise any control (Chand, 2017). The process of analysing the external environment can result in possible identification of future trends (Teodorescu & Costachie, 2007:93) and the identification of significant driving forces.

In leading an organisation strategically, consideration is always given to aligning the external with the internal organisational environment. Leaders are required to identify opportunities and threats in the external environment, and to understand how the driving forces impact on an organisation. In turn, the decisions made by leadership should enhance organisational performance and effectiveness, and ultimately its sustainability. "The analysis of the external environment can be used to define direction in strategic planning" (Michail, 2014). Therefore, to establish a strategic direction for the organisation, it is necessary to make use of models or tools to gather information about the external environment and the relevant industry environment. Available tools or models that can be utilised for gathering external environment information are SWOT analysis, PESTLE analysis, Porter's five forces analysis, four corner's analysis, value chain analysis, early warning scans and war gaming (Cima, 2007). Each of these tools is defined in Table 3.1 below, according to Cima (2007:5-13). By using such tools, an effective organisation will understand the external environment in which it operates in and can proactively adapt to any changes (Learn Marketing, 2016).

Table 3.1: External environment analysis tools

Tool/ Model	Definition
SWOT Analysis	"A SWOT analysis is a simple but widely used tool that helps in understanding the strengths, weaknesses, opportunities and threats involved in a project or business activity."
PESTLE Analysis	"PESTLE analysis is a scan of the external macro environment in which an organisation exists. It is a useful tool for understanding the political, economic, socio-cultural, technological, legal and ethical environments that an organisation operates in. It can be used for evaluating market growth or decline, and as such the position, potential and direction for a business."
Porter's five forces analysis	"Simple framework for assessing and evaluating the competitive strength and position of a business organisation. This theory is based on the concept that there are five forces which determine the competitive intensity and attractiveness of a market. Porter's five forces helps to identify where power lies in a business situation."
Four corner's analysis	"Useful tool for analysing competitors. It emphasises that the objective of competitive analysis should always be on generating insights into the future."
Value chain analysis	"Value chain analysis is based on the principle that organisations exist to create value for their customers. In the analysis, the organisation's activities are divided into separate sets of activities that add value."
Early warning scans	"The purpose of strategic early warning systems is to detect or predict strategically important events as early as possible. They are often used to identify the first scene of attack from a competitor or to assess the likelihood of a given scenario becoming reality."
War gaming	"War games are a useful technique for identifying competitive vulnerabilities and misguided internal assumptions about competitors' strategies."

(Source: Cima, 2007:5-13)

According to Whitfield and Landeros (2006), organisations are evolving and are constantly searching for innovative ways to enhance competitiveness and adapt to external forces. This requires leadership or management to rapidly rethink and assess their mission and strategy while monitoring industry trends. Every industry has its own attributes and characteristics. Industries are always evolving, and they are highly reliant on the macro environment and global competition. For this reason, an industry analysis will provide an organisation with an understanding of its key success factors and will also indicate whether there is any potential to grow or develop (Michail, 2014).

The assessment of the external environment is crucial for different industries and countries owing to its huge impact on overall performance. In a country such as Kenya, it is important to take three environmental dimensions into consideration when conducting business. These are complexity, dynamism and munificence as they mostly manifest in economic factors, competitive rivalry, market factors, technological factors, regulatory factors as well as in the threat of new entrants (Aosa & Machuki, 2011). Wanjiru (2013:5) highlights that the external environmental factors such as political environment, legal implications, economic factors, socio-cultural factors and technological environment have a significant impact on the growth of Chinese-Kenyan trade. According to McKinsey Report (2017:9,72), owing to an increase in Chinese organisations entering Africa and Chinese foreign direct investment and annual growth rate at 40%, competition will increase, prices will decrease, and margins will erode unless African organisations become more efficient. This can happen if African organisations implement lean operation improvements, adopting a performance-based incentive system, or rationalising costs. African organisations are obliged to meet a higher, world-class bar if their objective is to succeed (McKinsey Report, 2017:72). The policies between China and Kenya have resulted in an increase in the flow of foreign direct investments, even though the ratio of trade has not effectively been balanced with Chinese organisations growing three times faster in Kenya and trading more than Kenya (Jayaram, Kassiri & Sun, 2017; Wanjiru, 2013:5). This China-Kenya partnership is highly valued by Kenyans because it has resulted in job creation, economic development and promotion of social relations between the two countries (Wanjiru, 2013:5).

In terms of the Burke-Litwin model, the external environment directly impacts on the decisions made by the leadership, the organisation’s vision and mission as well as its organisational culture and ultimately on the effectiveness of organisational and individual performance. In other words, it affects the transformational aspects of the organisation, which are discussed next.

3.3. TRANSFORMATIONAL DIMENSIONS AFFECTING ORGANISATIONAL PERFORMANCE AND EFFECTIVENESS

3.3.1. Vision, mission and strategy

In setting the direction for an organisation, the leadership (management) needs to be clear in communicating the organisation's vision, mission and value statement. Vision and mission have been widely accepted as essential parts of the strategic management process for organisations of all types, namely public, private sector, multinational and small and medium enterprises (Darbi, 2012:95). It is evident that the vision and mission statements greatly influence strategy and organisational performance (Darbi, 2012:95). Martins and Coetzee (2009:146) confirm that mission and vision is what employees believe to be the core driver of the organisation and that it explains how the organisation intends to achieve its aims over a certain duration. Furthermore, the vision and mission statement are critical for day-to-day operations (Mullane, 2002). The vision of an organisation provides strategic direction which acts as "springboard" or foundation for the mission and related objectives or goals (Darbi, 2012:96). The mission statement outlines the overarching purpose of an organisation and plays a critical role in the strategic planning process and guides the values of the organisation (Salehi-Kordabadi, Karimi & Qorbani-Azar, 2020:22).

The mission statement plays a pivotal role in capturing the organisational strategy (Whittington, Regnér, Angwin, Johnson, & Scholes, 2020; David, 1993). Strategy is a tool utilised by organisations to steer the organisation into a particular direction (Amos, 2012: 9). The strategy acts as a roadmap to compete with other organisations or plan of attack (Thompson, 2019; Nickolas, 2016). Furthermore, the strategy of an organisation is "a general plan of action for achieving one's goals and objectives" (Nickolas, 2016:3). Bonnici (2015:2) adds that the organisational strategy aids organisations to strategically position their products, services or brand.

Despite this, people think about strategy in different ways (Mind Tools, 2017). Organisational strategy is formulated to achieve an organisational purpose, therefore altering the strategic intent results in a change in strategy (Bhatti, 2011:54). A strategy adopts Mintzberg's "five p's" namely perspective (moulding the personality and culture of the organisation), position (outward view of where the organisation is positioned in the external environment relative to its competitors), plan (a plan of action the organisation intends to take), ploy (tactics used to outplay or confuse the competitor) and pattern (assessing behaviour patterns and seeing what has worked in the past) (Amos, 2012: 6; Expert Program Management, 2018). Strategy outlines the choice of organisational model through which the organisation will participate in the marketplace (Casadesus-Masanell & Ricart, 2010:203). Furthermore, organisational strategy is usually stated as a "contingent plan of action" developed to obtain a specific objective, which is formulated by management through "committed choices" which is a crucial part of strategy (Casadesus-Masanell & Ricart, 2010:203; Caves, 1984). These strategic objectives are identified and assessed to identify if they match the organisation's goals and changes and implementation is undergone to ensure that they are congruent with the organisation's purpose (PWC, 2017).

Underperformance has been identified as leading to organisational ineffectiveness which is the result of a misaligned strategy (PWC, 2017). Myler (2014) acknowledges that approximately 65% of organisations have a strategy that has been agreed upon, whereas 14% understand the organisation strategy, and less than 10% of all organisations effectively execute their organisational strategy. The low percentage in executing strategy could be attributed to an intended strategy not being realised and strategies that were not realised because they were inappropriate. A realised strategy could be attributed to incremental changes to the initially intended strategy, or to emergent strategies that have to be adapted to changes in the environment (Louw, 2019:18) Therefore, for organisational effectiveness in an organisation, it is imperative that the organisational strategy is supported by an operating model and organisational design approach (PWC, 2017).

Various types and levels of organisational strategies exist, namely corporate, business and operational levels and transformational strategies (Scott, 2013), as shown in Table 3.2. The corporate level strategy is the highest-level strategy which is broad in nature and outlines the organisation's main purpose, scope and involves downstream decision-making (Weaver, 2020). The business level strategy emerges from the high-level corporate level strategy and outlines specific tactics and strategies to achieve a competitive advantage for each market the organisation operates in (Johnson & Scholes, 2019). According to Richards-Gustafson (2019), operational strategies ought to link to the long- and short-term organisational decisions and create an effective management team at the functional level. Finally, transformational strategy is an action plan that is traditionally used to adapt to political and consumer unrest and changing economic landscapes in order to stay competitive and foster change and growth (Endeavor Management, 2017; Bradley, 2008).

Table 3.2: Types and levels of organisational strategies

Strategy	Definition
Corporate level	The ideas, goals and roadmap an organisation outlines for its future organisational activities (Cambridge University Press, 2019), its scope and the "diversity of the organisation as a whole perspective" (Louw, 2019:21) and how value can be created for the entire organisation.
Business level	Focused on how an organisation will approach the marketplace (Scott, 2013) and achieve a "competitive advantage for a single line of business" (Louw, 2019:21).
Operational level	Concerned with creating and delivering value to customers in a particular line of business and/or at a functional level (Louw, 2019). Operational strategies ought to link to the long- and short-term organisations decisions and create an effective management team (Richards-Gustafson, 2019).
Transformational strategy	This is an action plan targeted at shifting an organisation's operating course, over several years (Codjia, 2017). Strategic planning acts as the foundation for obtaining growth goals and a strong portfolio strategy to enhance, change and grow (Endeavor Management, 2017).

(Source: Researcher's own compilation)

Each organisation adopts a strategy or a combination of strategies that are suited to its organisational structure. Lack of accurate market and risk analysis can result in many organisations being ineffective when it comes to their expansion strategy (Jagt & Damoiseaux, 2013:4) at the corporate level.

China has formulated its own "going global" strategy. This strategy encourages trade and investment with countries outside China, and Chinese organisations compete for resources and markets beyond their jurisdiction (Wang, 2007:13). Also, China has also established a strategy to penetrate Africa. This strategy clearly stipulates how China ought to engage with African countries on political, economic, educational, scientific, cultural, health and social levels, and in the peace and security field (Olu, 2006:2-3). It has been outlined that Chinese organisations ought to adopt a Guanxi strategy, which means connectedness in conducting business (Lin, 2004:2-3). According to Lin (2004:2-3), Chinese organisations have incorporated Guanxi into their strategy which highlights the elements of networking and relationships.

It has been identified by Jagt and Damoiseaux (2013:6) that in order for foreign countries to operate in and expand into Africa and be effective, they should incorporate the several key components into their strategy. These are building local presence, leveraging first mover advantage, taking a long-term view, building relationships and working together with governments, taking a holistic view (market, financial, legislative, tax, culture) and investing in local talent (Jagt & Damoiseaux, 2013:6). Despite the increasing awareness of the significance of establishing a strategy, a challenge still remains for African organisations to execute the strategy (Lister & Swe, 2014:4). In 2008, the government of Kenya established the national strategy known as "Vision Kenya 2030", centred on the three central areas of politics, economics, and society, vigorously endorsing development and striving to transform Kenya into a middle-income emerging market by 2030 (Kenya China Economic and Trade Association, 2017:5).

Wanjugu (2014:1) reveals that Chinese organisations have conducted business in Kenya by using the entry strategies of exporting, strategic alliances and wholly owned subsidiaries. According to Wanja (2018), Kenya's strategy aims to promote local consumption of products manufactured by Kenyans and boost job creation. However, there has not been an explicit strategy formulated for China-Kenya relations (Jayaram, Kassiri & Sun, 2017).

Based on the Burke-Litwin model, the vision and strategy set the direction for an organisation and are interrelated with changes in the external environment and leadership decision-making. In turn, vision and strategy influence the organisational structure, management practices, the work climate, task requirements and individual skills and abilities. To achieve the desired direction, the leadership (management) have to communicate the vision and mission, creating excitement about the future of the organisation and resulting in efficiency and organisational effectiveness.

3.3.2. Leadership

Leadership is a popular research topic; traditional leadership qualities and strategies are being critiqued by new research, revealing that people respond to leadership differently than they used to. Expectations have evolved, along with ideas of what makes a great leader (Vaughan, 2011:4). Leadership is critical to every organisation and every leader has their personal style and strategy (Caramela, 2017). However, it is evident that leadership remains an elusive and contested concept on which general agreement is highly unlikely. In spite of this, leadership and management must go hand in hand, because leaders need to know how to lead and manage their employees (Sharma & Jain, 2013:311; Grint, 2005). Leadership and management are terms that have overlapping functions and different meanings (Martic, 2020; Zaleznik, 2004). It is necessary to have both in an organisation because managers are appointed based on specific technical skills, knowledge, enterprise and emphasis on rationality and control, while leaders possess a skill of influencing and inspiring individuals (Martic, 2020). Chapman and Scouller (2011) contend that the key difference between leadership and management is that leadership is focused on leading a group of individuals, whereas management places emphasis on responsibility. However, great leadership involves responsibility for managing (Chapman & Scouller, 2011).

In addition, leadership involves the manner in which leaders influence the attitudes, behaviours and values of others, which varies according to external factors and personal changes (Cima, 2007:3; Caramela, 2017). Furthermore, leadership involves creating a strategy that employees can follow (Cima, 2007:3). According to Oracle (2012:1) and Gordan (2014:2), the leader provides direction to the organisation; the attribute of leadership is not necessarily linked to authority, but is associated with mobilising people to challenge the hardest problems and to encourage effective work. It is advised that for leaders to be effective, they ought to continuously undergo talent management programmes at all levels within the organisation (Oracle, 2012:1).

Cima (2007:4) discusses three main theories about leadership. First is the personal characteristics approach which assumes that some people are born to be leaders, while others are not. Second is the leader-follower approach, in which the leader achieves a purpose while building an effective team and developing each individual. The third approach is the contextual (or contingency) approach which considers that leadership style and context are more important that behaviour. A leader who adopts all three approaches contributes towards organisational effectiveness.

Leaders need to demonstrate certain qualities in order to operate effectively and enhance performance. Leaders vary based on their surroundings. Chinese leaders are encouraged to lead by adopting their cultural ideology of collectivism, ensuring that all their followers are taken care of and that leaders have to take morality and righteousness into account (Ip, 2009). Chinese leadership has always been founded on mutual respect and a “feeling of connectedness” among followers (Bernthal, Borndra & Wang, 2008:4). Chinese organisations are highly focused on cultivating employees through personal development, and Chinese leaders operating in the

Chinese environment are expected to attend to ethical considerations over and above achievement of profit (Bourke, 2017). Lin (2004:4) observes that the Chinese leadership style is paternalistic and authoritarian, enforcing strict obedience and authority. Overall, Chinese organisations owned by the state adopt a pragmatic and rational approach fostering "self-cultivism" while placing huge importance on the hierarchy of the organisation and operating under high-power distance (Wang & Chee, 2011).

On the other hand, African organisations adopt a particular hybrid approach, which merges Western pragmatism and African humanism. Africa identifies the significance of fact, logic and the notion of reality, while also endorsing the recognition of human-focused and collectivist forms of leadership (IT Industry News Daily, 2017). Furthermore, "the Western approach informs the 'what' needs to be done and views individuals as resources while the African approach informs the 'how' to do it" and views individuals as "having values in their own right" (IT Industry News Daily, 2017:1; Kuada, 2010:14). African leadership is driven by the spirit of Ubuntu which outlines that people in authority take into cognisance their role and what it serves. Furthermore, "the server leader leads by the tenets of consultation, persuasion, accommodation and cohabitation and shuns coercion and domination" (Smit, 2010:16). Kirk and Bolden (2009) note that Ubuntu fosters a spirit of collectivism, humanity and forgiveness.

Blunt and Jones (1997 cited in Kirk & Bolden, 2009:75) highlight a negative perspective on African leadership. They reveal that African leadership and management is impacted by highly centralised power structures, high degrees of uncertainty, an emphasis on control procedure opposed to organisational performance, bureaucratic resistance to change, acute resource scarcity, individual concern for basic security, and the importance of extended family and kin networks (Blunt & Jones,1997 cited in Kirk & Bolden, 2009:75).

In Kenya, building relationships prior to doing business is important (Arino, 2014). This is also evident in Chinese organisations as they adopt Guanxi which emphasises relationships and connectedness which are used to gain advantage (Lin, 2004:3). Commisceo Global (2017) assert that Kenyan organisations are very hierarchical in nature, with senior employees having to be placed on a pedestal and treated with utmost respect. Hofstede Insights (2018) states that Kenyan organisations score high on power distance, indicating that Kenyan employees are highly accepting of a hierarchical structure whereby everyone has a distinct place and set out criteria for their position. According to Galperin, Melyoki, Senaji, Mukanzi and Michaud (2017:15) Kenyan societies are very competitive and achievement orientated. In Table 3.3, Hofstede Insight (2018) details the different leadership cultural dimensions of Kenya in relation to its neighbouring countries and China.

Table 3.3: Cultural leadership dimensions

Cultural dimension	Kenya	Tanzania	Uganda	China
Power distance	70	70	38	80
Individualism	25	25	30	20
Masculinity	60	40	57	66
Uncertainty avoidance	50	50	56	30
Long-term orientation	-	34	20	87
Indulgence	-	38	-	24

(Source: Hofstede Insight ,2018)

Kenya is predominantly power-distance-driven and collectivistic, indicating that they adopt a collectivist, collaborative approach to their organisations and communities. Furthermore, Kenyans are highly masculine, meaning that their societies and organisations are achievement-driven, assertive and competitive in nature (Hofstede Insight, 2018).

According to Hofstede Insight (2018) as seen in Figure 3.2 below, China and Kenya are extremely similar. Both countries have a high-power distance indicating that they both accept a hierarchical order in society and leaders are autocratic, allowing inequalities within society. Both countries scored low in individualism, indicating that they adopt a collectivist, collaborative approach to leadership and conducting business. China and Kenya are driven by success and achievement and are masculine societies. Kenya is higher in uncertainty avoidance then China; however, Kenya scored 50 with no clear preference in this dimension. China on the other hand clearly adopts a long-term orientation with a pragmatic culture and the community believing that the truth depends heavily on the situation, context or time. China scored low on indulgence indicating that the Chinese societies are restrained and do not deviate from social norms. On the other hand, Kenya had no results on long term orientation and indulgence.

Figure 3.2: Country comparison – 6D model

(Source: Hofstede Insight, 2018)

Leadership varies between leaders, and the country dynamics (external) have an influence on leadership and management. According to the Burke-Litwin model, leadership (management) governs the organisational culture and the direction of the organisation through the strategy. Moreover, the mission, strategy and organisational culture influence how the leader or manager leads their employees to ensue organisational effectiveness and performance.

3.3.3. Organisational culture

Organisations that operate within a well-defined organisational culture are able to achieve organisational effectiveness (Okibo & Shikanda, 2011:66). Ashkanasy, Wilderom and Peterson (2000:226) comment that having an appropriate organisational culture and work climate will aid in having a successful organisational change, whereas having an "inappropriate" organisational culture or work climate will result in organisational ineffectiveness and the organisation will not be able to undergo successful change. Overall organisational culture is regarded as a good "cure-all" for most organisational issues (Wilson, 1992 cited in Sivachander, 2015:264).

Organisational culture, like organisational effectiveness, has diverse definitions which differ among research scholars because of diverse opinions on the concept (Brown, 1995:5; Lund, 2003:220; Schein, 1990:109; Trompenaars & Hampden-Turner, 2000:21). Organisational culture is defined as "a system of shared meaning held by members, distinguishing the organisation from other organisations" (Martin & Martins, 2003:380). Arnold (2005:625) describes organisational culture as the "distinctive norms, beliefs, principles and ways of behaving that combine to give each organisation its distinct character". In addition, Thaku (2013) mentions that the organisational culture dimension found in the Burke- Litwin model tries to obtain information on the explicit and implied rules, regulations, customs, principles and values that affect organisational behaviour. The evolution of the definition of organisational culture has been highlighted below in Table 3.4.

Table 3.4: Definitions of organisational culture

Authors	Definition
Schein (1990)	A pattern of basic assumptions, invented, discovered, or developed by a given group, as it learns to cope with its problems of external adaptation and internal integration.
Kotter and Heskett (1992:141)	"An interdependent set of values and ways of behaving that are common in a community and that tend to perpetuate themselves, sometimes over long periods of time."
Trompenaars and Hampden-Turner (2000)	The way in which groups have organised themselves over the years to solve the problems and challenges presented to them.
Martins and Coetzee (2009:146).	"Culture is the collection of overt and covert rules, values and principles that guide organisational behaviour and that have been strongly influenced by the organisation's history, custom and practice."
Louw (2012)	The unique pattern of shared assumptions, values and norms that shape the socialisation activities, language, symbols, rites and ceremonies of a group of people.
Wallace (2014)	The cultural paradigm of processes, stories and symbols, power structures, organisational structure, control systems, rituals and routines.
McLaughlin and James (2016)	System of shared assumptions, values, and beliefs, which governs how people behave in organisations. These shared values have a strong influence on the people in the organisation and dictate how they dress, act, and perform their jobs. Every organisation develops and maintains a unique culture, which provides guidelines and boundaries for the behaviour of the members of the organisation.

(Source: McLaughlin & James, 2016; Mabuza, 2015:21; Wallace, 2014)

Based on the definitions provided in Table 3. 4, the most useful definitions of organisational culture are those by McLaughlin and James (2016) and Martins and Coetzee (2009:146). The definitions highlighted by McLaughlin and James (2016) and Martins and Coetzee (2009:146) encapsulate the progression of the definition of organisational culture and highlights the key concepts of organisational culture namely, values and beliefs, customs and behaviour.

"*System of shared assumptions, values, and beliefs, which governs how people behave in organizations. These shared values have a strong influence on the people in the organization and dictate how they dress, act, and perform their jobs. Every organization develops and maintains a unique culture, which provides guidelines and boundaries for the behavior of the members of the organization*." (McLaughlin & James, 2016)

"The way we do things around here. Culture is the collection of overt and covert rules, values and principles that guide organisational behavior and that have been strongly influenced by an organisations history, customs and practice." (Martins & Coetzee, 2009:146)

Organisational culture must be considered when assessing organisational effectiveness. Managers are mindful that organisational culture has an influence on organisational effectiveness and there has been an abundance of research and discussion on the concept among practitioners and researchers (Denison, 1990; Denison & Mishra, 1995). Ashkanasy, Wilderom and Peterson (2000:226) submit that the concept of organisational culture and work climate has "a great deal" to provide to leaders and researchers. Furthermore, "leaders who understand the nature and management of culture and work climate are well positioned to accomplish the major organisational changes often required for quality and innovation, because the culture and work climate literatures point to many levers of change" (Ashkanasy, Wilderom & Peterson, 2000:226). Brown (1998:2) proposes that the curiosity about organisational culture originates mainly from four diverse sources, three of which are work climate research, national cultures, and human resource management. The fourth source is "conviction approaches" that highlight the importance of the rational and structural nature of an organisation to be unable to provide a detailed explanation of organisational behaviour (Brown, 1998:2).

Focusing on organisational culture in relation to China-Kenya relations reveals that the countries adopt different cultural values. Chinese organisations adopt a Confucian culture that is underpinned by fair working conditions and motivating employees through fairness and equitable wages (Jackson, Louw & Zhao, 2013). The Confucius culture is centred on a group, relationships, a stringent power structure and risk aversion with a collectivist nature (Handy, 2003). The human relationships in society are hierarchical, adopting a patriarchal viewpoint by families or the state (Ip, 2009:466 cited in Jackson, Louw & Zhao, 2013:2526-2527). Ip (2009 cited in Jackson, Louw & Zhao, 2013:2526-2527) points out that the basic principles of the Confucian organisation is underpinned by “ren (a virtue or capacity of benevolence and compassion: humanity – and perhaps akin to Ubuntu), yi (a sense of moral rightness) and li (conventions, etiquettes or norms)”.

On the other hand, Kenyans subscribe to Harambee when conducting business (Expat Arrivals Kenya Guide, 2015), meaning “to pull together” (Commisceo Global, 2017) which relates to mutual assistance, mutual effort, mutual responsibility, group orientation and community self-reliance (Expat Arrivals Kenya Guide, 2015; Commisceo Global, 2017). The Kenyans adopt a group-orientated social structure like that of the Chinese (namely Guanxi) which emphasises relationships and connectedness (Commisceo Global, 2017; Lin, 2004:3). Harambe is the predominant way of living for Kenyans.

Overall, it seems that the Chinese and Kenyans share a similar value system, with some differences as outlined above. Different value systems determined by the individual needs and values influence the organisational culture, which in turn, has an effect on the relationship with leadership, how systems and procedures are used, management practices, and how the mission and strategy is crafted.

The relationship between organisational culture and leadership has been discussed here, while its relationship with and impact on systems and procedures, individual needs and values and work climate will be highlighted in the next section on transactional dimensions. Other transactional dimensions, comprising management practices, organisational structure, systems [policies and procedures], motivation, work climate, task requirements and individual skills and abilities and individual and organisational performance will also be discussed.

3.4. TRANSACTIONAL FACTORS AFFECTING ORGANISATIONAL PERFORMANCE AND EFFECTIVENESS

3.4.1. Organisational structure

“To achieve organisational effectiveness, managers must clearly understand the organisational structure” (Gibson, Ivancevich, Donelly & Konopaske, 2009:12). Awa (2016:1) advises that there is no “one size fits all” for organisational structure, therefore every organisation creates a structure suitable for their organisation in order to achieve organisational effectiveness. Grewal and Tansuhai (2001) point out that effective organisations are those with a well-defined organisational structure.

Organisational structure is highly effective when it is synchronised with the mission, competitive environment and resources of the organisation (Awino, 2015:1884). Mintzberg (1987) and Lenz (1988) define organisational structure as a fundamental, tangible or intangible concept referring to the recognition, observation, nature, and permanence of patterns and relationships of organisations with organisational structure determining performance. Organisational structure can further be defined as a multidimensional construct that takes into consideration work division – primarily roles or responsibility including specialisation, differentiation or departmentalisation, centralisation or decentralisation, and complexity – and communication or coordination mechanisms in addition to standardisation, formalisation and flexibility (Awino, 2015:1884). In addition, organisational structure is comprised of a set of interconnected and integrated elements that create a system, which is "flexible and can be destructed or even restructured into a new system over the time" (Delic & Nuhanovic, 2010:74). Awa (2016:1), Bucic and Gudergan (2004) describe organisational structure as the formal system of tasks and reporting relationships that controls, organises and influences employees, ensuring that they work together to achieve organisational goals. They further note that the structure outlines who works for whom. The organisational structure is designed in order to facilitate the strategy of the organisation. Any alteration in the organisational strategy results in new administrative problems which require a new organisational structure to support and ensure successful strategy implementation; failure to adjust structures appropriately results in organisational ineffectiveness and poor strategic implementation (Kavale, 2012:61). Awino (2015:1883) explains that the organisational structure is a long-term plan of action that the organisation creates, but its success is dependent on an organisational structure which will enhance strategy implementation and improve performance, leading to organisational effectiveness. In addition, organisational structure follows the organisational strategy in order to ensure organisational performance (Awino, 2015:1883).

Organisational structures in most Chinese organisations are underpinned by Guanxi which is used to gain advantage (Lin, 2004:3). Chinese organisations place huge emphasis on hierarchy (Dumont, 2012) with a high-power distance score of 80, which means that age, position and title in a hierarchical Chinese organisational structure determine how the organisation's activities will be executed (Ecovis, 2014:14). According to Jackson, Louw and Zhao (2013), the Chinese organisational structure has a hierarchical, collectivistic and paternalistic structure.

Based on Confucianism Chinese principles the Chinese organisational structure does not condone prejudice or sexism; people in the organisation under the Confucius principle have equal rights with respect being the basis of the relationships within the hierarchical structure (Ruangkanjanases, Posinsomwong & Chen, 2014:356).

African organisations, and in particular Kenyan organisations, adopt a “flatter hierarchy than the Chinese with a power distance score of 70, decentralised and closer to stakeholders with participative consensus seeking” (Jackson, Louw & Zhao, 2013:2526). This indicates that such an organisational structure is dispersed with employees and stakeholders agreeing to support a decision in the best interests of the organisation. The Kenyan organisational structure is generally clearly outlined, specifically in family-owned organisations. Kenyan employees are welcome to provide suggestions and comments; however, the final decision is taken by senior members or managers (Communicaid Group, 2017). Generally Kenyan managers adopt a paternalistic attitude towards their employees, where they demonstrate concern for their employees either in the workplace or outside work (Commisceo Global, 2017). Similar to the Chinese organisational structure, Kenyans place emphasis on employee titles and communication is filtered through a top-down approach (Communicaid Group, 2017).

Chinese and Kenyan organisational structures share similar structural format as highlighted above. According to the Burke-Litwin model, the organisational structure is designed to facilitate and support the strategy of the organisation. Furthermore, the organisational structure is influenced by and influences task requirements, work climate, leadership and management practices. The right leaders or managers need to be appointed in the right positions within the organisational structure in order to drive the mission, vision and strategy of the organisation, resulting in organisational effectiveness and performance.

3.4.2. Management practices and systems [policies and procedures]

Management practices are what managers do when using human and material resources at their disposal to conduct daily operations in order to execute the organisation’s strategy, including variables such as managerial behaviour, work etiquette, professionalism, planning, communication and control (Martins & Coetzee, 2009:146). Management practice attributes as mentioned above are important for an organisation to ensure that it is operates effectively. It is evident that there is “substantial variation in management practices across organisations in every country and every sector, mirroring the heterogeneity in the spread of performance in these sectors” (Bloom, Genakos, Sadun & Van Reenen, 2012:13). In addition, multinational organisations seem to be able to adopt good management practices in almost every country in which they conduct business (Bloom, et al., 2012:14). On the other hand, systems [policies and procedures] are standardised guidelines and frameworks that facilitate work; these systems unravel themselves in the organisations reward and control systems such as goal and budget advancement (Martins & Coetzee, 2009:146).

Management practices and systems [policies and procedures] dimensions have been combined under this section of the chapter because leaders (managers) – as discussed in section 3.3.2 – execute management practices which include creating policies and procedures for the organisation. As noted by Adam and Humphreys (2008), management practices outline the working methods and innovations that managers use in order to enhance effectiveness of work systems. Moreover, management practices are tools which are described as a set of concepts, processes and systems (Rigby, 2001).

"In the contemporary business environment, organisations use a plethora of different management practices in order to support their operations" (Nedelko & Potočan, 2015:4). These management practices commonly consist of empowering and training employees, introducing systems or procedures for improving quality, and introducing innovative technological advancements (Luenendonk, 2017; Adam & Humphreys, 2008). In addition, human resource management encompassing management practices is the management function that implements policies and strategies relating to how individuals are managed (Patterson, 2002).

Leaders (managers) are also responsible for setting policies for operating the organisation. Organisational policies act as a guiding framework for how an organisation handles daily operational human and material problems or how it responds to requirements to comply (Industrial Relations, 2013:1).

The establishment of Chinese organisations in Kenya has motivated research on the management practices adopted in managing such organisations. According to Jackson, Louw and Zhao (2013), much is known about Chinese organisational values and management (as China was regarded as a huge market for Western companies), less about African values and organisation (as Africa was regarded as less interesting by management scholars despite the huge presence of Western companies). But little, if anything, is known about the interaction between the two. The management practices adopted in China and Kenya may differ or be similar as a result of organisational and societal norms.

The challenge for Chinese organisations operating in Kenya, therefore, is identifying and incorporating management styles embedded in Kenyan management in order to adopt human resource practices that appeal to the Kenyan employees and are then perceived by both Chinese and Kenyan employees as progressive. These are management practices that relate to organisational culture and work climate, leadership styles, staffing, recruitment and selection, training and development, organisational strategy and structure, policies and human resource management. According to Hofstede (2001 cited in Patterson, 2013:25), five cultural dimensions (power distance, individualism-collectivism, masculinity-femininity, uncertainty avoidance and long-term/short-term orientation) can be used as a starting point in distinguishing cultural differences between nationalities. These cultural differences ultimately affect organisations and management practice (Daouda, 2009:1).

The overarching management philosophies of African and Chinese organisations, Ubuntu and the Confucianism firm, respectively, can be used as tools to effectively investigate the difference and or similarities in the management practices employed in Chinese and African organisations.

3.4.3. Work climate [organisational climate]

Work climate varies from organisation to organisation as a result of individuals occupying different positions, work groups, and employment histories (Schwepker, 2001:42).

Work climate can be viewed as the "weather of the workplace". In the same way that weather conditions can influence daily operations, work climate impacts on behaviour within the workspace. A conducive work climate can improve an employee's work habits, while an ineffective work climate can deteriorate good work habits (Management Science for Health, 2005:50).

The work climate established by an organisation is used to communicate what is to be believed and valued within the organisation (Benjamin, Brief & Guzzo, 1996:9). Litwin, et al. (2001 cited in Zhang & Liu, 2010:189) explain this work climate as "a group of measurable characteristics that members could perceive directly or indirectly in the work environment" and as a description of environmental factors that can aid researchers in understanding the effects of environment on employee motivation. In addition, work climate can be viewed as the dominant workplace atmosphere that is experienced by employees (Management Science for

Health, 2005:52) and can be experienced as the atmosphere, personality, tone, or ethos of the organisation (Owens, 2004:178).

A conducive work climate results in and sustains employee motivation and high performance (Litwin & Stringer, 1968; Stringer, 2002 cited in Management Science for Health, 2005:52). Work climate identifies avenues in which organisations operationalise routine behaviours and the actions that are required, supported and rewarded (Schneider & Rentsch, 1988). To enhance work climate, it is crucial to understand how it influences employees and how it develops. A positive work climate fuels staff motivation because it provides conditions under which employees can strive towards obtaining their personal goals while working for organisational objectives (Bennis & Schein, 1966 cited in Management Science for Health, 2005:52).

It is apparent that the work climate can have a significant influence on one's job satisfaction (Schwepker, 2001:41). Numerous studies from a variety of occupations show that employees' job satisfaction is related to their perceptions of aspects of the organisation's work climate (Schwepker, 2001:42).

Moreover, culture is closely tied to work climate. Rousseau (1990) argues that work climate refers to the descriptive beliefs and perceptions that employees hold of the organisation, whereas organisational culture refers to the shared values, beliefs, and expectations that are created through social interactions within the organisation.

Focusing on China, Hofstede (1991 cited in Zhang & Begley, 2010:10) and Triandis (1995 cited in Zhang & Begley, 2010:10) highlight that the collectivist culture adopted by the Chinese places emphasis on the role in groups and a huge emphasis on family. Accordingly, managers strive to create an atmosphere of a family unit that assumes paternalistic roles (Farh, Earley & Lin, 1997). Chinese organisations have created a work climate based on Miànzi (face). Miànzi is also known as "saving face" which creates an atmosphere of collective opinions from a group, which views others as you view yourself, takes into careful consideration when addressing a problem that a co-worker might be experiencing and criticism is generally provided in private (Kim, 2016).

Kenyans on the other hand operate in a cordial atmosphere where elders and senior management are treated with high levels of respect. Kenyans adopt Harambee which, as noted earlier, means "let's work together". Harambee creates a work atmosphere that ensures that individuals support their friends and families (InterNations, 2017).

Work climate plays a significant role in setting the tone and atmosphere for Chinese and Kenyan organisations at large. According to Burke and Litwin (1992) positive work climate coupled with management practices influences organisational performance and results in organisational effectiveness.

3.4.4. Task requirements, individual skills and abilities

Task requirements and individual skills and abilities are concerned with one's behaviour, skills, knowledge base required to execute a task effectively, and the ability to execute what is on one's job description (Martins & Coetzee, 2009:146). Task requirements profile what the specific role or job demands, and outlines expertise required to fulfil those demands (Lapaas, 2020; Coleman, 2018:3). Skills and abilities are personal traits that are transferable and founded on a knowledge base (Berkeley University of California, 2019).

To ensure that employees are equipped with the right kind of skills, knowledge and abilities to perform their assigned tasks, training and development plays a pivotal role in the growth and success of an organisation. Consequently, choosing appropriate type of training ensures that employees possess the correct skills for the organisation (Niazi, 2011:43).

When upskilling individuals, training enhances employee capabilities (Khan, Khan & Khan, 2011:63). Training and development refers to the process to obtain or transfer knowledge, skills and abilities required to execute a specific activity or task (Niazi, 2011:43). Nischithaa and Rao (2014) mention that training is focused on imparting specific skills for a specific objective. In addition, "training is the process that provides employees with the knowledge and the skills required to operate within the systems and standards set by management" (Sommerville, 2007:208).

For an organisation to overcome its current and future challenges they should conduct training and development that entails an array of learning actions which varies from training of the employees for their present tasks and more so, knowledge sharing to enhance the organisations horizon and the customer's service (Niazi, 2011:43). If employees are not provided with pre-training, they find it challenging to perform work tasks (Garavan, 1997). When training programmes are created, they should be tailored to employee needs (Ginsberg, 1997 cited in

Khan, Khan & Khan, 2011:63). Organisations that tailor their training to employee needs always achieve great results (Partlow, 1996). Employees who have on-the-job training usually have very high performance as a result of their increased skills and competencies accumulated on the job (Khan, Khan & Khan, 2011:63).

Chan (2015) asserts that the challenge most Chinese organisations face is finding skilled employees for their organisational needs. These challenges arise because employees are not fully prepared for the jobs available in the market. Many of these organisations are reluctant to invest any time or resources in training; alternatively, Chinese organisations expect new employees to have all the skills from the beginning (China Labour Bulletin, 2008). However, over the years, Chinese organisations are seeing the importance of investing in training their existing employees and providing them with the necessary skills to execute tasks in an evolving world (McKinsey Report, 2017:40).

In Kenya, individual skills development is important. The Constitution of Kenya (2010:38, 139-140) states that Kenyan citizens should have access to education and training, a special opportunity to access educational and economic fields, and access to adequate and equitable opportunities for appointment and advancement. In efforts to improve their organisational skills, Kenyan employees are now developing more soft skills as opposed to the traditional framework of adopting hard skills (Wainaina, 2017).

Task requirements, individual skills and abilities are crucial for any organisation. According to the Burke-Litwin model, task requirements, individual skills and abilities are part of the organisational structure requirements. Within the structure certain jobs and skills are needed for organisational effectiveness and performance. However, an employee can only be effective if the right skills and training opportunities are presented, which are more likely to result in a motivated employee. The relationship between motivation and task requirements, individual skills and abilities is very strong as it drives effectiveness and overall organisational performance.

3.4.5. Motivation

Understanding what motivation is as concept will assist managers in adopting the appropriate action when encouraging their workforce (Burton, 2012:6). A motive is a desire or particular need that results in an individual action (Buchbinder & Shanks, 2007:24), so motivation is an act or process of providing a motive to elicit an action from someone (Buchbinder & Shanks, 2007:24). It is a stimulant for achieving a specific objective (Johnstone, 1999:146).

Motivation has been extensively researched and significant motivational theories have emerged, including content, process and reinforcement theories. Content theories from the twentieth century include Maslow's hierarchy of needs (1943) looking at self-actualisation, esteem, affiliation, security and physiological needs, and Herzberg's two-factor theory (1959) focusing on extrinsic and intrinsic motivators. Finally, McClelland's theory of needs (1958) emphasises that the need for achievement, power, and affiliation severely affect the behaviour of individuals (Kukreja, 2019; Nduku, 2016:1; Chand, 2014). Content motivational theories include higher and lower level motivational needs. The higher order motivational needs are socialisation, esteem, self-actualisation, need for achievement and the need for power, while lower order needs include, salary, working conditions, job security, quality relationships and the need for affirmation (Chand, 2014). Process motivational theories, as opposed to content theories, explore what leads to certain behaviours and how these behaviours can be stopped or sustained by motivational factors (Pratap, 2017). Finally, reinforcement motivational theories assess how results influence behaviour, and how positive reinforcement measures and avoidance tactics govern behaviour (Gheethu, 2016).

Overall, motivation has an integral role in inspiring employees to be more effective within an organisation, consequently enhancing organisational performance and effectiveness. Chinese employees have a desire to be recognised, with recognition being a significant part of the Chinese work culture (Jacobsen, 2014). Chinese organisations emphasise individual achievements (Jackson & Bak, 1998:287) and filial piety – the latter being a fundamental principle that governs human behaviour and ethics. This principle is used to motivate individuals to be respectful of their families, hierarchy and duties within the private sphere (Teon, 2017). Chinese employees are also motivated by rule enforcement, whereby they are accepted, and their work positions are protected, and external rewards which are used to elicit positive performance (Jackson & Bak, 1998:288-290).

According to Muraa (2017), Kenyan employees are motivated by being involved in decision-making, being rewarded for their performance, being offered training and development and having clearly defined roles. Mwende (2015:2) points out that the Kenyan government has taken the initiative to ensure that Kenya's labour force is motivated and trained for maximum productivity and good service delivery while being competitive.

Motivation is an essential element in boosting employee efficiency and effectiveness. A negative work environment can also lead to demotivated employees, whereas a positive work climate can boost employee morale and motivation. Additionally, motivation can influence and be affected by task requirements, individual needs, which in turn positively or negatively impact individual and organisational performance.

3.4.6. Individual needs and values

Job satisfaction is linked to individual and organisational values (Diskienė & Goštautas, 2013:95). Organisational values can be defined as "the goals or rewards people seek through their work, and they are expressions of more general human values in the context of the work setting" (Schwartz, 1999:43). Furthermore, organisational values act as governing principles of what people consider important in life (Cheng & Fleischmann, 2010).

Employees are motivated by different needs. Employees who greatly value money have ability to earn as their major driving force for working. In China specifically, money plays a powerful role. A survey spanning several decades, and countries formulated by Inglehart (1998) revealed that that materialistic values are particularly important in developing countries such as China (Xioa & Froese, 2008:10-11). Employees have a need to be secure in their jobs. Through extensive studies it has been confirmed that job security leads to greater organisational commitment and job performance in China (Rosenblatt & Ruvio, 1996; Morris, Lydka & O'Creevy, 1993; Iverson, 1996; Ashford, Lee & Bobko, 1989). This indicates that Chinese employees highly value job security (Warner, 1995 cited in Xioa & Froese, 2008:12).

Studies by Kouzes and Posner (2003) identified a connection between individual and organisational values and employee commitment. These researchers discovered that employees who had a clear understanding of individual and organisational values were fully committed to the organisation, while employees who lacked understanding of individual and organisational values were not interested in their job. "The misfit between organisational and individual values of the employees can be a source of cognitive dissonance for the employee and is related to stress and a lower job satisfaction" (Diskienė & Goštautas, 2013:95). Job satisfaction is a general feeling that employees have towards their job which is directly linked to individual needs for challenging work, equitable rewards, and a supportive work environment and colleagues (Ostroff, 1992). How employees feel about their job can be measured as high and low and if employees are dissatisfied with their work, they exude a negative attitude. However, if employees are satisfied with their work, their attitude is positive (Robbins, 2006).

In Kenya, the constitution supports startup organisations'. When someone establishes an organisation in Kenya it is crucial that they uphold values of human rights, equality, freedom, democracy, social justice and the rule of law (The Constitution of Kenya, 2010:12).

As per the Burke-Litwin model, individual needs and values are influenced by organisational culture. An individual's culture is the foundation of what an individual values. Furthermore, individual needs and values can either motivate or demotivate employees, based on the gap between the need and the current state.

3.5. INDIVIDUAL AND ORGANISATIONAL PERFORMANCE

Organisational performance is impacted by the external environment, transformational dimensions and transactional dimensions. However, individual and organisational performance is also a product of the external environment, transformational dimensions and transactional dimensions. The performance of the organisation is governed by the performance of individuals completing their tasks effectively and efficiently (Lapaas, 2020). Researchers conducting organisational diagnosis agree that organisational and individual performance ought to be measured using a multidimensional approach to be able to ascertain the level of effectiveness (Lee & Brower, 2006; Burke & Litwin, 1992).

Mitchell (1983) defines organisational performance as an aggregate of behaviour over time, tasks or people. Delving into organisational performance, it is evident that it is a complex construct (Sirgy, 2002). Because of its multidimensional nature, there is little agreement on how it ought to be measured (Henri, 2004; Neely, Gregory & Platts, 1995). Henri (2004:6) adds that organisational performance reflects "a construct perspective in which the focus is on the definition of the concept in terms of assessment and conceptualization".

In spite of this, overall individual and organisational effectiveness is the output of the Burke-Litwin change model and can be measured at different levels of the organisation and is assessed for individuals, groups and the holistic organisation (Sambul, 2020; Burke & Litwin, 1992). Robinson (2019:1) adds that the only constant is change, and as output changes, so do the input variables. Furthermore, “individual and organisational performance is the measure of the effectiveness of the change” (Robinson, 2019:1).

It is evident in each of the Burke-Litwin dimensions discussed above that individual and organisational performance is the key measure in assessing change and effectiveness. In Chapter 5 of this thesis, Chinese and Kenyan viewpoints on individual and organisational effectiveness per dimension will be explored. In addition, the relationship between the dimensions and individual and organisational performance will further be explored.

3.6. SUMMARY

The Burke-Litwin model of organisational change as a diagnostic framework aids in assessing effectiveness. Organisational change is affected and influenced by the external environment, transformational dimensions, transactional dimensions and individual and organisational performance. Chinese and Kenyan organisations differ somewhat; however, they share many similarities. Both countries exude high-power distance, lead with a collectivist approach and adopt a hierarchical structure within organisations and society.

Chapter three explored the dimensions of the Burke- Litwin model from a theoretical perspective and provided the Chinese and Kenyan perspectives of these dimensions. The following chapter will examine the research design and methodology of this study.

CHAPTER 4
RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY

4.1. INTRODUCTION

Chapter 3 explored the 12 Burke-Litwin management dimensions (Burke & Litwin, 1992). To give effect to the main purpose of this study, namely to assess employees' views on organisational effectiveness in a cross-cultural research setting of selected Chinese organisations operating in Kenya, the research design and methodology used in this study will be explained in this chapter.

In order to achieve this purpose, as stated in Chapter 1, the following objectives have been formulated:

- To describe the viewpoints of the Chinese and Kenyan employees of the 12 organisational effectiveness dimensions of selected Chinese organisations operating in Kenya.
- To explore the key relationships that emerge and identify and highlight similarities between Chinese and Kenyan employees' viewpoints based on the 12 organisational dimensions of organisational effectiveness for the selected Chinese organisations operating in Kenya.
- To make recommendations on how organisational effectiveness can be improved, from a cross-cultural perspective, based on the organisational diagnosis conducted for the selected Chinese organisations operating in Kenya.

For the purposes of this study, research can be viewed either as generating new knowledge, or as using existing knowledge creatively to produce new concepts, methodologies and understandings (O'Donnell, 2012). Research can be described as the "rigorous, objective and systematic process" adopted in order to come up with answers to problems and to foster decision-making (Handley, 2016:89). According to Merriam-Webster (2018), research is a studious inquiry that aims to interpret facts, and to revise accepted theories or laws in the light of new facts. Furthermore, research is a meticulous and precise study of a certain problem, issue or concern utilising scientific methods (Kowalczyk, 2018).

In this chapter, an overview of the research paradigm, research method, how data was collected, the sampling strategy, how data was analysed and ethical considerations will be presented.

As mentioned in Chapter 1, this study is intended to make a contribution to the body of knowledge owing to the scant existing research on Chinese organisational values and management at a micro level (Jackson, Louw & Zhao, 2013) from a cross-cultural perspective. As such, this study is descriptive in nature and explores Chinese and Kenyan viewpoints and how to enhance organisational effectiveness of the selected Chinese organisations operating in Kenya by using the Birke-Litwin (1992) model.

4.2. RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY

Research design is the plan that links conceptual research problems to relevant empirical research (Van Wyk, 2012:3). In particular, "research designs are types of inquiry within qualitative, quantitative and mixed methods approaches that provide specific direction for procedures in a research design" (Creswell, 2014:12). Moreover, research design alludes to the methodology and methods used to address the research question (Collis & Hussey, 2014). Research methodology is a detailed process and technique which is used to identify, select, process and critically analyse information on a particular subject (Libguides, 2018). Both research design and methodology highlight the "mode of inquiry" of the research framework (Zikmund, 2003:65; Collis & Hussey, 2014) and are located within a specific research paradigm. For this study, the interpretivistic research paradigm is used and will be explained under section 4.3.

The two main methods of research, quantitative and qualitative methodologies (Surbhi, 2016; Kumar, 2005:16), will be outlined next as well as briefly explaining the qualitative orientation that is pertinent to this study.

Quantitative research methodology places emphasis on objective measurements from statistical, mathematical or numerical analysis of data obtained through various platforms such as "polls, questionnaires, and surveys, or by manipulating pre-existing statistical data using computational techniques" (Babbie, 2010). Quantitative research is utilised to create numerical data and concrete facts, by adopting statistical, logical, mathematical methods that can be measured. Furthermore, this approach is objective, uses random sampling, is data-driven and generally adopts a positivist approach (Surbhi, 2016; Creswell, 2014:5). By contrast, qualitative research emerges from phenomenology, hermeneutics and externalism (Lucca & Berríos,

2013). Qualitative research can be replicated in numerous philosophical paradigms which revolve around different views of reality (Lincoln, & Guba 2000; Denzin & Lincoln, 2008).
While Table 4.1 below highlights the main differences between quantitative and qualitative research methodologies, this section focuses on qualitative research that is pertinent to the study. This form of research aims to develop an understanding of human and social sciences to better understand how individuals think and feel (Surbhi, 2016). Qualitative methodology adopts a holistic view, is subjective, exploratory in nature, provides avenues to explore issues and makes use of purposive sampling. In the present study, the qualitative research reasoning is deductive, rather than being inductive, in that literature was used to aid the researcher to identify theories and concepts (according to the Burke-Litwin model) that were used to explore the data (Saunders, Lewis & Thornhill, 2009:61).

Table 4.1: Quantitative versus qualitative research methodologies

BASIS FOR COMPARISON	QUANTITATIVE RESEARCH	QUALITATIVE RESEARCH
Meaning	Quantitative research is a research methodology that is used to generate numerical data and hard facts, by employing statistical, logical and mathematical techniques.	Qualitative research is a methodology of inquiry that develops understanding on human and social sciences, to find the way people think and feel.
Nature	Particularistic	Holistic
Approach	Objective	Subjective
Research type	Conclusive	Exploratory
Reasoning	Deductive	Inductive
Sampling	Random	Purposive
Data	Measurable	Verbal
Inquiry	Result-orientated	Process-orientated
Hypothesis	Tested	Generated
Elements of analysis	Numerical data	Words, pictures and objects

(Source: Surbhi, 2016)

Qualitative research methodology was considered the most appropriate for this study owing to the merits it yields. The benefits associated with qualitative research encompass a rich in-depth description of respondents' emotions, viewpoints, experiences; meanings of their actions are examined from a subjective viewpoint, yielding rich data (Iphofen & Tolich, 2018; Collis & Hussey, 2014; Denzin,1989). Chalhoub-Deville and Deville (2008) elaborate that qualitative approaches are adopted to attain deeper insights into problems linked to designing, administering, and interpreting language assessment. According to Lazaraton and Taylor (2007), one of the techniques in qualitative research is language-testing; during the language-testing process, the respondent and the researcher's behaviour and intercultural influences on behaviour are analysed. This aids in obtaining lucrative qualitative data.

As mentioned in section 4.3 and illustrated in Table 4.2, the qualitative research method is located in the interpretivistic research paradigm which tends to produce qualitative data (Collis & Hussey, 2014:50). The selected interpretivistic research paradigm and qualitative research method is associated with the case study method inter alia (Collis and Hussey, 2014:60) which is adopted for this study. As outlined by Collis and Hussey (2014:68), "a case study is a methodology used to explore a single phenomenon in a natural setting using a variety of methods to obtain in-depth knowledge". Case studies provide detailed comprehensive understanding of the phenomenon under investigation, since the research tactic accommodates the investigation to materialise in natural settings (Yin, 2018; Creswell, 2013; Baxter & Jack, 2008). In this study, two Chinese organisations operating in Kenya were selected and comprise the case study. Finally, the qualitative case study research method was deemed the most suitable for this study because the process allows for the use of descriptive information and provides an explanation or interpretation (The Open University, 2014:13).

4.3. RESEARCH PARADIGMS

Kuhn (1962) initially used the word "paradigm" to indicate a philosophical way of thinking. The root of the word paradigm is Greek, meaning "pattern" (Kivunja & Kuyini, 2017:26). Patton (1990) highlights that a paradigm is a "world view", a universal viewpoint, a procedure of deconstructing the intricacy of the real world. Schwandt (2001:183-184) adds that a paradigm represents the beliefs and values in a discipline and that guides how problems are solved". Wagner, Kawulich and Garner (2012:1) note that a paradigm leads the researcher to ask certain questions and utilise appropriate approaches and methods. "Paradigm is a way of examining social phenomena from which particular understandings of these phenomena can be gained and explanations attempted" (Saunders, Lewis & Thornhill, 2009:118), and is associated with certain methodologies (Wagner, Kawulich & Garner, 2012:2). A research paradigm is comprised of the conceptual beliefs and principles that outline how researchers view the world, and how they interpret and engage within that world (Kivunja, & Kuyini, 2017; Collis and Hussey, 2014; Hathaway, 1995).

There are two main paradigms within social sciences at either end of the paradigm continuum, namely "positivism" and "interpretivism" (Collis & Hussey, 2014: 47; Welman & Kruger, 2001:7). These research paradigms are regularly alluded to as quantitative and qualitative approaches (Collis & Hussey, 2014; Creswell, 2014; Hathaway, 1995). Table 4.2 illustrates three of the five assumptions associated with the paradigms along a continuum.

Table 4.2: Typology of assumptions on a continuum of paradigms

Positivism	⟵				⟶	**Interpretivism**
Ontological assumption	Reality as a concrete structure	Reality as a concrete process	Reality as a contextual field of information	Reality as a realm of symbolic discourse	Reality as a social construction	Reality as a projection of human imagination
Epistemological stance	To construct a positivist science	To construct systems, process, change	To map contexts	To understand patterns of symbolic discourse	To understand how social reality is created	To obtain phenomeno-logical insight, revelation
Research methods	Experiments, surveys	Historical analysis	Interpretive contextual analysis	Symbolic analysis	Hermeneu-tics	Exploration of pure subjectivity

(Source: Collis and Hussey, 2014:49)

The positivist paradigm "seeks the facts or causes of social phenomena apart from the subjective states of individuals" (Taylor, Bogdan & DeVault, 2016:3) and explores the causes through techniques such as questionnaires, inventories, and demography, that generate data which can be used for statistical analysis (Taylor, Bogdan & DeVault, 2016:4; Collis & Hussey, 2014:49). Furthermore, as depicted in Table 4.2, this paradigm is objective and assumes that the social world is identical to the physical world where reality is viewed as "a concrete structure". On the other hand, the interpretivism paradigm views reality as a projection of human imagination and is subjective in nature (Collis & Hussey, 2014:49). Interpretivism assumes that any research approach ought to honour the differences between individuals and the objects of the natural sciences (Bryman, Bell, Hirschsohn & Du Toit, 2014:14). Saunders, Lewis and Thornhill (2009:116) assert that it is crucial under the interpretivism paradigm for the "researcher to understand differences between humans in our role as social actors".

As mentioned previously, this study is located within the interpretivistic research paradigm because it assists in understanding the viewpoints of individuals and of their lived experiences of a phenomenon. Furthermore, the interpretivistic paradigm tends to produce qualitative data, uses small samples and produces rich subjective data (Collis & Hussey, 2014:50). Table 4.3 below highlights the key variations in assumptions for each paradigm, namely ontological, epistemological, axiological, rhetorical and methodological assumptions. These are important to consider because assumptions aid in guiding the research process (Kivunja & Kuyini, 2017; Collis & Hussey, 2009; 2014).

Table 4.3: Assumptions of the positivistic and interpretivistic research paradigms

Philosophical assumption	**Quantitative (Positivism)**	**Qualitative (Interpretivism)**
Ontological assumption (the nature of reality)	Reality is objective and singular, unrelated to the research.	Reality is subjective and multiple, as seen by participants.
Epistemological assumption (what constitutes valid knowledge)	Researcher is independent of that being researched.	Researcher interacts with what is being researched.
Axiological assumption (the role of values)	Research is value-free and unbiased.	Researcher acknowledges that research is value-laden and biases are present.
Rhetorical assumption (the language of research)	Researcher writes in a formal style and uses the passive voice, accepted quantitative words and set definitions.	Researcher writes in an informal style and uses the personal voice, accepted qualitative terms and limited definitions.
Methodological assumption (the process of research)	Process is deductive. Study of cause and effect with a static design (categories are isolated beforehand). Research is context free. Generalisations lead to prediction, explanation, and understanding. Findings are accurate and reliable through validity and reliability.	Process is inductive. Study of mutual simultaneous shaping of factors with an emerging design (categories are identified during the process). Research is context bound. Patterns and/or theories are developed for understanding. Findings are accurate and reliable through verification.

(Source: Collis & Hussey ,2009; 2014)

4.4. RESEARCH METHODS

Creswell (2014) states that the research method encompasses data collection, analysis and interpretation used in a particular study. This section will outline how data collection under the interpretivist research paradigm takes place as it is applicable to the case study methodology. The sampling technique is explained and the data analysis process is also discussed in this section.

4.4.1. Data collection

Data collection is a methodological approach to obtaining and measuring information from diverse sources to obtain a complete and accurate view of an area of interest. Furthermore, it enables an individual or organisation to answer specific questions, evaluate results and make assumptions about future possibilities and trends (McLaughlin, 2016).

Data was collected using a systematic process in this study. As noted in the first chapter of this thesis, data was collected by means of face-to-face open-ended semi-structured interviews by a Chinese research associate of the comprehensive international research project and one Chinese research assistant. Both interviewers are bilingual Chinese nationals, one female and one male, who are proficient in Mandarin and English. Accordingly, Chinese research participants were interviewed in Mandarin and Kenyan research participants were interviewed in English. The Chinese responses were transcribed into English by the two interviewees and they validated each other’s transcriptions to ensure that the translations were accurate. The interviews themselves lasted for 45 minutes each. These semi-structured interviews were composed of preset questions that assisted the interviewers to probe and ask follow-up questions (Edwards & Holland, 2013). The open-ended questions also allowed the respondents to freely respond to the questions asked and eliminated bias that may result from suggesting responses to individuals, which is a common bias in the case of close-ended questions (Reja, Manfreda, Hlebec & Vehovar, 2003:161). The interviews were recorded with the permission of the respondents.

An existing interview guide was used to gather the data. To ensure consistency in the data gathered for the comprehensive international research project, two interview guides were generated by the project leaders of the research project, namely Professor Terence Jackson (Middlesex University, London) and Professor Lynette Louw (Rhodes University, Makhanda). As shown in Annexure A and B, two interview guides were generated for managerial employees and another for employees in non-managerial positions. These guides allowed for the collection of wide-ranging data, much of which is beyond the scope of this study. Consequently, the data gathered was analysed in terms of the theoretical framework provided by the Burke-Litwin model (1992) and gave effect to the objectives of this study. The comprehensive nature of the interview guide provided more than sufficient data to achieve the objectives of this study according to the Burke-Litwin model (1992).

The data was collected from two Chinese organisations operating in Kenya. As detailed in Chapter 1, both organisations specialise in importing and exporting products. Organisation A imports and exports tiles, ceramics, sanitary ware, doors, PVC ceiling boards, bathtubs, wall and floor tiles, double loading tiles and glazed tiles. Organisation B imports and exports aviation products and technology such as military aircrafts namely fighters, trainers, bombers, helicopters, unmanned aerial vehicles, transport aircraft, general aviation aircraft, missiles, associated airborne equipment, and ground support equipment, including various components and spare parts required to support these products. The Chinese organisations were selected because they have been operating in Kenya for more than 20 years, they are reputable organisations in their industries and are international role players.

The managing directors of both organisations were contacted by email and both were willing to participate in the research study and they signed the institutional permission consent letter. In turn, the managing directors assisted in allowing the voluntary participation of employees in their organisations. The sampling procedure will be explained in the following section. At the interviews, the purpose of the research was explained, and each respondent provided a verbal consent and understood the research ethical implications, prior to the interview taking place. The verbal consent agreement by respondents was captured on all the recordings, and in writing.

4.4.2. Sampling and sampling procedure

The population is the entire group that the researcher ought to draw conclusions from (Bhandari, 2020). Based on the population, the researcher selects a specific group or subset that data will be collected from (Bhandari, 2020; Allen, 2017). Zikmund (2003:70) indicates that sampling is a method used to identify a small number of objects from a bigger population. The size of the samples is always smaller than the total size of the population (Bhandari, 2020). One of the advantages of sampling is cost reduction and a more centralised study. Alvi (2016:11) points out that it is impossible to evaluate every single criterion of a population, therefore a smaller group within the population is chosen for assessment. Sampling is a matter of selecting a subset of individuals from a population who will provide the researcher with results that will represent the whole (William, 2006; Abao, 2018). “Sample sizes of interpretivist research are thus generally small and drawn through non-probability sampling methods as the collected data will not be subjected to statistical analysis” (Cooper & Schindler, 2006: 203-204; Sekaran & Bougie, 2009:276 cited in Mabuza, 2015:83).

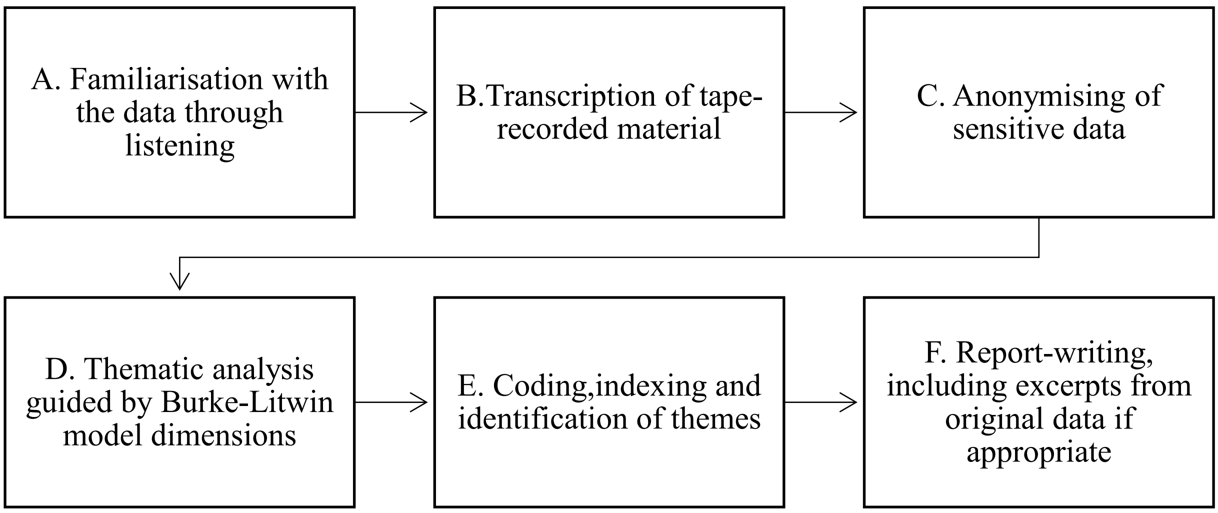
Sampling is grouped into two main categories namely probability and non-probability (Singh, 2018; Hair, Money, Samouel & Page, 2007; Zikmund, 2003:71). Non-probability sampling allows for non-random selection based on convenience or on the criterion, allowing for ease of data collection (McCombes, 2019). The population for this study is Chinese organisations operating in Kenya. The two selected Chinese organisations operating in Kenya were selected using non-probability convenience sampling as the managing directors of each organisation were approached, as explained in the previous paragraph, and were willing to participate in the comprehensive international project study.

The participants in the selected organisations were chosen using non-probability purposive sampling. According to Guarte and Barrios (2006:1-4), purposive sampling is judgementally selecting pieces within a population that the researcher trusts will yield samples that will provide the most lucrative approximation of the population parameter of interest. This method is subjective, because it expects the researcher to provide a conclusion on the data collected (Guarte & Barrios, 2006:2). When sampling, the researcher must bear in mind who the subject of study will be, and how easily can access be gained to the organisation or individuals who will provide the data (Bryman, et al., 2014:92). According to Bernard (2011:189) and Lewis and Sheppard (2006), purposive sampling, also known as judgement sampling, allows the researcher to seek participants who can and are willing to provide the information by virtue of knowledge or experience. Purposive sampling enabled the researcher to select individuals for this study “because they can purposefully inform an understanding of the research problem and are central phenomena in the study” (Creswell, 2013:156). Participants who were willing to participate in the study had different levels of experience, job description and level at which they work (both management and non-management levels). Furthermore, the sample comprised a mix of Chinese and Kenyan managers and non-managers. In total, 12 Kenyans and five Chinese employees from both organisations were willing to participate in the study.

4.5. DATA ANALYSIS

The objective of data analysis is to organise, represent, describe, evaluate, and interpret data. (Kaur, 2017; Remenyi, 2012:106; Kumar, 2005:220). Furthermore, data analysis is the procedure of bringing order, structure and meaning to an abundance of collected data (Creswell, 2014; Hofstee, 2006). Data analysis in case study research includes establishing conceptual groupings of the qualitative data collected from interviews (Babbie, 2017). The data was analysed using thematic analysis, which is part of qualitative research methodology and is a method used to identify, analyse, and report themes within qualitative data (Maguire & Delahunt, 2017). In addition, thematic analysis allows the researcher to point out common themes, ideas, or patterns of meaning that occur repeatedly (Caulfield, 2019). The process followed in analysing the data for this study is outlined in Figure 4.1, and then each item is separately discussed.

Figure 4.1: Data analysis process



(Source: Lacey & Luff, 2009:6-7; researcher's compilation)

4.5.1. Familiarisation with the data through listening

The researcher listened to each taped interview recordings three times to ensure that information was accurately captured. In addition, while listening to the recordings of each interview, the questions in the interview guide were followed as this assisted the researcher to identify main themes for each question. Furthermore, as themes arose, the researcher grouped them in accordance with the Burke-Litwin model.

4.5.2. Transcription of tape-recorded material

It is advised that data recorded should be transcribed verbatim to ensure accuracy (Lacey & Luff, 2009:20). The researcher captured every single word and phrase that the respondents spoke, along with verbal nuances. To ensure that the transcription was accurately captured, the researcher read the transcription for each respondent while listening to the recordings. This was done three times. No additional information was added and information of the respondent that was regarded as being confidential was not included in the analysis process. All the transcriptions were archived in a cloud folder to ensure that it was safely stored.

4.5.3. Anonymising of sensitive data

Personal and sensitive information disclosed by each respondent at the beginning of the interview recording was treated as confidential. Numbered codes were assigned for both Kenyan and Chinese employees, thus anonymising the data. Non-managerial employees were referred to as R1 to R11 and the managers were referred to as M1 to M7. Prior to the recording, all respondents were informed about their rights of privacy and anonymity. Confidentiality was agreed on when it was deemed necessary to do so.

4.5.4. Identification of themes and coding

The data was analysed using a thematic analysis, as explained earlier. The main themes were identified as being guided by the 12 dimensions of the Burke-Litwin model (1992). The transcribed data was highlighted and colour coded into various themes. Some of the information that emerged fell into more than one theme and was outlined. In analysing the data for each respondent, a coding sheet (see Table 4.4) in the form of a table was used to capture the main themes as well as direct quotations.

Table 4.4: Coding sheet sample

Code	Theme	Quote
R1	Organisational Culture	E.g.: "Kenyan employees are very culturally based"
	Teamwork	
	Strategy	

In analysing data, it is imperative to ensure that the data is managed correctly and can be validated. The following section explains qualitative data validation procedures.

4.6. QUALITATIVE DATA VALIDATION

The standards of quality research for both quantitative and qualitative research relate to objectivity, internal validity, external validity, reliability, rigour, open-mindedness, honesty and thorough reporting (Ragin, Nagel & White, 2003; Wooding & Grant, 2003; Shavelson & Towne, 2002). Peersman (2014:6) recommends that to ensure good data management, the researcher should consistently collect and record data from various respondents, secure the storage of data, clean data, transfer data, present data effectively and make sure that data can be accessed and verified. Gersten, Baker and Lloyd (2000), Greenhalgh (1997), and Ragin, Nagel and White (2003) all highlight that the quality standards of research form scientific understanding, which is commonly used to shape the discourse on the quality of research.

According to Guba and Lincoln (1981 cited in Thomas, 2010:319), Creswell (1998 cited in Thomas, 2010:319), Anney (2014:272), Korstjens and Moser (2018:121) the criteria used to ensure the quality standard for qualitative data include credibility, transferability, dependability and confirmability. These criteria are briefly described in Table 4.5. and further explained in the section below the table.

Table 4.5: Quality criteria for qualitative research

Quality criteria for qualitative research	**Description**
Credibility	The confidence that can be placed in the truth of the research findings. Credibility establishes whether the research findings represent plausible information drawn from the respondents' original data and are a correct interpretation of the respondents' original views.
Transferability	The degree to which the results of qualitative research can be transferred to other contexts or settings with other respondents. The researcher facilitates the transferability judgement by a potential user through thick description.
Dependability	The stability of findings over time. Dependability involves respondents' evaluation of the findings, interpretation and recommendations of the study such that all are supported by the data as received from respondents of the study.
Confirmability	The degree to which the findings of the research study could be confirmed by other researchers. Confirmability is concerned with establishing that data and

	interpretations of the findings are not figments of the inquirer's imagination, but clearly derived from the data.

(Source: Korstjens & Moser, 2018)

Credibility refers to the extent to which the research epitomises the actual meanings of the transcriptions for each research respondents, or the "truth value" (Lincoln & Guba, 1985 cited in Babbie & Mouton, 2006:277-279). Lincoln and Guba (1985 cited in Babbie & Mouton, 2006:277-279) explain that credibility can be viewed as compatibility between constructed realities that are present in the minds of respondents and those attributed to them. In this study the researcher ensured that the research was credible by making sure that the data collected was captured accurately, checking transcriptions and linking the theory to the data collected.

Transferability, according to Marsden (2013) and Guba (1981:79-80 cited in Babbie & Mouton, 2006:277-279) must answer the question of whether the findings can be used in another context. Moon, Brewer, Januchowski-Hartley, Adams and Blackman (2016:5) add that transferability is a statement of whether the research findings can be transferred to another group of people or another theoretical, cultural or empirical context. The researcher's findings from this study could be applied to other contexts and situations. Chinese organisations could benefit from the insights gained from this study.

Dependability refers to the notion that if evidence can be repeated using the same respondents in a similar setting, the findings ought to be similar (Lincoln & Guba, 1985). In addition, dependability refers to the consistency and reliability of the research findings and the extent to which research steps are documented, allowing external individuals to be able to follow the research logic, audit, and critique the research process (Sandelowski, 1986; Polit & Beck, 2006; Streubert, 2007). In this study, dependability was achieved by providing detailed reporting of the methodology and methods utilised to allow the reader to assess the degree to which appropriate research techniques were followed. Furthermore, the researcher coded and recoded the data to ensure that the same themes and subthemes re-emerged.

Confirmability is the extent to which the findings are the focal point of the inquiry and not based on the biased viewpoint of the researcher, despite the researcher having to interpret the data (Lincoln & Guba,1985 cited in Babbie & Mouton, 2006:276; Baxter & Eyles, 1997). Confirmability in this qualitative study was achieved by reporting findings accurately and not allowing the researcher's own viewpoint to influence the interpretation of the data.

4.7. ETHICAL CONSIDERATIONS

According to Fouka and Mantzorou (2011:4) the key ethical considerations to observe when conducting research are informed consent, do not harm, respect anonymity, confidentiality, and respect privacy. Lichtman (2014) advises that truthfulness and accuracy in analysis and reporting data, and establishing rapport and friendships are critical.
During the data collection phase, respondents were assured that all data provided would only be used for research purposes and that they could withdraw from the research study at any stage. As previously noted, consent was obtained from the managing directors of the two organisations as well as the verbal and written consent of the respondents to participate in this study. Personal sensitive information provided by the respondents was treated as confidential and was not reported on in the finding's chapters. The identity of each respondent was coded with a number. The conversations between respondents and interviewer were conducted in a private space and it was agreed that the names of the organisations would not be mentioned or published without the organisations' expressed permission.

As outlined in chapter 1 section 4 the data collected complied with the research ethics requirements of the Rhodes University Ethics Standards Handbook and approved by the Department of Management's Human Research Ethics Committee. Permission to use this data that was collected under the auspices of the comprehensive international research project was given to the researcher by the same Human Research Ethics Committee.

The data was prepared, analysed and interpreted in an ethical manner and followed the qualitative quality criterion at all stages of the research. Precision and integrity were the key drivers of this research. Furthermore, the data collected has been stored by Professor L Louw in the Department of Management at Rhodes University and will be retained for a period of at least five years. The data was deleted from the research associate's laptop and likewise from the researcher's laptop.

Finally, it is deemed necessary to explain why this study is being completed in 2021. The researcher registered for her Master's degree in 2016. However, owing to financial constraints, working full time and health challenges caused by lupus, the researcher experienced challenges in completing this study within a two year duration. After re-registering in 2020, she was resolute in her desire to complete her studies. Despite the delay in reporting on the data that was previously collected, the data is nonetheless valuable to this study and a contribution towards the body of knowledge in cross-cultural research and for the comprehensive international research project.

4.8. SUMMARY

Chapter 4 explored the research design and methodology, the research paradigms and research methods used in this study. Data collection and analysis, as well as the ethical research considerations were also detailed. The overall study adopted a qualitative research methodology and primary data was gathered through interviews conducted with open-ended questions to allow for richness of data.

Chapter 5 will highlight and discuss the findings of the research of the selected Chinese organisations operating in Kenya in accordance with the Burke-Litwin model.

CHAPTER 5
FINDINGS: CHINESE AND KENYAN EMPLOYEE VIEWS

5.1. INTRODUCTION

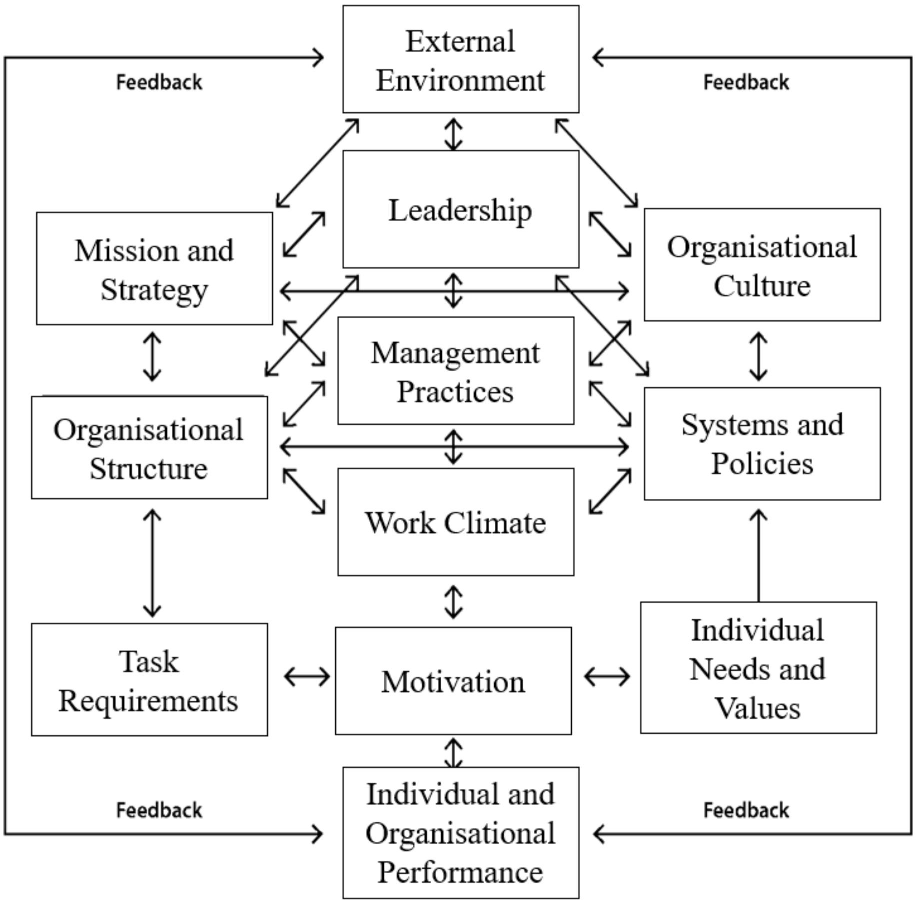
Chapter 5 presents the findings of the research into the views of employees of selected Chinese organisations operating in Kenya who specialise in importing and exporting various products as mentioned in Chapter 4. In this chapter, the findings are presented pertaining to the dimensions of the Burke-Litwin model, as introduced in Chapters 1 and 2 and discussed in Chapter 3. These dimensions are the following: external environment, transformational dimensions (including leadership or management, mission and strategy and organisational culture), and transactional dimensions (including management practices, organisational structure, systems [policies and procedures], motivation, work climate, task requirements and individual skills and abilities). The findings in this chapter are based on the data collected using semi-structured and in-depth interviews with 17 respondents who occupy various roles at different job levels, as discussed in Chapter 4. The interview guide is shown in Annexure A and Annexure B.

This chapter responds to the first objective of this research highlighted in Chapter 1, namely "to describe the viewpoints of the Chinese and Kenyan employees of the 12 organisational effectiveness dimensions for selected Chinese organisations operating in Kenya". Accordingly, this chapter will present and discuss the findings in terms of the 12 Burke-Litwin model dimensions from the viewpoint of both the Kenyan and Chinese employees. Chapter 6 will detail the similarities in viewpoints of the Kenyan and Chinese employees that emerge from the findings in the present chapter.

In this chapter, the qualitative findings are supported by literature, and by words, phrases and sentences from quotations by the respondents themselves during the recorded interviews. This in turn increases the credibility and validity of the study (Struwig & Stead, 2013:136; Collis & Hussey, 2009:104, 306). Verbatim quotations are displayed in italics while square brackets encase additional text added by the researcher to enhance understanding of the quotations.

The remainder of this chapter is divided into three sections. The demographic information of the participants will be provided in section 5.2. Section 5.3 responds to the first research objective. Some of the dimensions of the Burke-Litwin model are combined where themes overlap. The combined dimensions are management practices and systems [policies and procedures], individual needs and values and organisational performance. Organisational performance is incorporated into each dimension because it is the output of each dimension. To conclude, section 5.4 presents a synopsis of the chapter. Figure 5.1 below (which repeats Figure 2.6) illustrates the research model that will be used to analyse the findings for this chapter.

Figure 5.1: Burke-Litwin model



(Source: Burke & Litwin model, 1992)

5.2. DEMOGRAPHIC INFORMATION OF RESPONDENTS

The biographical information of the respondents is shown in Table 5.1 and categorised according to the respondent's position in the organisation, their nationality or mother tongue, their gender, job description, age and the number of months worked in the organisation.

As seen in Table 5.1 below, 17 employees were chosen for this study who work at various job levels within the organisation. Twelve of the respondents are Kenyan. The five Chinese respondents occupy more senior roles, along with one Indian from Kenya. Eleven respondents represent employees at the non-managerial level, denoted by "R" and the six at managerial level are denoted by “M”. The codes of respondents from organisation A end in an “A”; likewise, those from organisation B end in “B”. The selected organisations are analysed together owing to huge overlaps in the themes and findings.

Further elaboration on the demographic information of the respondents is provided in the subsequent sections.

Table 5.1: Demographic information of respondents

[R: Respondent Kenyan Employee; M: Respondent Chinese Manager; A: Organisation A; B: Organisation B]

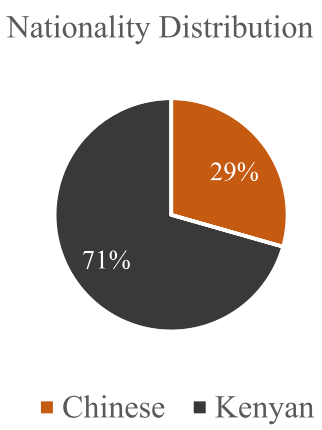
Respondent code	Nationality	Gender	Job description	Age	Years working for company
R1B	Kenyan	Male	Lift operator	-	12 months
R2B	Kenyan	Female	Lift operator	-	-
R3B	Kenyan	Male	Carpenter	29	16 months
R4B	Kenyan	Male	Lift operator	19	3 months
R5B	Kenyan	Male	Safety net officer	28	32 months
R6B	Kenyan	Male	Safety officer	30	19 months
R7A	Kenyan	Female	Customer care representative	24	12 months
R8A	Kenyan	Male	Warehouse keeper	22	36 months
R9A	Kenyan	Male	Logistics coordinator/ controller	35	-
R10A	Kenyan	-	Accounting assistant to Chinese manager	26	12 months
R11A	Kenyan	Female	Building material marketing manager assistant	-	8 months
M1B	Chinese	Male	Project manager	-	24 months
M2B	Chinese	Male	Technical manager	-	12 months
M3B	Chinese	Male	Production manager	-	24 months
M4A	Chinese	Male	Chief sales manager	26-27	36 months
M5A	Indian from Kenya	-	Sales manager	35	10 Months
M6A	Chinese	-	Chief warehouse manager	-	36 months

(Source: Researcher’s construction)

5.2.1. Nationality distribution

The research sample was comprised of 29% (n=5) Chinese and 71% (n=12) Kenyans as depicted in Figure 5.2. The organisation is dominated by Kenyan employees; therefore, more Kenyan than Chinese employees were interviewed. While the Kenyan respondents were from the non-managerial level, the Chinese respondents were from the managerial level including one Indian Kenyan manager.

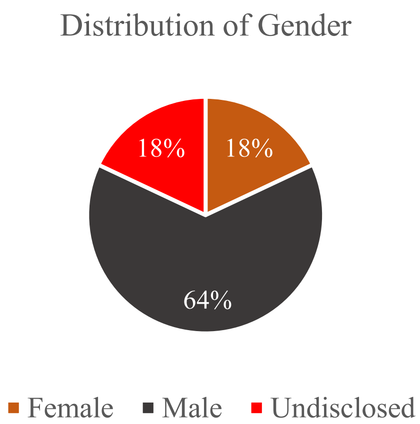
Figure 5.2: Nationality distribution



5.2.2. Distribution of gender

The research sample comprised 64% (n=11) males, 18% (n=3) females and 18% (n=3) undisclosed respondents as depicted in Figure 5.3. This is appropriate for the male-dominated manufacturing industry, with females slowly entering the sector. However they are still facing various challenges with career progression and entrance into the industry (Mutisya, 2010:3-5).

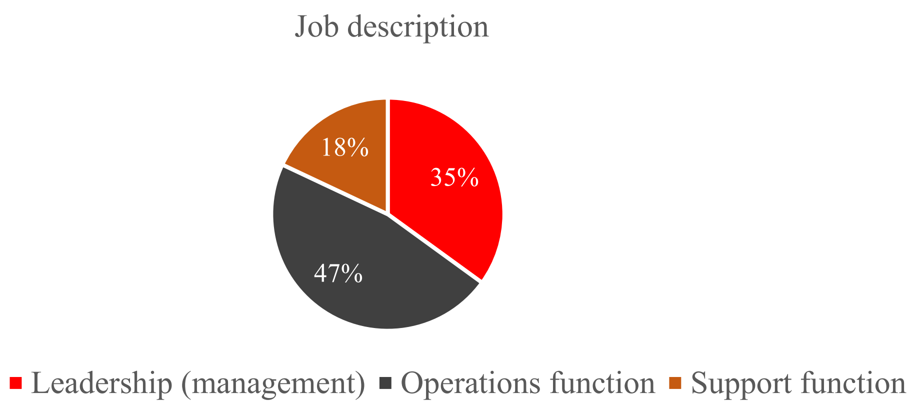
Figure 5.3: Distribution of gender



5.2.3. Job description

As depicted in Figure 5.4 the research sample comprised 35% (n=6) employees in leadership (management) positions, and 47% (n=8) in the operations function, as lift operators, carpenters, safety net officers and safety officers. According to Sanders (2013), the operations function is focused on the creation of goods and services and includes planning, organising, coordinating, and controlling all the resources required to produce an organisation's products and services. In addition, the sample included 18% (n=3) of employees in the support function, as customer care representatives, accounting assistants, building material and marketing manager assistants. Support function staff are responsible for executing organisational activities that facilitate the core organisation's functions (Eurostat statistics, 2013).

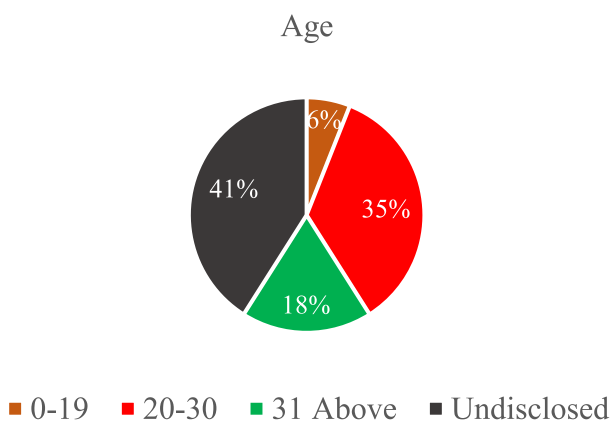
Figure 5.4: Job description



5.2.4. Age

The research sample had 6% (n=1) teenage employee, 35% (n=6) employees between the ages of 20 and 30, 18% (n=3) employees who were above 30 years and 41% (n=7) who decided not to disclose their age as depicted in Figure 5.5.

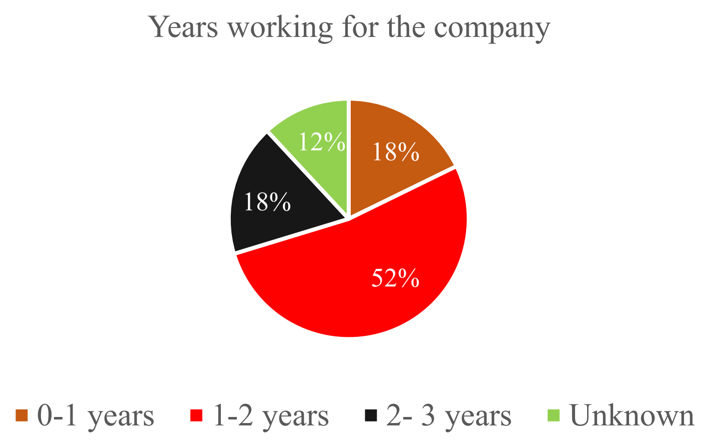
Figure 5.5: Age



5.2.5. Years working for the organisation

The research sample comprised 18% (n=3) employees with one year or less work experience in the organisation, 52% (n=9) with 1–2 years' experience, 18% (n=3) with 2–3 years' experience and 11.8% (n=2) who did not disclose this information. Approximately 53% of employees work for 1–2 years.

Figure 5.6: Years working for the organisation



The following section examines Chinese and Kenyan viewpoints in terms of organisational effectiveness dimensions. Direct quotations have been incorporated to enhance and provide depth to the study.

5.3. CHINESE AND KENYAN VIEWPOINTS IN TERMS OF THE ORGANISATIONAL EFFECTIVENESS DIMENSIONS

The following section presents the findings regarding various viewpoints of Chinese and Kenyan employees categorised according to the Burke-Litwin dimensions, as shown in the research model (see Figure 5.1). To provide clarity on the use of the concept "employees" in this study, the viewpoints of the Kenyan employees represent Kenyan employees who are appointed in non-managerial positions with the exception of one Kenyan manager who is Indian. The views of the Chinese employees represent Chinese employees who are in managerial positions.

5.3.1. External environment

Chinese organisations operating in Kenya have a goal to fulfil. According to Xinhua (2019), the Chinese government has established approximately 400 Chinese organisations in Kenya, creating thousands of jobs for the community. Kenya's 2030 vision is to secure development of the country and improve economic performance; this support has been provided by China (McDonnell, 2013). Chinese and Kenyan employees agree that Chinese organisations operating in Kenya are modernising the country and creating jobs. However, external institutions such as trade unions favour Kenyans employees and create a few barriers for Chinese management.

5.3.1.1. Chinese and the Kenyan Indian employees' views concerning Kenyan employees

The findings in this section will be presented according to the following themes: trade unions (labour laws) and governmental laws on Chinese organisations, local competition, pollution around organisational operating areas, and employment.

Chinese organisations operating in Kenya import 70% of their goods from China or overseas countries (M5A). The Kenyan and Chinese governments have strong relations and it is anticipated that 500 more organisations will be established in Kenya with the Chinese organisations taking over the local market (M5A). This will create jobs and contribute towards Kenya's 2030 vision.

Despite creating employment and increasing Chinese organisations footprint in Kenya, China still faces cultural constraints with the local people. Chinese manager M4A expressed his view, agreeing with Kenyan employees that Chinese managers should try to understand local employees. M4A has made the effort to understand local employees by engaging with them and he is now able to identify whether they are being honest or dishonest.

On the other hand, Chinese management explained how they handle disputes with Kenyan employees. If a dispute arises, external role players such as trade unions or labour organisations are invited to assist with resolving the dispute. M1B stated that the labour department and the trade union always favour the local employees. Furthermore, they blackmail management while circumventing local employees.

"Yes, that is what we are afraid of. People from the labour department or the union will always favour their side. But what will frequently happen is that they will cheat the workers while blackmailing us." (M1B)

Kenyan employees are heavily protected by the local labour law and the Chinese managers have little to no power (M4A). Kenyan employees pay a membership fee to be part of the union in their own capacity (M2B). However, the unions cause conflict at both ends by bribing management to reduce the demands of the employees and they also bribe the employees that they are representing (M1B). Furthermore, settlement agreements are seldom adhered to. The union is fragmented.

"Yes, there are membership fees." (M2B)

"No, what they do is 'rub mud on both sides'. So, they will come to us and say, 'If you give us money, we will reduce the workers' demands'. And then they will demand bribes from the workers for negotiating on their behalf. One of our workers revealed to us that one time, a union official demanded a hundred shilling from every member for talking to us. So, you can imagine how much that is once the amounts are added up. After that, the official demanded a bribe from us as well, for lowering the settlement." (M1B)

"Additionally, the settlement agreements are not always adhered to. They themselves are not united. Sometimes as soon as they walk out of the door, there will already be disagreements." (M2B)

Trade unions are designed to act on behalf of their members and provide employees with a voice while holding the organisation accountable. Furthermore, trade unions exercise bargaining and negotiation power between the employee and the employer (Hendy & Ewing, 2017).

According to Sashoo (2012), trade unions in Kenya ought to:

- Improve the terms and conditions of employment
- Fight for improved physical environment of the workplace
- Enhance security of employment and income
- Improve social security and services.
- Provide a fair share of the national income diversification methods.
- Exercise industrial democracy
- Have a voice in the government.
- Exercise public control and planning of industry.

In China, based on M2B's views, there are rarely any disputes that arise between management and unions.

"Yes, very rare." (M2B)

According to the China Labour Bulletin (2008), if any disputes arise, the Chinese government is responsible for enforcing labour laws ensuring that employees' rights are protected. M6A commented that if Africa had labour markets or recruitment agencies to employ individuals like

China has, where individuals can come to look for potential individuals to employ, then it would be a good opportunity for collaboration between Kenyan and Chinese employees.

The Chinese have encountered further external issues such as sourcing equipment and competition from other Chinese organisations operating in Kenya. The Chinese organisations in the study purchase their equipment from either Britain, the United States of America or China and import into African countries. The main objective is to source as much equipment as possible from China. However, that is not always the case and Chinese organisations are sometimes forced to source equipment from Britain, Japan or Germany which is a complex task (M2B, M5A, M6A).

"Perhaps that is another issue. With our company, we will sometimes buy from Britain, sometimes from the U.S., and sometimes from China. We try and get as many Chinese products as possible, but sometimes we are forced to buy British, Japanese or German products, which makes it more complicated." (M2B)

The Kenyan local community has hindered some of the organisation's operations. The Kenyan community is often *"noisy"* and pollutes the environment. Chinese managers resolve such hindrances by using a *"friendly"* approach by circulating reminders, negotiating agreements with the community, but involving the government if the community is not receptive or friendly in responding to management (M2B).

*"Yes, occasionally. Issues like noise and waste are avoidable.
If they are friendly, they will issue reminders, or negotiate an agreement. If they are unfriendly, they will involve the government." (M2B)*

In addition, the discussion with government includes negotiations about penalties and future guarantees are outlined (M2B).

"We have talks with the government and negotiate things like penalties and make future guarantees. But it is not always so." (M2B)

As a result of hindrances and the unsafe environment within the Kenyan community, Chinese managers have opted to live in "*safer*", wealthier residential areas where there are police patrolling the streets, whereas locals live in poorer areas (M5A).

Overall, China is more developed than Kenya and Chinese organisations operating in Kenya respect labour laws pertaining to minimum wage, overtime and vacation rights (M2B). Furthermore, Chinese management ensures that they are safe along with their Kenyan employees (M5A).

"Because management is more developed in China. There are few very large enterprises, or even large construction projects, here." (M2B)

5.3.1.2. Kenyan employees' views concerning Chinese employees

The findings in this section are reported on according to the themes of employment, investment, community engagement and socioeconomic challenges faced by the community.

According to R1B and R2B, Chinese organisations operating in Kenya are creating employment, boosting the country's economy and impacting the country in a positive manner. It is evident that the creation of jobs by Chinese organisations has been predominantly tailored to the youth and has encouraged the youth to refrain from illegal activities to engage in contributing to the Kenyan economy (R8A). According Plecher (2020), the unemployment rate in Kenya has steadily declined to 2.64% because Kenya is recovering from the financial crisis, which has prompted more locals to take on new jobs at a rapid rate, forcing employers to increase wages, which results in higher employment.

Despite Chinese organisations creating employment, some employees in the study emphasised the importance of communication between Chinese organisations and Kenyan organisations and communities. R4B and R5B were of the view that Chinese organisations operating in Kenya do not engage with the local community at a micro level, although they work closely with local Kenyan organisations for subcontracting and procurement purposes. R4B, R5B and R6B agreed with R1B and R2B that Chinese organisations are contributing to the modernisation and effectiveness of Africa at a macro level through job and skill creation. It is evident that modern buildings have been built in Nairobi by the Chinese, consequently improving Kenyan infrastructure (R6B). R7A encouraged Chinese organisations to contribute more towards Kenyan infrastructure by building roads. These positive external environmental actions conducted by the Chinese are contributing towards positive organisational effectiveness.

"We would not be having modern buildings here in Nairobi if [it] *wasn't for the Chinese, because most of our contractors are … they lack that … what is it called? The innovation and things like that. They are very slow." (R6B)*

According to R5B China is aiding Kenya by trying to eradicate poverty in Africa, and that China is developing Africa faster than any Western or Middle East organisation (R5B).

"Out the poverty, they are trying to eliminate the poverty in Africa, by they are creating a lot of jobs compared to another company from another continent to another different colours, so they trying to, eh, create a better economy in Africa, they are developing Africa with faster than the other company from another Western or Middle East Company." (R5B)

According to R6B, it is easy for Chinese organisations to operate in Kenya and modernise Africa, even though there is very little engagement between local Kenyan organisations and Chinese organisations. R7A and R10A commented that it is imperative for Chinese organisations to engage with the local community because they are the primary consumers in the market.

"We sell to the local people, the local market." (R7A)

It is evident that Chinese organisations have increased their geographic footprint in Kenya and are employing some Africans in managerial roles (R8A). Their increase presence has also come at a cost with competition from other organisations offering competitive prices (R9A).

Overall, the Kenyan employees in this study view the external environment from a socioeconomic perspective. China is contributing towards modernising Africa and Kenya respectively by boosting the economy in tackling socio-political and economic issues such as poverty, unemployment and improving the country's infrastructure. The Kenyan employees suggested that Chinese organisations operating in Kenya ought to engage with the local community. However, to ensure that Chinese organisations operating in Kenya are effective and successful, management also needs to work hand in hand with trade unions who have created many barriers for Chinese organisations.

5.3.2. Vision, mission and strategy

The mission of an organisation highlights its reason for existence and the strategy outlines how the mission will be achieved (Burke-Litwin, 1992). Organisational strategy is the vehicle for executing the mission. Furthermore, strategy is formulated to achieve an organisational purpose; therefore, altering the strategic intent will result in a change in strategy (Bhatti, 2011:54).

5.3.2.1. Chinese and the Kenyan Indian employees' views regarding the Kenyan employees

The findings in this section are reported on according to the themes of mitigating communication barriers, upliftment and recognition of employees, and training and development.

Chinese management has adopted an international Chinese framework in which the strategy outlines that the project manager should be at the top of the hierarchy followed by the product manager, then the technical manager and finally the secretary. The secretary is usually hired locally to assist in bridging the communication barrier. Furthermore, the organisation employs individuals to study Mandarin in China to assist with translations, which makes it easier to operate in Kenya (M1B).

"Yes, that is the model that is used in most overseas Chinese businesses: a project manager, and then a production manager, a technical team, and a secretary. The secretary is usually hired locally, because they are able to communicate better." (M1B)

Chinese managers adopt a strategy of upliftment and incentive recognition. Training and development, increasing sales targets and providing large incentives for Kenyan employees is crucial to organisational effectiveness (M4A). M6A highlighted that there is an algorithm to strategy formulation. It is essential to consider the products circulating in the market and the nature of the products because that governs the "business model" (M6A).

One hindrance to strategy formulation and implementation is Kenya's stringent governmental policies. The Chinese managers have accordingly adopted a strategy of upskilling Kenyan employees, improving their employment benefits, increasing their targets and compensation to drive organisation effectiveness and avoid disputes. This keeps employees satisfied (M4A).

5.3.2.2. Kenyan employees' views regarding the Chinese employees

These findings cover the following themes: communication challenges, strategic direction, learning and growth opportunities.

The strategy aids in outlining the direction of the organisation. However, the majority of Kenyan employees in the selected organisations are given little to no visibility on the direction of the organisation. It has been highlighted that Chinese management should take time to better understand and learn Kenyan "ideologies" to be better equipped in crafting a concrete mission and strategy.
It was highlighted by R5B that, in order for Chinese leaders to achieve their strategy or mission, they ought to formulate a strategy based on the findings of studying the people of Kenya from different regions and tribes to understand their "anthropology" (R5B).

"Their [Chinese managers] *problem first of all is to understand the African people which is … anthropology which is the culture you see, so if you understand my culture and the orientation in the certain communities, you know me ... Those people are different from say for Kenya, yeah, they are different from, eh, eastern Kenya they are different from cosmokin* [tribe] *so those people according to their tribes they bit different, so they have to learn where we go to site this people need like this." (R5B)*

For the strategy to supplement the mission, the Chinese organisations must begin with the basics of demolishing communication barriers, learning from the Kenyans, especially when it comes to matters of Kenyan politics, regulations, laws and most importantly laws centred on wages and working hours (R5B and R6B). The Chinese are encouraged to be well versed with the Kenyan community and adopt a strategy geared towards learning (R5B). R8A disclosed that there is no visibility to the strategic direction of the organisation. A handful of Kenyan employees believe Chinese management should learn Kenyan ideologies and incorporate that into their strategy formulation, but other employees are not aware of the strategy (R1B, R2B, R3B). R9A was very clear about the strategic direction of the organisation, explaining that Chinese organisations operating in Kenya adopt a strategy of increasing market share by comparing prices and replicating products similar to competitors in order to cater to their clientele base (R9A). To ensure organisation effectiveness, some managers adopt a strategy of rewarding employees with "bonuses" to meet organisational targets (R11A).

In general, most Kenyan employees are not fully knowledgeable about the organisations' mission and strategy; however, they are aware of their sales targets and work deliverables. Chinese managers on the other hand believe in uplifting their employees, providing incentives and adhering to the Kenyan governmental policies.

5.3.3. Leadership

In the Burke-Litwin model, culture influences leadership (Martins & Coetzee, 2009:146). Culture governs organisational behaviour and that greatly influences the rules, values and principles of the organisation and ultimately leadership (Martins & Coetzee, 2009:146). Kenyan and Chinese employees expressed diverse views about the type of leaders within their organisation. The leadership style varied from one manager to another. However, key attributes that were echoed by both Chinese and Kenyan employees were flexibility, work ethic and trust levels.

5.3.3.1. Chinese and the Kenyan Indian employees' viewpoints of the Kenyan employees

The findings in this section are discussed according to hierarchy, how communication flows though the organisation, trust challenges and cultural dynamics.

Chinese managers admitted that there have been cases where their leadership has been flawed.

"There are instances where we did not do things in the right way." (M1B)

For instance, M1B mentions that the Kenyan employees are usually not appointed into positions where they may make central decisions or decisions involving money. Furthermore, there is no Kenyan employee in the current project who has occupied a senior position in the project management department, because Chinese managers do not trust their Kenyan counterparts and delegating tasks to Kenyan assistants is not a viable option (M1B). M5A commented that as an individual, he prefers to solve challenges "together" with employees. This is because African leadership is focused on social impact, voluntary participation, serving and stewardship (Large, 2008:59), while Chinese leadership focus on discipline, authority, benevolence and moral integrity (Wu & Wang, 2012); consequently they still occupy senior positions.

"So we can just solve it together." (M5A)

"Actually, there was a time when I considered leaving my duties to one of my assistants. However, and then realised that it would not be workable. There is not anyone in that project who has worked in the very high position. However, when we require design consultations, we always approached local businesses. (M1B)

In addition, M1B admitted that they have not found a suitable Kenyan employee to occupy a senior position due to a mismatch between judgement and abilities.

At the moment, we have not yet discovered anyone suitable. Those who have the abilities do not have the right value judgements; those with the right value judgements happen to lack the necessary abilities. You can only use someone who fulfils both requirements." (M1B)

Chinese managers value trust within the organisation. The element of trust has created reservations from Chinese managers to relinquish control. The Kenyan Indian manager expressed his opinion that a leader ought to lead with the philosophy of togetherness which resembles the African culture. M1B stated that trust is accumulated over time and he had a great experience working with Tanzanian colleagues whom he highly trusted.

"So, I cannot trust him [Kenyan employee] *with managerial duties … I do want to say that when I was in Tanzania, I did have two African employees whom I trusted very much. The trust was accumulated over time." M1B*

Each work unit in Chinese organisations has a Chinese foreman leader who heads the unit. The leader works in conjunction with a Kenyan assistant to aid with bridging the communication gap. The Chinese leader ensures that he chooses someone he can trust and who is competent (M1B). M6A explained that the main reason Chinese managers lead projects or initiatives is because they work harder and can do the work of several people at once. Furthermore, when Kenyan employees are given a task, they do the minimum work required and always complain (M6A).

"A Chinese worker can sometimes do the work of several people. For example, with customer services, if you compare the number customers that a person handles, an employee in China can handle twenty people without problems; here, an employee can only handle a few people, and they do not always do so satisfactorily. They take between an hour to two hours for lunch. They are frequently late for work, with many excuses. The efficiency rate is not comparable to

a Chinese employee. Furthermore, when they see that the workload is about to become heavy, they will find excuses to miss work. These things are troublesome." (M6A)

The Chinese leaders lead with a philosophy of teamwork and little emphasis on leadership structure. M4A pointed out that communication is crucial and frequent personal conversations helped managers to discover employees who are "performing poorly" and guide them, to increase their work ethic and improve organisational performance.

"Philosophy emphasises more on teamwork rather than leadership structure. So, the power struggle is not a problem here." (M1B)

"Personal conversations are frequent, and I think quite important. When I discover that a certain employee is performing poorly, I will indicate this and try and find out the reasons behind it; so private conversations are important."(M4A)

5.3.3.2. Kenyan employees' views of the Chinese employees

The findings in this section cover the themes of hierarchy, culture, trust, and relationships.

According to R5B most of the Chinese managers lead in a friendly manner and only a few are "harsh" as per the evidence provided below:

"They are not so much harsh." (R5B)

"But, uh, one of them you see, one or three might be harsh you see" (R5B)

There was also an assertion that Chinese management "talk a lot" with very little action (R5B). Chinese managers are viewed as being autocratic because they provide instructions and highlight what needs to be done in the workplace (R5B). Chinese managers exude high-power distance scores of 80/100 (Hofstede Insights, 2018). This high-power distance score implies that decisions are made autocratically by a select group at the top of the organisation. In addition, there is very little resistance from lower level employees; decisions are made and enforced at a rapid rate (Hofstede, 2011:9; Khatri, 2009:1). Furthermore, the Chinese community is accepting of inequalities among people (Hofstede Insights, 2018). On the other hand, Kenya's power distance is lower than that of China's, scoring 70/100, indicating that Kenyans believe in the hierarchical autocratic organisational culture and structure (Hofstede Insights, 2018). The high-power distance is evident in the way the Chinese employees in this study lead the Kenyan employees. Chinese managers do not provide employees with a second chance if they make a mistake (R2B).

"If you mess up with him then they don't ... They are merciless. Okay, those people they don't give second chances". (R2B)

The Chinese have good management and leadership skills; however, as observed by R2B, they do not grant second chances if an error occurs (R1B). R2B believed that the relationship one has with one's manager (boss) is one-sided, being dependent on the manager.

"It can depend on the working relationship with your boss, but sometimes you can get a very nagging boss. And then want to quit the job yourself. So, it will depend with [on] *the working relationship with your boss. If he's cool, well for you. If he's not, maybe you can work in those conditions or opt to quit." (R2B)*

On the other hand, R7A had a different view. She found that Chinese leaders are very hardworking, scoring ten out of ten, whereas Kenyan leaders score nine out of ten, despite the different leadership traits. Furthermore, it is evident that the Kenyan employees can learn from Chinese employees' work ethic and management skills.

"African management what they can learn from Chinese management if they will [is their] *work ethic. Right now, I can say that Chinese people are very focused into work." (R7A)*

In addition, the relationship between the supervisor and the employee is dependent on the level of trust (R2B). Craig (2017) highlights that trust is vital in the workplace and acts as a great social lubricant; without trust, it is difficult to achieve results. R4B commented that management is accommodating and provides Kenyan workers with opportunities to attend events.

"I'm just giving an example, whenever there is a traditional, a traditional festival they understand, they give us time." (R4B)

The ability of Chinese leaders to be flexible and open minded has resulted in their employees expressing their suggestions and complaints to management (R11A). Additionally, Chinese managers are highly cooperative, and they try to understand their Kenyan employees and consider their feelings by exercising compassion (R8A, R11A).

"He is a very good boss. He is very understanding and he listens to our pleas and we have an open mind with him that we are able to bring up suggestions, and if we have any complaints we are able to bring up to him without him not listening to us ." (R11A)

Chinese managers are fully immersed in their leadership role, tasks and ensure that employees are effective. This is demonstrated in the lift operator department. The manager only comes around to inspect between two and four times a day and provides employees flexibility to operate the machinery (R2B). Chinese management generally inspect the organisation to ensure that employees are contributing to organisational effectiveness (R6B). R6B further expressed the opinion that management is very organised and therefore they are perceived as being strict (R6B). Chinese management key attributes are hard work, flexibility and compassion (R7A, R8A, R11A).

"Chinese people are very focused into work but it's a very good thing because their work ethic is like two hundred per cent." (R7A)
"Yes, I always feel happy because my managers are always cooperative and also, they understand you." (R8A)

The Chinese work hard and are underpinned by Confucianism (Wang, 2018). Hout and Michael (2014) elaborate that the Chinese approach to management is to be responsive and flexible, to improvise and to exercise speed in their activities, tasks and dealing with employees.

In sum, Chinese and Kenyan employees shared positive and negative views about each other. Kenyan employees can learn from Chinese employees. It is also important for Chinese employees to understand Kenyan and African leadership. The key challenge between Chinese and Kenyans is one of trust.

5.3.4. Organisational culture

Culture has been a dominant theme in the study and has had an impact on all Burke-Litwin dimensions discussed. Chinese and Kenyan employee actions are strongly influenced by culture. Chinese organisations operating in Kenya adopt a Confucian culture that promotes fair working conditions, motivating employees through fairness and equitable wages (Jackson, Louw & Zhao, 2013:2527). On the other hand, Kenyans subscribe to Harambee when conducting business (Expat Arrivals Kenya Guide, 2015). Confucianism and Harambee share some similar traits of cohesiveness and fairness.

Kenyan employees expressed conflicting views. Some employees live according to Christian values and had stated that management lacks consideration for these values. However, a handful of Kenyan employees admired the Chinese work ethic to achieve organisational effectiveness. Chinese managers on the other hand expressed high or large power distance and long-term orientation, promoting a pragmatic culture and subordinate-superior relationship.

5.3.4.1. Chinese and the Kenyan Indian employees' views regarding Kenyan employees

This section's findings will be reported according to the following themes: culture of dishonesty, religious beliefs, cultural dynamics and external environment influence.

Religion is not a focus for Chinese management, whereas honesty is valued. M1B and M4A voiced that there is a culture of dishonesty and conflict of interests in the current organisations, hence a lack of trust. It is evident that "trust and reliability" is a major concern (M4A). And as mentioned earlier, M1B commented that trust is "accumulated over time".

"Deep lying [dishonesty] *problem and a conflict of interest. This is why I cannot employ them with complete trust, even though they are capable." (M1B)*

M1B and M2B emphasised the culture of cohesiveness and working together in the organisation. Ip (2009 cited in Jackson, Louw & Zhao, 2013:2526-2527) further highlights that Chinese organisations' are governed by Confucian, underpinned by "ren- yi-li. This is echoed by R11A, who believed that Chinese employees embody the notion of unity and togetherness in their activities.

"Chinese boss won't come alone. They all come together. So, you find they all come together in one car, oh they love their lunch. ... Uhm, I think their togetherness, it's quite unique ... So, I would say their togetherness is quite unique because they do that everyday Monday to Saturday" (R11A)

Despite this, M1B mentioned that the Chinese culture greatly differs from Kenyan culture. He noted that the Kenyan and Chinese belief systems are different. Chinese believe in overtime while Kenyans adopt a more Western approach with a philosophy that "time is efficiency". R3B also stated that a Western organisation better understands Kenyan employees than a Chinese organisation does.

"There is a huge difference in beliefs. As you know, there is a saying by Deng Xiaoping that 'time is efficiency'. That is why we believe in overtime. Overtime and higher efficiency are habitually implemented. For the locals, who endorse the Western view, what they believe is that one, social welfare payments are good, and two, working overtime is not good. Here, it is difficult to implement overtime schedules. For the lower level employees who need the money, it is easier to convince them to work overtime. However, it is very difficult to convince anyone above the low-level employees to do so." (M1B)

M1B and M6A explained that Kenyans usually reserve their weekends for going to church while the Chinese would prefer that the Kenyan employees work overtime to improve production and to be ahead of local competitors. In addition, Chinese management believes that Kenyan employees' value "enjoyment of life over work" and expect them to work on Sundays. For Chinese management, time is money – which translates into efficiency.

"The problem is in the difference in beliefs, you see. For the people here, Saturdays and Sundays are reserved for church; but the Chinese companies very often want the workers to work a little bit overtime on the weekends, in order to improve production progress. You have to understand that the reason why the Chinese businesses have been able to overtake the local competitors is firstly, speed, and secondly, low prices. 'Speed is efficiency', and then 'efficiency is money'. (M1B)

The Chinese rationale behind working excessively and overtime is a product of their culture. Chinese employees have the perception that they must work longer hours than their counterparts from the more developed countries, such as the United Kingdom and the United States. This is because China's production efficiency still lingers far behind that of United Kingdom and United States and China is at a developmental stage where it requires them to increase gross domestic product (GDP) growth and total production (Phillips, 2015).

Another cultural difference between the Kenyan and Chinese employee value systems is that Chinese believe in saving money and providing for their families while Kenyans usually "borrow" money (M1B). This alludes to Hofstede's (2011:8) theory of long-term versus short-term orientation, which indicates that the choice of focus for individuals' efforts is based on a future or a current view. Chinese have a long-term orientation for planning while the Kenyans have a short-term orientation for planning ahead.

"*But it does come down to the difference in beliefs. The Chinese people here believe in saving money and providing for families. One thing that you always witness with the locals is borrowing money. For example, if they receive their salaries today, you will see some people already asking us to borrow money the next day." (M1B)*

According to Ruiters (2018), China has a stringent saving culture with most saving attributed to household savings. In 2017 alone, China accounted for approximately a quarter of the world's gross national savings with 25% attributed to personal savings and 46% to GDP (Ruiters, 2018).

5.3.4.2. Kenyan employees' views concerning Chinese employees

This section reports findings according to the themes of work ethic, religious beliefs, trust levels and learning.

Most Kenyan residents are Christian making up 85.5% of the population (Protestant 33.4%, Catholic 20.6%, Evangelical 20.4%, African Instituted Churches 7%, other Christian 4.1%), Muslim 10.9%, other 1.8%, unclassified 1.6% and 0.2% didn't know or preferred not to disclose (Charting Economy, 2021: 5). The majority of Kenyan employees (at non-managerial level) are Christians while the Chinese, at the managerial level, do not share this value system (R2B). This causes conflict between Chinese management and Kenyan non-managerial employees because the Chinese lack religious and cultural consideration (R1B). R8A expressed the view that a large population of Chinese employees in the organisation were not religious. He knew of only one Chinese employee who was a Christian with similar religious views in the organisation (R8A). The Indian manager residing in Kenya made no comment about religion or religious practices.

According to R1B and R2B, the lack of religious and cultural consideration can be attributed to the fact that the Chinese are influenced by Confucianism, Buddhism and Shintoism rather than Christianity (, 2012:39), which creates religious and philosophical cultural differences between Kenyans and Chinese. Kenyan employees stated that they must work on a Sunday and have to request for permission to pray, which conflicted with their religious and cultural beliefs (R1B, R2B). The Kenyan employees described their perspective of life on a Sunday as follows:

"They need to know that Sunday for us is not a working day, and if it is, until to a certain time and then we left." (R2B)

"On Sunday I will be sleeping, or I will be going to church." (R7A)

"There are those who go for their services on Saturday and others on Sunday, but they don't give us that chance." (R1B)

In spite of R1B and R2B comments, R8A observed that Chinese management has learnt to understand the local Kenyan culture by respecting Kenyan holidays and understanding their significance. But R5B noted that Chinese employees do not understand local culture and lack understanding of African culture, and that language is also a challenge.

"Of course, I can say Americans started learning African culture since in memory, but Chinese they started learning English there ten years, fifteen years ago." (R5B)

"When a disagreement arose due to Americans' unfamiliarity with situations in China, many Chinese employees said they would try to persuade their American supervisors or co-workers to conform to the Chinese standards" (Yuan, 2010:304). For this reason, Chinese employees try to persuade non-Chinese employees to conform to their customs. Furthermore, during recent years, Chinese individuals who have migrated to Africa firmly uphold their cultural beliefs and customs (NFOnline, 2017). This emphasises the notion of conflicting religious and cultural beliefs between Kenyans and Chinese employees (R1B, R2B). It is advised that Chinese management should learn about the Kenyan culture in order to respect and understand Kenyan culture (R4B). Fusing Chinese culture and Kenyan culture is not ideal (R4B), however Kenyan employees are expected to learn and absorb the Chinese organisational culture very quickly (R5B).

Overall, R4B had a different perspective from his colleagues and viewed Chinese culture in a positive light. He had found that Chinese management understands the local culture and allows them to take time off for traditional ceremonies. Similarly, R7A applauded Chinese management culture. She expressed her belief that Kenyans are lazy and should adopt a few practices from Chinese management such as their hard work ethic and working throughout the weekend.

"African management what they can learn from Chinese management is they will [their] *work ethic. Right now, I can say that Chinese people are very focused into work but it's a very good*

thing because their work ethic is like two hundred per cent. And for the African people, basically we tend to be lazy and we tend not to be as hardworking as the Chinese people. The Chinese they work at home, they work here at work. They work on Sundays." (R7A)

R6B and R7A acknowledged that the Chinese understand local culture to a certain extent and commented that the Chinese were putting some effort into understanding local culture, while Kenyans are also trying to understand Chinese culture.

"When we come together, they are also eager to learn about our culture as we are eager to learn about their culture. But as I said, with communication things [we] *will learn much easier." (R6B)*

"Some of our Chinese managers [are] *trying to know the language; trying to speak in Swahili. Not fluently but they can speak one in few, few words. They can try to incorporate in a sentence, so I think they are trying." (R7A)*

Overall M5A, R7A and R3B echoed positive sentiments about Chinese management culture and encouraged Kenyan employees to learn from the Chinese ethos of cohesiveness and to foster a culture of constant learning in the organisation.

5.3.5. Organisational structure

Organisations strive to be effective. To attain organisational effectiveness it is imperative that management clearly understands the structure of the organisation (Gibson, et al., 2009:12). It appears that Chinese organisations operating in Kenya adopt a hierarchical structure where management makes decisions and cascades communication down the organisation. A top-down approach is embodied with very little communication reverting from lower level employees back to management. Both Chinese and Kenyan employees have experienced communication barriers and have had to make contingencies to engage with each other. The communication barriers have been attributed to the different cultural backgrounds.

5.3.5.1. Chinese and the Kenyan Indian employees' views regarding Kenyan employees

The findings in this section will be reported on according to the following themes: hierarchy in organisational structure, communication channels, barriers in understanding language and communication, working in teams and accountability.

Position and authority are very important to the Chinese managers. Assistants have no authority to agree on pricing matters (M1B). The manager makes the final decision; however, if a non-manager proves that he is working for the best interests of the organisation, then there is room for a non-manager to gain authority.

"They said that the price could not be changed because it had been agreed to by my assistant. This reflects a deep problem, which is that he [the assistant] *had no authority to agree to the price." (M1B)*

"But I am only reserving the final say in matters because he makes problematic value judgements. If he wants to have final authority, then he must prove that he is working in the company's best interests, and not his own." (M1B)

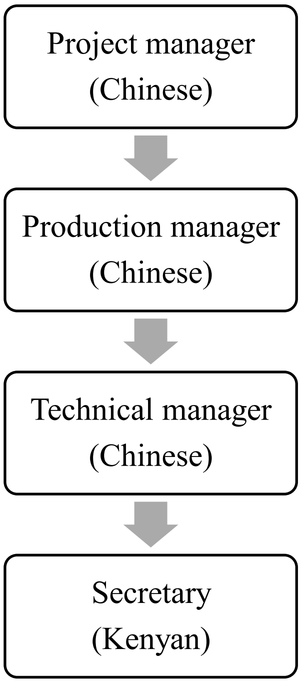
Each team or department has a Chinese senior manager, and, in some departments, the Chinese manager has a Kenyan employee who will provide feedback to the manager (M4A, M5A). The manager works in conjunction with a Kenyan assistant who has been part of the organisation for a long period who can assist with communication (M1B and M4A).

"Each section is headed by a Chinese [manager]. *Because of the language barrier, the* [manager] *will usually select an African assistant who has been at the factory for a long time, and who is competent and honest." (M1B)*

As mentioned previously, communication is a constant barrier for management. According to M6A, owing to cultural differences, Chinese and Kenyan communication is not effectively relayed from both sides resulting in misunderstandings.

The structure of the managerial level, according to M1B, is shown below in Figure 5.7.

Figure 5.7: Chinese organisational structure for manufacturing industry



(Source: M1B)

There is cross-function collaboration between the technical team and the production manager. The production manager oversees the technical team's work and the project manager oversees both the technical and production manager's work (M1B, M2B).

"They would be under the authority of the production manager. There is some crossover with the technical side, maybe not administratively, but in practice." (M1B)
"You could say that the production manager and technical overseers are partners, although they are all supervised by the project manager." (M2B)

The Chinese manager operates on a philosophy of teamwork to eliminate the notion of power dynamics (M2B, M4A, M5A). This coincides with Hofstede's theory of collectivism (2011:11-12) which outlines that people in a "society are integrated into groups" creating a sense of belonging, loyalty, harmony and "we" consciousness, which amounts to the collectivist approach.

"Philosophy emphasises more on teamwork rather than leadership structure. So, the power struggle is not a problem here." (M2B)

5.3.5.2. Kenyan employees' views of the Chinese employees

The findings in this section centre on hierarchy in organisational structure, communication channels, barriers in understanding language and communication, working in teams and accountability.

Most Chinese organisations operating in Kenya employ more Kenyan employees than Chinese employees (R6B).

"The local they are a bit more." (R6B)

Top management is predominantly comprised of Chinese managers while the subcontractors and lower level employees (non-managers) are Kenyan (R1B, R7A, R10A). The Chinese management structure is highly flawed as it "reveals a lot of injustice" (R2B). The organisational structure does not allow for employees to voice concerns or requests as this will result in them being retrenched (R2B). Furthermore, Kenyan employees are not informed about key decisions and if they are, it is usually an afterthought by management (R7A).

"If you have a problem, you're like, who am I going to complain to? If you go to their office, they both say 'hi', talk their Chinese thing. You don't understand Chinese and then you're fired. So." (R2B)

There are no effective communication channels for the Kenyan employees to argue or raise concerns (R6B). This poses a severe communication barrier, hindering performance (R2B, R5B, R6B). Some managers must walk around with translators and only a few know Swahili (R5B, R11A).

"Because of – eh uhm, they lack the language, that have a language barrier first of all. Some of them who are new, they walk, they talk with their translators, so it is hard for them to understand also English is very far. So, if you cannot understand English you cannot understand them." (R5B)

R5B sympathises with the Chinese managers as he understands that it is difficult for "foreigners" to learn Swahili. Kenyan employees do not understand Chinese and Chinese managers do not understand the local language; therefore English is used to communicate with each other (R6B).

"*Ya they know Swahili, but Kiswahili is very hard to* [for a] *person who is a foreigner to understand my culture." (R5B)*

"You find that like when we're working the mode of communication, we don't understand Chinese, they don't understand our local language and the, the easiest way of communication is English. Not all of them understand English." (R6B)

R7A shares similar views to those of R5B. A few Chinese managers are trying to learn the local language (Swahili) and they are not fluent; however, they attempt to speak a few words (R7A, R11A).

"My boss has been in Kenya for a while now, so he has learnt to speak English and some words in Swahili he can actually hear and speak." (R11A)

As noted earlier, the structure of communication is top-down with management making all the decisions and employees are usually not informed about the decisions (R4B, R7A). R4B is the only employee who asserted that employees do not know who they report to: "*they don't know who their manager is"* (R4B).

Each division within the organisation has a "boss" (R1B) and the departments are divided into teams or individuals depending on the nature of the department (R2B, R4B, R6B). The safety net division works in teams of 13 individuals per team. (R5B). R7A and R11A perceive working in teams in a positive light. Working in teams helps to mitigate risk and to provide positive results (R7A). R11A commented that Kenyan non-managers learn a lot from their Chinese managers. The marketing and communication division works in teams of four in order to cater to the customer effectively (R7A).

"I think because we learn from our education that somebody who is happy, who is your manager, we love to be below him." (R11A)

In the safety department, Kenyan employees predominantly work individually and, in some cases, in teams (R6B).

"Teamwork sometimes, most of the time myself." (R6B)

Kenyan employees ensure that there is harmony and that the organisation is operating effectively without alerting the manager about issues that may arise. The fact that they are taking the liberty to resolve issues means that no one is laid off owing to a mistake. The Chinese managers are always present during operations so that they can hold someone accountable if an incident occurs (R5B). This encourages everyone to be accountable for their work. If a certain section of the organisation is not operating effectively, the managers can attribute it to an individual or a division. The Chinese manager inspects the work process from time to time but is not fully involved in the lift operator division (R4B).

"We work ah [as] *local people but sometimes our boss can join us just for inspection but ah* [and] *that's it." (R4B)*

5.3.6. Management practices and systems [policies and procedures]

Management practices have an impact on the systems and policies that are created within the organisation to enhance organisational performance. The linkage between management practices and systems [policies and procedures] is further outlined in Chapter 3 under 3.4.2.

5.3.6.1. Chinese and the Kenyan Indian employees' views concerning Kenyan employees

The findings in this section deal with the themes of incentive pay systems, reward and motivational factors and training and development.

Chinese managers hold different views to the Kenyans regarding management practices and organisational systems. One of the challenges that the Chinese managers are faced with is creating an incentive pay system for Kenyans. M1B explained that it would be difficult to "design" such a system for an entire project; however, the most plausible solution was to create one for mid-level managers or employees, because low-level employees already have individual performance "undertakings and contracts". Despite not having a formal system for incentives, there is a clear guideline on merits and demerits. If an employee makes an error, management deducts from their income and punishment is clearly outlined and cannot be affected by merits (M4A). M1B further elaborated that mistakes which occur in the production line can cause losses for the organisation, therefore every step in the procedure needs to be accurately executed to ensure organisational effectiveness.

"Mistakes from other side will cause large losses to the company." (M1B)
"When they make a mistake (for example, if they were rude to a customer), you must clearly point out the mistake. If you deduct [from] *someone's salary at the end of the month, you must clearly indicate why the deduction was made. The punishment was* [must] *be very clear and cannot be eroded by the merits." (M4A)*

According to M6A, it is beneficial to employ Chinese employees because they are diligent, willing to work overtime for less money and do not demand overtime pay, making it easier to implement the incentive system because they demand far less. Locals, on the other hand, have the opposite characteristics. Despite this challenge, one key attribute that is universal for Chinese and Kenyans is the zeal for training and development. M4A described training and development as a crucial procedure. Employees within the sales department obtain in-depth training in batches and some training is also deployed during day-to-day operations to upskill employees (M4A).

M2B highlighted the complexity of standardisation, specifically in terms of Chinese machinery. The Chinese have established their own standardised practice for repairing machinery whereas the Kenyans have not.

"This is very complicated issue. Not everything has been standardised here yet, as is the case in many African countries. China implemented its own standard, so that when it comes to repairing machinery, the sizes are universal. There was a story that a student here who learned the British standards had to work for a company that used German products, and he could not repair anything." (M2B)

Chinese managers place huge importance on production activities which affect cost saving and control production speed. In turn, if the project manager does his job correctly (systems and processes), problems will be pinpointed earlier (M1B).

"This is because production activities are extremely important – they can save costs and control production speed. On the other hand, the project manager's job is also vital. If he does his job correctly, then problems will be discovered on time." (M1B)

"That is why the incentive scheme is easier to implement at the basic levels. But to do this at the management level, from an efficiency point of view, you must have the company's support, and you need a better auditing method." (M1B)

5.3.6.2. Kenyan employees' views regarding Chinese employees

The findings in this section will be presented according to the themes of support structure for employees, human resource management, training and development, working conditions communication challenges and recruitment and selection.

The Chinese managers in this organisation do not provide adequate management support and lack consideration for Kenyan religious beliefs (R1B). Employees complained that they were being treated as incompetent by Chinese management (R2B). Despite this treatment from the Chinese managers, the Kenyan employees are of the opinion that it is better not to strike as strikes only benefit management and not the employees (R2B).

"The effect of those strikes, they benefit the company. The workers, cause … okay, I heard that if we strike, okay for a day or two. Okay for a day, they are supposed to pay on Monday to the company that's brought them here." (R2B)

The internal operations are flawed and there is no human resource manager to deal with human resource concerns. Furthermore, there is no formalised procedure to handle a grievance and if an issue is raised, the chances of being retrenched are high owing to communication barriers as reiterated by R2B.

In any company with the Chinese men there aren't human resource managers. And so, if you have a problem, you're like, who am I going to complain to? If you go to their office, they both say 'hi', talk their Chinese thing. You don't understand Chinese and then you're fired. So, like … Okay, they are doing good because they have given us a job but then you've got more problems than the good things." (R2B)

However, despite all this, R3B prefers working for the current organisation as opposed to previous Chinese organisations because management has given him a platform to advance his career and enhance his human capital. In other words, the Chinese organisation has implemented practices and systems to enhance human capital. Chinese management ensures that new employees are trained within the first month and employees who have been with the organisation for a long period are provided with optional training (R7A).

R5B expressed his opinion that the organisation provides good working conditions and management treats them well, but management does not care much about their safety as they lack pertinent protective gear for on-site operations. R5B continued, explaining that management highlights the importance of safety but very little is actually done on the matter.

Safety is not a focus for Chinese managers, but a "good" output of work is expected from employees despite the safety conditions (R8A). Furthermore, if employees face challenges based on their income, management rectifies it accordingly (R8A).

"They pay us, but they also adjust by giving us bonuses and if you do a good job, they give you something." (R8A)

Difficulties with communication is another concern that employees experience. The communication issues have forced employees to be silent and they have no platform or systems to defend themselves, they are fearful of being laid off (R6B). To counter communication barriers, R11A pointed out that their departmental practice is to have meetings every day in the morning to discuss any challenges that arose within the week. However, top management controls the entire decision-making process and sometimes fails to use communication channels, procedures or systems to communicate with employees on site (R4B).

"No, they are not informed." (R4B)

Management has implemented a suggestion box system where employees must fill in a form, which is processed by human resources to try to capture the voices of the employees (R11A). R11A also stated that there is no full visibility and there is no certainty if the employees' feedback is taken into account. R4B noted that there is no formalised recruitment and selection system or procedure.

"So, like me, you see, uhm … I was organised by my friend to join the job. So even I attend… I even don't know my manager." (R4B)

5.3.7. Work climate [organisational climate]

The organisational work climate sets the tone and atmosphere for employees. Kenyan employees expressed conflicting views about the organisations' work climate. Some Kenyan employees found that the work climate is hostile and is dependent on the Chinese manager's personality. Other Kenyan employees described the work climate as good; employees receive support from management and the working conditions are of a good standard. Chinese managers and the Kenyan Indian manager confirmed that the work climate was good; but that there were areas of improvement needed.

5.3.7.1. Chinese and the Kenyan Indian employees' views concerning Kenyan employees

The findings in this section cover morals, ethics, organisational atmosphere and cultural dynamics.

It was suggested by M1B that ethics were valued more than abilities within the workplace. He explained that if employees behave in an ethical manner then they can effectively apply their abilities. However, if employees have abilities but no moral compass or ethical behaviour, then they will not operate effectively.

"Ethics are more important than abilities. If you are ethical, then you can utilise your abilities; but if you only have abilities and no ethics, then you will not do things correctly." (M1B)

In the internal work environment, Chinese managers believe that they create good working conditions despite the challenges they face (M5A). The main challenge is the adherence to organisational rules by employees, who consider the rules "difficult". The work environment is suitable for young people to adapt to, and the organisation is less likely to recruit individuals with families (M6A).

"The environment is more suitable for young people to adapt. The realities are less likely to attract people who already have families. There are a number of factors." (M6A)

There is very little engagement outside the workplace between the Chinese and Kenyans (M1B). The main point of conversation within the work environment between the Kenyan and

Chinese employees is local politics, culture, employees share jokes about salary raises and the Chinese and Kenyans eat together (M1B).

"*We talk about things like local politics, culture, and we would eat together. They always joke about salary raises." (M1B)*

With limited engagement outside the workplace, M4A commented that communication is still essential. M4A contributes to the work climate by creating an atmosphere of respect, care and friendliness that is appreciated by the Kenyan non-managers (employees).

"The main thing is communication. Co-existence is an art. If you respect, or are friendly towards your workers, they will feel it. You have to care about their life outside of work." (M4A)

5.3.7.2. Kenyan employees' views regarding Chinese employees

The themes discussed in this section are recruitment and turnover, working conditions, relationship management, communication challenges and management leadership style.

It is perceived that if an employee has a good relationship with their Chinese manager it will result a conducive working climate in the work unit (R2B). The work climate of the organisation is dependent on the personality and mood of the "boss" (R1B).

"So, like you're … today you're good friends, tomorrow you mess [up] *a little; then your enemies. Really it gets that." (R1B)*

Frequent recruitment and dismissal occurs in the department for numerous reasons, disrupting the work climate unit (R2B). Kenyan employees do not strike because they fear being laid off (R1B). Instead, employees have resorted to using a "silent strike", meaning that they go to work with no intention of working (R1B), thereby creating a hostile work climate and animosity.

"Yeah. Okay, okay. We strike. What we do is that, we come to job and we don't work." (R1B)

Contrary to this view of the work climate as hostile, R3B, R10A and R7A consider the working atmosphere and working conditions to be good, although R7A believed that there is room for improvement. R11A spoke of the Chinese managers as being highly supportive, understanding, and cooperative. He echoed the sentiments of R7A that more could be done within the organisation to ensure organisational effectiveness.

"I am happy, but I think they can improve." (R7A)
"Yes, I am getting support…I get enough support, but you see, this is my opinion, I think there are a few adjustments we need to make." (R11A)

Furthermore, the Chinese are social people; people who engage (R4B). According to R11A, working with Chinese managers has been a delight and the structure of teamwork is good because it creates an atmosphere of cohesiveness. The team overall enjoys laughing and working with their manager and engaging in team-building exercises (R11A). R5B said that he trusts approximately ten Chinese managers but does not trust the remainder. He considered the organisation's working atmosphere to be average, as did R6B and R9A.

"It is fifty-fifty, you see. It is fifty-fifty. I cannot say it is good." (R5B)

One of the major drawbacks of the working atmosphere is the communication barrier resulting in conflict, because Kenyan and Chinese employees do not fully understand each other. However, the Kenyan employees are grateful they still obtain a salary to cater to their personal needs despite feeling indifferent about the work climate (R9A).

"Yah. There is err atmosphere fifty-fifty." (R6B)
"When we don't get to understand one another. You [feel] *there is a communication breakdown. Then we get somehow stuck." (R6B)*
"Working condition is fifty-fifty because, you see I appreciate, because I can't say I am sleeping hungry." (R9A)

Some employees shared another viewpoint. The atmosphere of the organisation is also governed by conflict management (R6B). If no conflict arises in the work unit, this results in a good working atmosphere, even though the working conditions are mediocre (R6B). Other Chinese organisations residing in Kenya have good working hours, but they are highly demanding (R6B). However, Chinese managers working in a Chinese organisation must be more flexible and more trusting of Kenyan employees (R11A).

5.3.8. Motivation

Motivation is crucial in encouraging employees to reach their objectives. According to Buchbinder and Shanks (2007:24) and Johnstone (1999:146) motivation acts as a stimulant for achieving a specific objective or eliciting an action. For Chinese organisations operating in Kenya, motivation does not seem to be a significant dimension. Few employees provided feedback, with little evidence of motivational incentive within the organisation.

5.3.8.1. Chinese and the Kenyan Indian employees' views of Kenyan employees

Incentives, compensation structure and employee benefits are the themes discussed next.

Limited visibility was provided by managers pertaining to motivational incentives. M2B and M3B found the employment benefits that the Chinese organisation provides to be *"slightly better"* than those of local or foreign organisations. The salaries or wages are also much higher than that of foreign organisations (M3B, M6A).

"All we can do is to increase their salaries every year. At the same time, they have sales targets, or other targets set for them, which they must accomplish, before they will be rewarded with raises." (M4A)

"Honestly, our wages are above the market rates." (M6A)

According to M4A, employees were demotivated when their salaries did not increase, which resulted in some employees leaving the organisation. M4A is of the view that employees should be rewarded for small tasks, however it is a challenge to manage.

"The salaries there did not go through a raise, so perhaps the motivational factor is missing. As a result, some of the people who had worked there a bit longer did quit. I think more important is the clarity in rewarding and punitive actions. This is actually very difficult to control." (M4A)

The main motivational incentive that management has incorporated is providing employees with bonuses; however, managers still must monitor the work of Kenyan employees.

"We tried to motivate the workers to bonuses, but we still have to be overseeing everything vigilantly, otherwise they will do things in their own ways." (M6A)

5.3.8.2. Kenyan employees' views of the Chinese employees

The findings in this section address the following themes: incentive structures, job satisfaction, and individual and organisational needs including career development.

According to R10A, the nature of a department is to specialise. R10A suggested that if the organisation adopts a rotation workflow, it could keep the job interesting and encourage employee motivation. R8A reported that Chinese managers gave them with bonuses and adjust their salaries based on good work output, which motivated them to continue. Furthermore, positive output of work results in a promotion.

"You see if you do good work here, they promote you due to good work. What we get paid they always adjust it and I like that. They pay us but they also adjust by giving us bonuses and if you do a good job, they give you something." (R8A)

R11A stated that the organisational package was the only incentive motivating her to continue working for the organisation. On the other hand, R1B implied that Kenyan employees were not being compensated enough to support their families financially or to pay educational fees. R1B personally expressed concern that he was stagnating in the workplace and was demotivated by the lack of promotional opportunity.

5.3.9. Task requirements and individual skills

Individuals within the organisation must be well equipped with the right skills to execute tasks. For employees to be upskilled, training is required to enhance their capabilities (Khan, Khan & Khan, 2011:63). Both Kenyan and Chinese employees emphasised the importance of training and development to close the gap between task requirements and current individual skills. Kenyans holds knowledge in high esteem. Management has ensured that employees are trained through various methods, thus ensuring organisational effectiveness. Management has further provided Kenyan employees with opportunities to progress within the organisation.

5.3.9.1. Chinese and the Kenyan Indian employees' views regarding the Kenyan employees

The findings in this section are presented according to training and development, employee abilities and the level of employee qualifications.

The Chinese viewpoint on task requirements and skills is that if the project manager does not have the adequate level of experience, it is advised that they listen to the production manager. M1B asserted that the ideal working environment was one in which both the project and production manager had enough experience.

"[If the] *project manager is inexperienced, then you must listen to the advice that your production manager has. ...*
Well, I would say that the perfect approach is to have a production manager and a project manager who are both sufficiently experienced." (M1B)

To diminish the knowledge gap between managers, training is provided to management regardless of the department, because there are new product lines introduced within the organisation and all managers must be knowledgeable about the catalogue (M4A). Furthermore, it is the responsibility of the manager to cascade the message or training to the employees.

It is evident that M1B perceives Kenyan employees as individuals who have abilities; however, some employees are more qualified than their supervisors, with some employees having degrees. However, the issue is that the employees are not using their abilities effectively. This is because of a difference in "mentalities".

"A lot of people have the abilities. For example, some of our workers are more qualified than their supervisors. Some of them have more degrees than you do. The problem is that they are not using those abilities. ...
I think it comes down to what I said about the difference in mentalities." (M1B)

When it comes to employee tasks, M1B explained that the employees are told what is required and they are expected to complete any task given to them.

"We would tell them what we need each day, and then they must finish the job given to them." (M1B)

According to M4A, employees are also provided with training to complete their tasks. The training conducted to upskill the employees is systematic and professional, although it does have areas needing improvement. This training elevates the prior level of knowledge of employees (M4A).

"With the systematic, professional training that they have received – and I am not saying that our training was extremely systematic or professional." (M4A)

M5A observed that management dedicates two Saturdays of each month to training local employees on scenarios the organisation will be implementing and will be altering.

"Actually, every Saturday, in a month there is two times training from the companies. So, they just train us as per company in what their scenario [is]*, what they want to implement in the company, what they want to change, everything so they just train us." (M5A)*

M6A elaborated that each department has different training routines. If an employee is relatively experienced, then they will undergo less rigorous training, while an employee who is a graduate will undergo more training. Despite this, all employees will be trained about cultural differences such as those concerning "manners". The organisation cannot provide full in-depth training owing to the cost. But they do ensure that employees are well equipped to be effective.

"Different departments have different training routines. If someone is relatively experienced, then he will undergo less training. If it is a recent graduate, then there will obviously be more training." (M6A)

Within the manufacturing industry, the skill set requirements are low, with a high number of jobs with adequate pay (M2B). M6A identified that most individuals in this industry are uneducated, noting that it was therefore unrealistic to spend large amounts of capital on training them.

"So basically, the skill requirements are low, the number of jobs available is high, and the pay is decent." (M2B)

"Our workers are mostly uneducated, and it is unrealistic to spend large amounts of capital on training." (M6A)

5.3.9.2. Kenyan employees' views concerning Chinese employees

The themes explored in this section are employee qualifications, abilities, skills required for task execution, training and development.

According to R3B, as a carpenter and supervisor, he is highly qualified for his position. He had 16 years' work experience in various Chinese organisations in Kenya as well as being self-employed for two years prior to joining the current organisation. His practical experience enables him to effectively work in the current organisation, as does his technical college qualification in which he acquired the relevant skills as a carpenter.

R4B studied extensively and has acquired a level four certificate. R6B has a first aid qualification and is well equipped for the position he currently holds. R4B had limited skills and was upskilled by the organisation through training initiatives. R7A entered the organisation with little experience in customer care services and the Chinese management upskilled him through training programmes on how to relate to customers "inside and outside the company."

"Yah, I trained by my company….
Yah, you are shown. You are shown how to operate like machines, yah." (R4B)
"But coming here it has expanded my knowledge on customer care services, how to relate with customers both inside the company and outside, and personally it has made me grow in this field." (R7A)

With similar perceptions to R7A, R11A who operates in the customer services department explained that she developed most of her communication and customer service skills by attending one-on-one meetings with customers, doing rigorous systems applications and products in data processing training. Chinese management played a pivotal role in training her in sales analytics and monthly analysis. The selected Chinese organisations in this study are willing to provide training for their employees.

Recruitment and selection is another process that is important for selecting the right candidates who will later on require training. The organisations do not always adhere to the formal recruitment and selection process. According to R4B, there was no formal interview process and he was recruited by a friend through word of mouth. R4B, R5B and R6B continued to explain that the organisation employs many local people and that it conducts very few recruitment and selection processes. The organisation recruits on a "casual" basis and is not concerned about training employees, being more concerned with "productivity and progress" (R6B).

According to R1B and R2B, it is vital to be knowledgeable about the role one occupies in the organisation. Furthermore, having knowledge in Kenya is very important (R11A).

"I have to know what am I supposed to do. To what levels. So, you just like, start working. You don't how you're benefitting in this company, what the shortcomings [are]. *You just don't know some things. Of which for a worker you're supposed to know. You're supposed to have that knowledge when you start working for someone, you're supposed to sign a contract with them, they don't give you." (R2B)*

"Learning is important here in Kenya." (R11A)

R1B believed he had adequate, diverse work experience while R2B has little work experience. However, the organisation provides "good" training platforms. Both employees (R1B and R2B) have limited experience in the jobs they currently occupy. Employees must be knowledgeable about the job at hand (R6B). R2B is more skilled in information technology although this is not relevant to the current job. R6B has the perception that he is more skilled than Chinese management, even though the Chinese managers have aided in upskilling the Kenyan employees.

"I think I'm more skilled than them. ...
Yah, cause all of us are, what he knows we don't know. You get what I mean. We might be on the same level, but we know different things." (R6B)

R2B obtained employment through a transfer from another organisation to the current one, which provided training for him and equipped him with basic skills. There was no correlation between the previous job and his current job. R2B and R1B both went to college to acquire skills. R2B specialised in a plant operations course in college while R1B completed a two-month course on refrigeration and air conditioning. R8A was trained and coached by his supervisor; however he was not granted an opportunity as in other departments, to attend courses in college. R9A was also trained using different methods such as instructor-led training in a showroom. In the accounting department, employees were upskilled through specialisation (R10A). The organisation adopted an array of methods to upskill the Kenyan employees, however R10A emphasised the importance of rotation as a training method because it stops one from becoming "bored".

R4B highlighted the crucial point that the way the Chinese operate differs from that of the Kenyans; consequently, a different skill set is required.

"Like you see your skills are not our skills, the way you operate in China is not the way you operate in Kenya, so we might differ, there's a difference." (R4B)

5.3.10. Individual needs and values and organisational performance

Employees need to feel valued and have their needs met, in order to perform effectively and contribute towards organisational performance. In this regard, poor health and safety processes have resulted in organisational ineffectiveness. However, the level of safety and care varies from department to department.

5.3.10.1. Chinese and the Kenyan Indian employees' views regarding the Kenyan employees

The findings in this section explore the themes of individual and organisational needs, well-being, management practices and task objectives.

Each employee is unique and has needs which ought to be met at a personal and/or organisational level. An employee whose needs are met is motivated and more effective. M4A asserted that the managers care about employee well-being; he himself leads with care and compassion. In order to achieve organisational effectiveness, M4A reported that he allows employees to cater for family needs, and he has conversations with employees who are not performing, to encourage them to improve their work ethic. However not all managers agree. The internal interests of the Chinese managers and Kenyan employees are not aligned (M1B).

"However, their internal interests are not the same as ours … The locals do not approve of this kind of mentality; they prefer better employment benefits, although there are some local employees who do understand this philosophy." (M1B)

To improve organisational performance, M1B proposed that Chinese organisations need to make changes. This can be done by management improving their managerial techniques, enabling employees to become more effective (M1B).

"Firstly, I think the Chinese companies themselves must make some changes. The management techniques can be improved in order to enable the local employees – who are very capable – to utilise their abilities." (M1B)

The individual performance of employees is evaluated based on their ability to meet or exceed their outlined work objectives. If employees accomplish the assignment highlighted in their "undertakings and contracts" they are compensated at twice their normal rate (M1B). To further alleviate individual needs to boost organisational performance, management visits employees' homes to assess their living conditions (M6A). The intention of such visits is to bridge the gap between the Chinese and Kenyan employees.

"The purpose of these visits is to bring the Chinese and the local employees closer, so it is necessary for us to go and see the homes for ourselves." (M6A)

5.3.10.2. Kenyan employees' views regarding the Chinese employees

In this section, the findings are presented according to the themes of Chinese and Western dynamics, level of care for employees, personal and organisational needs, and collaboration.

In R5B's opinion, Chinese managers lack true concern about the well-being of the Kenyan employees. R5B stated that Western organisations are more caring than Chinese organisations, who neglect the individual component. If an accident occurs on site, Chinese managers do not pay for the injury; they require proof of injury and lawyers become involved if it appears that Chinese managers do not comply with constitutional law (R5B). Kenyan employees have taken the liberty of paying the national hospital insurance fund (NHIF) to cover themselves medically if an injury arises (R5B). Chinese managers fail to sympathise and empathise with their employees, and struggle to understand why employees must miss work for family commitments (R6B).

"I have a family. There are certain issues that affect me; I cannot be able to come to work. So, it sometimes take time for them to understand." (R6B)

R6B did however note that in the safety department, a nurse is available to take care of any injured employees on site.

On the other hand, R7A argued that Chinese managers care and are compassionate; they understand when employees must leave work early to attend to family issues. Furthermore, R8A observed that management demonstrates their care for their employees' mental health by creating team-building activities and taking employees on holidays to alleviate stress.

"Because that is a very compassionate person [Chinese manager], *I can feel that you care instead of just telling me 'just go home'." (R7A)*

5.4. SUMMARY

The Kenyan employees hold different views when it comes to culture. Employees are expected to learn the organisations' culture at a rapid rate with little reciprocity from Chinese managers learning about the Kenyan culture. Chinese managers also agree on the notion that the Chinese and Kenyan beliefs are completely different. However, Chinese managers value efficiency and overtime. In addition, it is imperative that the Chinese learn about the Kenyan culture in order to understand the local people.

Despite cultural concerns it is also evident that Chinese and Kenyan employees struggle to communicate because of a language barrier, hindering both organisational and individual effectiveness. Kenyan employees value their employment and do not voice their grievances with a fear of being laid off. The composition of the organisational structure consists of a large number of Kenyan employees in lower positions and the few Chinese managers who hold managerial positions. The hierarchical structure affects the way that Kenyan employees view Chinese managers.

The recruitment and selection processes of the organisation which affect who occupies what position in the organisational structure – are somewhat flawed, consequently impacting on the effectiveness of the organisation. Clearly there are no formal recruitment and selection processes in place to ensure that the right candidates with the adequate skills and experience are placed in the appropriate positions. The flawed recruitment and selection process affects the productivity levels of the organisation, leading to ineffective performance. However, the Chinese managers believe that Kenyan employees have the potential to tap into their abilities. Apart from recruiting the right candidates, it is imperative that management leads by example. The Chinese managers lead based on the level of trust they feel for their employees, and their personalities govern their leadership style. Some Chinese managers in the organisation have a "friendly" approach while others are more focused on the actual process of inspection and the rigid nature of leading. However, Chinese managers operate with the best intentions of the organisation in mind.

On the other hand, Kenyans have expressed their views that Chinese managers place little emphasis on healthcare, safety and well-being. The needs and values of Kenyan employees are often overlooked, and little sympathy is expressed by Chinese managers when it comes to family issues and injuries that occur in the workplace. Western organisations have expressed more concern about the well-being of Kenyan employees than Chinese managers have done. However, in opposition to the Western way of doing business, Chinese managers ensure that the human resource capital is used effectively and efficiently by creating platforms for career development and good working conditions for Kenyan employees.

Kenyan employees in this study were indifferent about the organisational work and departmental work climate. Factors such as conflict, communication barriers and bad working conditions in some work units created a hostile and ineffective working environment. Furthermore, the external working climate was also hostile; Chinese organisations operating in Kenya only work closely with the community and local organisations for procurement and subcontracting purposes. This eliminates the possibility of establishing strong relations.

Finally, the external environment is the only input in the Burke-Litwin model. The external environment affected and influenced leadership, mission and strategy, organisational culture and individual and organisational performance. The main objectives of the Chinese operating in Kenya were to create employment, modernise the country, tackle socioeconomic issues such as poverty, and contribute to the Kenyan 2030 vision of development. Despite this, Chinese organisations operating in Kenya have experienced challenges, predominantly with trade unions. However, Kenyan employees are grateful for the Chinese presence in Kenya because it has provided them with opportunities and compensation to feed their families and the communities at large.

Chapter 6 responds to the second objective of this research, which is “to explore the key relationships that emerge and identify and describe the similarities of the Chinese and Kenyan employees’ viewpoints based on the 12 organisational dimensions of organisational effectiveness the selected Chinese organisations operating in Kenya”. It places emphasis on key themes and relationships that emerged from Chapter 5 and highlights recommendations, limitations and how this study has contributed to overall research.

CHAPTER 6
SUMMARY, RECOMMENDATIONS AND CONCLUSION

6.1. INTRODUCTION

The previous chapter presented and discussed the findings regarding the views and attitudes of the Chinese and Kenyan employees towards each other in terms of the 12 Burke-Litwin organisational effectiveness dimensions. More specifically, the findings presented in Chapter 5 addressed the first objective of this study, namely "to describe the viewpoints of the Chinese and Kenyan employees of the 12 organisational effectiveness dimensions of the selected Chinese organisations operating in Kenya." Chapter 6 concludes this thesis by exploring the relationships between selected organisational dimensions of the Burke-Litwin model from a Chinese and Kenyan employee perspective, as well as describing the similarities in the Chinese and Kenyan employees' points of view. In doing so, this chapter responds to the second objective of this research as defined in Chapter 1, namely "to explore the key relationships that emerge and identify and highlight similarities between Chinese and Kenyan employees' viewpoints based on the 12 organisational dimensions of organisational effectiveness for the selected Chinese organisations operating in Kenya." In addition the chapter will respond to the third objective namely, "to make recommendations on how organisational effectiveness can be improved, from a cross-cultural perspective, based on the organisational diagnosis conducted for the selected Chinese organisations operating in Kenya." Lastly the chapter will highlight limitations and how this study has contributed to overall research.

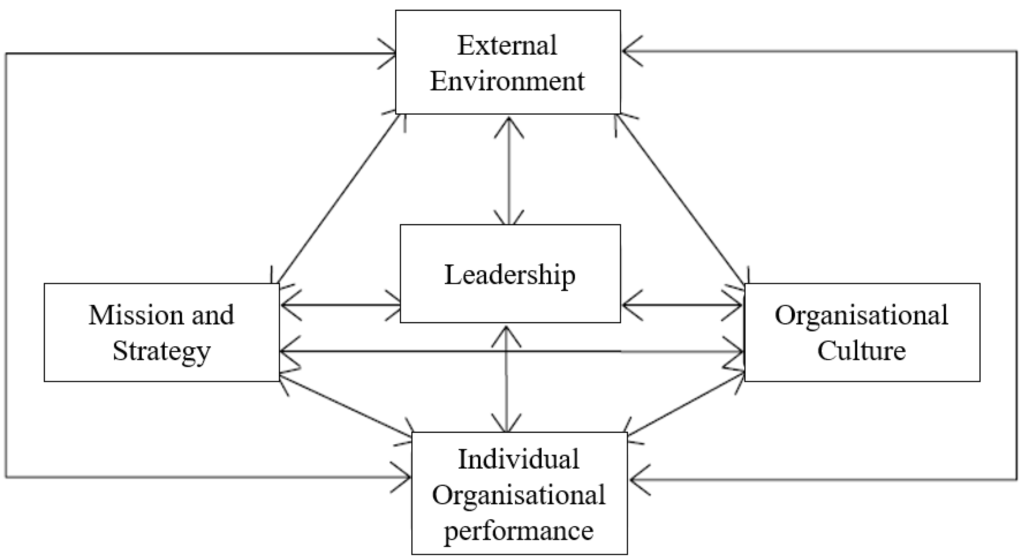
Section 6.2 explores selected relationships that emerged from the Burke-Litwin model, with some of the dimensions combined owing to overlapping themes. Section 6.3 identifies similarities between Chinese and Kenyan employees. Thereafter, section 6.4 provides a synopsis of the whole chapter. Section 6.5 outlines recommendations and section 6.6 acknowledges the limitations of the study. Section 6.7 offers recommendations for future research and section 6.8 concludes with the value of the current research.

6.2. BURKE-LITWIN MODEL RELATIONSHIPS

The Burke-Litwin model, as mentioned in Chapter 2, section 2.4.1.5, is a diagnostic model that assesses dimensions that have an impact on organisational effectiveness (Martins & Coetzee, 2009:144). This section will explore the relationships that arose in chapter 5 as per the Burke-Litwin model dimensions. As stated in Chapter 1 section 1, the associations and the cause-and-effect relationships between external and internal environments by differentiating between transformational and transactional dimensions within organisational behaviour and change (Cummings & Worley, 2005) will be outlined.

The Burke-Litwin model as explained in Chapter 2 is segmented into transformational and transactional dimensions. Figure 6.1 and later, Figure 6.2 highlight the key dimensions associated with the transformational and transactional dimensions respectively.

Figure 6.1: Transformational dimensions



(Source: Burke & Litwin, 1992)

6.2.1. Transformational relationships

Burke (2008) theorised that the majority of organisations often focus on transactional dimensions and overlook the importance and significance of transformational dimensions in achieving successful organisational performance and effectiveness. Transformational dimensions are considered the building blocks of the structure of an organisation (Robinson, 2019). The three key transformational drivers are mission and strategy, leadership, and organisational culture dimensions. These three factors have an extensive impact on organisational performance. In turn, these drivers are also affected by the external environment (Robinson, 2019; Wooten, 2014:6-7).

The external environment, comprising competitors, suppliers, legislation, and political, economic, social, technological, ethical, environmental and legal elements (Chand, 2017), poses challenges and complexity for an organisation's management when formulating the mission and strategy, organisational culture and leadership trajectory (Wooten, 2014:6-7).

According to R7A, the external environment has a large impact on the three transformational dimensions, particularly on organisational culture and leadership. The Kenyan external environment has significantly affected how the mission and strategy of the organisation is formulated. M4A highlighted that one hindrance to strategy formulation and implementation is Kenya's stringent governmental policies. In response to these policies, Chinese managers have adopted a strategy of upskilling Kenyan employees, improving their employment benefits, and increasing their targets and compensation to drive organisation effectiveness and performance (M4A).

In addition to the external environment exerting pressure on the mission and strategy, it also has an impact on organisational culture. R7A confirmed that Chinese management had been trying to speak Swahili, the local language, and had been incorporating it into their vocabulary.

> *"Some of our Chinese managers* [are] *trying to know the language; trying to speak in Swahili. Not fluently but they can speak one in few, few words. They can try to incorporate in a sentence, so I think they are trying." (R7A)*

R5B and R11A further commented:

> *"Some of them* [Chinese management] *who are new, they walk, they talk with their translators, so it is hard for them to understand; also, English is very far".*

The attempt by Chinese managers to speak the local language will aid in breaking down communication barriers in the organisations and with the local community. It will also allow managers to articulate the organisations' mission and strategy more clearly to the Kenyan employees. Organisational culture also greatly impacts how leaders lead which is influenced by local culture from the respective countries. According to Wang (2018), the Chinese are hardworking individuals who are driven by the pursuit of better pay, the domestic economy (external environment), their mentality and workplace or organisational culture. NFOnline (2017) reports that over the years, Chinese individuals who have migrated into Africa firmly uphold their cultural beliefs and customs. Accordingly, Kenyan employees feel the pressure being exerted on them from leaders within the organisation (R7A, R1B). Wang (2018) explains that Chinese employees work according to the "996 rule" which indicates that employees should work from 9 am to 9 pm approximately six days a week. This rule is embodied by most Chinese organisations coupled with hard work and underpinned by the culture of Confucianism. The Chinese organisational culture of hard work has influenced Chinese managers to lead by example, with an ethos of constantly working, being transparent and creating an organisational culture of personal growth in order to boost organisational performance (R7A). R4B and R7A described Chinese managers as investing “two hundred per cent” in their work and at the office and throughout the weekend. This positive work ethic motivates employees to work harder and creates an organisational culture of hard work that discourages laziness. However, theoretically for Kenyan organisations, they are slowly adopting a work–life balance concept which is gaining popularity (Githinji & Gachunga, 2017:382). Furthermore, unlike Chinese organisations governed by Confucianism and a high work ethic, Kenyan organisations are governed by Harambee which dictates how managers lead (Expat Arrivals Kenya Guide, 2015) as highlighted in Chapter 3, section 3.3.3.

Organisational culture has a large impact on how Chinese managers lead. Because the Chinese culture emphasises hard work and personal growth, some managers have opted to infuse their leadership style with Confucian attributes (M1B and M2B). According to M1B, M2B and R11A, Chinese managers lead with a spirit of togetherness, compassion and humility, which results in effective organisational performance. Grojean, Resick, Dickson and Smith (2004:224) highlight that a leader’s actions contribute to and influence the perceptions of employees which in turn affect the organisation’s work climate or organisational culture. R2B and M1B pointed out that the relationship between the managers and the employees is highly influenced by an organisational culture attribute of trust which dictates how the manager leads.

Chinese managers’ personal leadership style can also create a hostile work climate or organisational culture, which was evident in the safety department of one of the organisations (R1B and R2B). R5B expressed the opinion that Chinese managers lead with an autocratic leadership style, instructing employees to execute work, while they themselves do very little work. This creates a hostile and rigid organisational culture affecting organisational performance negatively.

6.2.1.1. Key themes associated with transformational dimension relationships

Table 6.1 below summarises the key themes associated with the Chinese and Kenyan employee viewpoints of the transformational dimensions relationships.

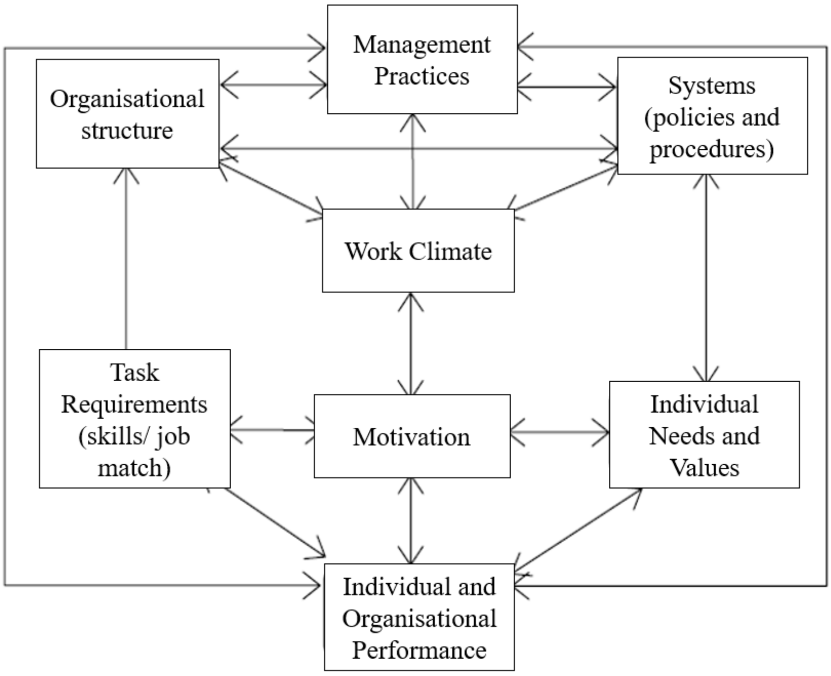
Table 6.1: Synopsis of the themes associated with transformational dimension relationships

Relationships	*Chinese viewpoints*	*Kenyan viewpoints*
External environment and mission and strategy	Stringent governmental policies have hindered strategy, requiring management to retarget strategy towards upskilling, improving employment benefits and compensation	Limited visibility on management strategy
External environment and organisational culture	Use of translators to understand local Kenyan language	Chinese managers are incorporating the local language of Swahili into the corporate organisation
Mission and strategy and leadership	Chinese global framework is implemented with leadership driving upliftment and recognition	Leadership formulates the strategy, however there is no strategy visibility Leadership driving the strategy of learning and development
Organisational culture and leadership	Confucianism culture and high work ethic govern leadership style and work climate	Culture of trust, transparency and Confucianism infused with individual attributes govern leadership style and tone

6.2.2. Transactional relationships

According to Martins and Coetzee (2009:148) transformational dimensions are affected by the external environment and have a large influence on transactional dimensions. Transactional dimensions internal to the organisation, are associated with human behaviour or daily interaction and interchange that establishes the work climate of the organisation (Boone, 2012:404; Martins & Coetzee, 2009:146). These transactional dimensions, as previously introduced in Chapter 3 section 3.4 are shown in Figure 6.2 below.

Figure 6.2: Transactional dimensions



(Source: Burke & Litwin, 1992)

Transactional dimensions are more easily changed and, like transformational dimensions, are impacted by the external environment (Robinson, 2019). According to the Chinese and Kenyan employee feedback, many of the transactional dimensions have a ripple effect on each other. One of the dimensional relationships highlighted was between organisational structure and work climate. The majority of the Chinese organisations operating in Kenya have more Chinese employees than Kenyans in senior management positions, with more Kenyan employees at lower levels of the organisation with the organisation comprising of a large population Kenyan employees (R1B, R6B R7A, R10A). Chinese managers place emphasis on authority and structure and decisions can only be made by top management owing to lack of trust of Kenyan employees (M1B). Hout and Michael (2014) conclude that Chinese organisational structure is top heavy with everyone reporting to senior management because of China's past instability and debt. It has been highlighted by Kenyan employees that Chinese organisations are dominated by Chinese employees at leadership level and that they create a tough work climate and atmosphere, making it difficult to raise concerns. Kenyans are the last to be informed about the organisation's strategy or direction (R2B, R4B, R7A). The communication hindrances and the delayed flow of information within the organisational structure has negatively impacted some Kenyan employees' performance, resulting in organisational ineffectiveness (R2B, R5B, R7A). The organisational structure is segmented into departments and individual tasks. The arrangement that each department of the organisation is led by a Chinese manager with employees working in teams or as individuals, is perceived in a positive light by R11A and R7A; it satisfies their individual need for job security and collaboration. Within the team or individual work dynamic, a manager ensures that each team or individual adheres to the policies and procedures and there is a person appointed and held accountable (R4B, R5B). Through the team organisational structure, Chinese managers have tried to create a work climate or atmosphere of teamwork (M2B, M5A, M4A).

According to Githinji and Gachunga (2017:375) organisations do not have a singular work climate but rather several simultaneous climates. R5B, R6B and R9A describe the work atmosphere as “fifty-fifty”, indicating that it is nether bad or good. However R3B, R10A and R7A consider the work climate as “good”, and “comfortable” with good working conditions. Theoretically, a conducive and supportive work climate stemming from a positive organisational culture may be a significant propeller for behaviours that drive effective performance outcomes, strengthened connections and communication flows (Wei & Morgan 2004:378).

It is evident that work climate has a large impact on individual and group behaviour within an organisation (Abbey & Dickson, 1983; Lawler, Hall & Oldham, 1974; Moos, 1987; Pritchard & Karasick, 1973). Individual behaviour, needs and values are affected by systems [policies and procedures] and motivation, which in turn, influences organisational performance. Kenyan employees acknowledged that their behaviour is influenced by organisational systems [policies and procedures] and that the systems are flawed; for example, there is no human resource manager to deal with human resource concerns (R2B and R4B). Furthermore, there is no formalised procedure to handle a grievance, leaving employees feeling undervalued, with their individual needs not having been met. This situation results in organisational ineffectiveness and poor performance (R2B). However, R3B noted that Chinese organisations had catered to his individual needs by providing him with a platform to advance his career and enhance his human capital. Through training systems and management practices, employees have been able to better perform their required tasks and boost organisational performance (R3B and R7A). R4B pointed out that management upskilled him through training programmes to ensure that he meets task requirements and is well equipped for the new job, which motivates him to learn more and relate better to customers.

According to R11A, learning in Kenya is vital and Chinese managers have catered to that need. M4A and M1B added that training and development is a crucial procedure which minimises organisational costs and assists employees to identify faults more efficiently. To breach the gaps between task requirements, individual skills and individual needs and values, Chinese management have incorporated a salary and training incentive (motivational practice) to encourage positive behaviour and a good work ethic while upskilling employees through training (R4B, R7A, R11A). To further address employee needs Chinese management has incorporated a suggestion box as one of the management practices to capture employee voices (R11A). This tactic allows employees to express their views using a bottom-up organisational structural approach of communication. In addition to training and practices to cater for individual needs, M6A reported that management compensates employees at twice the normal rate if they achieve their outlined objectives. This management practice boosts organisational performance and employees' overall livelihoods and living conditions.

The transactional dimensions collectively affect performance. However, performance can only be long-lasting if the transactional dimensions are aligned. The transactional dimensions play a critical role in supporting the change process (Robinson, 2019).

6.2.2.1. Key themes associated with transactional dimensional relationships

Table 6.2 below summaries the key themes associated with the Chinese and Kenyan employee views of the transactional dimensions.

Table 6.2: Synopsis of the key themes associated with the transactional dimensional relationships

Relationships	***Chinese viewpoints***	***Kenyan viewpoints***
Organisational structure and work climate	Team and departmental organisational structure to encourage climate and atmosphere of teamwork	Top-heavy structure creating rigid and hostile climate and atmosphere
Systems [policies and procedures] and individual needs	Management has implemented a suggestion box to identify individual needs and grievances	Management is contributing towards human resource management through training and development; however lack consideration for safety
Task requirements/ individual skills	Emphasise the importance of skill accumulation to boost performance	Training and development programmes created by management to enhance learning

and individual needs and values		and breach career development gaps
Motivation and individual needs and values	Salary incentive implemented to recognise Kenyan employees who meet their targets and boost organisational performance and livelihoods	Salary and training incentive to boost organisational performance and allow employees to extend benefit to their families

6.3. SIMILARITIES IN CHINESE AND KENYAN EMPLOYEE VIEWPOINTS

Jackson, Louw and Zhao (2013) observe that even though much is known about Chinese organisational values and management at an international level, there is little prior empirical knowledge at an organisational level. The management practices adopted in China and Kenya may differ or be similar. These practices may, therefore, be perceived differently by the Chinese and Kenyan employees in the selected Chinese organisations operating in Kenya. This section of the chapter responds to the second part of the second objective, namely to identify and highlight similarities between Chinese and Kenyan employees' viewpoints based on the 12 organisational dimensions of organisational effectiveness for the privately-owned Chinese organisations operating in Kenya. Similarities that emerged from the data will be outlined and captured in a tabular format to ensure ease of data interpretation. Some dimensions and themes were grouped together owing to similar participant narration.

6.3.1. External environment

Burke-Litwin dimension	*Chinese and Kenyan employees' similarities*
External environment	• Strong Chinese and Kenyan governmental relations • Objective of job creation • Boosting Kenyan economy

Chinese and Kenyan employees at various levels expressed the belief that Chinese organisations operating in Kenya are modernising the country and creating jobs for the local community. These Chinese organisations are also boosting the economy through foreign direct investment. Despite the positive impact of Chinese organisations operating in Kenya, there are further external factors that influence both Chinese and Kenyan employees, such as the Kenyan government's strict regulations. The Kenyan governmental regulations protect Kenyan employees through trade unions and pose challenges for Chinese organisations operating in Kenya.

6.3.2. Organisational culture and work climate

Burke-Litwin dimension	*Chinese and Kenyan employees' similarities*
Organisational culture and work climate	• Chinese adopt Confucian culture and Kenyans adopt Harambee culture, which share these attributes: o Fairness o Mutual assistance

As mentioned in Chapter 3 section3.3.3, Chinese employees' organisational culture is based on Confucianism which is centred on motivating employees through fairness and providing fair working conditions and wages (Jackson, Louw & Zhao, 2013). On the other hand, Kenyan organisations are governed by Harambee (Expat Arrivals Kenya Guide, 2015).

Despite differences between the cultures of Confucianism and Harambee, they share some characteristics which affect the tone and work climate. Both Chinese and Kenyan employees spoke of experiencing fairness and mutual assistance. For example, Kenyan employees said that Chinese managers sometimes exercise fairness and assist employee's growth in their career path through training and development programmes.

6.3.3. Leadership style

Burke-Litwin dimension	*Chinese and Kenyan employees' similarities*
Leadership style	• No similarities identified, only differences in viewpoints

6.3.4. Organisational structure

Burke-Litwin dimension	*Chinese and Kenyan employees' similarities*
Organisational structure	• Teamwork-orientated structure • Communication barriers • Hierarchical structure

The selected Chinese organisations operating in Kenya adopt a teamwork-orientated organisational structure that is led by a Chinese leader. This structure is hierarchical, adopting a top-down approach. Both Chinese and Kenyan employees experience significant communication difficulties and translation barriers between languages.

6.3.5. Motivation

Burke-Litwin dimension	*Chinese and Kenyan employees' similarities*
Motivation	• Motivation through salary and wage adjustments

The selected organisations had a compensation incentive structure in place which was used to motivate and encourage good behaviour and had actions in place to demotivate bad behaviour. Good work was compensated through bonuses, while poor work resulted in a salary deduction.

6.3.6. Mission and strategy

Burke-Litwin dimension	*Chinese and Kenyan employees' similarities*
Mission and strategy	• Reducing poverty through job creation • Chinese organisations boosting the economy • Strategy geared towards learning and skills development

There was very little evidence of knowledge of the strategy and mission of the organisation from Chinese and Kenyan employees. However, the key mission for Chinese organisations operating in Kenya is to boost the economy, reduce poverty through job creation and upskill their employees to enhance personal and organisational performance.

6.3.7. Management practices

Burke-Litwin dimension	*Chinese and Kenyan employees' similarities*
Management practices	• No similarities identified, only differences in viewpoints

6.3.8. Individual needs, values and job requirements

Burke-Litwin dimension	*Chinese and Kenyan employees' similarities*
Individual needs, values and job requirements	• Training and development • Adequate salary and wage compensation

Chinese managers in this study strongly believe in training and development of all employees within the organisation. Employees found that using training and development mechanisms enabled them to better execute their tasks in the various departments. In addition, employee needs were met through salary and wage compensation they received from the organisation to feed their families.

6.3.9. Systems [policies and procedures]

Burke-Litwin dimension	*Chinese and Kenyan employees' similarities*
Systems [policies and procedures]	• Training is a key procedure • Work output-based compensation system

The organisation implemented numerous training and development systems to enhance their human capital. Furthermore, Chinese management adopted a compensation system that is governed by the output of work each employee executes. This compensation system or procedure varies per department and management leadership style.

6.4. CONCLUSION

In conclusion, the Burke-Litwin model is considered a complex model; however, its contribution to the results of the organisational diagnostic process in cross-cultural research context is regarded as important (Martins & Coetzee, 2009:145; Jones & Brazzel, 2006; Furnham & Gunter, 1993). This model has aided in conducting a critical content analysis of the key dimensional relationships and similarities between Chinese and Kenyan viewpoints, with culture being the main driver of influence.

To better understand the relationships between Chinese and Kenyan perspectives, the Burke-Litwin model was segmented into transformational and transactional dimensions. It is outlined in theory that transformational dimensions have a major impact on the functioning of an organisation and on transactional dimensions. Both types of dimensions reciprocate, and eventually impact on, individual and organisational performance and overall effectiveness (Chawane, Van Vuuren & Roodt, 2003). Transformational relationships that arose were highly influenced by the external environment. The external environmental factors had a great influence on mission and strategy as well as the organisational culture of the Chinese organisations operating in Kenya. On the other hand, organisational culture affected how the leaders of the organisation led their workforce. Furthermore, work ethic, behaviour and moral compass of both Chinese and Kenyan employees was driven by the culture of their respective countries, namely Confucianism (Chinese culture) and Harambee (Kenyan culture).

Inversely, transactional dimensions revealed a few relationships between the dimensions. The rigid, hierarchical organisational structure had a large influence on the climate and atmosphere of the organisation. This set a hostile tone, although other employees who had flexible managers found that the work climate was good. Employees had conflicting views on the work climate. Organisational systems was another dimension that had an influence on individual needs. Management created specific compensation systems and training and development procedures to ensure that the gap between individual needs and task requirements was closed. Some employee needs were met, and they were able to use funds to cater for their families and livelihoods. The key driver that kept employees motivated to complete tasks and meet their individual needs was the compensation they received from the organisation.

Through transactional and transformational dimensions, some similarities emerged. Chinese and Kenyan employees highlighted that Chinese organisations operating in Kenya are on a mission to create jobs, boost employment and train and develop their employees to ensure organisation performance and effectiveness. In addition, to motivate employees to excel in their work, management has incentivised employees through compensation procedures. Good behaviour is rewarded by a higher salary or wage and poor behaviour receives reduced compensation.

Overall Chinese and Kenyan employees' organisational structure, leadership and work climate is underpinned by the organisational culture. Regardless of differences that are driven by culture and the external environment, Chinese and Kenyan employees share some similarities in values and viewpoints.

6.5. RECOMMENDATIONS

The selected Chinese organisations operating in Kenya have areas of improvement that they need to concentrate on. Despite the numerous challenges faced by Chinese and Kenyan employees, various recommendations will be provided to assist the organisations to be more effective and improve organisational performance. The following recommendations are outlined:

- Organisational culture is a key theme that affected organisational effectiveness for this study. With Chinese employees adopting Confucianism and Kenyan employees adopting Harambee, there were similarities in the two cultures. Despite similarities there were also challenges that arose – mainly communication barriers and in the relaying of information. Both Chinese and Kenyans ought to invest more time in understanding each other's cultural nuances and use translators, as suggested by R5B, to ensure direct correct translation between English, Mandarin and Swahili. Additionally, holding frequent meetings by management to inform employees about organisational developments is vitally necessary, as this was an identified gap in the organisations. Transparency will aid employees to be more effective and focus their efforts on their tasks and organisational objectives.

- The organisational structure of the selected Chinese organisations operating in Kenya is dominated by Chinese employees at managerial levels. It is advised to have diversity in leadership roles. Chinese employees do not trust Kenyan employees or their abilities to occupy senior roles. By incorporating trained and highly experienced Kenyan employees in leadership roles, this will reduce the cultural barrier and incorporate diverse thoughts. According to Thompson (2019:2), it is a challenging task to include diversity and inclusion at a leadership level; however, prioritising diversity and inclusion and incorporating it to the organisational culture puts the organisation "ahead of the curve".

- Kenyan employees expressed indifferent views about the work climate. However, the work climate of hostility was created due lack of understanding of Kenyan culture by Chinese employees and Chinese employees in senior positions leading based on their personality. It is advised that senior managers create a conducive work environment that encourages development and growth and do not allow their emotions and personality to dictate their decisions. Leadership and cultural training programs ought to be implemented for Chinese and Kenyan senior employees to aid in combating these challenges. Through leadership and cultural training programs both Chinese and Kenyan employees can obtain better understanding of each other and eliminate cultural bias.

- Finally, the Kenyan trade unions favour Kenyan employees and exert pressure on Chinese organisations (M4A) while bribing both Chinese and Kenyan employees (M1B). This poses huge conflict. It is recommended that Chinese employees in managerial roles understand trade union responsibilities, bargaining and negotiation power as discussed in Chapter 5 section 5.3.1.1. Kenyan employees are advised to familiarise themselves with Kenyan laws and trade union policies to ensure that they are operating within the law and not shy away from being bribed by trade unions. However as proposed by Harries (2015) employees in leadership roles should adopt the following steps to ensure the bargaining process occurs efficiently and effectively:

- Understand the facts
- Have a committee to deal with claims
- Understand the trade union process
- Recognise emotions during negotiation and have dispute procedures in place to relay during negotiation
- Encourage collective engagement
- Be in touch with "external contacts" who will act as an external source to provide advice and information to support employers across industries.

6.6. LIMITATIONS OF THE RESEARCH

It is advised by Babbie and Mouton (2006:526) that researchers need to be cognisant of the limitations of their study. The limitations of the present study are listed below:

- The organisation is dominated by Chinese managers in leadership positions. Having a more diverse leadership team would have presented interesting findings and would also highlight more areas of improvement from Chinese and Kenyan leadership. The one Kenyan manager provided limited insight.

- There is an abundance of knowledge at a macro external environment level and very little knowledge present at a micro organisational level, which made sourcing information at a micro organisational level difficult.

- No generalisations could be drawn from the research owing to its qualitative nature and to the study having adopted a clear case study methodology. Furthermore generalisations from the research findings cannot be done with absolute confidence due to the small sample and the study only focusing on two Chinese organisations operating in Kenya.

- The current research attempted to contribute towards the expanding knowledge of Chinese organisations operating in Africa, specifically in Kenya.

- This study included a large sample of Chinese employees at managerial levels and one Indian Kenyan at a managerial level. The researcher thus acknowledges that the presence of more Kenyan employees at a managerial level might have presented interesting findings and facilitated a comparison of the findings relating to Kenyan employees.

6.7. RECOMMENDATIONS FOR FUTURE RESEARCH

In order to elevate the current study and continue its evolution, the following recommendations are provided:

- The sample comprised 17 employees who agreed to participate in the study voluntarily. A larger sample of employees should be sought to contribute to the developing theory and research to provide an increased quality of results and relevance.

- This study can be replicated by adopting a quantitative research approach with a larger sample in order to yield results that can be generalised.

- Transformational dimensions should weigh more than transactional dimensions when analysing data as they are considered the fundamental blocks of the structure of an organisation (Robinson, 2019) and are more targeted towards human behaviour as described in Chapter 2, section 2.4.1.5. According to Chawane, Vuuren and Roodt (2003), transformational dimensions are more crucial when administering organisational change interventions, particularly when using the Burke-Litwin model.

6.8. THE VALUE OF THE CURRENT RESEARCH

Africa is urbanising at a rapid rate, with Chinese organisations contributing greatly to the continent's infrastructure initiatives and growth (Shepard, 2019). In the last decade the relations between China and Africa have been accompanied by rewards and challenges. Some of the challenges include human resource management, work climate, innovation, language, work ethic, and working conditions (Leslie, 2016; Muriithi, 2017).

As asserted by Jackson, Louw and Zhao (2013) there is an abundance of research that has been conducted at a macro level, mainly anecdotal knowledge on Chinese organisational values and management, but little information exists at a micro organisational level. The current research attempted to contribute towards the expanding knowledge of Chinese organisations operating in Africa, specifically in Kenya. The research further explored organisational effectiveness and performance by using the Burke-Litwin model, which was crucial in effectively understanding how Chinese and Kenyan employees effectively collaborate.

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ANNEXURE A: INTERVIEW- GUIDE (MANAGERIAL EMPLOYEE LEVEL)

What you need to tell the interviewee (in your own words)

Basic details that will be useful about the manager you are interviewing: Name, position, responsibility, first language, second language, how long in this country if not local? If local, have you been to China (how long, purpose)?

1. Could you please explain the overall strategy of the organization/department/section? (prompt for mission, objectives, how it seeks to achieve these; contributing to Africa's development? To China's development? The main opportunities and constraints? Government [Chinese/African] policies that facilitate or constrain?)

2. What about the nature of the organization, its structure? Can you explain a bit about that? (control, hierarchy, decision-making?)

3. Can you explain the extent to which you employ Chinese and local staff, at what levels? (prompt for reason, if not forthcoming, such as skills levels – and leading to Q4.)

4. Could you say something about the levels of local staff/managers expertise? And levels of imported (Chinese) expertise?

5. What about training and skills development opportunities? Could you say something about these and how they are managed?

6. What about new employment opportunities for people from local communities? To what extent are these being created? What are the problems/issues here if any? (Any trade unions issues?)

7. Could you explain a bit about mechanisms and processes for knowledge sharing between Chinese and local staff? (e.g. apprenticeships, working in cross-cultural teams). Who is learning from whom? (if not mentioned prompt for African to Chinese learning/knowledge sharing). Any specific mechanisms for developing inter-cultural understanding and interaction.

8. Do employees like working here? How would you describe working conditions and organizational climate? Please explain how employees are motivated, through what types of policies incentives (e.g. is pay related to performance?)

9. Could you say a bit more about your HRM/people management policies and practices (prompt for: recruitment/selection methods, reward systems and pay structures, appraisal methods, promotion, development and training, contracts and conditions for dismissal – *more information to be obtained from HRM manager*)

10. Can you describe the levels and nature of interaction with local communities? How does this work? Any issues or problems, and if so how resolved? (prompt for levels of trust between organization and communities?)

11. What about partnering with local firms? How does this work? Any issues or problems, and if so how resolved? (knowledge sharing?)

12. What do you feel Chinese management has learned from Africa, and what expertise/knowledge could it take back to China?

13. What do you think have African management/ staff learned from Chinese colleagues?

14. Do managers here use Western management methods or Chinese methods? Could you explain a bit about this, the influences on your management methods? What types of management methods you employ?

15. What about the levels and nature of organizational participation and consultations? Western methods place great stress on this. Is it relevant here? Can you explain?

16. It's often said that Western management methods are not appropriate to Africa. Could you explain a bit about the cultural values and ethics held by Chinese managers (and specifically you) and their compatibility with African values?

17. Are Chinese organizations (your organization) in any way contributing to 'modernization' of Africa? If so, could you explain?

18. Do you think that Chinese organization and management is appropriate to local managers, staffs, communities and local organizations? (prompt to explain as much as possible). Do you think the Chinese way(s) is/are more compatible with African values? (Again prompt for further explanation of the Chinese way(s))

20. What do you think are the benefits or otherwise for working in a Chinese firm in (this) African country?

21. There is evidence that projects and organizations set up by Chinese managers in Africa don't always continue to work once the Chinese have left. What makes Chinese approaches to management and organizing successful and different to African approaches? To Western Approaches?

We would also like to interview other members of the management team, and a small sample of other staff at various levels (see also Employee Interview Checklist).

ANNEXURE B: INTERVIEW- GUIDE (NON MANAGERIAL EMPLOYEE LEVEL)

What you need to tell the interviewee:

Please make a note of nationality, approx. age and sex,.

1. Can you please tell me about your current job? (Duties, how it fits into the structure, how long in present job/organisation?). And how did you get your current job? (previous experience, educational qualification; and process – interview etc; through friend).
2. Do you feel that the organisation's structures, and processes give you sufficient support to do your job well? Explain.
3. Do you believe your organisation has a good relationship with the local community? Explain.
4. To what extent does your organisation employ local people.
5. Does the organisation sufficiently understand the local culture ? Explain.
6. In general is there a good atmosphere in your organisation.
7. Do you feel generally happy with your working conditions? Explain.
8. Do you think your manager informs you of decisions that affect you work? Explain.
9. How often do you attend work related training?
10. Are new employees hired regularly in your organisation? Why? How? Where from?
11. Do you work often as part of a team with other employees? How often/ Explain?
12. How often do you work in team(s) with both African and Chinese employees? Why? Explain.
13. How often do you work on projects in the local community? Why? What?
14. Do you work often with local companies? Explain.
15. Do you think it is important for Chinese management to learn from working in Africa? What?
16. What is the most important management lesson that Chinese companies can learn from African companies?
17. Do you think it important for African management to learn from Chinese companies in Africa? What?
18. What is the most important management lesson that African companies can learn from Chinese companies?

19. Do you have friends/family working for Western (Europe, Canada and US) companies? How do their working experience compare with yours? (might have to explain and probe a bit more!)

20. How do you rate the skills level of your African colleagues and managers? Explain.

21. How do you rate your own skill level? Explain in detail about strengths and weaknesses.

22. How do you rate the skills level of your Chinese colleagues and managers? Justify.

23. Do you feel that Chinese values and ethics are compatible with African values? Explain.

24. To what extent do you think Chinese organizations are contributing to modernising Africa. Explain

25. Do you think it is easy for Chinese companies to operate in (this) African country(ies)? Elaborate.

26. What are the benefits of working in a Chinese organisation in Africa?

27. Where do you think the managers in this organisation draw their management principles (African, Chinese, Confucian, Western)? (Might have to explain and elaborate to make them understand)

28. Do you see any evidence that Chinese companies learn from local companies? Explain? How?

29. Do you think in any way Chinese values and management is superior to Western (Europe, Canada and US) values and management? Explain how and why.

Thank you very much!

Questions about this guide: t.jackson@mdx.ac.uk

Questions about research ethics: l.louw@ru.ac.za

ANNEXURE C: INDIVIDUAL INFORMED CONSENT FORM

RHODES UNIVERSITY

INFORMED CONSENT FORM
Department of Management

Research Project Title:	Chinese Organisations in Sub-Saharan Africa: New Dynamics, New Synergies Case studies in Kenya
Principal Investigator(s):	Mr Jinghao Lu

Participation Information
• I understand the purpose of the research study and my involvement in it • I understand the risks of participating in this research study • I understand the benefits of participating in this research study • I understand that I may withdraw from the research study at any stage without any penalty • I understand that participation in this study is done on a voluntary basis • I understand that while information gained during the study may be published, I will not be identified and my personal results will remain confidential • I understand that I will receive no payment for participating in this study

Information Explanation
The above information was explained to me by: Mr Jinghao Lu
The above information was explained to me in: X□English □Swahili □Chinese □Other: and I am in command of this language **OR**, it was comprehensibly translated to me by: No translator was used

Voluntary Consent
I, the participant, hereby voluntarily consent to participate in the above-mentioned research. OR A witness should co-sign, testifying that verbal consent was agreed upon.

Signature:	Date: / /2014

Investigator Declaration	
I, Mr Jinghao Lu, declare that I have explained all the participant information to the participant and have truthfully answered all questions ask me by the participant.	
Signature:	Date: / /2014

Translator/Interpreter Declaration N/A	
I, [full name of translator], declare that I translated a factually correct version of: 1. all the contents of this document 2. all questions posed by the participant 3. all answers given by the investigator In addition, I declare that all information acquired by me regarding this research will be kept confidential.	
Signature	Date: / /2014

ANNEXURE D: COVER LETTER AND INSTITUTIONAL CONSENT FORM

RHODES UNIVERSITY
Grahamstown ● 6140 ● South Africa

Dear Sir,

Re: Invitation to conduct research in your organisation

Mr. Jinghao Lu, assisted by Ms. Yuan Wang, in collaboration with Rhodes University, South Africa are conducting research on Chinese firms in Kenya. The aim of this research is to determine the impact that the ever-growing presence of successful Chinese firms in Kenya is having on employment practices and on local community relations. The participation and cooperation of your organisation is important so that the results of the research are accurately portrayed.

The research will be undertaken by means of interviews with recommended managers and employees in the organisation. The data that will be for this research will be recorded semi-structured interviews which will then be transcribed for analysis. The identity of both your organisation and the employees who voluntarily consent to participate in this research will be treated with complete confidentiality and the data will be anonymised. The duration of the interview will be about 45 minutes.

I will look to you for guidance in identifying persons in your organisation that would be suitable to be interviewed at a time and date that suites them.

Attached for your information is a copy of the participant's Informed Consent Form. If you have questions or wish to verify the research, please feel free to contact me.

If you would like your organisation to participate in this research, please complete and return the attached form.

Thank you for your time and I hope that you will find our request favourable.

Yours sincerely,

Jinghao Lu
Research Associate
Project entitled "Chinese organisations in sub-saharan Africa: New dynamics, new synergies"

Chinese organizations in Sub-Saharan Africa: New dynamics, new synergies

Organizational Consent Form

I acknowledge and understand:
• The role of the organisation is voluntary. • I may decide to withdraw the organisation's participation at any time without penalty. • Employees in suitable organisation departments will be invited to participate and that permission will be sought from them too. • Only employees who consent will participate in the project. • All information obtained will be treated in strictest confidence. • The employees' names will not be used and individual employees will not be identifiable in any written reports about the study. • The organisation will not be identifiable in any written reports about the study. • Participants may withdraw from the study at any time without penalty. • A report of the findings will be made available to the organisation. • I may seek further information on the project from Jinghao Lu on jinghao.lu@gmail.com.

Full Name:	
Position:	
Signature:	
Date:	

Please return to:	Jinghao Lu or Yuan Wang