

**Cultural Implications on Management Practices in Cameroon**

**'A thesis submitted to the University of Wales Trinity Saint David in fulfilment of the requirements for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy'**

**2016**

**Mirabell Pendati**



### Abstract

This thesis examines the impact of cultural values directly on employee motivation and indirectly via leadership style. The study identifies distinguishing features of cultural values, leadership styles and employee motivation in Cameroon. The research investigates the perceptions of these concepts by managers and employees and the distinctive influence of the traditional Cameroonian values as compared to the Western values contained in the discourse of authors such as Hofstede, Likert, Maslow and Herzberg and students of their work<sup>1</sup>

Field work includes questionnaires and interviews designed to elicit perceptions of the three concepts from the sample; the distinctiveness of perceptions as compared to Western discourse. Focus groups were incorporated into the research design and used to evaluate and modify hypotheses resulting from the fieldwork. The conceptual model designed for the research is based on literature and consultations. The study used both quantitative questionnaire survey and qualitative in depth interviews to collect data. 135 employees and managers from 10 SMEs of the banking and telecommunication industries in the private sector participated in the survey. 10 of them were interviewed, 4 leaders and 6 followers.

Seven hypotheses are developed and tested against their validity in Cameroon and in relation to the literature. The results indicate that the main hypotheses developed based on the three strands of literature used in the study proved to be robust, but some different important details were also found out. For example, Hofstede's (1991) masculinity index for the West African region was 46 but that for this study is 64. There are also some distinctions with respect to leadership style and employee motivation. The study indicates that the perceived leadership style in organisations in Cameroon is paternalistic, that extrinsic motivational factors are more important to Cameroonian employees than intrinsic factors. The study also discovered some African cultural values and leadership practices that constrain employee motivation and consequently organisational performance. It has been found out that employees in Cameroon's organisations will perform better in conditions where organisational values such as cooperation, participation, specification of targets and performance measure are of paramount importance especially if the leadership dimensions are those that encourage motivation and interaction. Direct and indirect links appear to exist.

---

<sup>1</sup> References are found in the thesis

## Acknowledgement

I am very thankful to the almighty God; Jehovah for His guidance, protection and blessing that helped in the completion of this thesis. Special gratitude too goes to many people for their valuable and meaningful contribution to this thesis.

Firstly, I am and will always be grateful to my supervisory team Prof. Robin Matthews and Dr. John Koenigsberger for the contributions they made towards this study. Special thanks go to my Director of Study, Prof. Robin Matthews for his patience, guidance, encouragement, constructive criticisms, useful comments, advice, suggestions and diligent revision of this thesis. This thesis is what it is thanks to his guidance and support. I have also learned other valuable things from them that will help me in life as a whole.

Secondly, special gratitude goes to my late father who, despite his health condition always gave me encouragement and support, mother, brothers and sisters for their support during the compilation of this thesis. Special thanks also go to my nephews, nieces and cousins and to all my family members and friends.

Thirdly, I acknowledge my gratitude to my fellow research mates for their relentless support, guidance and encouragement especially during the lost of my dad. I am also grateful to Dr. Jill Venus and Dr. Rajendar Kumar for their support and encouragement during the course of this thesis.

I thank all the staff at the University of Wales; Trinity Saint David.

## Table of Contents

Abstract.....	III
Acknowledgement .....	IV
Table of Contents.....	V
List of Tables and Figures.....	XII
List of Tables .....	XII
List of Figures.....	XIV
Chapter One .....	1
1.1 Introduction.....	1
1.2 The Story of My Research .....	2
1.3 Research Background .....	7
1.3.1 Cultural Background.....	7
1.3.2 Economic Background.....	10
1.4 Western Management Models in the Cameroonian Context .....	11
1.5 Aims and Objectives .....	12
1.6 General Research Questions .....	15
1.7 Justification and Significance of the Research.....	16
1.8 Current Academic Context of Research.....	18
1.9 Theoretical Model.....	19
1.10 Methodology .....	22
1.11 Outline of the Thesis.....	24
1.12 Conclusion .....	25
Chapter Two.....	27
Theoretical background of Cultural Values .....	27
2.1 Introduction.....	27
2.2 Overview of the Concept of Culture .....	28
2.2.1 National Culture.....	28
2.2.2 Organisational Culture .....	30

2.3	Definitions of Culture .....	32
2.4	The Concept of Values in Culture.....	35
2.5	Models of Culture .....	38
2.5.1	Hofstede's Model .....	40
2.5.2	The GLOBE Model.....	42
2.5.3	Trompenaars' Model .....	42
2.5.4	Schwartz's Value Survey Model .....	43
2.6	Criticisms of Hofstede's Model.....	45
2.7	Facts about Hofstede's Model .....	45
2.8	Conclusion .....	48
	Chapter Three.....	49
	Classical Discourse on Management Practices (Leadership style and Employee motivation).....	49
3.1	Introduction.....	49
3.2	Management style versus Leadership Style .....	50
3.3	The concept of Leadership.....	51
3.3.1	Definitions of Leadership.....	53
3.3.2	Leadership Theories.....	55
3.3.3	Management Leadership Style Discourse.....	58
3.4	Motivation.....	60
3.4.1	Definitions of Motivation.....	61
3.4.2	Employee Motivation.....	63
3.4.3	Factors Affecting Employee Motivation.....	63
3.4.4	Theories of Motivation.....	65
3.4.4.1	Need Based Theories .....	65
3.4.5	Summary of the Needs Theories .....	70
3.4.6	Process Based Theories.....	70
3.4.6.1	Expectancy Theory .....	71
3.5	Links between Cultural Values, Leadership Style and Employee Motivation. ....	73

---

## Cultural Implications on Management Practices in Cameroon

---

3.5.1	Nexus between Cultural Values and Leadership Styles.....	74
3.5.2	Link between Cultural Values and Employee Motivation .....	79
3.5.3	Nexus between Leadership Styles and Employee Motivation .....	81
3.6	Conclusion .....	84
Chapter Four .....		86
A Discourse of Cultural Values and Management Practices in the Cameroonian Environment .....		86
4.1	Introduction.....	86
4.2	Western and Traditional Values in African Society .....	86
4.3	African Cultural and Social Values .....	93
4.3.1	Group Identity .....	95
4.3.2	Attitude towards Authority .....	97
4.3.3	Communal Relationships and Responsibilities .....	98
4.3.4	Sense of Hospitality .....	99
4.3.5	Sense of Sacredness and of Religion .....	100
4.3.6	Attitude towards Female and the Disabled .....	101
4.3.7	Time Orientation.....	102
4.3.8	Traditional African Education .....	103
4.3.9	Conviviality /Affability.....	104
4.4	Hofstede's Dimensions in the Context of Cameroonian .....	105
4.4.1	Individualism versus Collectivism.....	107
4.4.2	Masculinity versus Femininity.....	109
4.4.3	Power Distance .....	110
4.4.4	Uncertainty Avoidance .....	111
4.5	Links between Cultural Values, Leadership styles and Employee motivation in Cameroon .	112
4.5.1	Cultural Values and Leadership Styles in Cameroon .....	113
4.5.2	Cultural Values and Employee Motivation in Cameroon .....	117
4.6	Conclusion .....	121
Chapter Five.....		123

Research Methodology .....	123
5.1 Introduction.....	123
5.2 The Research Process.....	123
5.3 Research Strategy.....	126
5.4 The Survey Sample .....	128
5.4.1 Demographic Characteristics of the Sample .....	129
5.5 Research Design.....	133
5.5.1 Data Collection Methods .....	134
5.5.2 The Interview Process.....	138
5.5.3 The Interview Story .....	139
5.5.4 Advantages and Disadvantages of Interview .....	140
5.6 Statistical Analysis.....	141
5.7 Conclusion .....	141
Chapter Six.....	143
Presentation of Empirical Results.....	143
6.1 Introduction.....	143
6.2 Identification of the Dimensions of Culture based on Hofstede Model.....	146
6.2.1 Power Distance Index (PDI) .....	147
6.2.2 Individualism Index (IDV).....	147
6.2.3 Masculinity Index (MI).....	148
6.2.4 Uncertainty Avoidance Index (UAI).....	148
6.3 Cultural Values in Organisations .....	151
6.3.1 Cooperation.....	152
6.3.2 Interpersonal Relationship with the Boss.....	153
6.3.3 Specification of Target.....	153
6.3.4 Performance Measurement .....	154
6.3.5 Involvement in Decision-Making .....	154
6.4 Identification of Leadership Styles in Cameroon's Organisations .....	155

6.4.1	Preferred Leadership Style.....	156
6.4.2	Dominant/Perceived Leadership Style.....	157
6.4.3	Rejected Leadership Style.....	157
6.5	Leadership Style Dimensions.....	158
6.5.1	Motivation as an Aspect Leadership Style.....	159
6.5.2	Communication as an Aspect of Leadership Style .....	159
6.5.3	Interaction as an aspect of leadership style .....	160
6.5.4	Decision-making as an Aspect of Leadership Style.....	161
6.5.5	Goals as an Aspect of Leadership Style.....	162
6.5.6	Controlling as an Aspect of Leadership Style.....	163
6.5.7	Relationship as an Aspect of Leadership Style .....	164
6.6	Identification of Employee Motivation Factors .....	166
6.6.1	Extrinsic motivation Variables.....	167
6.6.2	Intrinsic Motivation Variables .....	168
6.6.3	The role of Family in the Cameroonian Society .....	169
6.7	Factors of Recruitment and Promotion of Employees .....	171
6.7.1	Recruitment.....	171
6.7.2	Promotion.....	173
6.8	Employee Involvement, Commitment and Performance .....	175
6.8.1	Employee Involvement and Commitment .....	175
6.8.2	Organisational Performance.....	178
6.9	Summary of the Findings.....	179
Chapter Seven.....		182
Analysis and Interpretation of Quantitative Results .....		182
7.1	Introduction.....	182
7.2	Analysing the Link between Cultural Values, Leadership Styles and Employee Motivation	182
7.2.1	Analysing the Correlation between Cultural Values and Leadership Style .....	183
7.2.2	Analysing the Correlation between Cultural Values and Employee Motivation .....	185



7.2.3	Analysing the Link between Leadership Style and Employee Motivation .....	187
7.2.4	Correlations between Cultural Values, Leadership Styles and Employee Motivation	190
7.3	Cultural Values and Organisational Management in Cameroon.....	191
7.3.1	Power Distance .....	191
7.3.2	Individualism versus Collectivism.....	194
7.3.3	Uncertainty Avoidance .....	196
7.3.4	Masculinity versus Femininity.....	196
7.4	Summary.....	197
	Chapter Eight .....	201
	Analysis and Interpretation of Qualitative Results .....	201
8.1	Introduction.....	201
8.2	Perceptions on Leadership Style .....	201
8.3	Perceptions on the Influence of Cultural values on Employee Motivation.....	203
8.4	Influence of Recruitment and Promotion Practices on Employee Motivation.....	205
8.4.1	Recruitment.....	206
8.4.1.1	Tribe of Origin/Ethnicity .....	208
8.4.1.2	Friendship .....	213
8.4.1.3	Work Experience.....	216
8.4.1.4	Educational Experience.....	221
8.4.1.5	Indigenous Language .....	224
8.4.1.6	Family Orientation .....	226
8.4.1.7	Social Relations.....	229
8.4.2	Promotion.....	233
8.4.2.1	Tribe of Origin/Ethnicity .....	234
8.4.2.2	Friendship .....	236
8.4.2.3	Work Experience.....	237
8.4.2.4	Educational Experience.....	239
8.4.2.5	Family Orientation .....	240

8.4.2.6	Social Relations.....	241
8.4.2.7	Indigenous Language .....	243
8.5	Summary .....	246
Chapter Nine .....		248
Discussion and Implications of the Research .....		248
9.1	Introduction.....	248
9.2	Discussion of Hypotheses .....	249
9.2.1	H1; Cultural Categories .....	250
9.2.2	H2; Leadership Styles .....	251
9.2.3	H3; Motivation Factors .....	252
9.2.4	H4-H7; Correlations.....	253
9.2.5	A Cautionary Tale about the Hypotheses in the Research .....	254
9.3	General Conclusions .....	254
9.4	The Generalisability of the Empirical Research Results.....	259
9.5	The Contributions of this Study .....	260
9.5.1	Contribution to Hofstede’s Categorisation.....	261
9.5.2	Contribution to Knowledge of Cameroon.....	262
9.5.3	Contribution to the Social aspects of Work .....	262
9.5.4	Contribution to Organisational Management.....	263
9.6	Implication of the study .....	263
9.7	Limitations and Scope of the Research.....	264
9.8	Suggestions for Further Study.....	266
9.9	Recommendations.....	267
9.9.1	Recommendations to Organisations in Transition .....	267
9.9.2	Recommendations to Owners, Managers and Employees .....	268
References .....		269
Appendix A: Formulae .....		297
1.	Power Distance Index .....	297

2.	Individualism Index .....	298
3.	Masculinity Index .....	298
4.	Uncertainty Avoidance Index .....	298
	Appendix B: Correlation Tables .....	299
	Table 55: Cultural values and Leadership style dimensions.....	299
	Table 56: Cultural values and Employee Motivation (Extrinsic and Intrinsic motivation factors) ....	300
	Table 57: Leadership style and extrinsic motivational factors.....	301
	Table 58: Leadership style characteristics and Intrinsic Motivation factors.....	302
	Appendix C: Questionnaire.....	303
	Appendix D: Interview Questions.....	312

## List of Tables and Figures

### List of Tables

Table 1: Ethnic groups in Cameroon .....	8
Table 2: Religions in Cameroon .....	8
Table 3: Summary of the Definitions of Culture .....	32
Table 4: A summary of Hofstede's first four cultural dimensions .....	41
Table 5: A summary of Cultural Models .....	44
Table 6: Management style versus leadership style.....	51
Table 7 Summary of Definitions of Leadership.....	54
Table 8: Classification of Leadership styles models.....	56
Table 9: Similarities between the Need based perspectives of motivation .....	70
Table 10: Ten Traditional African Values and Beliefs .....	94
Table 11: Ethnic Origins of the sampled population .....	128
Table 12: Respondent's position in organisation.....	130
Table 13: Respondent's level of education.....	131
Table 14: Respondent's age.....	131
Table 15: Respondent's length of service.....	131
Table 16: Respondent's gender .....	132
Table 17: Cameroon's Scores on Hofstede's Dimensions of National Culture.....	146

Table 18: Structure of Cultural Values .....	152
Table 19: Cooperation among Employees .....	152
Table 20: Interpersonal relationship between the boss and subordinates .....	153
Table 21: Target Specification.....	153
Table 22: Performance measure.....	154
Table 23: Participation in decision-making .....	155
Table 24: Preferred Leadership style .....	156
Table 25: Perceived /Dominant leadership style.....	157
Table 26: Rejected Leadership style .....	158
Table 27: The structure of motivation variables as aspects of leadership style .....	159
Table 28: The structure of communication variables as aspects of leadership style.....	160
Table 29: The structure of interaction variables as aspects of leadership style .....	161
Table 30: The structure of decision-making variables as aspects of leadership style .....	162
Table 31: The structure of goals variables as aspects of leadership style .....	163
Table 32: The structure of controlling variables as aspects of leadership style.....	163
Table 33: The structure of relationship variables as aspects of leadership style.....	164
Table 34: The structure of extrinsic motivation factors .....	167
Table 35: The structure of intrinsic motivation factors.....	168
Table 36: Statistical presentation of factors for recruiting employees.....	171
Table 37: Level of importance of each factor of recruitment .....	172
Table 38: Statistical presentation of factors for promoting employees.....	173
Table 39: Level of importance of each factor of promotion .....	174
Table 40: Level of satisfaction with involvement in decision-making .....	176
Table 41: Level of commitment to organisation .....	176
Table 42: Pride of belonging to one's organisation (commitment .....	177
Table 43: Employee commitment.....	177
Table 44: Employee involvement .....	178
Table 45: Management informs employees about job performance .....	178
Table 46: Management stimulation of employee to improve performance .....	179
Table 47: Correlation Matrix for Cultural Values and Leadership Style Characteristics .....	184
Table 48: Correlation matrix of cultural values and employee motivation (extrinsic and intrinsic motivation factors) .....	187
Table 49: Correlation matrix of Leadership style and employee motivation.....	188
Table 50: Correlation matrix for Cultural Values, Leadership Styles and Employee Motivation.....	190
Table 51: Importance of factors of Recruitment and Promotion by managers and employees .....	206

Table 52: Perceived and desired factors of recruitment..... 207

Table 53: Perceived and desired factor for employees' promotion ..... 234

Table 54: Summary of Hypotheses Results ..... 249

Table 55: Cultural values and Leadership style dimensions..... 299

Table 56: Cultural values and Employee Motivation (Extrinsic and Intrinsic motivation factors) .... 300

Table 57: Leadership style and extrinsic motivational factors..... 301

Table 58: Leadership style characteristics and Intrinsic Motivation factors..... 302

### List of Figures

Figure 1: Administrative Map of Cameroon. *Source:* (West, 2004)..... 10

Figure 2: Diagrammatic presentation of the research issues (*Source:* Author, 20/12/2016) ..... 14

Figure 3: Conceptual model (*Source:* Author, 20/12/2016)..... 20

Figure 4: Generalisability Diagram (*Source,* 20/12/2016)..... 22

**Figure 5: Relationship between different levels of culture** (*Source:* Author, 20/12/2016)..... 29

Figure 6: Relationship between different levels of culture (*Vivion, 2008*) [www.iproconhcm.co.uk](http://www.iproconhcm.co.uk).... 31

Figure 7: Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs (Hamner & Organ 1978 P. 138) ..... 67

Figure 8: The Relationship between Maslow and Herzberg Models (*Johnson & Gill, 1993*)..... 69

## Chapter One

### 1.1 Introduction

The fast pace of globalisation is said to have led to some degree of convergence between African traditional values and Western management practices (Bergiel et al., 2012). Competition among companies is increasing. As a result, companies in Africa are encountering many management challenges amid this cultural disparity. Studies have shown that the success or failure of an organisation depends on its culture (Kotter & Heskett, 1992) and that leadership style and employee motivation are the key influencers of organisational effectiveness (Gopal & Chowdhury, 2014). Corporate culture has a direct impact on every component of a firm's performance, especially on leadership effectiveness of business strategy (Want, 2003) and on employee motivation (Molenaar et al., 2002). Hence, there is a need for continuous improvement of a company's effectiveness and efficiency by creating competitive advantage in order to cope with these challenges. In this light, an organisation must among other things, develop cultural values that fully exploit the potentials of its employees, and leadership plays a central role in this process. A well-managed corporate culture, therefore, can improve a company's competitive advantage (Deal & Kennedy, 1982; Peter & Waterman 1982). Leadership is viewed as the central factor in directing all organisational components towards effective accomplishment of the goals of the organisation (Burns, 1978). Effective leadership is possible only if the leadership style is compatible with the motivational needs of the followers (Maslow, 1954; Argyris, 1976).

Studies have shown that national culture and organisational culture are interrelated. These studies assert that the culture of an organisation is influenced by the culture of the nation in which it is found (Trompenaars & Hampden-Turner, 1998; Sagiv & Schwartz, 2007; Hofstede, 1980; House et al., 2004). Sagiv & Schwartz (2007) suggest that the influence of national culture on organisation values is both directly and indirectly through its impact on member's values and on the nature of organisational tasks.

The focus of this study is to investigate the direct relationships between (a) cultural values and (b) employee motivation and the indirect relationships via (c) leadership styles in

Cameroon organisations. Many studies have investigated the relationship between leadership style and employee motivation (Almansour, 2012; Gopal & Chowdhury, 2014; Buble et al., 2014); culture and leadership style (Igusi, 2014; Hofstede, 2001), and culture and employee motivation (Nayak et al., 2011). But there is a paucity of studies on the relationship between the three concepts.

### 1.2 The Story of My Research

My research journey began from the moment when I decided to carry out a research on an issue I personally witnessed in my professional life. I was concerned with employee's attitude in general towards their work in both private and public sector organisations. I noticed that even though there is a high level of unemployment in Cameroon, those who have succeeded to find a job do not really stay for a long time with their organisations. Workers constantly groan and complain. These attitudes of employees towards their job urged me to carry out a research to investigate the reasons behind their behaviour. The search led to the discovery of the reasons behind the slow growth and development of the sub-Saharan African countries as a whole and Cameroon in particular. The study found out that African countries in the sub-Saharan region are faced with significant problems among which are; managerial and leadership incompetence, corruption, mismanagement, stalled developmental projects, lack of appropriate leadership and limited capacity and lack of courage and willpower to fight corruption (Mapunda, 2007). Other sources attribute the poor performance to poor governance (Nwankwo & Richards, 2001), management incompetence (Kamoche, 1997), limited employee motivation (Okpara & Wynn, 2007) and leadership weakness (Ochola, 2007).

The dismal performance persists despite the abundance of natural resources such as rivers, minerals, flora, fauna, national parks, fertile soils and rich African cultural heritage (Kende-Robb et al., 2013). Mapunda (2007) claims that corruption; management and leadership issues and problems in sub-Sahara Africa are obstacles to the economic development and social advancement of African economies. Reading through the literature, I realised that there is an urgent need for a comprehensive empirical investigation into the impact of dominant African attributes of leadership style and employee motivation (organisational performance)

to foster the development of the sub-Saharan African region (Kuada, 2010). As such, I decided to investigate the relationship between culture, leadership style and employee motivation in Cameroon.

After deciding the topic and selecting the key words, it was easy to find information on the main constructs in the developed economy. When the search of information was narrowed down to Africa, few literature came up. But when narrowed further down to Cameroon, the task became very daunting. There is a paucity of literature on the individual constructs (cultural values, leadership style and employee motivation) let alone that on the relationship between the triad in Cameroon. Since the sub-Saharan African countries share to an extent similar cultural underpinning, I decided to use most of the information from this region to relate to Cameroon.

The data collection phase of the research was problematic. Constructing the data collection tools and piloted them was not a big issue since it was done in London. The actual data collection process was the beginning of pangs of distress. That is when I faced the reality of what it means to carry out a research in an emerging country like Cameroon. I had already decided the organisations in which the survey was to be done, but had not made any formal contact with these organisations. I travelled to Cameroon on the 3rd of May 2014 for three months for the collection of data. On the 10th of May 2014 I made the first contact with one of the SMEs of the two sectors where the survey was to be undertaken (banking and telecommunication).

This is what happened; I went to the business site and requested to speak with the manager, he came out of his office with a fierce look on his face and the first words he uttered were "*what do you want*". I felt embarrassed and uncomfortable, but immediately had control over my feelings. I smiled and greeted him, then introduced myself. The moment he heard that I was a research student from London; his countenance changed. He apologised and explained to me that it was a busy day and he could not attend to me at that moment, we made an arrangement to meet at a more convenient day and time. During the next meeting, I met the manager this time around in his office. He was a completely different person, we had a good discussion. I was so surprised by his drastic changed of attitude. In the course of our discussion, I learned he had had a chat concerning me with one of his staff who knew me. He



then made this statement "*why did you not inform me that you know Eunice*"?<sup>2</sup> I learned from this encounter that it will be easier for me to gain access to an organisation if I approached the manager through one of their staff or someone they know. This approach actually worked for my subsequent encounters with the managers of the SMEs I visited, they easily gave me the permission to sample their employees.

The scenario explained above was just the tip of the iceberg; the actual difficulty occurred during the data collection phase. Some of the employees in the sampled firms categorically refused to participate in the survey, the majority of those who accepted the questionnaire answered the questions parsimoniously and those that finally answered reluctantly submit the questionnaires. It was quite obvious that they were scared of expressing their views, despite assuring them of the anonymity of the information. For instance, during the interview process one manager told me that "*it is true that my name has not been mentioned, but I can still be identified through my voice*". There were some elements of doubt in their minds concerning the purpose of my research. They questioned my research objectives and why I chose to carry out the research in their organisations. The answers came out naively when they were answering the very sensitive questions. One of the instances was when I went to collect the answered questionnaires from one of the SMEs, I realised that the manager had not answered a question concerning the link between leadership style and employee motivation, when I brought that to his attention, he asked me "*what do you think I should write there?*" I thought that maybe he did not understand the question, so I explained it to him, after the elucidation he told me that "*just help me write the answer*" just like a joke and that was it, he finally did not answer the question.

These difficulties actually prepared me for the interview the followed; they made me aware of the people with whom I was dealing, how hard it is to get information from them. It also convinced me of the need to design a strategy that would enable me to elicit the respondent's real perceptions. What I experience clarified a lot of issues that have been going on in my mind, especially issues related to the paucity of information on organisational management.

A lot of courage, patience and tactfulness is required to carry out research in such an environment. Transparency International speaks corruption and ranks the country 136 out of 175 most corrupt countries in the world according to the Corruption Perception Index (2015). Literature have been written about the difficulty of obtaining information in general

---

<sup>2</sup> Name has been changed

in emerging economies and in this particular circumstance in Cameroon. The research methodology followed a non conventional pattern. In a sense, I had to deviate from the familiar methods advocated in research methodology text books and improvised other methods whilst at the same time being faithful to scientific methods and the ethics involved in asking about areas in which respondents might feel vulnerable. I had to adapt the data collection to suit the circumstances. How I did this may be interesting to other researchers. They of course will have to design their own variation, but the choice will involve certain creativity.

Although some of the participants were enthusiastic in collecting the questionnaires, it took me more than two months to collect all the answered questionnaire from the respondents; they kept telling me to come back another day. The same thing happened during the interview phase. Each time I went to meet up with someone with whom I had an appointment for an interview, for one reason or the other, the person would cancel. I discerned that maybe the venue was not convenient, decided to change the venue, instead of meeting them in their offices, I chose a place out of the work environment. In a café, a restaurant or another relaxed setting and it worked. At least I was able to interview 10 of the 30 people who were targeted to take part in the interview process.

Africa has been dubbed by transparency International as the most corrupt continent. In 2015 75 million Africans were reported to have paid bribes, this practice is seriously affecting business and investments in many African countries (BBC Africa, 24/04/2016). The government of Cameroon is determined to fight corruption and to improve the image of the country, as a result, it has put in place numerous bodies responsible for cracking down corrupt individuals and organisations. This has rendered Cameroonians to be sceptical about the mission of those who come to their organisations to do research. These anti-corruption agents operate undercover; people are scared of dispensing information indiscriminately, they do not want to say something or give out information that might implicate them. When someone goes into an organisation and starts asking questions about very sensitive issues, especially from the leaders, they think that it might be someone from the anti-corruption agencies. In such a situation, those individuals who acted as a 'gateway' between the researcher and the organisations become very necessary as they would be able to explain the mission of the researcher to the managers.

Another difficulty that I faced was that some individuals in some of the SMEs expected me to give them money in exchange for information. This is understandable as part of the culture and perhaps reflects not only this, but, the fact that salaries are very low. It is unethical to do such a thing in this type of research as stipulated by Western research culture, but not according to Cameroonians. Hence, care and tactfulness are needed in handling such a situation.

The lack of information transparency in Cameroon makes it challenging to do business in the country. The Commonwealth Business Environment Report (2012, 2016) says that corruption, cumbersome bureaucracy, and decision-making delays have contributed to the challenging business environment, thus placing a significant burden on investments, and organisational management. Corruption in Cameroon is perceived as pervasive. The country ranked 141<sup>st</sup> out of 179 countries in Transparency International's Corruption Perception Index (2011). This is a big issue in the country and is obvious in almost every aspect of the lives of Cameroonians. The situation is critical to the extent that measures have been put in place to fight against these practices.

The issue of corruption in Cameroon has been labelled as a big cultural issue, the minister of Finance commented: *"Cameroonians have a culture of negotiating a price for everything. We are dealing with wider cultural issues and cannot expect the problem to be solved quickly. However, what we can do is create more efficient systems that promote better business practices and thereby improve the investment environment."* Essimi Menye, Minister of Finance (Commonwealth Business Environment Report, 2012).

I tried to gather data relevant to the research questions and hypotheses that were set up in the study. The fact that I was a Cameroonian, and therefore had a natural understanding of cultural issues, plus the fact that my research was based in London, and to that extent independent of the authorities helped in the process.

The behaviour of this the manager earlier mentioned in this story was very unforthcoming and distrustful until when he realised that I was a researcher based in London, then he was much more open. The questions that I have not been able to answer for myself is that, had I not been a Cameroonian based abroad would I have been able to carry out the research to the required degree? Did the manager allow me to access the organisation with the hope that I was going to give him money or why was he influenced by the fact that I came from abroad?

What if there was nobody to lead me to the managers of the SMEs, would they have given me access to carry out the survey in their organisations? If I was not a Cameroonian would the research have been possible? Is the paucity of literatures on organisational management in Cameroon linked to these kinds of difficulties involved in getting information? Overall, it was a hard struggle, the data gathered was able to answer the research questions and verified the hypotheses that were raised in the study.

Writing this thesis as a Cameroonian living in the United Kingdom and who has done fieldwork in Cameroon is a plus. My experience as a residence in the United Kingdom have helped me paint a clear picture of the differences that exist in culture, motivation and leadership style in the developed economy and those present in Cameroon. The sorts of things that I have observed and experienced have guided me in what I am looking for in literature.

### 1.3 Research Background

This research investigates the direct relationships between cultural values and employee motivation and the indirect relationships via leadership style in Cameroon. These relationships are influenced by many factors including; Geography, demography and ethnicity (Iguisi, 2009).

#### 1.3.1 Cultural Background

Cameroon is located in the Central and Western African and it is found in the sub-Saharan African region. It is bordered by Nigeria, Chad, Central African Republic, Gabon and Congo (RoC) ([www.economywatch.com](http://www.economywatch.com), 2010). Cameroon is interwoven in diverse cultures; local and foreign. It has 5 main ethnic groups (Table 1) and approximately 250 sub-ethnic groups distributed in 10 regions (Figure 1); 8 French speaking regions and 2 English speaking regions (Encyclopedia of the Nations, 2012). The ethnic fractionalisation score is 0.89 (greater than the sub-Saharan average of 0.64). 270 indigenous dialects are spoken across the

country (Fearon & Laitin, 2005). It ranked 5<sup>th</sup> out of 162 countries in terms of ethnic diversity (Fearon & Laitin, 2005). The different ethnic groups have a distinct subculture based on language, race and religion which set them apart from each other (Hellriegel et al., 2004).

**Table 1: Ethnic groups in Cameroon (Fearon & Laitin, 2005)**

<b>Ethnic Group</b>	<b>Location</b>	<b>Size</b>
Grass Fielders/Western Highlanders (Bamileke, Bamoun, Bantu)	Northwest and West	38%
Coastal Tropical Forest Peoples (Bassa, Douala, etc.)	Southwest and Littoral	12%
Southern Tropical Forest Peoples [Ewondo, Beti (Bulu and Fang subgroups), Maka and Pygmies/Bakas]	South, Centre and East	18%
Fulani (Islamic Northerners)	Sahel/Northern Desert	14%
Kirdi (non-Islamic Northerners)	North Desert/Central Highlands	18%

Comparing the multi-ethnic cultural situation of Cameroon with the uni-cultural inclination of some of the Western countries, it is easy to come to the conclusion that Cameroon does not have a ‘national culture’. Researchers have confirmed that culture within a country is not uniform (Brown, 1998; Li et al., 2013). These writers went further to assert that many countries have distinct regional subcultures; as a result, people are not expected to have or share the same values, attitudes and norms. Culture in Cameroon differs from east to west, north to south, hinterlands to the peripheries (Hellriegel et al., 2004). Li et al. (2013) claimed that environmental influence is one of the causes of regional differences in culture. The question that arises here is whether a pluralistic nation such as Cameroon which is multi-ethnic (Table 1) and multi-religious (Table 2) has a homogeneous or national culture?

**Table 2: Religions in Cameroon (International Report on Religious Freedom-Cameroon 2010)**

<b>Religion</b>	<b>Percentage</b>
Christianity	70%
Islam	21%
Indigenous	9%
Others	4%

The level of religious freedom in Cameroon is relatively high and diverse (Country Reports on Human Rights Practices, 2007). The International Religious Freedom Report (2010) reported that Christianity is the dominant faith practiced by about 2/3 of the population and

Islam by 1/5. Traditional faith is also a form of religion common in Cameroon. The southern and western regions of the country are concentrated with Christians, while the northern regions are dominated by the Muslims.

Psychologists, social scientists and social anthropologists have all testified to the fact that social and cultural environment has a colossal role to play in the economic development and well being of a country. D'Iribarne (2007) after researching what makes a success of a corporation arrived at a conclusion that promoting development is not a matter of trying to change cultures that are allegedly incompatible with progress. What is needed are ways of organising companies and economies to align with the forms of good co-operation specific to each culture. Kindleberger (1965) associated economic development to city life rather than rural life and cultural attitudes which emphasise competition rather than contemplation. This indicates that culture has a significant role to play in the economic growth of a country. These considerations no doubt influenced Hofstede's work, which has been tremendously influential. However, does the diversity of Cameroon in so many respects justify some of Hofstede's generalisations?

Cameroon is endowed with modest oil resources and favourable agricultural conditions; with these resources, the country is said to have one of the best primary commodity economies in sub-Saharan Africa (Cameroon Economy Profile, 2014). Still the country is plagued with problems, including stagnation of per capita income, unequal distribution of income and non-productive state enterprises ([www.economywatch.com](http://www.economywatch.com), 2001). In addition to these problems, the country is confronted with endemic corruption, inequitable distribution of income, despotism, poverty, top-heavy civil service, violent insurgencies, lower commodity prices, epidemics and a generally unfavourable climate for business enterprises (Cameroon Economy Profile, 2014).



**Figure 1: Administrative Map of Cameroon.** *Source: (West, 2004)*

### 1.3.2 Economic Background

Many reasons have been attributed to the slow economic growth of Cameroon. OECD (2007) attributed the sluggish growth and development of the country's economy to the slow rate of structural reforms and gaps in the effort to improve governance. A reputable source asserts that economic uncertainty and managerial weaknesses continue to plague efforts to implement the reforms required to overcome the country's low performance (Executive Report on Strategies in Cameroon, 2000). Although the World Development Reports (2015) state that the economic, social development and political situations of African countries have improved compared to the 2014 report, the continent compared with other parts world is still lagging behind in terms of economic development.

According to a study carried out by the National Institute of Statistics (2014), Cameroon's economy witnessed a 2.2% growth in 2013 and a -0.7% decline in 2014. The report claims that the decline is due to the slowdown in the secondary and tertiary sectors. The Index of Economic Freedom (2015) posits that doing business in Cameroon is very difficult because bureaucracy and the absence of transparency have rendered business information costly and burdensome.

Attempts have been made by researchers for some decades now to explain the reasons behind this poor performance of African organisations in general and Cameroon in particular. The performance level in the public sector is different from that in the private sector. The private sector outperforms the public sector organisations in Cameroon (Tchankam, 2000). Bekolo (1995) attributes the poor performance of the public sector organisations to their dependence on the state and Wamba (2001) blamed it on the incompetence of their leaders. Moussa (2001) postulates that the poor performance is due to socio-cultural and traditional values of their leaders. One implication of this study is that the direct relationships between cultural values and employee motivation and the indirect relationship via leadership styles referred to above are important contributory factors. In line with the arguments of Wamba (2001), Moussa (2001) and Bekolo (1995) the causes of the poor performance of organisations in Cameroon can be grouped under two broad factors: management and cultural factors.

Poverty and deprivation are typical features of emerging markets and according to Kurfi (2011) could be linked to poor managerial leadership in both public and private sectors. The concept of management practices in general is very broad; too broad to be encompassed in a single thesis. As such, this study focuses on two aspects of management; leadership style and employee motivation. The perceptions of some managers and employees on recruitment and promotion both associated with motivation will also be presented in this study. Recruitment and promotion are considered as specific situations where the manifestations of culture, leadership and motivation can be seen.

### **1.4 Western Management Models in the Cameroonian Context**

Numerous factors have been listed as the causes of the economic mishaps of the sub-Saharan African countries. One of them is the lack of appropriate and effective organisational



management (Kombou & Feudjo, 2007). Iguisi (2014) argues that the approach taken to analyse the organisational problems in the sub-Saharan region is inadequate, ignoring some of the main important social variables. A study by the World Bank Development Report (2006) attributes the poor organisational management to the cultural values of the African society. Still others claim that the lack of success of many African organisations created and managed based on Western theories and models have not met their desired objective (Iguisi, 2014).

Recognition of these African cultural values in organisational management is particularly important because according to Oppong (2013), an Africa will always be influenced by his/her cultural values. The issue seems to be the local managers adopting Western practices and neglecting local values (Iguisi, 2012). Research findings have revealed that projects in Africa more or less survive as long as they are being managed by expatriate experts, but they fail after having been transferred to the locals (Oppong, 2013). Hofstede (1980) asserts that management cannot be separated from culture. While African elites are very knowledgeable about accepted models and theories of the West due to their acculturation and training in Western type institutions in Europe and America, knowledge about the cultures and values of their own society, in which they were born and raised, is limited. The African elites are not sufficiently equipped to understand the assumptions, even prejudices, imposed on them by the Western cultures in which they have been acculturated and the traditional environment in which they were born and raised. Thus, their ability to contribute something original to their societal development is limited (Jackson, 2004; Iguisi, 2014).

The conclusion may be that African countries if they are to thrive alongside wealthier nations in this era of globalisation should balance Western notions of leadership style and employee motivation strategies with the cultural inclination of the society.

### 1.5 Aims and Objectives

The general research issue examined is the direct impact of cultural values on employee motivation and the indirect impact through leadership style, based on a sample of 135 questionnaire respondents and follow up of 10 interviews from SME's in banking and telecommunication sectors in the North West and South West regions of Cameroon. The

extent to which these results are generalisable, is also an important issue. The results are compared with the findings of leading contributors to the study; for example (Hofstede, 1991; Likert, 1967; Maslow, 1954; Herzberg, 1959 and Vroom, 1964).

The aim is not to carry out an extensive study of each construct in isolation, but to investigate the direct link between cultural values and employee motivation and the indirect link through leadership style. The focus of the research is area G in Figure 2 below. The issues involved are complex, especially because of diverse cultural underpinning in the regional and national level.

The super ordinate aim is concerned with the economic growth, development and wellbeing in Africa as a whole and Cameroon in particular. While some scholars propagate colonial history, misappropriation of resources, geography, corruption, ethnic and tribal divisions as the causes of the sluggish economic growth and development in Africa; others attribute it to culture and managerial factors such as leadership style and motivational factors (Kurfi, 2011). The situation is particularly alarming as studies have revealed that leadership style and motivation are positively related to organisational effectiveness and performance (Chaudhary, 2012; Manzoor, 2011).

SMEs are the key industries in the new economy. They are the most developed and fastest growing industries in Cameroon and are critical to development. They are critical in transforming both the urban and rural economic landscape of Cameroon which is probably inevitable in a global economy where the urban population is growing relative to the rural.

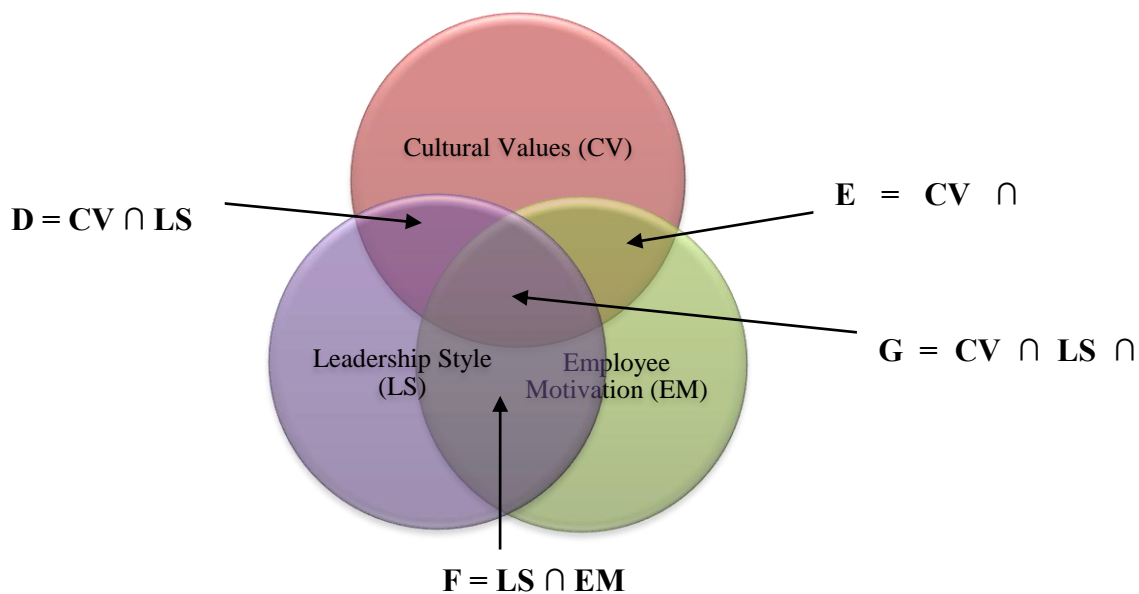
To facilitate the achievement of the research aim, the following broad objectives have been set:

1. An examination of the culture in the Cameroon as exemplified in the data set using the framework provided by Hofstede (1991); focusing primarily on the dimensions of individualism versus collectivism, power distance, uncertainty avoidance, and masculinity versus femininity.
2. Carrying out this objective involves the following steps, in the empirical work, based on the literature and sample. An examination of:
  - a. The types of leadership styles present in Cameroon's organisations.
  - b. Employee motivation factors in Cameroon's organisations.
  - c. The leadership styles in relation to the cultural values identified.

- d. Employee motivation in relation to cultural values exemplified by the sample.
- e. Leadership style in relation to employee motivation.
- f. The impact of culture on employee motivation via leadership.

Both quantitative and qualitative aspects are involved; quantitative analysis based on Likert scales and qualitative analysis taking into account respondents emotional responses within the sample.

The research issues have been illustrated diagrammatically in Figure 2. The individual constructs are briefly reviewed separately. Then the link between them is investigated, the similarities and differences of how these constructs manifest in the developed economy and in the sub-Saharan Africa is looked at.



**Figure 2: Diagrammatic presentation of the research issues** (Source: Author, 20/12/2016)

D = relationship between cultural values (CV) and leadership style (LS)

E = relationship between cultural values (CV) and employee motivation (EM)

F = relationship between leadership style (LS) and employee motivation (EM)

G = relationship between cultural values (CV), leadership style (LS) and employee motivation (EM); the indirect relationship is also investigated.

The study has been partitioned into stages to facilitate achievement of the research objectives.

1. Stage 1 of the research consists of a review of the relevant literature in order to identify the direct effects of cultural values on employee motivation and the indirect effects via leadership style.
2. As a result of the literature review, set out provisional hypotheses and research questions relating to the complex relationship between cultural values and leadership style and their impact on employee motivation (Figure 3, p. 19) and consequently organisational performance.
3. In Stage 2, key SME's in Cameroon are selected in which the research will be done. This will enable (a) an investigation of the provisional hypotheses in relation to the actual situation in the selected SME's in Cameroon and (b) modification of these general hypotheses in the context of Cameroon.
4. Stage 3 consists of pilot studies through several focus groups largely made up of Cameroonians living in London. This will help to (a) modify the hypotheses and (b) refine and adapt the questionnaire.
5. Stage 4 consists of the field work in Cameroon.
6. Stage 5 consists of testing the hypotheses against the data generated from field work.
7. Stage 6 consists of comparing the findings with the literature, looking for similarities and differences.
8. Stage 7 consists of determining the extent to which the hypotheses at stage 3 are generalisable to the situation in Cameroon.
9. Stage 8 consists of an attempt to make policy recommendations on the basis of findings in the previous stages.

### 1.6 General Research Questions

In exploring the direct relationships between cultural values and employee motivation and the indirect relationships via leadership style, the general questions to be addressed are: to what extent does the culture of Cameroon concur or discord with Hofstede's (1991) data set for the West African region specifically on the following dimensions of culture (power distance, individualism, uncertainty avoidance, and masculinity)? To what extent are the leadership styles expressed by Likert (1967) (autocratic, paternalistic, consultative, and participative),

and the motivation theories of Maslow (1954), Herzberg (1959) and Vroom (1964) effective in managing organisations in Cameroon society?

The specific research questions that this study set to answer are as follows:

1. To what extent does Cameroonian culture correspond to Hofstede's cultural dimension? That is, what are the scores of Cameroonian managers and employees in the sample with respect to Hofstede's dimensions of: (i) power distance, (ii) individualism/collectivism, (iii) masculinity/femininity, and (iv) uncertainty avoidance?
2. How does the Cameroon score compare with Hofstede's (1991) scores for the West African Region?
3. Which leadership styles are perceived to be dominant in Cameroonian organisations?
4. Which styles do the employees prefer and which styles do they reject in their work organisations?
5. What are the factors that motivate employees in Cameroon?
6. What relationship exists between cultural values and leadership style?
7. What is the relationship between leadership style and employee motivation?
8. Does the Culture present in Cameroon's organisations have any effects on the management practices of leadership style and employee motivation?
9. What are the values perceived by managers and employees to influence recruitment and promotion in their organisations?
10. To what extent does the consideration of these values affect attitudes in the workplace?
11. To what extent are employees satisfied with their level of involvement and commitment to their organisation and what role does employee involvement play in their performance?

### **1.7 Justification and Significance of the Research**

This section discusses the relevance of the study, which is multiple. Many scholars argue that management plays an indispensable role in the economic development of a country (Drucker, 1986; Kiggundu, 1988; Onyemelukwe, 1973; The World Bank Report, 2001 cited in Iguisi,

2014). The World Bank Report (1986) emphasises this importance by saying that “management of public and private organizations is a prerequisite for a sustainable economic development”. Drucker (1986) contends that, economic growth is possible if organisation leaders, which are considered as the main vehicle of economic growth, integrate the cultural inheritance of a country into management. Also emphasising on the importance of leaders in the economic development of a country; Harbison & Myers (1964) argue that the direction and pace of the march towards industrialisation depend upon the group that provides the leadership in an organisation.

The intention of this research is to investigate the direct relationships between cultural values and employee motivation and the indirect relationships through leadership style in some SMEs of the banking and telecommunication sectors in Cameroon. The study will serve as a vital instrument to analyse the differences and similarities between the situations in Cameroon with respect to what other key research papers say about the constructs and the relationship between the three.

The end results of the research are aimed at helping managers of moribund corporations to improve the performance of their organisations. This can be done by creating cultures, adopting leadership styles and motivational practices which will guide the actions of the members of the organisations, and to fillip better performance.

This research will contribute to empirical knowledge (a) through application of existing theories in Cameroon, (b) improvement in research methods and (c) generation of new primary data as a result of quantitative and qualitative research.

This study will be a significant and new development in the field of organisation, management in Cameroon since most important theories of management, especially; those of motivation and leadership styles will be applied to a new situation, that of Cameroon. These theories, as a result of the research will be adapted to the countries cultural values, thus testing the robustness of existing theories, especially those relating to the nexus of culture/leadership/motivation and the influences of multi-ethnicity. The study shall attempt to fulfil the following in relation to the Cameroon and the data collected by the researcher:

- a) It will allow the identification of the concept and framework of employee motivation that takes into account the existing cultural environment in which organisations operate.
- b) It will support and enrich theory and model of employee motivation in both private and public sector organisations that may have some similarities in culture and way of doing things.
- c) It will generate greater awareness among private sector as well as public sector organisations in Cameroon on the importance of having a proper and practical employee motivation strategy as a vehicle to organisational effectiveness.
- d) It will provide useful knowledge on factors that might have an impact on employee motivation and can also contribute to management adopting better strategies to help improve their organisational culture to ameliorate employee performance. This is actually a new area of application since it combines culture, leadership styles and employee motivation in a single model.

### 1.8 Current Academic Context of Research

As a justification for the research it is necessary to point out that contemporary management and organisation studies have neglected the effect of cultural values on employee motivation; cultural values on leadership style; leadership style on employee motivation and on organisational effectiveness. Most of these studies concentrate on the universal management factors for achieving organisation objectives and neglect the fact that management is culturally bound (Hofstede, 1991). Not much is known about the interrelationship between the three concepts in Africa as a whole and Cameroon in particular. While on the other hand, a panoply of researches has been undertaken on these constructs in the developed countries. This study aims at identifying the core cultural values existing in organisations in Cameroon and their direct and indirect effects on employee motivation through leadership style.

The fact that Cameroonian society is multi-ethnic, raises a question as to the extent in which generalisation of the culture of the country on the basis of the research is possible. This thesis will attempt to address this issue. Research along these lines in Cameroon is rare. Hence this study aim; first, to enhance existing academic work on the relationships: cultural values, leadership style and employee motivation (Figure 2); second, to examine the differences and

similarities between Cameroon's situation with respect to the relationship as it is understood in key research papers (to be identified in the literature survey); and third, to add to existing empirical knowledge through application to Cameroon.

Management practice is a very broad and controversial concept in African organisational studies. It involves many aspects; managerial functions, centralisation, decentralisation, organisational structures, diversity and change managements. What matters most in a country like Cameroon which is still at an embryonic stage of organisational development is the style of leadership used by its managers, which is one of the foci of this research. As Hofstede (1984) put it, culture is an umbrella term that involves a region, country, tribe, organisation, institution and the family. This study moves from the broad aspect of national culture to the narrow one: organisational culture. Hofstede's (1991) dimensions of culture have been chosen by this study as a suitable model for measuring culture.

### 1.9 Theoretical Model

Three sectors of literature served as the theoretical basis for this research. The first theoretical model is based on the literature on culture (Hofstede, 1980, 1983, 1991, 2007, 2011; Trompenaars & Hampden-Turner, 1998; Schwartz, 1999; House et al., 2004). The second model duels on the mainstream school of management discourse on theories and models proposed by Likert (1967); Herzberg (1959); Maslow (1954) and Vroom (1964). The third theoretical model is based on literature related to African (Cameroon) environment of culture/management as perceived by some key African authors (Kombou & Feudjo, 2007; Hernandez, 1997; Munene, 2000; Dia, 1994; Mbigi, 1997; Opong, 2013; Iguisi, 2014).

As mentioned above, the main research issues consist of: 1) investigating the direct impacts of cultural values on employee motivation and 2) the indirect impact via leadership style in Cameroon. A conceptual model based on these two issues led to the development of the research hypotheses (see Figure 3).

The diagnostic model in Figure 3 below will be used in this study to investigate the relationship between culture/leadership/motivation. The model was designed based on Hofstede's (1991) model as the most appropriate model for culture, Likert's (1967) model as



the most appropriate for leadership style and Herzberg's (1959) model as the most appropriate model for employee motivation (Malhorta, 2014, Iguisi, 2012). The model is composed of two sections; one that indicate the direct relationship between cultural values (CV) and employee motivation (EM) and the other section that indicate the indirect relationship between CV and EM. The indirect relationship side of the model shows that CV affect leadership style (LS) and LS affects EM. The lower section of the model shows the detail relationships between the different variables of the model. Succinctly, the model drives the point that CV affects EM both directly and indirectly via LS and that there are two groups of motivational (EM) factors; intrinsic and extrinsic factors.

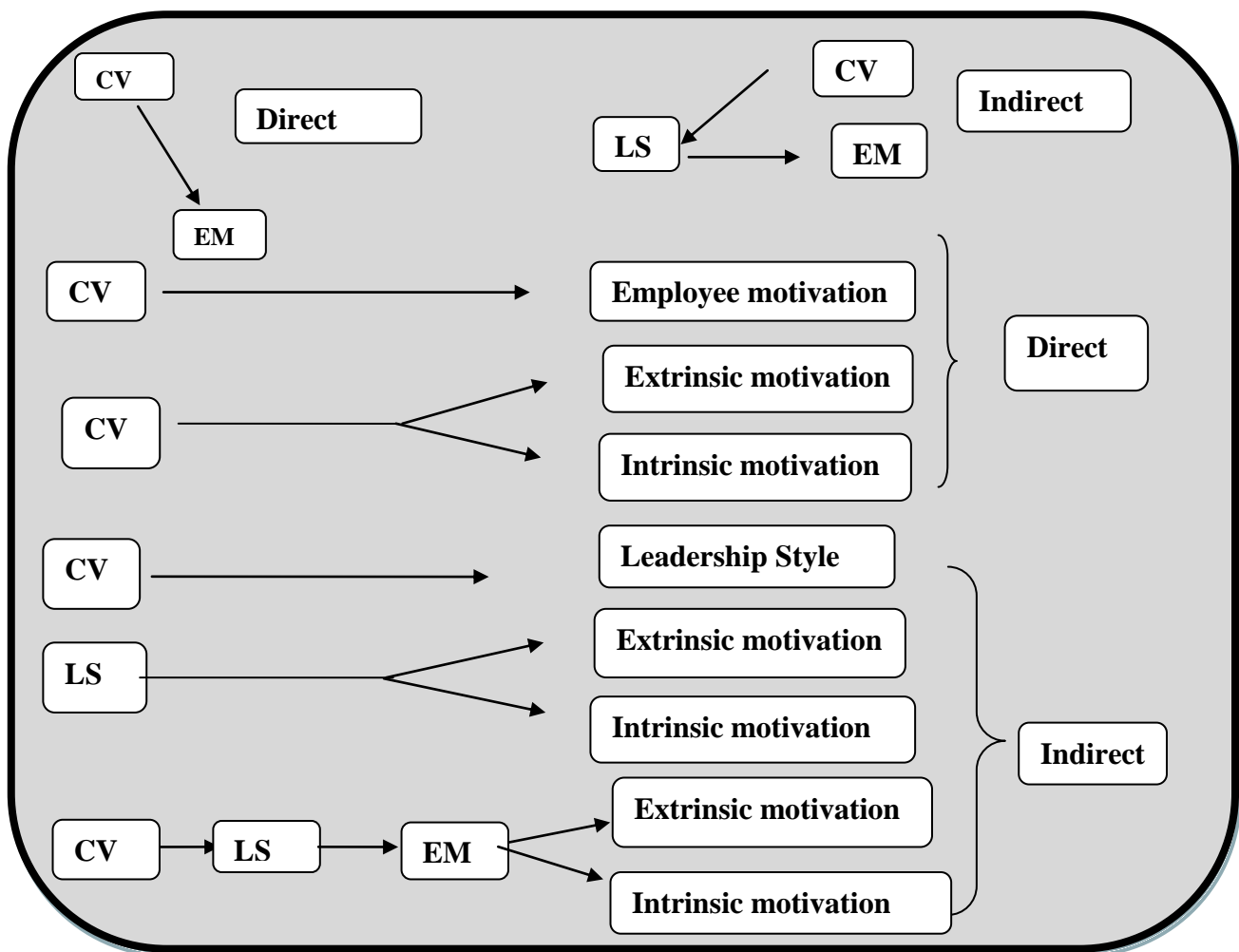


Figure 3: Conceptual model (Source: Author, 20/12/2016)

Hofstede's (1980) model identifies four dimensions of culture: (1) power distance, (2) individualism versus collectivism, (3) masculinity versus femininity and (4) uncertainty avoidance.

In Likert's model, four leadership styles are differentiated. They are: (1) exploitative-authoritative, which is the embodiment of the autocratic style, (2) benevolent-authoritative, which is fundamentally a paternalistic style, (3) consultative, which moves towards greater democracy and teamwork, and (4) participative-group system, which is the ultimate democratic style (Cole, 2004 p. 55; Likert, 1967).

Herzberg's, Maslow's and Vroom's models identify two categories of motivational factors: intrinsic and extrinsic. Intrinsic factors are: achievements, recognition, work itself, responsibility, and advancement, and extrinsic factors are: work conditions, supervision, security, salary, and company policy. By combining Hofstede's, Likert's and Herzberg's model, a diagnostic model of culture, leadership styles and motivation is designed.

In order to investigate the relationships between cultural values, leadership styles and employee motivation, seven hypotheses have been generated and will be tested based on a survey of 135 managers and employees of the SMEs of the banking and telecommunication sectors in the North West and South West regions of Cameroon. The hypotheses are:

**Hypothesis 1 (H1):** Cameroon's scores of cultural dimensions of power distance, masculinity/femininity, collectivism/individualism and uncertainty avoidance falls within the range of data set obtained by Hofstede (1991) for the culture of the West African Region.

**Hypothesis 2 (H2):** The dominant leadership style in Cameroonian organisation is autocratic.

**Hypothesis 3 (H3):** There is a stronger correlation between cultural values and intrinsic motivation than there is between cultural values and extrinsic motivation.

**Hypothesis 4 (H4):** Positive correlation exists between cultural values and leadership styles.

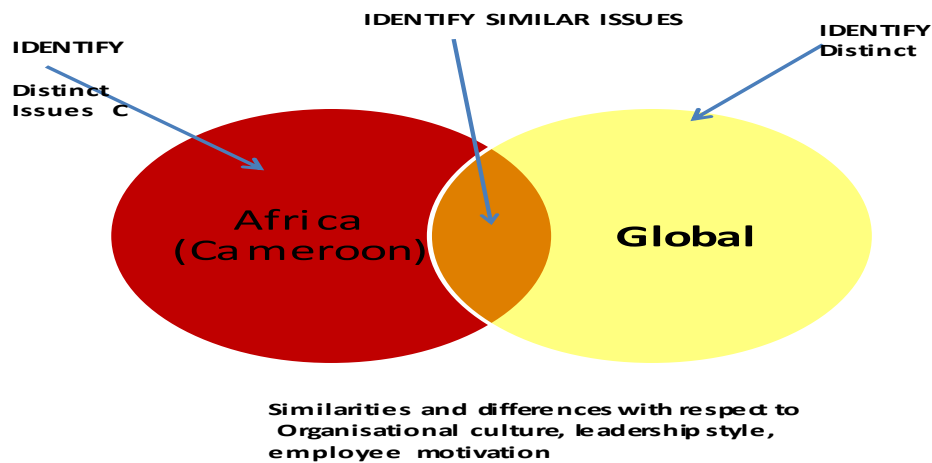
**Hypothesis 5 (H5):** Positive correlation exists between cultural values and employee motivation.

**Hypothesis 6 (H6):** Positive correlation exists between leadership style and employee motivation.

**Hypothesis 7 (H7):** There is a positive correlation between cultural values, leadership styles, and employee motivation.

Some hypotheses for example, H1 and H2 arise directly from the work of Hofstede and Likert. The other hypotheses emerged from the study of literature.

One of the aims of the research is to test the implications of empirical work carried out elsewhere to situation in Cameroon as indicated in Figure 4.



**Figure 4: Generalisability Diagram** (Source, 20/12/2016)

## 1.10 Methodology

This research is designed to elicit attitudinal responses by means of structured questionnaire surveys and open-ended in depth interviews. The intention is to understand the consequences of cultural values on leadership styles and on employee motivation. A mixed approach of quantitative and qualitative methods was employed in order to acquire in-depth and complementary data.

The research abided by conventional approaches to design data collection tools. This is absolutely necessary. However, most textbooks deal with the issue at a macro, big picture or coarse grained level. This research, however, is concerned with fine grained or micro data and hence, requires fine graining as in the research story outlined above.

The quantitative questionnaires and open-ended interviews centred on: cultural values, leadership styles, employee motivation, and recruitment and promotion. The theoretical and analytical framework of Hofstede (2013) Value Survey Model (VSM) questionnaire was used. While still maintaining the originality of the VSM, some questions related to the context of Cameroon were added to the questionnaire. The qualitative aspect of the study emphasises on the affects the consideration of certain factors during recruitment and promotion by management have on the employee's attitude toward work.

A sample of 200 managers and employees from 10 SMEs in the banking and telecommunication sectors of the North West and South West regions of Cameroon was selected for the survey, 135 participated in it. The banking and telecommunication sectors are the key industries in the new economy. So they were the focus of this research. These two sectors have been chosen to ensure uniformity and homogeneity as well as a higher percentage representation of the service sector, which is the area of focus of this research. Fieldwork findings were augmented with information from other sources such as; archives, web based sources, trade groups in the Cameroon, newspapers, international sources, WTO, world bank.

The field work was carried out in 2014 in the North West and South West regions of Cameroon, 1) because the majority of business and management researches in Cameroon concentrated mostly in the Centre, Littoral and Western regions and neglect the North West and South regions, 2) due to the important contribution these regions have made to the economic and cultural heritage of Cameroon, and 3) it was easier for the researchers to have access to data. These two organisations have been chosen to ensure uniformity and homogeneity as well as a higher percentage representation of the service sector.

Analysis of findings will be done with the aid of Statistical Package for Social Science (SPSS). Likert scale instruments will be used for leadership style, motivation scale and cultural dimensions proposed by Hofstede will be used to measure the level of employee motivation and culture. The Pearson correlation coefficient will be utilised to measure the correlation between the variables that describe the constructs.

## 1.11 Outline of the Thesis

The study has been organised into nine chapters, starting with Chapter One which is the introductory chapter, two theoretical chapters, one methodological chapter, two empirical chapters and a conclusion chapter which discusses the findings and implications.

In Chapter One, the research background; the justification and significance of the research are discussed, the general research questions to be treated as well as the aims and objectives of the study are listed here. The research methodology is discussed also, and the main theoretical models on which the empirical study and the research methodology are based are mentioned; as well as how the structure of the thesis.

In Chapter Two the relevant literature on modern cultural values are reviewed. A number of culture and management studies will be considered, including the most widely used models of culture by researchers.

Chapter Three discussed exclusively management practices. In this chapter, literature on management, leadership discourse are reviewed, also discussed here are some of the theories and model of motivation, but before that some of the factors affecting motivation are presented. The role of employee motivation on employee involvement and commitment as well as the relationship between cultural values, leadership styles and employee motivation are considered in this chapter.

In Chapter Four the cultural environment of Africa at large and Cameroon in particular are presented. The chapter highlights some common traditional African values, the role of such values in on management practices of leadership styles and employee motivation. Also discussed in this chapter is the Western or conventional cultural values in the Cameroonian society and the impact they have on management practices.

Chapter Five discusses the research methodology used in the study, specifically, the research methods and procedures, research strategy. Also included in this chapter is the research design and how the research instruments were developed.

In Chapter Six the structure of the findings of the study is presented. Specifically the quantitative data of the research results are discussed.

Chapter Seven presents the analysis and interpretation of the quantitative data.

Chapter Eight provides the analysis and interpretation of the qualitative data.

In Chapter Nine the general conclusions of the research in relation to the literature, research aims and objectives are discussed. The limitations, contribution and areas for further research are also presented.

### 1.12 Conclusion

The relationship between cultural values, leadership style and employee motivation is complex, investigating such relationship involves many issues. The outcome of the investigation will go a long way to help organisation leaders to design management strategies that will foster performance.

Organisational culture is strongly influenced by national culture (Hofstede, 2001), therefore, to gain a clear understanding of organisational culture, it will be preferable to first of all study the culture of the country in which the organisation is situated. Hofstede's model is a renowned model that has proven effective to investigate cultural underpinning. The Value Survey Model postulated by Hofstede (2013) is an effective tool to investigate cultural value, leadership style and employee motivation.

Research has shown that different factors motivate individual employees in varying ways. Some people are attached to a company for security reasons; others are seeking for challenging tasks and risks, or relationship Reiman & Oedewald (2002). All these factors have some degree of influence on the way an organisation's culture is experienced. Following this line of reasoning, Collins (1998) postulated that cultures are historically developed, socially maintained and individually interpreted. This indicates that culture is able to unify behaviour. Fundamental to this fact is the creation of common norms and shared social identity by organisation leaders, that condition the pattern of behaviour of each employee in a given role and situation (Reiman & Oedewald 2002). The ability of a leader to satisfy the varying needs of his employees is what determines the success of an organisation. Understanding the style of leadership that best motivates employees in a multi-ethnic culture

like that of Cameroon is essential for the economic development of the country. This is the central issue of this study, and finding the answers to the general research questions raised at the onset will go a long way to help achieve this aim.

The following chapter review literature on culture and discusses the models of culture.

## Chapter Two

### Theoretical background of Cultural Values

#### 2.1 Introduction

In the last decades, many scholars have developed an enormous interest in the study of culture. A wide range of researchers from a variety of disciplines (psychology, anthropology, economics, sociology and organisational behaviour) have carried out studies on this concept. Researchers previously thought that the environment is the main source of influence on human behaviour. Recently, systematic attempts have been made to find out the influences culture have on employee behaviour (Sinha et al., 2010). The general trend is that culture and leadership styles are highly related aspects of organisational life, they are said to have the same functions in the organisation (Schein, 2004); one of which is determining the level motivation of employees (Hofstede, 1980). Most organisations today contend with low level of employee motivation which results in low morale; this has a bearing on performance. Cultural values are essential for the maximisation of human capital, and culture management should become a critical management competence.

The main aim of this study is to investigate the direct nexus between cultural values and employee motivation and the indirect nexus through leadership style. Cultural values and leadership style impact employee motivation and the latter have a strong influence on organisational performance. Reviewing the existing literature on culture which is the main focus of this chapter, will contribute to the achievement of the research objectives.

This chapter will begin with, (1) a brief overview of the concept of culture, (2) its various definitions, (3) the concept of values as used in cultural theories, and (4) some mainstream models of culture. The objective of this chapter is to acquire important information that will be useful for setting hypotheses and development of a questionnaire. The study aimed at comparing the actual cultural values of Cameroon with those proposed by Hofstede (1991) for the West African region. Cameroon is located in West Africa and so share similar cultural consequences as the other West African countries which featured in Hofstede's (1980) study; Nigeria, Ghana and Sierra Leone. It will not be erroneous to attribute the results obtained by



Hofstede for the culture of the West African region to Cameroon since he referred to the region as a whole and not the individual countries.

### 2.2 Overview of the Concept of Culture

In order to determine the direct relationship between cultural values and employee motivation and the indirect link via leadership style, an understanding of the concept of culture is needed. It is a truism that culture is not the only factor that affects leadership style and employee motivation but, among all the other factors that contribute to a successful management, culture and the relationship it has with leadership style and employee motivation is less spoken of. One of the reasons for the paucity of information on culture and the link with the other two constructs may be due to the fact that culture is difficult to detect (Hofstede, 2001). It operates in peoples mind, hence Hofstede calls it “software of the mind”.

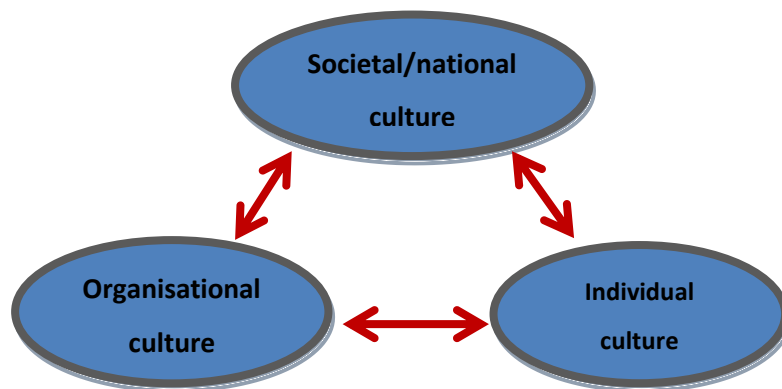
#### 2.2.1 National Culture

There are many types of cultures; organisation, national, societal and family (Hofstede, 1980). Different scholars have specialised in the study of various types of culture; House et al. (2004) studied societal culture while Hofstede (2001) specialised on national culture. The impact of both types of cultures on organisation processes has attracted many researchers (Trompenaars & Hampden-Turner, 1998; Sagiv & Schwartz, 2007; Hofstede, 1980; House et al., 2004). Sagiv & Schwartz (2007) suggested that the influence of societal culture on organisation values is both directly and indirectly through its impact on member's values and on the nature of organisational tasks. Organisational culture is subjective to the particular cultural programming of its members (individuals) (Trompenaars & Hampden-Turner, 1998).

The term national culture as used in most literature denotes a country with defined geographical background, while societal culture represents a broader perspective of a collective (Ekmekci et al., 2010). The GLOBE study asserts that using the term societal culture over national culture helps to indicate the complexity of the concept of culture (House

et al., 2004). The GLOBE project assumes that many countries have multiple sub-cultures within their borders (Chhokar et al., 2007). Schwartz (1999) reasoned that there are some nations with ethnic or other distinctive form of cultural groups living separate and different lives. This phenomenon is depicted by the cultural situation is most of the sub-Saharan African countries which are characterised by ethnic plurality. It can be challenging for leaders to manage such vast cultural groups within their organisations, since each group might have distinct needs.

Many researchers (Hofstede, 1980, 2001; Schein, 1985; Trompenaars, 1993) have demonstrated that the relationship between societal, organisational and individual culture is very complex. To facilitate the task of analysing culture and cultural differences, they have divided the cultural environment into layers. The trend of the relationship, according to them is expressed as follows: national culture affects the industry culture; industry culture affects the organisational culture and organisational culture affects a group (family or community) and individual culture; and each layer has interacted with each other (Figure 5).



**Figure 5: Relationship between different levels of culture** (Source: Author, 20/12/2016)

The construct of culture is so broad to the extent that each researcher identifies the different types of cultures that exist based on the context of his study. Deshpande & Farley (1999) identified four types of cultures, which are; entrepreneurial, competitive, consensual and bureaucratic cultures. Handy (1985) on his part identified four types of cultures, namely; power, task, role and person cultures.

Hofstede (1980) was one of the first scholars to suggest a way of unpacking the concept of culture; he uses dimensions to describe culture. These dimensions facilitate the comparison of culture which Hofstede says is the best method of measuring culture.

### 2.2.2 Organisational Culture

Culture is a valuable asset for an organisation. Stressing the role of culture in a firm, Flamholtz et al. (2009) said strong positive culture is an “asset” for some companies and for others; their organisation culture is a “liability”. Molenaar et al. (2002) assert that the success of an organisation can be achieved if beliefs, behaviours and values are consistent among all members of an organisation, irrespective of their level (upper management, middle management and lower level employees). Martin (1992) refers to this kind of culture that unified employees as ‘integrated culture’.

Culture can either contribute to the success or the failure of an organisation. Successful cultures are those where the goals of employees are aligned to the goals of the organisation (Kotter & Heskett, 1992). A well-managed corporate culture can improve a company’s competitive advantage (Deal & Kennedy, 1982; Peter & Waterman 1982). Corporate culture has a direct impact on every component of a firm’s performance, especially on leadership effectiveness of business strategy (Want, 2003) and on employee motivation (Molenaar et al., 2002). The strength of culture can be determined from the impact it has on both individuals and organisation performance (Kotter & Heskett, 1992). This therefore means that the success of operations, human resources, decision-making processes, customer services and organisation structure depends on the culture of a business.

Organisational culture is expressed in; benefits system, dress code, job descriptions, rituals, times of work, attitudes, habits, office layout, policies, and procedures, titles and organisational charts. The visible aspect of culture is also referred to as symbols (Schein, 1992). Its continuity is ensured by means of stories, office gossip, heroes and heroines, decor, language, social life and practices shared by employees of the organisation (Hai, 1986). The invisible aspects of culture are likened to a submerged part of an iceberg and are expressed in the form of beliefs, attitudes, norms interpretation, moods and assumptions. According to Addis (2010) these invisible aspects are the most important and deep-seated facet of culture. It refers to values held by the workers of a corporation, and these values tend to persist even when the employees are replaced by other workers (Kotter & Heskett, 1992).

According to Schein (1992) culture is the integral part of an organisation which all the workers agree on. For a company to succeed and grow, it has to adjust to its external

environment as well as integrate the newly acquired methods and working patterns internally in the organisation (Lægaard & Bindslev, 2006). Instrumental to this success, Melonaar et al. (2002) say organisations should adopt a culture that provides a workplace environment for employees. According to them, people perform at a high level when they perceive their workplace environment is rewarding. While Mgbere (2009) asserts that culture helps to determine the social capital of an organisation, the right values can add to, and enhance the structure and strategy needed by the organisation to succeed in the environment in which it is found. Pittigrew (1993) on the other hand, claims that culture can be manipulated or shaped to suit strategic ends, meaning that organisations can be transformed internally to fit into the environment in which it is found.

The concept of culture is so complex, Vivion (2008) attempts to simplify the intricacy of the term and its relation with other organisational facets by designing a framework known as the 'cultural web'. Organisation culture, according to Vivion's web affects six components (Figure 6); leadership style, symbols, stories and myths, power and control mechanisms, rituals and routines and organisational structures. Schein (1992) argues that symbols, rituals and routines, stories and myths are manifestations of culture and not effects of culture.



**Figure 6: Relationship between different levels of culture (Vivion, 2008)**  
[www.iproconhcm.co.uk](http://www.iproconhcm.co.uk)

The culture of an organisation covers a full extend of activities such as; values, control, leadership style and reward schemes (Greener, 2010). This therefore conveys the idea that leadership style and motivation are linked to culture. As such, finding the fit between the tripartite will determine the success of an organisation.

Any further discussion about culture will be some how futile without an understanding of the meaning of the term itself.

### 2.3 Definitions of Culture

The concept of culture has uncountable applications in different disciplines (sociology, psychology, anthropology, economics and management). This may explain why there exists an extensive list of definitions for the construct. Irrespective of the level at which culture is considered, (national, organisational, and individual) having and appreciating its meaning is essential for a successful management.

People have different ways of interacting with one another, communicating, processing or interpreting information and adapting to circumstances, which they passed on to the future generation. All these constitute culture and they affect the way business processes are executed (Hofstede, 1980). The term culture has the broadest influence on many dimensions of human behaviour. This permeability of culture makes its definition difficult (Hellriegel, et al., 2004; Hofstede, 1994; Martin, 2001; O'Reilly et al., 1991; Rowe et al., 1994; Schein, 1992). The quantity of definitions elucidated by researchers is so numerous, for instance, Olie in his 1995 publication counted over 164 definitions for culture that were collected up till 1951 (Jones, 2007). So far there is no generally accepted definition for the concept despite its usage for over a decade now (Alvesson & Berg, 1992).

To facilitate the understanding of the meaning of culture, Bodley (1994) summarises the wide range of definitions of culture into headings as shown in Table 3.

**Table 3: Summary of the Definitions of Culture (Bodley, 1994)**

Topical	Culture consists of everything on a list of topics, or categories, such as social, organisational, religion, and economy.
Historical	Culture is a social heritage, or tradition, that is passed on to future generations.
Behavioural	Culture is shared, learned human behaviour; a way of life.
Normative	Culture is ideas, values, or rules of living.
Mental	Culture is a complex of ideas, or learned habits, that inhibit impulses and distinguish people from animals.
Functional	Culture is the way humans solve problems of adapting to the environment or living together.
Structural	Culture consists of patterned and interrelated ideas, symbols, or behaviours.
Symbolic	Culture is based on arbitrary assigned meanings that are shared by a society.

Culture was first defined by Edward B. Tyler in 1871. He defined it as “that complex whole which includes knowledge, belief, art, morals, law, customs, and any other capabilities and habits acquired by man as a member of society” (McCort & Malhotra, 1993).

Downs (1971) associated culture with a mental map; he said human learned behaviour is the end result of how they think about things. Downs believed that this mental map was a means to guide people in their relation with their surroundings and other people. This definition conveys the idea that culture is a pattern of behaviour that is shaped by our thinking. Triandis (1972) throw more light on this thought by distinguishing subjective culture from objective or material culture. He said subjective culture is the way individuals perceive their social environment; that is: rules, roles, values and group norms. While material culture consists of elements as dress, houses, machines, food, highways and tools.

The broader sense of culture is expressed in definitions from social anthropologist. Hofstede describes it as the ‘software of the mind’ and he defines it as “the collective programming of the mind which distinguishes the members of one group or category of people from another” (Hofstede, 1980, 1991, 2001, 2011). According to Hofstede, culture is like a computer program, it controls people's behaviour. Baskerville (2003) argues that Hofstede's definition neglects important aspects of culture, such as beliefs, customs, norms, and habits. Hofstede (1980) posits that culture involves shared phenomenon, learned and not genetically transferred, derived from one's social environment, it involves both human nature as well as individual's personality. The implicit aspect of culture is manifested in values which, according to Hofstede (2001) is the main component of culture. Unlike Hofstede, Baskerville (2003) claims that the implicit aspects of culture should manifest them self superficially in symbols, practices, heroes and rituals.

Other modern day definitions have been fairly widely used, they range from very simple definition such as “the way we do things around here” (Balogun & Hailey, 2004) to an expressive definition of "a pattern of shared values, norms and practices that help distinguished one organisation from another” (McAllister et al., 2006) to more sophisticated definitions such as “a pattern of basic assumptions that the group has invented, discovered or developed in learning to cope with its problems of external adaptation and internal integration” (Schein, 1986). And “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 that has worked well enough to be valid and to be taught to new members

as the correct way to perceive, think and feel in relation to these problems” (Hampden-Turner, 1990).

Some of the definitions have been more discipline-specific (Schein, 1992; Hellriegel et al., 2004; Rowe et al., 1994; Want, 2003). Want (2003) defines culture as “Collective belief systems that people within a company have about their ability to compete in the marketplace and how they act on those belief systems to bring value-added services and products to customers and profits to the company.” According to Want, culture is reflected in values, attitudes, behaviours, commitments, belief systems, decision-making processes, innovation and productivity that have short or long-term influence on the firm’s performance. This definition emphasises a number of important aspects of organisational culture, such as shared assumptions, values, beliefs, socialisation and norms, shared symbols, language and practices.

Wilderom & Van den Berg (2004) defines organisational culture as “shared perceptions of organisational work practices within organisational units that may differ from other organisational units.”

It is not a fallacy to say that the myriads of definitions of culture suggest that the concept is a dynamic point of reference of a society, it is shared and learned by a society members, it interacts with the environment, it is symbolic and transferable. A very important aspect of culture is value; it is the central element or the core of culture. According to Schwartz (1999) cultural values are a representative of the implicitly and explicitly shared abstract ideas of what is wrong, right, and desirable in a society.

Boyacigiller et al. (2003) retorted that cross-cultural management scholars over the years have come to share a set of assumptions about culture, be they explicitly stated or implied in the text. They claim that the core of culture is composed of explicit and tacit assumptions or understandings commonly held by a group of people; a particular configuration of assumptions/ understandings is distinctive to the group; and serve as guides to acceptable and unacceptable perceptions, thoughts, feelings and behaviours; they are learned and passed on to new members of the groups through social interaction. Since culture is learned through social interactions, and is dynamic (Bergiel et al., 2012), can it change over time?

The construct of organisation culture has been questioned by researchers and practitioners. Due to the broadness and the implication of the concept, Reiman & Oedewald (2002) suggest

that studying the values, practices, artifacts and core task present in a company at a point in time may help to determine the prevailing culture in that organisation. The same thought goes for societal or national culture. Studying the values of a country at a particular time will give a picture of the predominant culture. Groeschl & Doherty (2000) cited in (Myers & Tan, 2002) described culture as consisting of both explicit and implicit elements. These elements are explained using terms such as values, norms, behaviours, and basic assumptions. This means that culture can be better explained by analysing the values of a unit.

### 2.4 The Concept of Values in Culture

Early anthropologists who first defined culture did not directly refer to value as the central element of culture (Hofstede, 1980; Swartz, 1999); they conveyed the notion that culture as well as value is static and immutable. Kluckhohn & Strodtbeck (1961) emphasised the importance of values in assessing culture. House et al. (2004) empirically confirmed that cultural attributes are easily measured by considering indicators such as shared values of collectives.

The differences in cultures stem from underlying value systems, which cause people to behave differently under similar circumstances (Jariya, 2012). Values are the central part and determinant of behaviour; they serve as the basis for comparing cultures (Hofstede, 1980; Schwartz, 1999; House et al., 2004; Trompenaars, 1993). Values are manifested on personal, occupational, organisational, and national levels (Wallace et al., 1999). Societies develop their values by responding to basic challenges that are faced by all societies (Schwartz, 1999). Organisations on the other hand have to adapt to environmental and internal conditions, to respond to these challenges, they develop consciously or unconsciously preferred values that form their culture (Sagiv & Schwartz, 2007).

A considerable number of researchers have demonstrated their interest in defining values. The common idea in values research and definitions is that values influence behaviour (Giacomino et al., 2013). Rokeach (1973, p. 16) described value as “an enduring belief that a specific mode of conduct or end-state of existence is personally and socially preferable to alternate modes of conduct or end-states of existence.” Schwartz defines values as “conceptions of the desirable that guide the way social factors such as organisational leaders,



policy makers, individuals; select actions, evaluate people and events and explain their actions and evaluations” (Schwartz, 1999, p. 25). Values are like criteria or parameters for selecting, evaluating, and explaining people’s actions. Societies measure their value using parameters such as the level of security, freedom, and prosperity. Cultural values are broad goals that members of the collectivity are encouraged to pursue; they serve to justify actions taken in pursuit of these goals (Schwartz, 1999). These cultural values are expressed in norms, practices, symbols and rituals that are widely shared (Sagiv & Schwartz, 2002).

Hofstede asserts that values are core elements in culture and defines it as broad tendencies to prefer certain states of affairs over another (Hofstede, 2007). It involves human behaviour and how they are able to distinguish between opposing traits like goodness and badness, dirty and clean, moral and immoral, rational and irrational. Values are not directly observed but can be inferred from their manifestations in alternate behaviour (Hofstede & Sanders, 1990; Sackmann, 1991). Values are the key determinants of behaviour (Rokeach, 1973) across situations and over time (Epstein, 1979). Variations in values could be the direct result of an individual's behaviour (Meglino & Ravlin, 1998). The values of people in a society affect their relationship and these values form part of the collective programming of people's mind in that society (Hofstede, 2007). Personal experiences and exposure to formal socialisation forces explain the similarities and differences in values (Bem, 1970; Jones & Gerard, 1967; Rokeach, 1973). Hofstede (2001) and Triandis (1995) argue that the values and beliefs held by members of cultures influence the degree to which the behaviours of individuals, groups, and institutions within cultures are enacted and the degree to which they are viewed as legitimate, acceptable, and effective.

Daghfous et al. (1999, p. 315) cited this quotation by Kamakura & Novak (1992) which explains that “value refers to a single belief that transcends any particular object, in contrast to an attitude, which refers to beliefs regarding a specific object or situation. Values are more stable and occupy a more central position than attitudes, within a person's cognitive system. Therefore, they are determinants of attitudes and behaviour and hence provide a more stable and inner-oriented understanding of consumers.” It therefore means that values are ‘permanent’ beliefs of a person which are developed in the person’s native culture or cultures in which the individual is in association with. Hofstede (2007) confirms this by saying that “values are resilient against technology. Technology affects culture in general and management in particular not on the basic level of values, but on the most superficial level of

practices. Practices change according to the needs of the day and to the available resources, but they do not necessarily affect the underlying values.” According to Hofstede, the stability of values within societies over time is due to the fact that values form part of the collective programming of people’s mind. Wilderom & Van den Berg (2004) added that values are qualities that are not directly apparent but can be seen in practices. Values arise from socialisation processes and genetics (Meglino & Ravlin, 1998).

The values of the society in which an organisation is situated, affects the values of the organisation (Sagiv & Schwartz, 2007). Values link up with culture to drive performance. Organisations and societies earn their values from their members (Meglino & Ravlin, 1998), and are built up and strengthened by relationship among these members. Organisations need to function in a way that conforms to societal norms else they will be rejected by the society (Sagiv & Schwartz, 2007). Researchers like Rokeach (1973), Hubbard (1998) and White (1998) considered organisational work practices as the central element of organisational culture and not values. According to them, what differentiates one organisation from another is what they practice. Hofstede (2001), Wilderom & Van den Berg (1999) confirmed this by postulating that the difference in organisations is more apparent in work practices than in values. Schwartz, after careful examination of the work of well-known theorists such as Hofstede, Kluckhohn & Strodtbeck, Rokeach; came to a conclusion that the cultural values of a society reflect the basic obstacles common in that society and which must be overcome in order to regulate human activity (Schwartz, 1999).

Cultural values are better revealed when two cultures are compared (Pinto & Fadul, 2011). This thought is supported by the study of Proulx (2003, 2008) who believed that a better understanding of any culture can be gotten by finding the link it established with other cultures. Well-known Cross-cultural researchers like Hofstede, Hall, House, Javidan, Schwartz, Trompenaars, Schein, Cameron, just to name a few all apply this strategy of comparing the cultures of countries or organisations in their studies.

Hofstede uses the term ‘values’ most of the times with reference to national culture, and according to him these values are deep-seated in members of a group and cannot be easily changed (Hofstede, 1980). Empirical studies have proven that cultural values have shifted compared to Hofstede’s first value survey study. An example of such studies is the cultural convergence theory which ascertained that there is increasing similarities between cultures,

especially those with strong international linkages, Japan, for example, has become more individualistic while the US is collective (Bergel et al., 2012).

Values are more homogeneous in organisations than in society at large. The concept of shared values in management literature is often referred to as corporate culture (Van den Steen, 2010). Many authors have attempted to measure culture in different societies and organisations by using value dimensions. Smith & Dugan (1996) cited researchers such as Hofstede, Schwartz, Trompenaars, and Bond, who have postulated dimensions of culture based on the study of the dominant values of the collective.

Nations with relatively homogeneous societies which share a common language, political system services, national symbols and mass media are often referred to as having a 'national culture' (Hofstede, 1990; Schwartz, 1999). What though of heterogeneous nations like Cameroon with over 270 ethnic groups, two languages, numerous political parties and different educational systems? Using the term 'national culture' in this situation is inappropriate (McSweeney, 2002; Iguisi, 2014). No wonder though, prominent modern-day cultural theorists such as Hofstede (2001); Schwartz, (1999); Trompenaars (1993) stressed mostly the study of cultural values. To avoid being entrapped between the two terms, this research shall use the term cultural values instead.

### 2.5 Models of Culture

Early management scholars such as Henri Fayol, Frederick Taylor, Mike Hammer, and James Champy all believed in and shared the notion of management 'universalism'. According to them, there is "one best way" to manage and to organise (Trompenaars & Hampden-Turner, 2000). Studies in the 70s began focusing on the environment as conditioning the effectiveness of certain methods. Modern day or contingency studies deal with the relationship between organisational structures and environment. Though there exist some differences in how organising and managing are perceived by these scholars, the one common thing in these studies is the expression of the concept of management universalism (Trompenaars & Hampden-Turner, 1998). The notion behind this concept is that management practices are transferable; that management practices in the USA are still applicable in Africa, this means that there are no cultural boundaries to organisational management. Parsons (1951) however,

suggested that it is not enough for organisations to simply adapt to the environment, but is also necessary that the views of the participating employees be taken into consideration when making management decisions.

Organisational theories developed in the 70s dwelled solely on organisational culture and failed to measure the impact of national culture on management and organisations (Trompenaars & Hampden-Turner, 2000). It is important to note that culture is manifested in all aspects of a society (Hofstede 1980). The scope of influence of culture has been classified into levels by most authors for better comprehension. These levels are: national or societal level, corporate or organisational level, family level, school level and functional or professional orientations (Trompenaars & Hampden-Turner, 1998; Hofstede, 2001; Fan, 2000). The impact of societal culture on organisational culture has been examined by using different dimensions (Hofstede, 1980, 2001; House et al., 2001; Schwartz, 1999).

Researchers have developed differing frameworks to classify the cultures of the world (Darlington, 1996). Their models give suggestions of what the values of the collection of people in different cultures look like (Hofstede, 2007). These models, however, do not give a clear picture of the values of individuals in a culture, since not everyone in a particular culture behaves in the same way (Treven et al., 2008).

One of the major goals of cross-cultural psychology has been the identification of dimensions of cultural variation. Dimensionalisation of culture is essential because it makes it possible to operationalise the concept of culture; it can aid in the creation of a homological framework that permits integration of assorted attitudinal and behavioural empirical phenomena as well as enabling the generation of hypothesis (Smith & Dugan, 1996; Hofstede, 2009). Scholars such as House et al. (2004) in the GLOBE Study; Hofstede (2011); Schwartz (1994); Trompenaars (1999) and many more are well known for measuring culture by using dimensions and their contribution to knowledge in this field of study has been enormous. A panoply of dimensions has been proposed by the above mentioned authors, these dimensions have provided a framework for developing hypotheses in cross-cultural organisation studies.

### 2.5.1 Hofstede's Model

Hofstede is one of the first contemporary scholars of culture, his original study data was collected from IBM; a multinational corporation with subsidiaries in 64 countries. Hofstede proposed that the majority of the differences in employee motivation; leadership styles and organisational structures of companies worldwide can be linked to the collective mental programming of people in different national cultures (Hofstede, 1980; Bolden & Kirk, 2009).

Hofstede initially postulated four dimensions of measuring culture. These dimensions are concerned with the fundamental problems faced by any human society. According to Hofstede, different societies have found different ways of solving these problems. The dimensions have been used to explain; the different ways of structuring organisations, motivation patterns within organisations, and various societal issues affecting people and organisations (Hofstede, 2001).

The first dimension is power distance, according to Hofstede (2011), power distance is the extent to which the less powerful individuals in a society accept inequality in power and consider it as normal. In high power distance cultures, individuals respect their superiors and avoid criticising them. In low power distance cultures, it is very acceptable to challenge superiors, albeit with respect.

The second dimension is individualism – collectivism, which reflects the degree to which a society views its members as individuals or as group members (Hofstede, 2011). In individualistic societies, individuals are primarily concerned with their own interests and the interests of their immediate family. In highly collectivist societies, individuals are not defined by their own actions, but rather the groups' actions.

The third dimension is masculinity – femininity, with masculinity described as cultures where the dominant values are expected to be those characterising the masculine gender such as; ambition, assertiveness, and competition. In contrast, in cultures high in femininity there is a dominance of feminine values such as preference for “friendly atmosphere, position, security, physical conditions and security” (Hofstede, 2001 p. 281).

The fourth dimension, uncertainty avoidance is not the same as risk avoidance (Hofstede, 2011). It is the degree to which people in a culture generally prefer to tolerate ambiguity

(Hofstede, 2011). It describes the extent to which a culture programs its members to feel either comfortable or uncomfortable in unstructured situations. Unstructured situations are those that are unknown, surprising, and different from usual. In uncertainty avoiding cultures, such situations are minimised by instituting strict behavioural codes, laws and rules, disapproval of deviant opinions, and a belief in absolute truth (Hofstede, 2011).

Subsequent research initiated by Bond (1987) revealed a fifth dimension. This dimension originally labelled “Confucian dynamism” represented the opposing view time orientation has on life and work (Hofstede et al., 1990). This dimension, which was later known as long-term orientation, refers to the situation where instant reward is preferred over delayed reward (Hofstede & Bond, 1988).

Hofstede's sixth dimension was adopted from Minkov (2007). It is labelled indulgence versus restraint. Indulgence describes societies that allow relatively free gratification of basic and natural human desires related to enjoying life and having fun. Restraint stands for societies that control gratification of needs and regulate it by means of strict social norms (Hofstede 2011).

For conceptual reasons, this study uses just the first four dimensions. The last two dimensions were not included in Hofstede (1991) data set for the West African Region.

**Table 4: A summary of Hofstede's first four cultural dimensions**

<b>Cultural Dimension</b>	<b>Description</b>
Power distance (Hofstede, 2011)	The degree to which members of an organisation or society expect and agree that power should be unequally shared and the power holders are entitled to have more privileges than those less powerful in the society.
Collectivism versus individualism (Hofstede, 2011)	The degree to which organisational and societal, institutional norms and practices encourage and reward collective distribution of resources and collective action. The extent to which people place importance to extended families or clans, which protect them in exchange for loyalty. The ‘in-group’ – ‘out-group’ difference is salient.
Uncertainty avoidance (Hofstede, 2011)	The extent to which people in an organisation or society considered the uncertainty inherent in life as a continuous threat that must be fought. There is a high avoidance of deviant and different persons and ideas. It also denotes the extent to which members of an organisation or society strive to avoid uncertainty by relying on social norms, rituals, and bureaucratic practices to alleviate the unpredictability of future events.
Masculinity/Femininity (Hofstede, 2011)	The degree to which people in an organisation or society value interpersonal harmony more than money and achievement; gender roles are fluid.

### 2.5.2 The GLOBE Model

The Global Leadership and Organizational Behaviour Effectiveness (GLOBE) research began in 1993 and is an ongoing study of national culture and leadership style. The study uses both qualitative and quantitative methods from 170 researchers and support groups to collect data from 17,000 middle managers from 951 organisations in 62 different countries (House et al., 2004). The aim of the GLOBE project is to determine the organisational and societal dimensions of culture and its effect on leadership behaviours, country's prosperity (GNP) and the well-being of members of society. Also the research attempted to determine what traits distinguish the practices of one culture from another and what leadership behaviour and organisational practices are acceptable in that culture (House et al., 2004).

The GLOBE study builds on Hofstede's framework and extends it to include two additional dimensions: performance and humane orientations. Performance-oriented societies value and reward performance, emphasise results more than people and are concerned with individual achievement and excellence. In highly humane cultures, individuals are rewarded for being fair, caring, altruistic, benevolent and kind. The GLOBE study also changes the terminology of Hofstede's masculinity – femininity dimension to gender egalitarianism.

The GLOBE research program postulates nine attributes or dimensions for measuring societal culture (House et al., 2004). Based on the review of literatures relevant to the measurement of culture and on existing cross-cultural theory, the following nine quantitative dimensions were identified: (1) uncertainty avoidance, (2) power distance, (3) collectivism I: societal emphasis on collectivism, (4) collectivism II: family collectivistic practices, (5) gender egalitarianism, (6) assertiveness, (7) future orientation, (8) performance orientation, and (9) humane orientation. The nine dimensions of the GLOBE study reflect the dimensions of Hofstede's theory and McClelland's theories of national economic development (McClelland, 1961) and human motivation (McClelland, 1985).

### 2.5.3 Trompenaars' Model

Trompenaars (1993) proposed a seven dimensional model for measuring cultural values; the aim was to understand cultural diversity in business. They are: neutrality versus

emotional/affectivity, universalism versus particularism, specificity versus diffuseness, individualism versus collectivism, achievement versus ascription, time orientation, and attitudes towards the environment. The first five factors concern relationships with people while the last two have to do with the measure of time and environmental control. Trompenaars' work caused researchers to raise their eyebrows. The methodology and conclusion have been questioned, the research theory is not supported by the database, and its lack of content validity of the instrument used (Hofstede, 1996).

### 2.5.4 Schwartz's Value Survey Model

Schwartz is another well-known culture researcher; his value survey is believed to complement Hofstede's work on culture, and to over-come apparent limitations that were pointed out from the work (Drogendijk & Slangen, 2006; Schwartz, 1999). Schwartz proposed a Seven-Value Type theory comprising of seven values based on which cultures can be compared. The theory assumes that all societies are confronted by three fundamental issues from which values are derived and that relations among these values can be dimensionalised (Schwartz, 1999).

The first of the three issues confronting all societies is establishing the type of relationship that exists between an individual and a group. Schwartz (1999) identified two opposing dimensions that explain this behaviour; embeddedness and autonomous. In an embedded culture, an individual finds and add meaning to life basically through social relationships, by being identified with a group, and actively participating in the group. The value linked to this dimension is conservatism. Autonomous dimension is the direct opposite of embeddedness and the value type is autonomy.

The second issue has to do with bipolar responsible behaviour that preserves social fabric. Schwartz was convinced that at one end of the pole, power differences among people or the implementation of hierarchical systems in a society will induce responsible behaviour that will preserve social fabrics. The value expressed in this type of culture is hierarchy. The other end of the pole is a society where equality is encouraged; people are urged to show concern for each other's welfare. The value type attributed to this type of culture is egalitarianism.



The third issue which concerns the relation of humans and the environment just as the other cultural orientations proposed by Schwartz (1999) has two opposing solutions. One of them is to master and change the environment to promote personal or group interests. The value identified with this cultural dimension is mastery. The way of resolving this third issue is accepting the environment the way it is and rather than trying to change it, instead struggle to fit in it. The value type for this culture is harmony.

Schwartz work has received criticism from many, Drogendijk & Slangen (2006) cited two authors (Brett & Okumura, 1998; Steenkamp, 2001) who commended the work for recent data, basing on the conceptualisation of values, and employing a methodology expressing systematic sampling, measuring and analytical techniques, and that the dimensions are supported by a strong theoretical foundation.

Table 5 below gives a summary of some of the dimensions of culture that are commonly used in cross-cultural studies. It shows the similarities and differences that exist in the various models postulated by these researchers.

**Table 5: A summary of Cultural Models (Jariya, 2012)**

<b>Researchers</b>	<b>Survey</b>	<b>Title</b>	<b>Dimensions</b>
Hofstede (1980, 1989, 2005)	A survey on over 100,000 IBM employees from 50 countries	National culture's influence on the values in the workplace	Power distance, individualism vs. collectivism, uncertainty avoidance, masculinity vs. femininity and long-term vs. short-term orientation
Hall (1989)	University-based research in many countries	Culture and communicative Interactions	Comparison of high context and low context communication
Schwartz (1994; 1999)	A survey on teachers and student from 49 countries	Culture's influence on individual values	2 individual level and 3 cultural level dimensions: Openness to change, self-transcendence to self-enhancement, embeddedness - autonomy, hierarchy - galitarianism and mastery - harmony
Trompenaars (1993, 1997, 2004)	A survey of 15000 employees from about 50 countries	National culture's influence on problem solving approach at micro/individual level	7 dimensions; universalism vs. particularism, neutrality vs. emotional/affective, individualism vs. communitarianism, achieved status vs. ascribed status, specific vs. diffuse, time orientation and attitude towards the environment
House et al. (1997 2004); Javidan & House (2001)	GLOBE study: survey of 18000 middle managers from 62 countries	National culture effects on organisational behaviour	9 dimensions: 5 from Hofstede, 4 new ones; future orientation, power distance, uncertainty avoidance, individualism-collectivism, masculinity-femininity, performance orientation, humane treatment, family collectivism and assertiveness

## 2.6 Criticisms of Hofstede's Model

Hofstede's model has been criticised by many scholars. Fougère & Moulettes (2007) criticised Hofstede's notion of culture for being too stable and essentialised. Hofstede's work is said to be an overly simplistic dimensional conceptualisation of culture and for not being able to express the dynamic nature of culture (McSweeney, 2002). Cray & Mallory (1998) criticised the work for being vague and contradictory and for lacking basic theory. Trompenaars & Hampden-Turner (2000) criticised Hofstede's work for being limited to the plotting of cultural differences between countries.

Kashima (1989) argues that it is problematic using dimensions of cultural variability to explain peoples' behaviour in the organisation. One of the areas where problems have been identified is that of establishing causal explanations; causal explanation of peoples' behaviour cannot be tested based on explanations at the cultural level, for example culture cannot be controlled in an experiment (Iguisi, 2014). To clarify this point, two opposing dimensions may exist in the same culture, but the score obtained on the dimensions does not reveal that. For example, the scores for individualism and collectivism presented in this research do not recognise that they both exist in the same culture. It is instead the scores of the predominant tendencies in each culture that are given. When specific samples are collected, however, they do not necessarily reflect the cultural-level scores as observed in the job level groups.

## 2.7 Facts about Hofstede's Model

Hofstede's framework has been criticised by many for various reasons, but these have not prevented the slavish homage as it were to his models and associative dimensions. Albeit the many criticisms that Hofstede's model has been subjected to over many years by numerous researchers, his research has been considered groundbreaking in many scholarly articles (Fougère & Moulettes, 2007). According to Harzing's "Publish or Perish" citation index, cited in Tung & Verbeke (2010) Hofstede's work as of June 2010 has had over 54,000 citations. His work has been credited for his major contribution to the field of culture, and scholarly research and for 'opening management's eyes' to the importance of the subject (Trompenaars & Hampden-Turner, 2000).

Hofstede's study was not the first study of cross-national cultures; however, his work has succeeded to have great influence on cross-cultural researches (Tung & Verbeke, 2010). The understanding of culture has been improved by Hofstede's studies; they have, brought about a rather oversimplified and non-dynamic perspective of culture (Iguisi, 2014). Hofstede's study, according to Carbaugh (2007 p. 1) "...is the most cited in the European Social Citation Index and has become one of the most cited in the Social Sciences Citation Index generally." His study has been able to clarify value dimensions and has quantified culture by the use of indices (Iguisi, 2009). This approach to the study of culture has encouraged readers to adopt the assumption that culture is stable, programmable, measurable and universal within a given country (Hofstede, 1980). The assumption made here is that culture can be and is expressed in a stable and quantifiable distance between two national cultures or job groups (Hofstede, 1991). In other words, the assumption is that national cultural differences lead to cultural differences.

Hofstede's model has set the pace for other cultural studies. For instance, the founder of the GLOBE project House explained in the preface to the book describing his project that they were replicating Hofstede's (1980) study (House et al., 2004). The GLOBE study expanded the five first five Hofstede dimensions to nine. The power distance and uncertainty avoidance labels were maintained. They split collectivism into two dimensions; institutional collectivism and in-group collectivism, and masculinity-femininity split into assertiveness and gender egalitarianism. The long term orientation dimension became future orientation. Two more dimensions were added by them; humane orientation and performance orientation.

The GLOBE study might have taken a different approach from Hofstede's study, but, "the results show that in spite of a different approach, the massive body of GLOBE data still reflects the structure of the original Hofstede model (Hofstede, 2011).

Other researchers such as: Hall et al. (1989); Schwartz (1999); Trompenaars & Hampden-Turner (1997) have developed alternative models of culture but, all of them have some similarities with Hofstede's model.

Growing internalisation and globalisation of businesses, and the increase urge for organisations to ameliorate their knowledge about cultural differences between nations has led to the increase in demand for normative models dealing with cultural issues in business; the assumption is that such models could serve as competitive tools in the conquest of global

market (Fougère & Moulettes, 2007). This shift in view of culture and the new pressure on individuals and new possibilities for self development must have caused significant changes to the work values of Hofstede's IBM data (Iguisi, 2014). Organisations have given different meaning to their process in order to cope with globalisation pressure.

Hofstede's model as can be seen in Table 4 and Table 5 is the pioneer model of culture and almost all the other models have adopted some or all of his dimensions to develop their own models. For this and many other reasons explained below; this study will employ Hofstede's model of culture. Only the first four dimensions of power distance, individualism versus collectivism, masculinity versus femininity and uncertainty avoidance will be used. Hofstede's model has been chosen for various reasons. Chapman (1997) highlighted four reasons why the model is ideal for cultural research.

1. Hofstede's framework is so broad, alluring, and so inviting to argument and productive disagreement.
2. Hofstede's work was the first as such invites criticism.
3. Although Hofstede's original questionnaire was drawn from social psychology and later used in cultural studies, Hofstede's expertise and profound knowledge acquired from learning and scholarship have brought much meaning into his discussion.
4. Hofstede's work is used and admired at a very high level of generalisation.

A number of studies have been conducted by scholars in an attempt to address the limitations pointed out in Hofstede's work (Javidan et al., 2006). They have resorted to conducting large scale culture comparison studies (Schwartz, 1999; Trompenaars & Hampden-Turner, 1997; House et al., 2004). Though these post-Hofstede researchers went extra miles to advance the understanding of cultural phenomenon; their works according to Taras et al. (2012) are still subject to the same limitations; that of lack of generalisability of data across population and time.

Hofstede has provided all the background information that permits replicability of his methods and procedures. In view of the scope of this thesis, Hofstede is the only author with a model that can enable the identification of the direct and indirect impact of culture on employee motivation. Unlike Hofstede's study, this research will consider both universal and

particularistic factors affecting leadership style and will employ a mixed methods approach for the collection of data: quantitative and qualitative techniques.

### 2.8 Conclusion

After analysing the various classical discourses on culture, there seems to be a paucity of information on the nexus of culture with leadership style and employee motivation in the sub-Saharan Africa. Very little information has been provided by the literature on the outlook of managers and employees on the impact of cultural values on management practices. Most African countries are contending with most the issues of cultural diversity; most of them being multi-ethnic. The question here is concerned with the ways leadership and motivation practices in African organisations break through cultural complexity (Hannerz, 1992). In light with this analogy, the research questions that come forth have to do with the extent to which Hofstede's dimensions of power distance, individualism versus collectivism, uncertainty avoidance, and masculinity versus femininity are applicable to Cameroon; the extent at which the cultural values present in Cameroons' organisations influence leadership styles and employee motivation is of concern.

The next chapter will discuss the other two constructs concerned in this study. The discussion will focus on the management theories of leadership styles and employee motivation.

## Chapter Three

### Classical Discourse on Management Practices (Leadership style and Employee motivation)

#### 3.1 Introduction

Chapter Two reviewed one of the three main constructs of this study: cultural values. This chapter will review the remaining two constructs: leadership style and employee motivation. As a reminder to the readers, the specific focus of this research is to investigate the direct impact of cultural values on employee motivation and indirect impact via leadership styles in Cameroonian organisations. Management practices involve many things among which are leadership style and employee motivation, these practices are influenced by the culture of an organisation which in turn is depend on the culture of the country in which the firm is situated. Motivation is a critical element that affects the performance of firms and the economic performance of Cameroon as a whole.

As the world is gradually dwindling to become a global village, the interdependency among nations is increasing, thus, the greater the need for understanding of the relationship between cultural values, leadership style and employee motivation. Management situations in organisations today are getting more complex, constantly changing and difficult to interpret, and inescapable by leaders and would be leaders (House et al., 2013). Hence, a proper awareness of leadership style and motivation practices that align with the cultural values of the firm is needed. Some researchers have gone a long way to prescribe what they think is good management practice. Uddin et al. (2013) points out that a management style that entails giving more freedom to managers to take independent actions, reasonable risks and openly discuss conflicts and constructive criticisms, are characteristics of high performing organisations.

### 3.2 Management style versus Leadership Style

Though this study focuses on leadership style the author thought it wise to point out the differences between the two constructs. Management style and leadership style are two distinct terms with different meanings, though most scholars always fall the prey of using them interchangeably as meaning the same thing (Bhamani, 2012).

Management style is described as one of the antecedents to organisational effectiveness (Nwadukwe & Timinepere, 2012). It is a jargon used in the study of management to describe the glue or adhesive that binds distinctive operations and functions together (Schleh, 1977). Field & Dubey (2001) describe it as the extent to which followers are continually and progressively led and directed by leaders to a predetermined destination agreed upon by the whole group. It is the manner of approach to issues of the managers towards achieving the goals of their organisation by transforming various resources available to any organisation into output through the functions of management (Nwadukwe & Timinepere, 2012). Bhamani (2012) said management is "the act or manner of managing, handling, directing, or control". (Bhamani, 2012 p. 8).

Goold & Campbell (1987) liken management style to parenting style. They claim that there are two dimensions that describe the continuum of ways management could influence a business unit, which are: the planning influence exerted by the centre on the strategic planning of the organisation and the control influence exerted by the centre, on business in order to meet plans. It can be short-term financial control and long-term strategic control. These two dimensions drove Goold & Campbell (1987) to the identification of three management styles which organisations tend to follow, they range along the continuum from financial control, to strategic control and to strategic planning.

Yukl (1994) asserts that managers are more concerned with stability and leaders with innovation; managers get people to do things more efficiently, whereas leaders get people to agree about what things should be done. Management is described as a function that is necessary in any business and must be exercised, while leadership is a connection between leader and follower that can energise an organisation (Maccoby, 2000). According to Maccoby, the principal function of managers is administrative; they chart business plans, set budgets and monitor progress. While the task of getting organisations and people to change

lies with the leaders. In another sense a manager can be a leader only when he/she is able to influence people to follow him/her. Kotter (1990) argues that leaders and managers perform tasks that are opposite in nature. Kotter implies that management works towards order and stability while leadership strives on delivering constructive change and movement in organisations.

Table 6 presents a summary of the differences between management style and leadership style, drafted by Ryan (2007) based on Kotter's (1990) study.

**Table 6: Management style versus leadership style (Ryan, 2007 p. 2)**

	<b>Management style</b>	<b>Leadership style</b>
Direction	Plans and budgets Keeps an eye on the bottom line	Creates vision and strategy Keeps an eye on the horizontal line
Alignment	Directing and controlling Organising and staffing Creates boundaries	Creates and share culture and values, Help others grow Reduce boundaries
Relationships	Focus on task, Produce/sell goods and services Based on a position of power Acting as a boss	Focus on people, Inspiring and motivating followers Based on personal power Acting as a coach, facilitator, persuader
Personal qualities	Organisational skills, Problem solving, Telling, Conformity	Strategic view, Open mind, Asking Innovation
Outcomes	Maintains stability	Creates change, often-radical change.

It should be pointed out that the purpose of this thesis is to determine the direct nexus that exist between cultural values and employee motivation and the indirect link via leadership style, hence only a superficial discussion of the individual constructs will be presented in this study. It is beyond the scope of this thesis to present an elaborated discourse of the key constructs of the study.

### 3.3 The concept of Leadership

Understanding the concept of leadership is indispensable to grasping the meaning of leadership style. The philosophy of leadership is not a recent one, it dates back aeons of years ago; since the beginning of time (Bass, 1990). The famous bible account of Exodus vividly depicts Moses as a powerful and charismatic leader who led the Israelites out of Egypt to the Promised Land. A systematic social scientific study of leadership began only in the early 1930s (House & Aditya, 2001). Leadership is described by Burns (1978) as one of the most



observed and least understood phenomena on earth. Fortunately, much of the leadership research completed over the past several decades has thrown more light to our understanding of the history of leadership styles and approaches and their impact on society. For instance, research in recent years has been aimed at a better and more thorough understanding of what makes an effective leader (Eagly et al., 2003; Eagly, 2007; Holt et al., 2009). Although, leadership was regarded as an inherent ability to influence others by controlling the behaviour of other members of a group, leadership styles have evolved and extended beyond influence, to include motivation and enabling of others to help achieve organisational goals (House et al., 2004; Rosette & Tost, 2010; Caldwell & Dixon, 2010).

In early leadership studies, the effectiveness of a leader was measured in the traits of the leader and during that time no universal traits were associated with effective leadership. The search was halted. The leadership trait theory was revived in the 70s with the emergence of several empirically supported traits (House & Aditya, 2001). The trait theory has been criticised for neglecting the fact that traits must be stable and predict behaviour over a considerable period of time and across varying situations (Davis-Blake & Pfeffer, 1988). Researchers have found that there is no consistent set of traits differentiating a leader from other people. As a result, they have focused on examining the type of behaviour display by leaders and manifested in different work settings to motivate employees (Adler, 1991; House & Aditya, 2001).

In contemporary research the focus is on an exploration of the behaviours that constitute effective leadership. This philosophy underpins the breakthrough of transformational leadership and transactional leadership in the late 1970s. Burns developed a comprehensive theory to explain the differences between the behaviours of political leaders by using the terms “transactional” and “transformational”. Burns defined transactional leaders as people who emphasise work standards and have a task-oriented aims, while transformational leaders on the other hand perform their leadership within the organisational constraints and adhere to the existing rules and regulations (Burns, 1978). The aim of the two types of leaders is to make sure that all the regular organisational tasks are completed on time. Power, authority and control are rooted in this behaviour because organisational targets are achieved by rewarding or disciplining subordinates in the style of a transaction. The implicit understanding was of a task needing to be carried out and, if satisfactorily completed, a

reward would be forthcoming. Such reward-based action was intended to influence and improve employee performance (Burns, 1978).

The type of behaviours and attitudes of a leader is strongly influenced by the culture in which they grew up (Adler, 1991). Malunga (2006) strongly believed that effective leadership must be rooted in cultural heritage. Byrne & Bradley (2007) claim that effective leadership style depends essentially on personal values which in turn depends on personal and national culture. In recent years, the study of leadership has gained more popularity, especially as many scholars now believe that Porter's analysis of competitive advantage is fungible due to the entry of an extremely great number of international competitors with similar products. Leadership style is viewed now as the single most important antecedent in maintaining competitive advantage (Pfeffer, 2002; Byrne & Bradley, 2007).

Numerous aspects of leadership style have been discussed so far, but what is leadership?

### 3.3.1 Definitions of Leadership

Leadership has been one of the most studied topics by social scientists during the 20th and 21st centuries (Yukl, 2002), still there seem to be no consensus among management researchers as to the accepted definition of leadership (House et al., 2004; Bass, 1990; Bass & Avolio, 1997). Finding one specific definition of leadership is a very complex task, studies on this topic are varied and there is no single generally accepted definition for the term because it involves so many aspects.

Some researchers claim that leadership is the ability to influence a group of people toward the achievement of goals (Lussier, 1990; Robbins & Coulter, 2001). Vroom & Jago (2007) define leadership as the potential or capacity to influence others. This definition involves; the trait of the source of influence, the cognitive processes in the source, the nature of the interaction that makes the influence possible and the situational context. The GLOBE researchers define leadership as the ability of an individual to influence, motivate, and enable others to contribute toward the effectiveness and success of the organisations of which they are members (House et al., 1999). The GLOBE study focuses on organisations, hence their definition for leadership is organisation specific and not general (House et al., 2004).

Leadership is "the process of influencing others to understand and agree about what needs to be done and how it can be done effectively, and the process of facilitating individual and collective efforts to accomplish the shared objectives" (Yukl, 2002 p. 7). It involves the ability to inspire and influence the thinking, attitudes, and behaviour of people (Adler, 1991). Some authors say leadership is an act of influence; others refer it to a process, and some as trait qualities in a person (Lussier & Achua, 2001). Nel et al. (2004) define leadership as the process whereby one individual influences others to willingly and enthusiastically direct their efforts and abilities towards attaining defined group or organisational goals.

Yukl (2002) summarises the numerous definitions of leadership as presented in Table 7 below.

**Table 7 Summary of Definitions of Leadership (Yukl, 2002, p. 3)**

• Leadership is <i>"the behaviour of an individual... directing the activities of a group toward a shared goal"</i> (Hemphill & Coons, 1957, p. 7).
• Leadership is <i>"the influential increment over and above mechanical compliance with the routine directives of the organization"</i> (Katz & Kahn, 1978, p. 528).
• Leadership is <i>"exercised when persons... mobilize... institutional, political, psychological, and other resources so as to arouse, engage, and satisfy the motives of followers"</i> (Burns, 1978, p. 18).
• Leadership is <i>"the process of influencing the activities of an organized group toward goal achievement"</i> (Rauch & Behling, 1984, p. 46).
• Leadership is <i>"the process of giving purpose (meaningful direction) to a collective effort, and causing willing effort to be expended to achieve purpose"</i> (Jacobs & Jaques, 1990, p. 281).
• Leadership <i>"is the ability to step outside the culture... to start evolutionary change processes that are more adaptive"</i> (Schein, 1992, p. 2).
• Leadership is <i>"the process of making sense of what people are doing together so that people will understand and be committed"</i> (Drath & Palus, 1994, p. 4).
• Leadership is <i>"about articulating visions, embodying values, and creating the environment within which things can be accomplished"</i> (Richards & Engle, 1986, p. 206).
• Leadership is <i>"the ability of an individual to influence, motivate, and enable others to contribute toward the effectiveness and success of the organization."</i> (House et al., 1999, p. 184).
• Leadership is <i>"the process of influencing others to understand and agree about what needs to be done and how it can be done effectively, and the process of facilitating individual and collective efforts to accomplish the shared objectives"</i> (Yukl, 2002 p. 7).

A seemingly endless variety of definitions for leadership have been developed (Table 7), but almost all of them revolve around the concept of a leader influencing subordinates toward attaining particular goals or the influence of others to accomplish group or organisational objective. It is also noted that the purpose of a research also conditioned the degree of

specificity of the definition of leadership. Numerous empirical studies have been conducted with leaders, but till date there exists no clear and unambiguous understanding of what differentiates an effective leader from an ineffective leader (Bennis & Nanus, 1985). According to Vroom & Jago (2007) the reason for the above assertion is linked to the fact that leadership is not a scientific term and it does not have a standardised definition.

### 3.3.2 Leadership Theories

Since the middle of the 20th century, numerous theories and literatures have been developed by many scholars to explain leadership styles (Wu et al., 2006). Stogdill (1974) classified these theories into six groups, namely: 1) Great man theory and Trait theory - typical of the 19th century; 2) Environmental theories or situational theories - characteristic of the first half of the 20th century; 3) Personal-situational theory - characteristic for the period between the 1930s and the 1960s, and three theories developed at the end of the 20th century - 4) Interaction-expectation theory, 5) Humanistic theory, and 6) Exchange theory.

Wu et al. (2006) on the other hand classified leadership theories into four major groups as follows:

(1) Trait Theories: Stogdill (1963) and Davis (1972) suggested the personality and traits that a successful leader should have.

(2) Behaviour Theories: These theories resulted from research that began at Ohio State University in the late 1940s. Halpin & Winer (1957) pointed out two dimensions initiating structure and consideration. Subsequently, many studies such as those of Stogdill (1963), Likert (1967), and Kotter (1988) also offered related behavioural theories of leadership.

(3) Contingency Theories: Fiedler (1967) first developed the contingency model of leadership. House (1971) developed the path-goal theory that extracted essential elements from the research of Ohio State University and the expectancy theory of motivation. In 1977 Hersey & Blanchard also developed the situational leadership theory which used the two leadership dimensions in terms of task and relationship behaviours, and combined their degrees into four specific leadership behaviours: telling, selling, participating, and delegating.

According to the contingency theory, leaders adopt a suitable leadership style depending on the readiness of followers. The telling style is suitable for unable and unwilling followers. The selling style is effective for unable and willing followers. The participating style is useful for able and unwilling followers. The delegating style is adequate for able and willing followers.

(4) Neocharismatic Theories: These theories are mainly represented by transactional leadership and transformational leadership.

Kurfi (2011) classifies leadership styles into four groups as shown in Table 8.

**Table 8: Classification of Leadership style models (Kurfi, 2011)**

<b>Classes of leadership styles</b>	<b>Types</b>	<b>Description</b>
Traditional styles, Traits	a. Autocratic leadership style.	The leader is authoritarian, imposes his will on followers, he centralizes authority and decision making, supervises work in close detail. This leader believes employees are motivated by lower level needs. Labelled by McGregor (1960) as Theory X leader.
	b. Democratic or participative leadership style.	The leader allows autonomy and avoids imposing his will on subordinates, he decentralized authority and subordinates participate in decision-making. He believes employees are motivated by higher-level needs (achievement and self-actualisation). McGregor (1960) calls him Theory Y leader.
	c. Laissez-faire leadership style.	The leader has virtually no influence over employees. Subordinates have total freedom to set their own objectives and monitor their own work. This kind of leadership does not exist in the real world.
Modern styles Behaviour (Likert, 1967)	a. Job-centred leadership b. Employee-centred leadership c. Job-employee-centred leadership	This involves four styles: Autocratic, Paternalistic, Consultative and Democratic styles.
Contingency approach or styles	a. Fielder's Model b. Path-goal Model c. Vroom-Yetton Model	
Neocharismatic		Transactional and Transformational

### 3.3.2.1 Likert Leadership Styles

Likert in his study found that the most common styles of leadership can be shown on a continuum from one to four systems. Likert assumed that there are four styles of leadership,

developed based on his three-decade research on management styles. The styles describe the relationship and degree of interaction between a manager and their subordinates. They are referred to as *systems* and are defined as follows:

*System 1 (exploitative - authoritative style of leadership) or autocratic:* the leader is highly authoritative and does not trust the subordinates. Decisions are made exclusively at the top of the organisation. Communication takes the form of top-down commands. Little interaction occurs between the supervisor and subordinate and are usually associated with fear and suspicion. Managers require harsh discipline and are not interested in the initiative and opinions of subordinates. Motivation is encouraged through fear and punishment, while rewards are rarely given.

*System 2 (benevolent-authoritative style of leadership) or paternalistic:* the authoritative element still dominates, although some decision-making is delegated. It allows downward communication, because the leader is interested in some ideas and opinions of subordinates, thus partially tolerates them. Although some responsibility is delegated, there is still a strict control. Motivation is based on rewards, but also on fear and punishment.

*System 3 (consultative style of leadership):* the leader trusts the subordinates to a great extent, but not completely. He or she usually tries to use their thoughts and ideas. The top management has control over general policies and decisions, while specific decisions are delegated to lower organisational levels. Information flow both top-down, as well as bottom-up. Rewards and sometimes punishments are used to motivate subordinates.

*System 4 (participative - group style of leadership):* the leader fully or almost fully trusts the subordinates. This is reflected in a more significant level participation in the decision-making processes. Lower organisational levels are given a more extensive autonomy. The two way communication is promoted and is often used for the joint preparation of important decisions. Participation in joint activities, e.g. setting goals and fulfilling them, is also motivated by financial remuneration.

Likert concluded from this finding that managers who are using the system 4 are the most successful ones. Organisations applying this system are most effective and achieve high productivity (Gonos & Gallo, 2013). Its success is based on maintaining a high level of employee participation in management (Heydari et al., 2016).

### 3.3.3 Management Leadership Style Discourse

Hersey & Blanchard's (1988) situational theory of leadership show that a successful leader adjusts his/her styles depending on the readiness of the followers to perform in a given position. The various definitions of leadership style are derived from different definitions of leadership (Buble et al., 2014). In management, leadership styles refer to the pattern of behaviour of a leader towards his/her subordinates with the aim to achieve set objectives. It involves the degree to which authority is delegated by a manager, the modes of power employed by a manager and his concerns for human relationships and tasks (Kurfi, 2011). It is a method and capability employed with the aim to achieve organisational targets and has effects on all organisational activities (Stogdill, 1974). According to Fiedler (1967) it is a situation whereby someone uses his rights and methods to influence others (employees) to work together in pursuit of a mutual goal. Findings from different researchers indicate that good leadership style depends on the nature of the work; what the employees, subordinates or followers prefer; the leader's attitude and the situation at a point in time (Kurfi, 2011).

There are various styles of leading such as transformational, transactional, laissez-faire, autocratic, paternalistic, participative and consultative (Almansour, 2012; Likert, 1967). The different leadership styles are portrayed as having varied effects on different aspects of management. Almansour (2012) asserts that transformational leadership style is used when the leader wants to broaden and elevate their subordinates' interest, also when the leader intend to generate awareness and acceptance of the group's task and mission. This is also used when the leader wish to create within employees the need to look further away from their own self-interests for the benefit of others. He continued by claiming that transactional leadership stimulates achievement of routine performances agreed upon between leaders and followers. Situational leadership stimulates behavioural response. Participative leadership style is said to have positive effects on job satisfaction and performance than others (Vroom, 2003). Leadership theorists such as Likert (1967), Maier (1970) Lewin et al. (1939) and Hersey & Blanchard (1982) advocate participatory leadership as having strong motivational properties (Vroom, 2003). Gumusluoglu & Ilsev (2009) posit that transformational leadership has an important influence on creativity on both individual and organisational levels.

Some writers claim that long- term organisational success depends more on leadership style than on culture. Mgbere (2009) asserts that long-term success of an organisation may not

necessarily be the product of the type of organisational culture, but the ability of a leader to effectively manage and change the culture with time to match the changes in the situation and the needs of the organisation. Ogbonna & Harris (2000) claim that leadership style and corporate performance are mediated by the culture of the organisation. Nahum-Shani & Somech (2011) suggest that leader behaviours consistent with followers' values and beliefs are more acceptable and effective than behaviours characterised by conflicting values. This therefore means that neglecting individual norms by a leader may lead to the follower dissatisfaction, and consequently, a drop in motivation and performance.

Jogulu (2010) asserts that the existence of different leadership styles can be linked to cultural phenomenon; people have different beliefs and assumptions about the traits that make up an effective leadership. This is confirmed by Walumbwa et al. (2007) who assert that leader and follower attitudes are moderated by cultural context. They went further to say that individual differences play a critical role in the way individuals respond to different leadership styles. This assertion aligns with the result of the laboratory experiment of Jung & Avolio (1999) that collectivist working with a transformational leader generates more ideas while individualists generate more ideas by working with transactional leaders. If leadership depends on situation (Vroom & Jago, 2007), then the cultural situation of a leader should have a bearing on the type of relationship he has with his followers. Instead, most of the studies on leadership focus primarily on the relationship between leaders and their direct followers, and are not concerned with the type of organisation and culture in which leaders function (House & Aditya, 2001).

Buble et al. (2014) argue that the leadership style of an individual is established based on the combination of norms, beliefs, values, preferences and organisational culture. Leadership style depends on situational factors such as the nature of the task being undertaken and the characteristics of the group members (Kenny & Steiger, 1981). In addition to situation as a factor that affect leadership style Buble et al. (2014) also mentioned the characteristics of the leader and the characteristics of the followers as the variables that have an impact on leadership styles.

Leadership expectation is not a universal phenomenon. Empirical findings (House & Aditya, 1997) have proven that leadership expectations vary from country to country and region to region depending on the culture in which the leaders function. It is believed that the Americans appreciate a leader who grants autonomy and delegates authority to subordinates



as well as respect a bold, forceful, confident, and risk-taking leader. The Dutch stress egalitarianism. Arabs view leaders as gods. The French respect charismatic and consensus leaders (House et al., 2002). Africans appreciate a paternalistic leader (Bourgoin, 1984; Galiegue & Madjimbaye, 2006; Boukar & Julien, 2009). What is noteworthy is that whatever style a manager chooses to manifest its leadership, an understanding of culture, and how to transform it, is a crucial skill for leaders who are striving to achieve strategic outcomes (Mgbere, 2009).

### 3.4 Motivation

Every organisation no matter its size and market, even in a highly competitive environment, aspires to be successful and to progress constantly. Survival in today's global and competitive market necessitates proper management of all factors of production- material, machine and men (Chaudhary, 2012). This human factor of production needs to be directed toward task fulfilment (Ovidiu-Iliuta, 2013). In order for organisations to attain expected targets; individuals must be satisfactorily energetic and their objectives clearly defined (Manzoor, 2011). Companies should, therefore, strive to retain the best employees, acknowledging their important role and influence on organisational effectiveness. The issue of motivation is central to human affairs and also for understanding and explaining behaviour, especially organisational behaviour (Lut, 2012).

Employees occupy the central part of any organisation as such, they need to be influenced and persuaded to fulfil their tasks effectively. Unless employees are satisfied with their tasks or motivated to fulfil their task and achieve goals, it will be difficult for organisations to progress and achieve success (Manzoor, 2011). Bartol & Martin (1998) assert that motivation is a strong tool that buttresses behaviour and spark the propensity to continue.

The study of motivation centers on the question of why people initiate, terminate, and persist in specific actions in particular circumstances (Atkinson, 1958). The answer to this question varies with culture. In the West, people have some kind of internal, individually rooted need or motive to enhance one's self-esteem, motive to achieve, motive to affiliate, the motive to avoid cognitive conflict, or the motive to self-actualize. These motives are different for people with interdependent self-system (Markus & Kitayama, 1991).

Motivation is described as the power that strengthens behaviour, gives the route to behaviour, and triggers the tendency to continue (Farhad et al., 2011). This argument implies that individuals must be energetic and clear about their goals in order to attain assured targets.

The focus of this section of the study is analysing employee motivation, it will therefore proceed with the definition of motivation, discourse on employee motivation, factors affecting motivation and finally the presentation of the salient theories of motivation.

### 3.4.1 Definitions of Motivation

The term "motivation" is complex and so cumbersome to be given a meaningful definition (Aborisade & Obioha, 2009). The term is derived from the Latin word *movere*, which means to move (Baron et al., 2002); push or influence to proceed in fulfilling a want (Kalimullah et al., 2010). Humans are moved in different ways to achieve their goals. For example, employees work for money, students study for grades and patients take medication to get well (Crow & Small, 2011).

Atkinson (1964) defines motivation as the contemporary (immediate) influence on the direction, vigour, and persistence of action. Campbell & Pritchard (1976) suggest that motivation has to do with a set of independent/dependent variable relationships that explain the direction, amplitude, and persistence of an individual's behaviour, holding constant the effects of aptitude, skill, and understanding of the task, and the constraints operating in the environment. Roos & Eeden (2005) explain Campbell & Pritchard's definition as having to do with a label for the determinants of the choice to initiate on a certain task, the choice to expend a certain amount of effort, and the choice to persist in expending effort over a period of time. Vroom (1964) says it is a process governing the choice made by a person among alternative forms of voluntary activity. Schultz & Schultz (1998) view motivation as personal and workplace characteristics that explain why people behave the way that they do on the job.

Motivation can be defined as the "force within a person that pushes him to satisfy basic needs or wants" (York 1976, p. 21). Dessler (1986) pointed out that most psychologists believe that all motivation is derived from the desire that results when one or more of the important human needs are unsatisfied. This perception was also held by Maslow when he states that

"only unsatisfied needs provide the sources of motivation, a satisfied need creates no tension and therefore no motivation" (Burke, 1987 p. 32).

Adams & Jacobson (1964) explain that motivation deals with all the conditions that lead variation in the intensity, quality and direction of behaviour. It is the guiding principle that enables people to remain focused on achieving their goals, no matter the challenges they may encounter (Afful-Broni, 2012). It is one of the factors that contribute to the boosting of employee's commitment levels (Aborisade & Obioha, 2009). Roos & Eeden (2005) describe motivation as an innate force that is shaped and maintained by a set of highly individualistic factors that are subject to change, depending on the specific needs and motives of an employee. Bedeian (1993) defines motivation as an internal drive to satisfied and unsatisfied needs and the will to accomplish. Manzoor (2011) describes motivation as a procedure that is sparked through psychological or physiological want that stimulates performance intended toward an objective. Johnson & Gill (1993) describe motivation in work organisations as "the processes by which people are enabled to and induced to choose to behave in particular ways". Motivation is therefore associated with a search for the means by which members' job performance and productivity may be improved or maintained.

Most of the definitions of motivation have three denominators or things in common. Principally, they are all concerned with the factors that channel, energise, and sustain human behaviour. In other words, these definitions claim that motivation is 1) a presumed internal force, 2) which energises for action, and 3) determines the direction of the action (Russell, 1971). Contemporary theories of motivation increasingly dwell on the interrelation between these three factors to determine behaviour in an organisation (Steers et al., 2004).

Motivation can either be intrinsic or extrinsic (Crow & Small, 2011). Intrinsic motivation is defined as motivation to work due to an individual's bond to his work and the outcome that will satisfy the employees themselves (Widyaningrum, 2011). Intrinsic motivation comes from within an individual. It is the direct relationship between a worker and the task. It is the force that compels people to do things simply for enjoyment or satisfaction (Crow & Small, 2011). According to Ryan & Deci; intrinsic motivation "refers to doing something because it is inherently interesting or enjoyable" (Ryan & Deci, 2000 p. 55). It is the result or end products one gets from performing a task properly (Afful-Broni, 2012). Accomplishment, challenge, competence and achievement among others, are examples of intrinsic motivation (Afful-Broni, 2004).

Extrinsic motivation is defined as motivation to achieve something different from the work itself (Widyaningrum, 2011). Ryan & Deci said that "it refers to doing something because it leads to a separable outcome" (Ryan & Deci, 2000 p. 55). Extrinsic motivation is external to the workers and their work; it comes from the work environment (Afful-Broni, 2012). Tangible rewards such as good salary, fringe benefit, prizes, enabling policies and intangible rewards such as praise and promotion are good examples of extrinsic motivation (Afful-Broni, 2012; Crow & Small, 2011).

Claims have been made that motivation is stronger for older employees than for younger ones. And that intrinsic challenging and fulfilling job should be given to older employees to maintain their motivation. Young employees on the other hand, are more motivated when offer career opportunities (Boumans et al., 2011).

### **3.4.2 Employee Motivation**

Among all the other assets of an organisation, human resources are the most important and are capable to endow the organisation with a competitive edge (Rizwan et al., 2010). Manzoor (2011) asserts that a motivated employee responds to definite goals and objectives they must achieve, as a result, directs their efforts toward that direction. Motivated employees can work even in strenuous circumstances (Manzoor, 2011). Motivation leads an organisation to success (Rutherford, 1990). Motivated employees constantly look for opportunities or ways to improve their work practices (Hofstede, 2001). Getting the employees to reach their full potential at work under stressful conditions is a tough challenge, but this can be achieved by motivating the employees (Kalimullah et al., 2010).

### **3.4.3 Factors Affecting Employee Motivation**

Organisations today are more concerned with increasing productivity and efficiency and it is believed that one way of doing this is by motivating employees or inducing workers to do more for the company (Sokro, 2012). In recent years, researchers as well as practitioners have

become more interested in finding out what can stimulate an employee to improve their performance (Anka, 1992).

Employees are motivated in different ways; one employee may be motivated by higher commissions, whereas other employees may be interested in a better working environment (Tietjen & Myers, 1998). This disparity between employee motivational needs implies organisational leaders should be acquainted with their subordinates and look for opportunities to know what motivate employees better (Buble et al., 2014).

Employee motivation is explained to be an innate force shaped and maintained by a set of highly individualistic factors that may change from time to time, depending on the particular needs and motives of an employee (Roos & Eeden, 2005). Different factors motivate different employees in various circumstances.

Frederick Taylor and his associates claim that money is the most fundamental factor in motivating workers to perform better (Adeyinka et al., 2007). Money has the power to magnetise, maintain, and motivate individuals toward improved performance (Manzoor, 2011). Recognition and empowerment are essential factors that enhance employee motivation. Appreciating and involving employees in decision -making fill them with internal satisfaction in their job and organisation, consequently, their enthusiasm and motivation grow, prompting them to do more tasks for the organisation (Manzoor, 2011; Dobre, 2013).

Pardee (1990) listed three factors that explain employees' behaviour in relation to motivation; he said the reasons why some employees are motivated to work and others are not are: 1) Because the motivation to work differs with people. 2) There have been many changes in employees' attitude towards work in the past decades. 3) Increase in government social support programs has negative impact on peoples' level of motivation (Stanton, 1983).

Findings from a study has suggest that employees are motivated if they get proper incentive, recognition, leadership influence, group cohesiveness, guidance, future orientation, individualism and power parity (Nayak et al., 2011). This study also discloses that the rate of motivation descend down the level of hierarchy, managers are highly motivated than supervisory level. Supervisors entertained the idea that there is an incongruity in pay structure, working conditions, recognition and benefits (Nayak et al., 2011). Employees work at their best when they are accorded a certain degree of freedom. Kennish (1994) points out that “control stifles motivation while involvement creates a more productive environment”.

Elton Mayo and his research associate in the Hawthorne Studies in the 1920s found out that improving employees' productivity is more dependent on meeting their needs, their desire to work in a group and involving them decision making and work than when they are given monetary incentives and placed under good working conditions (Parsons, 1974).

The study will take a step further by looking at the classical theories of motivation. The theories of Maslow, Herzberg and Vroom will be considered in the next section.

### **3.4.4 Theories of Motivation**

There have been a considerable number of theories of motivation. Sigmund Freud (1923) among others claimed that humans possess unconscious forces within them that impel them to act. Freud's theory of motivation has been very influential in psychology, but rarely quoted among management theories. The most quoted motivation theories are those of David McClelland, Abraham Maslow, Frederick Herzberg, McGregor and Victor Vroom (Parijat & Bagga, 2014).

Motivation theories can be divided into two broad groups; the content base theories that focus on individual needs and the process base theories which focus on cognitive processes (mind oriented) (Parijat & Bagga, 2014). The list of content theories is as follows; Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs, Herzberg's Two Factor Theory and McClelland's Theory of Needs. Process theories include; Expectancy Theory, Cognitive Evaluation Theory, Reinforcement Theory, Goal Setting Theory, Equity Theory and the list continues (Parijat & Bagga, 2014).

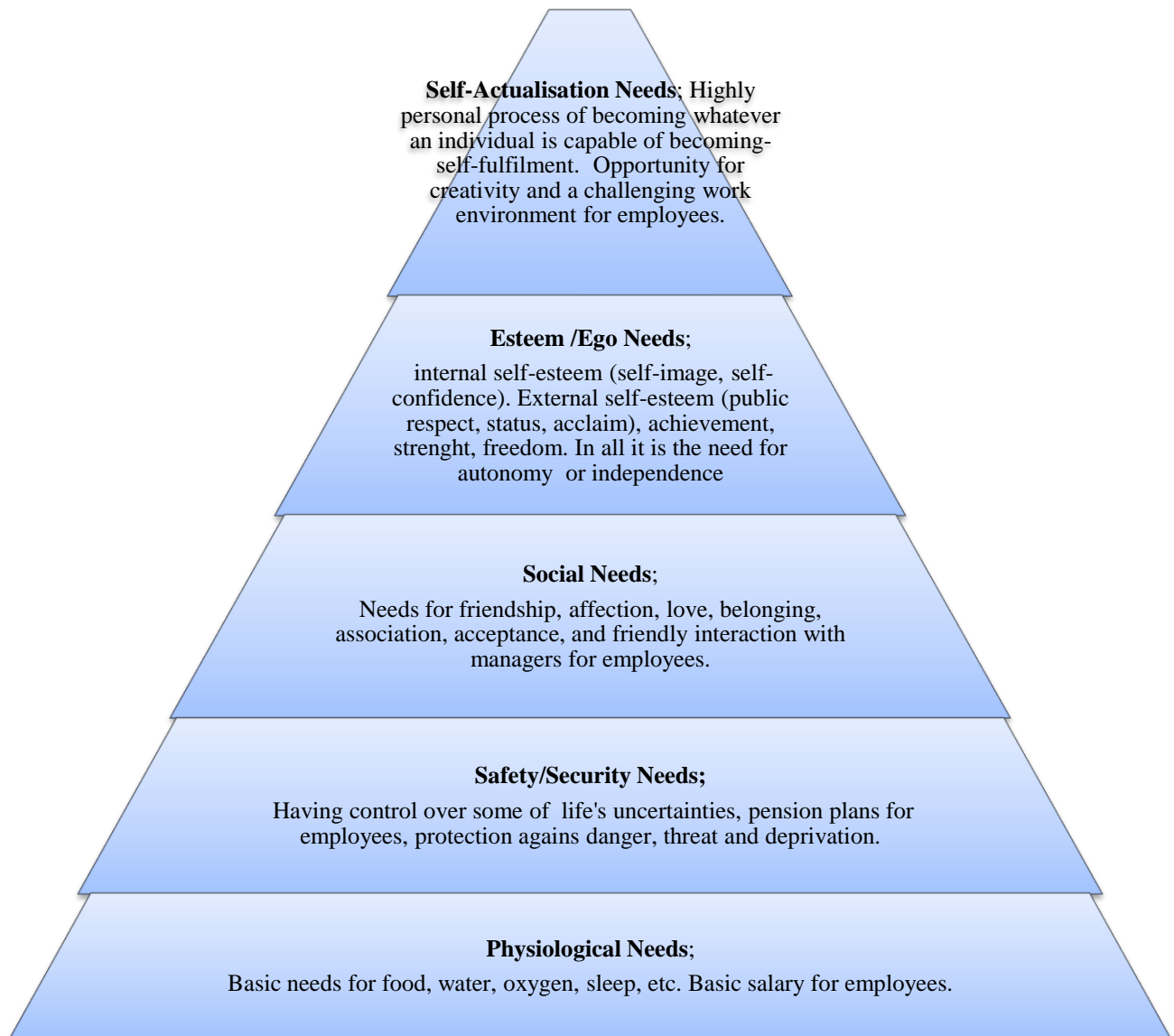
#### **3.4.4.1 Need Based Theories**

The concept of Hedonism promoted by Greek philosophers forms the basis of development of the earliest approaches to human motivation; this concept promoted the idea that people seek pleasure and comfort and try to avoid pain and discomfort. Hedonism was viewed as the principal driving force behind human behaviour (Steers et al., 2004).

This assumption, whilst seeming perfectly reasonable, cannot explain many kinds of human behaviour. For example, why do volunteer charity workers give their time and effort for no personal rewards? Why do amateur athletes exert such high levels of effort, whereas a hedonist would prefer to relax? Vroom (1964) said hedonism had no clear-cut specification of the type of events that were pleasurable or painful, or even how these events could be determined for a particular individual; nor did it make clear how persons acquired their conceptions of the ways of attaining pleasure or pain, or how the source of pleasure or pain might be modified by experience. In short, the hedonistic assumption has no empirical content and was not able to be tested. In view of these challenges, researchers began to realise that people had other needs and desires that could not be explained under such a limited view of human behaviour as hedonism does. The basic principle behind the Need theories is that human motivation is caused primarily by deficiencies in one or more important needs or need categories.

### 3.4.4.2 Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs

Maslow (1954) believed that humans are inherently good and that individuals possess a constantly growing inner drive that has huge potentials (Pardee, 1990). He argued that motivation is a constantly changing desire to fulfil changing needs. Maslow believed that human needs have hierarchical importance, he called this posit Prepotency. The needs hierarchy system consists of five groups of motives arranged with lower level needs at the bottom which must be satisfied first, before the higher level needs can then be satisfied (Wallace et al., 1987). Only the next level of needs in the hierarchy will act as motivators. Once a level of needs has been satisfied they no longer act as motivators and the individual then directs attention towards the next level of needs in the hierarchy. The five levels of needs shown in Figure 7 were described by Hamner & Organ (1978) in hierarchical order.



**Figure 7: Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs (Hamner & Organ 1978 P. 138)**

According to Pardee (1990), Maslow's hierarchy of needs suggests two postulates which are: 1) a need satisfied is not a motivator of behaviour, 2) to the extent that the lower order level of needs becomes satisfied, the next higher-order level of needs become the most prepotent determinant of behaviour (Hamner & Organ, 1978 P. 139).

Maslow's self-actualisation postulates formed the basis of McGregor (1960) assumptions for Theory Y. The theory posits that motivation is based on self-direction, self-control, motivation and maturity (Pardee, 1990).



### 3.4.4.3 Herzberg's Motivation-Hygiene Theory

The Herzberg et al. (1959) research led to the development of two lists of factors about the attitudes of employees. Herzberg and his colleagues examined the relationship between job satisfaction and productivity among 200 engineers and accountants. The result of the research led to what is called Herzberg's motivation-hygiene theory. The theory postulates that one of the two sets of factors was task-related, they caused happy feelings or good behaviour within an employee. They named these factors as motivators (job factors). These factors are said to lead to job satisfaction. The other group of factors was termed hygiene factors; they were present when feelings of unhappiness were evident. According to Herzberg, these factors prevent dissatisfaction, but cannot engender satisfaction. He claimed that these factors were not directly linked to the job itself, but to the conditions of the work.

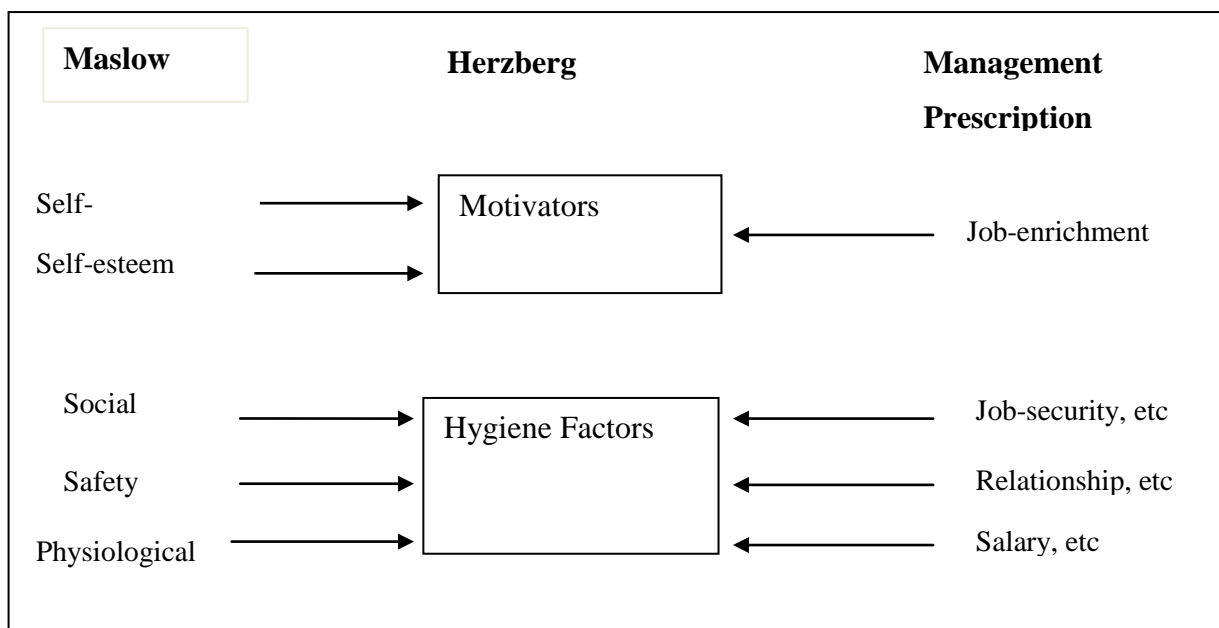
Herzberg suggests that motivators or factors that lead to job satisfaction are factors that are primarily intrinsic to the job, such as the content of the work itself and the availability of opportunities for responsibility, advancement and recognition for achievement. Whereas hygiene factors are those that lead to job dissatisfaction. They are primarily extrinsic to the job and relate to the environment in which the job is performed. Such factors include the organisation's policy and administration, working conditions, salary, status, job security, supervision and interpersonal relations (Pardee, 1990).

Herzberg argued that the extrinsic aspects of work (the hygiene factors) could not be a source of motivation for people, but could, if 'bad', provide a source of dissatisfaction and thus demotivates people. Hygiene factors should be seen as the necessary precondition to allow the motivator factors to influence people's motivation (Caston & Braoto, 1985).

In a situation in which there were good hygiene factors, the employee would be in a state of no dissatisfaction. The motivator factors, which (Herzberg, 1959) described as "complex factors leading to this sense of personal growth and self-actualisation", would then be able to act on that employee and increase job satisfaction and productivity. Thus, in order to motivate workers towards higher productivity, "while it is important to ensure that the hygiene factors are correct, the manager must manipulate the motivators by attending to job-content issues (e.g. Job-enrichment)" (Johnson & Gill, 1993). Job-enrichment entails redesigning jobs to

make them more interesting and challenging by allowing provisions to be made for increased responsibility, creativity and autonomy.

Herzberg's motivator and hygiene factors have some similarities with Maslow's hierarchy of needs, the motivator factors correspond to the higher order needs of self esteem and self-actualisation. The hygiene factors mapped onto the lower order needs of social, security/safety, and physiological needs. Figure 8 below shows this relationship along with the management prescriptions for each factor.



**Figure 8: The Relationship between Maslow and Herzberg Models (Johnson & Gill, 1993)**

Herzberg's research has, however, been the subjected to a considerable number of criticisms. The form of the research itself and the biased selection of the sample have been the subjects of criticism (Holloway, 1996). Holloway (1996) posits that Herzberg did not sample the clerical and production workers because they 'did not produce the accounts he was seeking'. According to Goldthorpe (1968) other types of employee (such as assembly-line workers) may actually view work in the manner expressed by scientific management and be primarily motivated by financial incentives. These assembly-line workers are a case of workers being primarily motivated by what Herzberg regards as hygiene factor.

The important point to be made from the criticism of Herzberg's theory and from the works of Goldthorpe and others is that, no one theory; be it human relations or scientific

management, is universal, its application is country specific. Various socioeconomic groups appear to attach different meanings to, or have different orientations towards work (Parker, 1972).

### 3.4.5 Summary of the Needs Theories

Albeit the obvious differences between the need theories, these theories share in things common. Table 9 illustrates the similarities among need-based theories. All need-based theories, however, share an ingrained weakness in that according to Moorhead & Griffin (1995) they adequately describe the factors that motivate behaviour, but they say very little about the actual processes of motivation. Process based motivation theories provide a better understanding of the ways in which motivation occurs.

**Table 9: Similarities between the Need based perspectives of motivation** (Moorhead & Griffin, 1995)

<b>Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs</b>	<b>Herzberg's Motivator-Hygiene Theory</b>	<b>Alderfer's ERG Theory</b>	<b>McClelland's Theory of Needs</b>
<i>Self-Actualisation Needs</i>	<i>Motivators</i> Achievement Work itself Responsibility Advancement & Growth	<i>Growth Needs</i>	<i>Need for Achievement</i>
<i>Self-esteem</i>	Recognition		<i>Need for Power</i>
<i>Social Needs</i>	<i>Hygiene Factors</i> Supervision Interpersonal Relationships	<i>Social Needs</i>	<i>Need for Affiliation</i>
<i>Security Needs</i>	Job security Company Policies	<i>Existence Needs</i>	
<i>Physiological Needs</i>	Pay Working conditions		

### 3.4.6 Process Based Theories

The general distinction between the need-based theories discussed above and the more advanced theories introduced in this section rests on the difference between content and process. The need-based perspectives reflect a content perspective in that they attempt to

describe what factors motivate behaviour; that is; they try to list specific things that motivate behaviour or people to do work. The more sophisticated process based perspectives focus on the ways in which motivated behaviour occurs. They attempt to explain how people go about satisfying their needs and choose between behavioural alternatives.

### 3.4.6.1 Expectancy Theory

The Expectancy theory was first formulated by Vroom (1964), it rejects the idea that people have fixed sets of needs and attempts to take into account human variability and complexity. This theory describes the reasons why people prefer to behave in a particular way (Ghanbarpour & Najmolhoda, 2013). Rather than assume that all people act alike, Nadler & Lawler (1983) summarises the assumptions of expectancy theory as follows:

1. Individuals make conscious decisions about their own behaviour in organisations, especially with regard to the amount of effort they are prepared to put on performing their jobs.
2. People's attitudes and orientations towards work differs, they are expressed differently in the form of needs, desires and goals, and can be systematically analysed.
3. People chose between the possible alternative modes of behaviour they are aware of. They take into consideration the degree to which a particular way of doing things will lead to the results they desire.
4. Discovering the different meanings people give to work and their working environment is essential to understanding human motivation in work organisations.

Vroom's (1964) model is based on three parameters; valence, instrumentality and expectancy. Vroom defined valence as all possible affective orientations toward outcomes and it is interpreted as the importance, attractiveness, desirability, or anticipated satisfaction with outcomes (Van Eerde & Thierry, 1996). Gopal & Chowdhury (2014) explained expectancy as being a person's belief that hard work will lead to a satisfying level of job performance. And valence is the value an employee hold with respect to rewards.

The concept of instrumentality was defined by Vroom (1964) as an outcome-outcome association, and it has been interpreted not only as a relationship between an outcome and another outcome, but also as a probability to obtain an outcome (Van Eerde & Thierry, 1996).

Instrumentality, according to Gopal & Chowdhury (2014) is a worker's belief that rewards proceed successful performance, meaning it is the belief of an employee that good performance should be rewarded.

Expectancy was defined by Vroom (1964) as a subjective probability of an action or effort leading to an outcome or performance. In the practical sense, expectancy is a measure of the perceived relationship that exists between an action and an outcome (Van Eerde & Thierry, 1996).

Parijat & Bagga (2014) summarise the three core concepts of the expectancy theory as follows: Expectancy as the correlation between efforts and performance, instrumentality as the correlation between performance and rewards/work outcomes and valence as the correlation between rewards/work outcomes and personal goals.

Expectancy theory argues that the motivation of employees to work depends on the correlations between expectancy, instrumentality and valence. According to the theory, the potency of a tendency of people to act in a certain way relies on the strength of an expectation that the act will be rewarded and on the desirability of the reward by the individual. The theory states, therefore, that a worker is motivated to increase his/her effort in doing a job when he or she believes that the effort will lead to a good performance appraisal; a good appraisal will lead to organisational rewards like a bonus, a salary increase, or a promotion; and the rewards will satisfy the employee's personal goals.

The expectancy theory has scored great points from experts in the field of organisational behaviour as being one of the most acceptable theories of motivation (Parijat & Bagga, 2014). The theory is renowned for its use in many empirical studies; enable theoretical innovations in the following domains: organisational behaviour, leadership and compensation (Van Eerde & Thierry, 1996). The theory according to Lawler & Suttle (1973) has served as a basic paradigm for the study of human attitudes and behaviour at work and organisational settings. Specifically, the expectancy theory is able to form links between efforts and performance, performance and rewards and rewards and personal goals. This can provide a good platform for managers to create a work environment, culture and climate that will increase employees' motivation levels (Parijat & Bagga, 2014). Some researchers have suggested that the expectancy theory should be combined with other motivation theories to achieve better results (Klein, 1989; Kernan & Lord, 1990; Van Eerde & Thierry, 1996). In

line with this assertion, this study has resorted to using Maslow's Theory, Herzberg's Theory and Vroom's Theory to assess the level of motivation of employees in Cameroon and to investigate the direct relationship between cultural values and employee motivation and the indirect relationship via leadership style. These three theories have been chosen to ensure that both the content (Maslow and Herzberg) and the process (Vroom) theories are utilised. They are the most widely used motivational theories in contemporary researches (Iguisi 2012).

### **3.5 Links between Cultural Values, Leadership Style and Employee Motivation.**

The aim of this study is to investigate the direct impact of cultural values on employee motivation and the indirect impact through leadership style. Empirical studies have established links between these three constructs. Cross-cultural management scholars believe that management and organisational activities are socio-culturally embedded (Hofstede, 1980; Jackson, 2004). Implying that each nation's economic and management systems are shaped by an interaction of social, cultural, political and economic bodies. Hofstede argues that "the culture of the national environment in which an organisation operates affects the management process through the collective mental programming of its members its managers" (Hofstede, 1994 p. 4).

Leadership style and employee motivation are the management practices that are most affected by cultural values (Hofstede, 2007; Laurent, 1986, House et al., 2004; Iguisi, 2014; Ogedengbe, 2012). A research carried out by Lok & Crawford (2004) on Hong Kong and Australian managers indicated that there is a significant connection between culture, leadership style, job satisfaction and commitment. Ogedengbe et al. (2012) posit that it is due to the link that exist between culture and management that organisations created and managed with western management models do not really succeed when applied across borders.

Even though there is the need for a more dynamic understanding of culture and the role of organisational leaders in ensuring that culture contributes both to the organisation's current and future success, studies have demonstrated that the results gotten from research conducted on the link between culture, and leadership styles and their impact on employee motivation remain mixed and inconclusive (Mgbere, 2009; Tkeshelashvili, 2009).

Based on the many controversies about the type of relationships that exist between culture and management practices, the question that stands out is; to what extent is leadership and employee motivation culturally contingent (House et al., 2004)?

### 3.5.1 Nexus between Cultural Values and Leadership Styles

There are explicit differences between cultures, particularly in terms of the values, attitudes and behaviours of individuals, and this divergence has implications for leadership in organisations (Hofstede & Hofstede, 2005; Alves et al., 2006). The nature of the interdependent relationship between leadership styles and cultural underpinnings cannot be ignored or underestimated. There are important reasons to investigate the impact of culture on leadership styles. There is the need for leadership and organisational theories that go beyond culture in order to know what works and what does not work in different cultural settings (Triandis, 1993; Dorfman, 2004).

Some respected researchers have demonstrated that there is a relationship between culture (organisational, societal or national) and leadership styles (Hofstede, 1980, 2001; Peters & Kabacoff, 1998; Jogulu, 2010; House et al., 1997, 2004; Schimmoeller, 2010; Buble et al., 2014). Some of them even claimed that the relationship between culture and leadership styles is direct (House et al., 2002; Giberson et al., 2009; Ogedengbe et al., 2012; Jogulu, 2010).

The national cultural values; characteristic of where a firm operates, have been argued as having a greater influence on leadership style than on managers' personal values and situational variables (Byrne & Bradley, 2007). Leadership behaviours are, in part, a reflection of organisational practices, which in turn are a reflection of the culture in which the organisation is found (House et al., 2004).

Jogulu (2010) assumes that cultural values, beliefs and expectations influence leadership styles through a complex set of behavioural processes involving culture-specific roles and responsibilities that are deemed appropriate for leadership. This assumption suggests that leadership styles exhibited by individuals who act in ways which reflect cultural nuances, sensitivities and values, establish meaning for subordinates and the leaders themselves (Jogulu, 2010). Machiavelli (1468-1527) shows how culture and leadership styles are related,

he described certain effective techniques for manipulation and remaining in power (deceit, bribery and murder). His description rightly suits a large power distance culture. Hofstede (1980) postulates that cultures with large power distance tend to follow the Machiavelli leadership style, while low power distance culture adopt a participative leadership style. The GLOBE (2007) study notes that participative leadership style is common in societies where performance orientation, gender egalitarianism, and humane orientation dimensions are valued and not desirable in societies with high values of power distance, uncertainty avoidance, and assertiveness. The findings of the study indicate that the different leadership dimension is influenced by different cultural dimension. Bureaucratic leaders excel in societies that highly value uncertainty avoidance, power distance, and institutional collectivism.

Lord et al. (1986) stated that leadership styles are consistent within a culture, which implies that they may also vary considerably across cultures. Individuals may make assumptions about their leaders in relation to the leader's leadership prototype based on cultural background (Shaw, 1990; Koopman et al., 1999). Therefore, different leadership styles or leadership prototypes would be expected to occur naturally in societies that have differing cultural profiles (Hofstede, 1993). For example, one might need to take strong decisive action (authoritative) in order to be seen as a leader, whereas in other cultures consultation and a democratic approach may be a prerequisite (Den Hartog et al., 1999).

Triandis (1994) suggests that there are different optimal leadership styles for different national culture. For example, in individualistic countries, people think that having the freedom and challenges in jobs are more important, while in collectivistic cultures, people favour security, obedience, duty, and group harmony (Triandis, 1994). Javidan & Carl (2004) insists that culture is an important variable in defining leadership effectiveness, since what may work in one culture may not work in another. Shaw (1990) concludes that the more the leadership concepts between foreign managers and relevant attributes in a host country differ, the less the likelihood that cross-cultural leadership will be accepted and effective.

Koopman et al. (1999) found out that the differences that exist in leadership prototypes are to an extent a reflection of differences in culture. This means that different cultural groups probably have different conceptions of what leadership style entails, consequently, the evaluation and the meaning of a leader's behaviour and characteristics may vary with culture. Leadership effectiveness is contextual, that is, it is embedded in the societal and



organisational values of the followers. It therefore means that, effective leaders have to adapt their styles to the values of their followers (House et al., 2004). Nwadukwe & Timinepere (2012) asserts that effective commitment is achieved when managers employ a supportive leadership style towards employees of different national cultures. That participative leadership style is more effective when managers are more familiar with their employees' national culture. They also to claim that the predominant leadership style in African organisations is participative and paternalistic and the reason for this, as explained by Hofstede (2001) is due to the collectivist culture that characterise an African society.

There is general agreement among researchers that national culture refers to cognitive systems and behavioural repertoires that are shaped as a result of individuals' common experiences (Hofstede, 1980, 2001; Leung et al., 2002; Smith et al., 2002; Leung & Bond, 2006). Various authors have suggested that such cognitive systems and behavioural repertoires can impact leadership style in a variety of ways (Chong & Thomas, 1997; Leslie & Van Velsor, 1998; Adler, 1997; House, et al., 1997, 2004; Javidan & Carl, 2004, 2005; Dorfman, 2004; Javidan et al., 2006). Leaders are said to socialise into and internalise the cultural values and practices of the culture they grew up in. They learn over time the desirable and undesirable modes of behaviour (Smith et al., 2002). These authors indicated by means of their study that the extent to which managers and supervisors rely on formal rules for guidance is related to their cultural background.

Other researchers have followed suit in that line of reasoning. For example, Geletkanycz (1997) reveals that the adherence of executives to a particular or existing strategy is linked to their cultural background based on uncertainty avoidance, individualism and power distance. Rahim & Magner (1996) discovered that leaders in individualistic cultures tend to lay more emphasis on coercive power. Mehra & Krishnan (2005) found out that Indian culture of Svadharma-oriented (following one's own duties) is related to the transformational leadership style in that country.

Cultural norms are often enforced in the way people in a society relate to each other (Yukl, 2006). A leader in a high power distance culture is likely to act autocratically not simply because he/she has learned it through experience, but because any other type of behaviour may be deemed ineffective by the boss or those outside the organisation (Dorfman, 2004; Yukl, 2006; Javidan et al., 2006; Javidan & Lynton, 2005).

To indicate that there exist a link between cultural values and leadership styles, Dorfman (2004) and Chemers (1997) reviewed some international management literature and assessed the generalisability of leadership theories, behaviours, and processes across national cultures. Both of these authors reported mixed results. They claim that some behaviours; such as supportive leadership or transformational leadership (Bass, 1997) appear to produce similar effects across cultures, other behaviours, such as directive leadership seem to have culturally specific consequences (Dorfman, 2004). Similarly, participative leadership style is viewed as a more effective leadership style in societies that have more egalitarian cultures (Carl et al., 2004; Dorfman et al., 2004). The GLOBE study also postulates that charismatic, team-oriented and participative leadership styles are universally endorsed. While self-protective and autonomous leadership style vary with culture. Jung & Avolio (1999) cited in Walumbwa et al. (2007) studied the moderating effects of individualism and collectivism on responses to transformational and transactional leadership. They found out that collectivists working with transformational leader generated more ideas, while individualists, generated more ideas working with transactional leader.

The models proposed by Lazear (1995); Van den Steen (2005) and Bernhardt et al. (2006) suggest that managers and workers are, in part, selected from the population based on how well they fit into a firm's corporate culture. According to these models, firms are more likely to hire CEOs with "styles," that is, beliefs about the optimal course of action that fit into the firm's corporate culture. In some models, such as Lazear's (1995), managers and workers also internalize the firm's corporate culture over time through interactions with others in the firm. That is, a firm's corporate culture can also change managers' and workers' beliefs about the optimal course of action, and can thus explain where executives get their styles and beliefs from. Such relations between culture and leadership style can explain why CEOs do not have perfectly fixed leadership styles. In line with this thought, Hofstede (1980) says that leadership is a complement to subordinateship, leaders cannot choose their styles at will; what is feasible depends to a large extent on the cultural conditioning of a leader's subordinate.

Klein (2008) posit that the responsibility to determine the type of culture that should reign within an organisation rest within the power of a leader. The author further explains that the dominant cultural foundations that effective leaders can apply to create high performing cultures include market connectivity, organisational unity, immediate responses to market

signals, and strategy execution. Therefore, having a clearly communicated vision that embodies flexibility and openness to new ideas, methods, and styles set the stage for a change-oriented organisation and helps employees cope with the chaos and tension associated with change (Recardo et al., 1996).

Schein argues that leadership today is essentially the creation, the management, and at times the destruction and reconstruction of culture (Schein, 1992). He implies that the only thing of importance that leaders do is create and manage culture and the unique talent of leaders is their ability to understand and work within culture. Leaders must be able to assess how well the culture is performing, and when and how it needs to be changed. Assessing and improving organisational culture as well as determining when major cultural transformations are necessary is critical to long-term organisational success. Managing differentiated cultures and creating synergies across these cultures is also a critical leadership challenge. Effective culture management is necessary to ensure that major strategic and organisational changes will succeed. Basically, culture management is a key leadership and management competency. According to Schein (1992) a leader's ability to create and manage high performance culture depends on his or her leadership style.

Schein (1992) says that leaders create and manage culture. Culture management is the key to leadership and management competency. To achieve strategic goals, it is vital for leaders understand culture, and also how to transform it (Mgbere, 2009). Lazear (1995) cited in Mgbere (2009) explains that the corporate culture of a firm can as well influence the beliefs of managers and workers about the optimal course of action. Thus, the style of a leader of an organisation can also be linked to its culture.

Managing employees from different national culture is more effective when a supportive leadership style is employed. Participative leadership is more effective when managers are familiar with employees' national culture (Kim & Hancer, 2009). Elsaid & Elsaid (2012) contend that as the world is flattened by globalisation, multinational companies investing in foreign lands should provide appropriate cultural training to their leaders and that it is preferable in conservative cultures to have an autochthon in leadership positions.

A successful leader must be able to establish trust by giving employees more freedom to act autonomously and to participate in decision-making. It is also important that leaders should clarify the direction towards the attainment of goals to the employees through communication

and encourage them to feel confident and able to take risks in work completion (Buble et al., 2014). However, effective cultural management does not depend on great individual leaders and charisma. Charisma may be an advantage in times of crisis and change, but solid instrumental leadership can be as, or more, effective in more normal circumstances (Collins & Porras, 1994). Fiedler cited in Hofstede (1980) says that leaders need different personalities in differing situations; a different personality for a difficult situation and different one for an easy situation and that a cultural gap between superior and subordinates is one of the factors that make a situation difficult (Hofstede, 1980). Managers must actively work to keep the existing organisational culture relevant to the present and future, while maintaining some sense of continuity with the past (Mgbere, 2009). Collins & Porras (1994) found out that companies with long-term success had a limited but strong set of timeless core values that did not prevent organisational change over time. These companies were able to preserve the core while stimulating progress.

A considerable number of studies have revealed that leadership style is culturally contingent and that effective leaders adapt their styles based on the situation in the organisation and the employees. The research question that arises here has to do with the extent to which this postulate is true for Cameroon.

### **3.5.2 Link between Cultural Values and Employee Motivation**

Numerous studies have demonstrated that there is a connection between culture and employee motivation (Hofstede, 1980; Sokro, 2012; Kausar, 2014; Sinha et al., 2010; Dahie et al., 2016; Parthasarathy & Ramalingam, 2015). Markus & Kitayama (1991) retorted that different cultures have different interpretations and explanations of self, of others and the interdependence of the two and that these construals can influence motivation. The culture of a country or a region in which an organisation functions influences in a large way the manner at which employees are motivated (Nayak et al., 2011; Hofstede, 1980; Sinha et al., 2010; Fey, 2005). People in different cultures are motivated in different ways and by different factors (Fey, 2005; Treven et al., 2008). In collective countries, such as Japan, giving an individual reward to an employee could embarrass the recipient and thus be de-motivating. In high-context, collective cultures, there are often expected norms of behaviour in particular

situations. Offering rewards for individual behaviour that runs counter to group norms is unlikely to have a positive influence on motivation (Treven et al., 2008).

Sinha et al. (2010) demonstrated that there exist a significant relationship between culture and motivation, the result of their study shows that there exists a positive and significant correlation between the technocratic culture and role motivation and negative relation between autocratic culture and role motivation. Specifically, the findings of the research indicate that as the level of autocratic culture increases, the level of employee satisfaction decreases and the level of motivation also decreases. Bureaucratic culture has a similar negative correlation with employee motivation. Technocratic culture on the other hand, has a positive impact on motivation. Similar results were gotten for entrepreneurial culture. Sokro (2012), in his study to analyse the relationship between culture and employee motivation revealed that organisational culture has a direct impact on employee motivation. According to him, if organisations develop a strong culture of rewarding and acknowledging employees' effort, then their motivation will increase (Sokro, 2012).

Parallels have been drawn between variables that link motivation and job satisfaction and those that link culture and job satisfaction (Roos & Eeden, 2005). Coster (1992) shows that the relation between job satisfaction and culture is fortified by synergy between individual motives and needs, and organisational culture. It is believed that different dimensional characteristics of culture are also positively related motivation and that cultural values affect motivation in a definite way (Hofstede, 1980; Nayak et al., 2011). The same authors claim that some organisations can motivate employees with one technique effectively, but when the same technique is being applied to another organisation or another group of employees, it may not work. Roos & Eeden (2005) clearly show that only energy and dynamism dimension of motivation was found to be related to culture.

Hofstede's masculinity versus femininity dimension suggests what could be motivating for people in different societies. If a culture is masculine, people prefer to receive money, titles, or other materialistic or status-oriented rewards. While in a feminine society, meaningful rewards are time off, improved benefits, or symbolic rewards (Hofstede, 2011). In some countries, the perception of material items is as gifts rather than as rewards for performance. In China, for example, organisations often distribute food to all employees as holiday gifts. People in higher positions get more or better quality items, but employees make no connection between their performance and the gifts (Hofstede, 1997).

Schofield (1998) in his research demonstrates the importance of employee motivation and corporate culture in organisational effectiveness and capability. Adi (2000) establishes a relationship between organisational culture and employee motivation by asserting that employee motivation can be achieved if organisations create value such as good training policies, incentives in the form of fringe benefits, promotions, status symbol, that can compensate for the efforts put into work by employees.

### 3.5.3 Nexus between Leadership Styles and Employee Motivation

The success of every organisation depends on its "employees' drive to thrive through their efforts, commitment, engagement, practice and persistence" (Naile & Selesho, 2014 p. 178). Hence, the study of motivation is essential because included in leadership competencies is the ability to motivate employees (Lussier, 2010) as one of the crucial duties of a leader.

The quality of a leader's relationship with an employee is a strong determinant of employee motivation (Naile & Selesho, 2014). According to the authors, it creates a professional, positive and respectful attitude and employees are more likely to adopt a similar approach with their mates and enjoy working. It is clear that the management and leadership styles that are adopted by a business and its management will have a determining effect on the motivation level, the morale and the job satisfaction of the employees. Nevertheless, the relationship between the leadership style that is used within an organisation and the level of motivation within the workforce is a subject of much debate in management.

Numerous studies have revealed that leadership style and employee motivation have mutual relationship (most motivated followers have the most motivated leaders and vice versa) (Baldoni, 2005; Manzoor, 2011; Naile & Selesho, 2014; Almansour, 2012; Alghazo & Al-Anazi, 2016). Numerous studies emphasise that leaders and followers lift each other into an elevated position of motivation (Rukhmani et al., 2010). According to Buble et al. (2014) all leadership theories, especially the humanistic ones, stress on the relationship between leadership styles and motivation, and they maintain that adjusting leadership style is the key factor of high motivation and productivity. Manzoor (2011) suggests that for leaders to get things done the right way, they need people to follow them, they need to win people's trust in order to be followed. Baldoni (2005) postulates that for employees to trust their leaders and

do things for them they need to be motivated. The topic of employee motivation plays a central role in the field of management and cuts through many of the subfields that compose the study of management of which leadership is one (Steers et al., 2004).

The perception and application of these assumptions by managers vary with culture (Adler, 1991). Employees in high power distance cultures expect to be led by managers, and they become uncomfortable with the delegation of discretionary decisions (Adler, 1991). American theorist and managers encouraged Theory Y, Likert System 4 and Managerial Grid kind of managerial approach (Adler, 1991; Hofstede, 1980). The theories of McGregor, Likert, and Blake & Mouton, all advocate participation in the manager's decisions-making process with his/her subordinates (participative leadership style); and the manager is supposed to take the initiative toward participation.

Researchers have discovered that different leaders have different ways of motivating employees (Mehta et al., 2003; Nahum-Shani & Somech, 2011). Some leadership styles are viewed as more productive than others (Kenny & Steiger, 1981). Transformational leaders are said to have high motivating influence over their followers. They can motivate their subordinates by; developing a closer relationship with them, inspiring them, offering challenges, and encouraging individual development. As a result, the leaders transform the basic values, beliefs and attitudes of their followers for the sake of higher collective purposes, thus, encouraging them to perform beyond their job requirement (Nahum-Shani & Somech, 2011). Benjamin & Flynn (2006) explain that transformational leadership is more effective in increasing motivation and provoke positive evaluations from people who frequently move from one state to another (locomotion mode), than with people who make comparisons and judgments before acting (assessment mode). Alghazo & Al-Anazi (2016) argue that leaders who adopt participative and transformational leadership styles are more likely to create an atmosphere of motivation among their employees.

Mehta et al. (2003) assert that transformational leadership style (participative, supportive and directive leadership styles) is more appropriate in stimulating employees to exert higher levels of motivation, whereas in laissez-faire leadership style, the leader relinquishes responsibility and does not provide support to employees. Chipunza et al. (2011) confirm the claim of Mehta et al. (2003) that transformational leadership style is more effective in motivating employees after a merger than laissez-faire, transactional and non-transactional leadership styles. Although Kenny & Steiger (1981) assert that participative leadership style

is more effective than autocratic style, they however, stress that the effectiveness of a leadership style is a function of situational factors such as the nature of the task performed and the characteristics of the group members.

According to Hellriegel et al. (1992) companies situated in a dynamic and highly uncertain environment can survive if the employees are motivated and satisfied, they explained that it is because of the strong influence leadership has on individual employees' performances and their involvement in the achievement of the company's goals. High performance deliverance is directly linked to the relationship between leadership style and followers' motivational needs (Buble et al., 2014). It is therefore fitting that Gopal & Chowdhury (2014) described leadership style and employee motivation as the key influencers of organisational effectiveness.

To test the relationship between leadership style and motivation, Mehta et al. (2003) in their research indicated that different leadership style influences motivation. That participative, directive and supportive leadership styles have a more motivating effect on employees and the outcome was high performance. Storseth (2004) claimed that people-oriented leadership style is the key predictor for work motivation. Bass & Avolio (1999) found that there exists a correlation between transformational leadership style and employee motivation. Buble et al. (2014) in their research established a correlation between managers' leadership style and their motivation. Discussing about the aspects of motivation that relate to leadership style, Barbuto (2005) found out that intrinsic motivation process correlated with transformational behaviours.

McGregor charted a link between organisational structure, leadership style and motivation. He postulated that a traditional organisation, with a centralised decision-making process and hierarchical pyramid is based on several assumptions about human nature and motivation. He called these assumptions Theory X. This theory claimed that people are motivated by financial means and by the threat of punishment. He assumed that satisfying the basic needs for safety and security motivate people to work. Managers who embrace this theory are likely to supervise and control their employees; because they feel external control is needed when dealing with irresponsible employees. The theory X manager believes that leaders must direct, coerce, and control people to motivate them. Most management practices derived from these assumptions failed to motivate individuals to work for attaining the organisational goals (Ovidiu-Iliuta, 2013).



Theory Y practices on the other hand, focus on creating a comfortable work environment and aligning an individuals' goals with the goals of the organisation. The Theory Y manager believes that giving freedom, autonomy, and responsibility to employees motivate them to work. This leader assumes that higher order needs for achievement and self-actualisation motivates employees. In such organisations, productivity levels are high and people are happy to come to work, as the work satisfies their superior needs. This theory assumes that people can be self-directed and very creative, if they are motivated properly. Subsequently, one of the main tasks and challenges for management is to exploit the full potential of each employee. Motivated people will achieve their own goals by focusing on attaining the organisational goals (Ovidiu-Iliuta, 2013).

Mehta et al. (2003) studied the relationship between leadership style, motivation and performance in international marketing channels, and discovered that different leadership styles influence motivation. To be more specific, participative, directive, and supportive leadership styles were found effective to raise employees to higher levels of motivation, which in turn led to higher levels of performance. Banerji & Krishnan (2000) called transformational leadership as inspirational motivation and linked them to a range of outcomes, namely; ethical behaviour, learning orientation, extra effort, and project success.

Autocratic leadership and top-down decision-making create a rigid work environment where employees are given orders to achieve certain tasks. In these organisations, innovation and creativity are suppressed and motivation decreases, which has, in turn, a negative impact on performance (Ovidiu-Iliuta, 2013).

### 3.6 Conclusion

Even though the principles of leadership style and employee motivation apply almost everywhere, their success or failure depends on the way they are adapted to the local culture (Hofstede, 1980). According to some management scholars, to successfully implement management practices originating from a different culture, it is wise to first of all identify domestic needs, behaviours, and values, and then adapt the management practices to these needs before implementing them (Ogedengbe et al., 2012; Matic, 2008; Hofstede, 1980; Iguisi, 2014). On the issue of management being culturally contingent, Jogulu argues that

"leadership styles are culturally biased and that there is a need to learn new behaviours and skills when leaders operate in new cultural environments" (Jogulu, 2010 p. 716). Other researchers argue that management practices are universal and beyond cultural boundaries.

In as much as there are mixed and inconclusive results as to the relationships that exist between cultural values, leadership styles and employee motivation; managers have the challenge to determine what the most effective culture is for their organisation and, if possible and when necessary, how to change the culture effectively. Leaders are expected to provide precise guidelines and directions to motivate the employees in achieving the company's objectives. Establishing a fit between positive organisational cultural values, leadership styles and employee motivation, organisations can achieve a lasting success (Mgbere, 2009).

This study has so far reviewed the classical leadership and motivational theories and models and the connections that exist between cultural values, leadership styles and employee motivation in the global sense. The question that stands out at this point has to do with the extent to which leadership style and employee motivation are culturally bound.

The following chapter presents the cultural background of Africa. A detailed consideration of the common African cultural values and their implication on management practices. Also included in the chapter is the discussion of conventional cultural values in the sphere of Cameroon's organisations and their consequences for management.

## Chapter Four

### A Discourse of Cultural Values and Management Practices in the Cameroonian Environment

#### 4.1 Introduction

We live in an era of great transition (Raskin et al., 2002) in which global economic and political issues cannot be solved without the involvement of the major emerging markets. Africa has become part of the great transition, but suffers significant development problems (The World Bank, 2001; Munene et al., 2000). Most of these issues stem from culture, leadership style, motivation and most especially the direct impact of cultural values on employee motivation and the indirect impact via leadership style in the country and firm level.

Even though this chapter is concerned with culture and the managerial crisis in Cameroon; due to the paucity of information about these constructs specific to the country, a general study of sub-Saharan Africa will be undertaken. The study aim at providing an analytical paradigm that could help explain the challenges and proposed recommendations for organisational management in the sub-Saharan Africa. There are significant differences, however, among these sub-Saharan African countries, which may prevent excessive generalisation. This does not however mean that no generalisation is possible.

The socio-cultural management environment in the sub-Saharan African is looked at in this chapter. The cultural values of African society are presented with the view to highlight the relationship between them and management in the African organisational settings.

#### 4.2 Western and Traditional Values in African Society

Many sub-Saharan African countries are embedded in a labyrinth of cultures; diverse local and foreign cultures (Kombou & Feudjo, 2007). Cameroon as one of the countries in this

region has been described as Africa in miniature due to its richness in mineral resources, favourable climate and well educated and skilled workforce. These resources, positioned the country as one of African's most potentially competitive economies (OECD, 2012). The country is said to be better than other sub-Saharan African countries in terms of per capita income [\$862 per capita in 2007 (approximately 513F CFA 2015 conversion)], education and health facilities, manufacturing sector, rich agricultural sector. Cameroon has the second richest hydro resources (after the Democratic Republic of Congo) in the sub-Saharan Africa, (OECD, 2007). Paradoxically, with this colossal potential, Cameroon is still classified as a poor country.

Sub-Saharan African culture is described as a shared culture characterised by hierarchy, embeddedness and mastery (Munene et al., 2000). Africans in general and Cameroonians in particular are said to have a strong attachment to their cultural values and will always be influenced by these values (Oppong, 2013). This postulate is backed by the assertion of Munene et al. (2000) that African leaders (managers) stress reliance on formal rules and superiors in reaching decisions and this is indicated by their cultural profile. The implication of this is that subordinates will be reluctant to embrace practices that will not take into consideration their values.

The ethnic heterogeneity in the sub-Saharan African region as a whole and Cameroon in particular, accounts for a complex and unstable cultural environment. This multicultural situation means organisations have to function in complex and perturb atmosphere. The economic environment too is under pressure from global competitors. Agglomeration of these cultural and economic turbulences means complex organisational management styles and practices. In this complex cultural situation, for organisations to compete in a rational manner and to succeed, they must develop a strong capacity of adaptability and efficiency (Kombou & Feudjo, 2007). Employers and multinationals on the other hand need to recognise these values in order to enhance effective management of employee relations. It is therefore imperative for company leaders in Cameroon to align their motivational practices with underlying cultural values.

Sub-Saharan Africa has been a victim of many unfortunate occurrences, the societies have been plagued by starvation, civil and tribal wars, despotism, economic decline and epidemics and pandemics such as AIDS, Ebola, just to name a few. These mishaps have handicapped the continent socially, economically and politically (Iguisi, 2014). The World Bank

Development (2015) reports on the economic, political and social development of African countries indicated that they scored very low in relation to the other countries of the world.

The slow economic performance of African organisations has been attributed to many causes. The OECD (2007) stressed managerial factors as the paramount cause for the slow growth and development of organisations.

Controversial talks about the best form of management for Africa have led to the emergence of the concepts of Traditionalism and Westernisation (Oppong, 2013). Traditionalism propagates the idea that Africa will be better off if it develops its own management models in relation to its fundamental values (management is culturally bound) (Hofstede, 2001; Oppong, 2013; Galiegue & Madjimbaye, 2006); while Westernisation promotes the concept that in order for Africa to compete rationally with the rest of the world, it should adopt Western (successful) management models. According to Nyasani (1997) cited in (Lassiter, 2000) African leaders such as Senghor, Nyerere and Nkrumah viewed Western ideology as a framework for development in Africa. The entertainment and acceptance of Western ideologies have resulted in a gradual transformation of the African societies from a strictly collectivistic to a mixture of collectivistic and individualistic (Odubogun, 1992).

It has been observed that there are growing numbers of researchers that highlight different ways that organisations the world over make decisions, train and develop employees, allocate resources and negotiate. A number of researchers have posited that for Africa to be successful in terms of economic development, it should adopt conventional management styles. Ali et al. (2001) assert that sub-Saharan Africa has rich and diverse cultural values, and that these values have been overshadowed and become unnoticed by the attention paid by many to theories developed in countries such as the USA and Western Europe. Well known African figures such as Senghor, Nyerere and Nkrumah, because of their Western educational training, believed that African economic success can be achieved by adopting Western values and practices (Lassiter, 2000). Gyekye (1996) resents the emphasis laid on certain values by Africans and recommends that for the continent to progress scientifically and technologically, "science should be rescued from the morass of (traditional) African religion and mystical beliefs" (Gyekye, 1996 p. 174). Gyekye does not discredit all traditional African values, but he implies that there are some that should be amended or refined so that the continent can blend with modern culture and function within the culture (Gyekye, 2002).

Advocates of Traditionalism on the other hand claim that adherence to or adopting a Western socialist ideology as a framework for nation-building in Africa has been devastating. They claim that prior to the Western colonial era, Africa had functioning political, economic and administrative infrastructures that had their own way of exercising authority at the work place, the means through which people were motivated and rewarded (Iguisi, 2014; Fashola, 2014; Awoniyi, 2015). In stressing this Kanu (2010) states that "the infiltration and adoption of certain Western values into our system have brought abnormality in our society. That is why the present social dispensation in some parts of our society is anti-human" (p. 159). Gyekye (1988) postulates with regard to the impact of Western socio-economic ideology on African organisations; that preminent African leaders had an improper view of Western practices. He claims they incorrectly regarded Western socialism to be compatible with traditional African communalism. He continues by saying that African communalism is "essentially and basically a socio-ethical doctrine, not economic; whereas socialism, as I understand it, is primarily an economic arrangement, involving the public control of all the dynamics of the economy.... (Not) everything that can be asserted of communalism can be asserted also of socialism and vice-versa" (1988 p. 24-26).

Some African scholars believe that importation of Western culture into African is detrimental to the society and economy. Preston Chitere (quoted in Kimani, 1998) observed that Westernisation has enormous influence on African societies and family life. He retorted that "the effects of Capitalism are already being felt in our families. Individualism in society is increasing. Even families in rural areas like to operate in isolation, and those who offer any help are keen to help their immediate families only. The (conjugal) family is becoming more independent". He added that "...the development of individualism have resulted in (increased occurrences of) suicide, loneliness, drug abuse and mental illness. The communal system is breaking down. The extended family had certain functions to perform, for instance, to reconcile couples at loggerheads with each other, but this is no longer the case. It is considered as no 'one else's business' to know what's happening in one's marriage today" (Kimani, 1998 p. 25).

African researchers have attributed the failure of development initiatives in African countries to the importation and implementation of Western management practices in the continent which have only limited application to the specific African context and cultures in which they operate (Malunga, 2006; Onwuejeogwu, 1995). Iguisi (2007, 2014) emphasises that the

expectations of African organisations and institutions created and managed along the lines of Western textbooks and models have failed to achieve expected results in terms of economic growth and sustainable development. Ali et al. (2001) noted that many modern management practices developed and applied in the West have constrained effects in African organisation. This claim was revealed by a study carried out within organisations in Malawi and Tanzania. The aim of the study was to find out the socio-cultural perceptions of the employees of these organisations. In this same line of reasoning, Zeffane & Rugimbana (1995) in their study of management and organisational behaviour in emerging countries found out that most socio-cultural mistakes have caused delay in the completion of most projects and a wastage of valuable resources, this calls for the development of an appropriate framework to provide effective management to the culturally diversified groups that exist in contemporary organisations.

In the last decades there have been many researches on the impact of culture on management practices, but just a very few of these studies concerns emerging economies like that of Africa in general and Cameroon in particular. The knowledge about African cultural values and its impact on motivation is limited (Iguisi, 2014). The extent to which socio-political and historical values, practices and norms of Cameroon as a nation have impacted organisational culture still need to be recognised, studied, and understood. Some studies have shown that national cultural values are related to workplace behaviours, attitudes and other organisational outcomes (Kluckhohn & Strodtbeck, Hofstede, 1980; Trompenaars, 1993; Schwartz, 1994). There is a paucity of literature on these subjects in Cameroon. National cultural implication on organisational management is reflected in the basic beliefs and behaviours of managers (Ogedengbe et al., 2012).

The controversial issues surrounding culture and management in the African context have led to the existence of two schools of thought: Traditional and Western schools of thought (Lassiter, 2000). Advocates of Westernisation believe that development in Africa in general and Cameroon in particular is constrained by traditional cultural values and that the underdevelopment of Africa is due to over attachment to these values. The reasoning is that globalisation is promoting convergence of values and that Westernisation of management is a factual process (Bergiel et al., 2012). Non-Western countries, due to globalisation are now adopting conventional management practices. The notion behind this concept is that for Africa to benefit from the proceedings of globalisation, it is important for organisation

leaders to adopt modern management styles and abandon traditional practices which according to them; do not foster development and growth.

Antagonistic to this view is the traditionalism school of thought which advocates that management and organisational activities are socio-culturally embedded (Jackson, 2004; Hofstede, 1980). The idea behind this postulate is that, within each nation is a set of cultural, social, political and economic institutions which interact with one another to render the management and economic systems unparalleled. Advocates of the cultural embeddedness construct argue that African organisation leaders should develop management styles and practices that are in line with African values, norms, belief systems and social relations (Oppong, 2013; Iguisi, 2014). Other African scholars such as Hernandez (1997); Onwuejeogwu (1995); Schwartz (2000); Ogedengbe et al. (2012); Malunga (2006); Munene et al. (2000) have also rejected the transfer and implantation of Western management practices into African organisations and proposed that management practices that aligned with African traditional values should be adopted. Some African scholars think that not all African cultural values are growth positive. For example, Owoniyi (2015), there are certain African cultural traditions that "...provide the basis for sustainable development in democratic governance unlike the present wholesale adoption of the costly western system which is not entirely suitable for African needs and peculiarity" (P. 12). Similarly, Gyekye (1996) detests the fact that ancestral worship continues to occupy an important position in modern and traditional African life. He also suggests that for Africa to develop scientifically and technologically, "science should be rescued from the morass of (traditional) African religious and mystical beliefs" (1996:174). Nevertheless, Gyekye insists there are many "cultural values and practices of traditional Africa (that) can be considered positive features of the culture and can be accommodated in the scheme of African modernity, even if they must undergo some refinement and pruning to become fully harmonious with the spirit of modern culture and to function...satisfactorily within that culture".

As African economies transit from socialist to open market states, strategic leadership is indispensable to the effectiveness of African organisations (Bubaker, 2009). Mbigi (2005) insists that an Afro-centric view of leadership which which promotes rejection of many aspects of "Western culture with its narrow, arrogant, empty, materialistic values of hamburger and cocaine", and reconnect with African indigenous values which stipulate solidarity and interdependence. This approach, however, raises a number of questions: "(a)



how this Afro-centric knowledge can be discovered? (b) How it can be captured and conveyed? And (c) to what extent will it resonate with the lived experience of modern Africans across and beyond continent?" (Bolden & Kirk, 2009 p. 7).

It has been argued that in order to develop a multicultural subcontinent such as the sub-Saharan African continent, good management is necessary. Leonard (1987) attributed the inappropriate management in Africa to political interference in organisational affairs leading to corruption. He claimed that central to eradicating this malpractice is the importance of policy making, bureaucratic cleansing, and general internal administration. It is necessary for Africa to develop its own managerial technologies rather than adopting the Western practices (Leonard, 1987). Montgomery (1987) shared the same thought with Leonard (1987) by arguing against the idea of transferring Western managerial practices to Africa.

Aninpah & Menjo (2008) assert that China's cooperation with Cameroon have helped to the development of better policies and better management or good governance. An example they gave was the case of Cameroonians practicing Chinese traditional medicine. This is an aspect of transferability of culture. China is not the only country that has influenced the organisational culture of Cameroon (Aninpah & Menjo, 2008). African management scholars have repeatedly asserted that organisations created and managed based on Western management models do not achieve desired results in Africa when local culture is not taken into consideration (Ogedengbe et al., 2012; Malunga, 2006). African management scholars assert that African culture has been ignored and viewed as a negative drawback to good leadership and development. Malunga (2006) commended African culture as being an influential heritage and that effective leadership development must not ignore this fact. The issue raised here is whether the underdevelopment of Africa is as a result of neglecting its culture when implementing Western management theories (Malunga, 2006) or is it due to economic constraints (Galiegue & Madjimbaye, 2006)?

For decades now researchers have published articles explaining in multidimensional the reasons why organisations in Africa perform poorly and proposing models for better management of these organisations (D'Iribarne, 1990; Hernandez, 2007; Kamdem, 2000). Though several models have been proposed, situation still persists; organisations in Africa are not doing better (Shamba, 2007). Considering the vast economic and social potentials that Cameroon is endowed with, the fundamental issue that underlies this research is to investigate the reason for the poor performance of organisations in the country. It is not a

cliché to say that in the midst of globalisation, organisations can gain competitive advantage and resistance to market dynamism only by improving their performance. This will in turn offer the nation a high potential for sustainable development. Motivation is the key determinant of performance and leadership is critical in determining motivation (Gopal & Chowdhury, 2014). Culture influences both leadership style and motivation in Cameroon (Hofstede, 2011).

### 4.3 African Cultural and Social Values

Sub-Saharan Africa is not a single unified region, but its characterised by diversity, contrast and contradictions. For example, many African nations have diverse ethnic cultures; Cameroon and Nigeria have more than 250 ethnic groups each (Iguisi, 2012). The region is characterised by pluralistic tribal and ethnic cultures and is also exposed to Western cultures and styles (Kiggundu, 1993). Across and within the same nation state, racial, tribal and ethnic differences are substantial. Although these differences exist the people in this region have lots in common in terms of culture, values and social structures (Iguisi, 2014). Africans share many things in terms of dressing and ways of life, such as respect for the elders, family, and conflict resolution, just to name a few (Oppong, 2013; Iguisi, 2014).

Swartz & Davies (1997) suggest that for African organisations to achieve transformation and competitiveness, they should adopt the ideas, concepts, practices and metaphors drawn from African cultures. This necessitates a serious restructuring. Iguisi (2007, 2014) claims that African managers and the elite are well informed about the values, models and theories of the West but have limited knowledge about the cultural and traditional values of their society. Although researchers such as Gardiner (1999); Mthembu (1996); Mbigi (1997); Budhwar & Debrah (2005); Marais & Marais (2007); Fenelon & Hall (2008); Lassiter (2000); Fashola (2014); Oppong (2013); Iguisi (2012) have identified some of such indigenous practices and behaviour of the African worker, there still remains a paucity of literature on suitable African management models developed by Africans themselves (Iguisi, 2014). Onwuejeogwu (1995) suggest a list of values and beliefs (Table 10) that are believed to motivate Africans and enable them to control their activities. According to Munene et al. (2000) the values provide a

better understanding of “the functioning of kinship and extended family systems, age-grade institutions and relations of respect for authority and old age” (Munene et al., 2000 p. 342).

**Table 10: Ten Traditional African Values and Beliefs (Onwuejeogwu, 1995)**

Values	Beliefs
1	View the world as an integrated whole in which all events are traceable to one source.
2	Ground practical/common sense thinking in proverbs.
3	Root theoretical thinking in mysticism.
4	View truth as depending on one’s relationship with or the status of its source.
5	Fully trust relatives, but not strangers.
6	Maintain order in life by avoiding unnecessary risks.
7	View wisdom as thought and behaviour in harmony with one’s ancestors.
8	Defined wisdom as making the best of available opportunities.
9	See success as dependent on help or hindrance by powerful others.
10	View advancement as dependent on allegiance to powerful groups or individuals.

Malunga (2006) emphasises that African culture is based on the Ubuntu concept. Mbigi (1997) said the concept means "I am because we are. I can only be a person through others" (P. 37). The concept is based on a cultural world-wide view that highlights what the meaning of a human is, and it is important for African corporate and organisational executives, managers and others pursuing organisational or national transformation (Lassiter, 2000). The concept is built on five reticulated principles which are:

- Sharing and collective ownership of opportunities, responsibilities and challenges;
- The importance of people and relationships over things;
- Participatory decision making and leadership;
- Patriotism; and
- Reconciliation as a goal of conflict management.

Malunga (2006) explains that collective responsibility also involves fair distribution of benefits and efforts. Fair and equitable treatment of employee stirs up team spirit and motivates them. These variables are most often considered as a basis for organisational success.

African cultural values are discussed under the following headings; group identity, attitude towards authority, communal relationships and responsibilities, sense of hospitality, sense of sacredness and of religion, attitude towards female and disabled, time orientation, traditional African education and conviviality.

### 4.3.1 Group Identity

The idea of security and values in Africa depends on an individual identifying his/her self with a group. A genuine African is known and identified in, by and through their community, family, clan, or ethnic group by their values (Kanu, 2010). The norms and values of the group take precedence over those of an individual (Nyambegera, 2002). No wonder, Munene et al. (2000) argue that Africans do not share a singular cultural life; they are divided into meaningful cultural groupings that share a number of important values and practices, while allowing for variations in individual and group preferences.

African communalism guarantees individual responsibility within communal ownership and relationship. The community is the custodian of an individual; hence, they must go where the community goes (Oppong, 2013). This type of culture where people are viewed as entities embedded in the collectivity is known as an embedded culture (Schwartz, 2006). Embedded culture is characterised by the values (2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 9 and 10) in Table 10 above (Spralls III et al., 2011). Africans emphasise community life and communalism as a living principle. People are required to find meaning in life mainly through social connections. The notion of intersubjectivity is promoted (Fashola, 2014). To indicate the importance of social connections in the African society, Fashola states that "humans need other humans to be truly humans, that is, a person is a person through persons" (Fashola, 2014 p. 110). Communism enables Africans to be identified with a group and participate in its shared way of life towards a common goal. An individual's identity is not emphasised at the expense of his community identity. For this reason the idea of individualism as a principle of life is not encouraged in Africa (Kanu, 2010). With reference to communism, Steve Biko noted that "we regard our living together not as an unfortunate mishap warranting endless competition among us, but as a deliberate act of God to make us a community of brothers and sisters jointly involved in the quest for a composite answer to the varied problems of life. Hence, in all we do, we always place man first and hence all our action is usually joint community oriented action rather than the individualism..." (Biko, 1978, p. 50).

The feeling of "living together" and the feeling of belonging to a "community of brothers and sisters" are so strong to the extent that Nkansa-Kyerematang noted that people from the same clan are not allowed to intermarry (Kanu, 2010). Swartz & Davies (1997) linked the idea behind this endearing togetherness to the fact that since humans are social animals their need

to belong are in conflict with their individual needs which have to be sacrificed for the good of the group. The extended family system in Africa is based on the togetherness of the people (Fashola, 2014). According to Davidson (1969) the rationale behind the extended family relationship is that "balance of kinship relations, seen as essential to the ideal balance with nature that was itself the material guarantee of survival, called for specific patterns of conduct. Individuals might have rights, but they had them only by virtue of the obligations, they fulfilled to the community. This explains (the African) logic of regarding the legality in terms of individual obligations, not individual rights. At least in (our) rural and moral assumptions, (our) communities lived at an opposite extreme from the 'free enterprise individualism' which supposes that the community has rights only by virtue of the obligations it fulfils to the individual" (Davidson, 1969 p. 57). An African believes that, the community as an entity remains, but individuals, as persons, come and go (Kanu, 2010). This explains the reason for the emphasis on community life and communalism as a living principle of which the basic ideology is community-identity.

Group spirit is one of the most important values that an organisation can possess (Ali et al., 2001). To demonstrate this concept Ali et al. (2001) tested the practicality of the sense of belonging by using scenario building, founded on the long experience of personnel manager and marketing manager and portrayed an individual worker with outstanding performance and regularly earning a personal bonus. The participants in the survey were then asked to assess the behaviour of their fellow employees toward this individual, whether they would react with discouragement (e.g. Social isolation) or with encouragement (e.g. Praise). The participants responded that the employee concerned was likely to receive active discouragement from fellow employees and even superiors, an indication that individualism is not encouraged. The sense of belongingness and the desire to be in a group still exist today despite mass modernisation. The reason, according to Swartz & Davies (1997) is partly due to the fact that it has enabled survival during years of oppression and suffering.

Biko (1978) also observed that poverty was a foreign concept in Africa; poverty could only be brought about to the entire community by adverse climatic condition. He went further to say that it was never considered repugnant for one to ask for help from neighbours if one was struggling. Succinctly, Africans are cooperative, not individualistic as "we, and not I, are the law of African life" (Ahiauzu, 1986, p. 40).

### 4.3.2 Attitude towards Authority

A feature of the African culture that has been outstanding is their attitude toward authority. Coton (1966, P.21) puts it this way: “Africans generally have deep and ingrained respect for old age, and even when we can find nothing to admire in an old man, we will not easily forget that his gray hairs have earned his right to courtesy and politeness”. This attitude towards authority is not only visible in the community; it is also manifested in the workplace (Gardiner, 1998). This attitude could be described as “almost subservience – certainly a little more than just respect” (Gardiner, 1998 p. 496). Those in authority are respected because they are believed to be the teachers and protégés of the young. They are believed to tell the truth and their words and instructions are observed by the young. This respect of authority has its practical implications. It helps in the maintenance of customs and tradition, so the tendency is not to question by those in authorities (Kanu, 2010). Jackson (2004) terms this as ‘deference to rank’ he reveals that this is done for people to find their proper place in the social scale as an important aspect of the virtue of humanity. Leadership in African society is closely linked to authority, it can be leadership derived from old age, wisdom, status or formal position. Gyekye (2002) explains that this is because those in high position are often perceived as exercising or ought to exercise leadership, which he believes can lead to success of group performance.

Traditionally, age is the foundation for authority, elders are viewed as a repository of communal wisdom, as a result, they are granted the position of leadership over the people (Kanu, 2010). Gardiner (1998) claims that the autocratic inclinations of many African governments have served to strengthen this behaviour that the elderly should be respected and have also urged people to be cautious about showing their disagreement with those in authorities or with power. The elders are conceded authority because according to the African concept, “legitimate power lay in the office sanctioned by ancestral norms, not in the person; and the person lost his right to exact obedience once he abused that office” (Davidson, 1969 P. 200). These elders themselves are expected to respect authority and they hardly abuse it, and often are entrusted to the demands of their office. The young themselves are always looking forward to being elders and because they are often told that respect is reciprocal, that if a child respects an elder; he would be respected by the young when he becomes an elder.

The concept of respecting the elders forms an integral part of the training of a child in the African society; it is entertained by Africans that for a child to be polite and respectful to the elderly in society, he/she must be trained from home (Oppong, 2013). Gardiner (1998) highlighted this cultural value, when referring that “the fact that Ghanaians are brought up to be polite and courteous makes it even more difficult to be blunt when necessary” (p. 147).

In many traditional African societies, it is unethical to address or call the names of an elderly person without including an honorific title before their name. These titles signify a person’s status in the society. Failure to use these titles in a conversation might cause a complete breakdown in the communication process (Atang, 1997).

### **4.3.3 Communal Relationships and Responsibilities**

Community is a strong and binding network of relationships (Mthembu, 1996). The African sense of communal relationship and responsibilities is expressed in this popular proverb of Davidson (1969, P.31) which says "go the way that many people go; if you go alone, you will have reason to lament". Belonging to a community in Africa is viewed as a form of security. The community offers psychological and ultimate security to an African (Kanu, 2010). Kanu also says the community offers physical and ideological identity to an African. Since the community is regarded as the custodian of the individual, the African must go to where the community goes. In traditional sub-Saharan Africa, children are not owned only by their biological parents, but by the community as a whole, they are under the authority and control of any adult in the community (Oppong, 2013). The behaviour of children and adults is regulated by this communal network system. The African child matures by learning through experience from the community – going to the beginners' school and qualifying in terms of knowledge about behaviour, discipline, respect, role playing, sex education and other responsibilities (Oppong, 2013).

Also, in traditional sub-Saharan African society, work is done by the entire community the wordings of Okafor (1974 p. 22) express it as such "when a job had to be done, the whole community turned out with supplies and music and proceeded to sing and dance its way through to the successful conclusion of each particular chore. In this way the work was converted into a pleasurable productive pastime". The African spirit of communal

responsibility builds collectivism by initiating work rhythm through songs and dances which creates team spirits (Oppong, 2013).

Apart from solidarity during work time, members of the community, also have the responsibility to mediate for another. For example, begging for forgiveness is an acceptable custom and a mode of behaviour in the African society. It is more likely for forgiveness to be accepted if the transgressor comes along with or sends another person, especially an elderly person (Gardiner, 1998). This is because; it is believed that the elderly mediator who has accepted that role ought to have, out of his wisdom, advised the transgressor. Anakwe (2002) noted that, age plays an important role in choosing a person for a leadership position and that authority is largely founded on wisdom, which is acquired by age.

#### 4.3.4 Sense of Hospitality

The sense of hospitality is still very alive in sub-Saharan Africa; it is one of the values that make these societies unique. Sub-Saharan Africans have no difficulties incorporating strangers, they even provide them with land to settle, with the hope that one day they will go and the land will turn back to the owner (Kanu, 2010).

There are many symbolic ways of expressing welcome in Africa. To demonstrate to visitors that they are welcomed and safe, they are, depending on the community, offered coconuts, palm wine or traditional gin, kola nuts, etc. Okafor (1974 p. 21) sums up the sub-Saharan African attitude towards visitors with these words, “in traditional African culture, whenever there is food to be taken, everyone present is invited to participate even if the food was prepared for a far less number of people without anticipating the arrival of visitors. It would be a height of incredible bad manners for one to eat anything, however small, without sharing it with anyone else present, or at least expressing the intention to do so”.

The African expression of hospitality is different from that in the West. No appointment and special invitations are needed for someone to visit a distant relative or neighbour. They can turn in at any point in time and will be treated kindly (Kanu, 2010).



#### 4.3.5 Sense of Sacredness and of Religion

Atheism had no place in the traditional African society. Religion is an integral and inseparable part of the African culture (Mbiti, 1970; Kanu, 2010). People's actions could be linked to their religious belief and practice. Ancestral worship is also a form of reverence to a god. Africans view their ancestors as their protector; as such, they are connected to the land. This is because they believe that the land is where they came from and where their ancestors have always lived (Marais & Marais, 2007). They see the land as the home of their ancestors and estrangement from the land is considered as neglecting one's traditions and culture. During festive seasons such as Christmas and other festivals, most Africans endeavour to visit their home to refresh the connection with their communities and ancestors (Oppong, 2013).

While Mbiti (1970) claims that religion is an important traditional African practice, Oppong (2013) asserts that *"a typical African does not believe in God, but in their ancestors and will slaughter animals as a sacrifice to the ancestors. The deities or gods, who communicate their intentions through dreams, spiritual leaders and natural happening (e.g. Lightning), are believed to be very powerful, capable of punishing transgressors with death and diseases"* (p. 207).

Religious affiliation is primordial in African society; almost everybody belongs to a religious group. 40% of Africans are Muslim, 40% Christian and 100% Animist (Darou et al., 2003). They claim that the religiousness of Africans has enabled them to be able to control conflicts and to pass on important skills to one another. Ugwuegbu (2001) argues that the problem of underdevelopment of corporations in the majority of African countries is due to colonialism and fragmented religious and ethnic society.

Religion also has an important role to play in social relationships. Kanu (2010) emphasises this role when he compared Western values with African values. According to a Westerner, he wrote *"there is nothing immoral to consign their old and helpless relations to the Old People's Homes. That might even seem more humane than to abandon them. But to the African mind, even the so-called humane treatment is a betrayal of the fundamental assumption behind the Western man's idea of man's worth...to entrust his welfare to institution officers and caretakers. This is an abomination to the African mind. The care of the aged...is situated within the family"* (Kanu, 2010 p. 158).

Religion is inseparable from morality; according to Okafor (1974) “*the ancient Africa was far from being an abode of laissez-faire morality. There were strict moral principles and determined code of conduct. Custom laid down the code of law which established the nature of right-doings and custom established penalties and taboos against malefactors. Moral sanctions were mainly religious sanctions, and these metaphysical sanctions were truly effective*” (p. 25). According to Mbiti (1970) it is very difficult for an African to live without religion.

### 4.3.6 Attitude towards Female and the Disabled

The attitude towards women and their roles in the communities is an outstanding feature in the traditional African society. A Woman is seen as symbols of care, fertility and love and for this reason it is believed that she necessarily bears children (Fashola, 2014). This perception of the female gender confines them to family life. Females are mostly marginalised in Africa (World's Women Report, 2010); they are viewed and treated as the inferior gender in both strength and reasoning. Hence, their opinion is rejected when it comes to decision-making on settling disputes, planning an event and formal activities including mining, hunting, going to war (Oppong, 2013). In traditional Africa it is the right and the duty of a father to look for a husband for her daughter, the mother and daughter are under obligation to accept the bridegroom without any objection (Oppong, 2006). This is because the mother is considered to have no power to make important societal and domestic decisions. Dimandja (2004) asserts that women are generally banished from the public spheres of power. In traditional Africa, it is unacceptable for women to be chiefs. Even queen mothers are not permitted to sit with the men in the National House of Chiefs (Oppong, 2013).

Another social mishap in traditional Africa is the attitude and conception of the disabled. These groups of people are accused and believed to be punished by the gods and ancestors for either their own badness or that of their parents (Oppong, 2006). The disabled are considered to be either witches of the family or punishment upon the family. Hence, they are treated as misfit who should not co-habit with other members of the society and are most often ousted from their community (Oppong, 2013). This attitude demonstrates the respect and reverence Africans have for the supernatural who they believe have the power to curse and to bless the community.

#### 4.3.7 Time Orientation

Globalisation has 'opened the eyes' of African managers, entrepreneurs and researchers to realise that the notion of time as perceived by Africans may be one of the reasons of poor economic performance of organisations (Kamdem, 2004; Zadi & Kessy, 1998). The ability for the continent to be able to compete with the rest of the world is an issue of concern to many African researchers (Kamdem, 2010).

The construct of time as another dimension of culture was introduced by Hall (1976). According to him the concept of time differs in communities. This dimension of culture emphasises on how time is defined and measured, the different types of time that exist and the importance of time (Schein, 1992). Time horizon helps an organisation to determine the kind of planning adopted by members of an organisation, whether it is long-term, goal setting or it focuses on just here-and-now (Denison & Mishra, 1995; Tucker & McCoy, 1998). Hall (1976) identified two types of time framework; monochromic (being punctual, tasks are planned to match with time, time is linear). Polychromic culture on the other hand has a nonlinear time framework where people prefer performing many tasks at the same time.

Kamdem (2010) after comparing the perception and management of time in the West and in Africa (specifically in Cameroon) arrived at a conclusion that time in Cameroon is elastic, polychromic (Hall, 1976) and infinite. Mbiti (1969) in his comparison of Africans to Westerners; said *"to Westerners, time is a set of stripes drawn on the tarmac that is on the road on which we drive. They believe to drive at exactly a constant speed, so they think they know exactly when we will cross these stripes..., the Westerners feel sure that the road is straight, regular, and go on forever"*.

Africans as a whole do not like to waste much time speculating about the future. Traditionally, they rely on emotional marks of time, 'like when you were born', 'when you married' (Mbiti, 1969). Cameroonians claim that they cannot make any plans for the future because they are uncertain about what the future holds for them (Johnson-Hanks, 2005). A report from Cameroon Economic Studies (2000) asserts that the attitude of Cameroonians to be unconscious about time is harmful to business. Munter (1993) says *"it is normal in Cameroon to arrive at 1:00 P.M., for a meeting schedule to take place at 9:00 A.M. but the last person who arrives at 2:00 P.M. is considered late"*. In Cameroon time is not viewed as a

constraint, the essential is that the job should be done no matter how long it takes for it to be completed. This way of viewing time makes it difficult for organisations in Cameroon to follow procedures of planning and programming hence will rather prefer to work on improvisation (Galiegue & Madjimbaye, 2006). Most international projects conceived in Africa, according to Kamdem (2002) are unsuccessful because of poor time management, impatience, inability to learn from past examples and the illusive thinking that all decisions have been made. Decision-making in organisations takes a relatively long period of time because of the high value placed on consensus by Africans (Cosway & Anankum, 1996).

### 4.3.8 Traditional African Education

Traditional African education follows the format of oral tradition. This involves collective testimonies and recollection of the past inherited from earlier generations (Omolewa, 2007). The elderly are highly recognised and respected in the communities; they are viewed as a repository of knowledge. Most African societies possess oral, non-literary traditions; as a result, they have been able to create accounts, proverbs, myths, idioms and legends to pass to facilitate transferability of knowledge across and along the community (Fasokun, 2005). Elders dominate most of the teachings; they gather the youths by the fireside and tell them stories. Stories like that are filled with philosophical thoughts such as; values, beliefs, ethics, morals, good and evil etc. (Boaduo, 2011).

These elders are able to dispense knowledge because they are familiar with proverbs, riddles and idioms of their community. These are derived from the social order, environment and behaviour common to the community. The intention of such stories is to teach obedience, devotion, love of strangers and hard work. These teachings have psychological impacts on the lives of these children as these will prepare them to become responsible, appreciative and respectable adults.

African myths therefore form the ideals and beliefs of cultural practices. Accordingly Okafor (1974, P. 33) *assert that "... what James Johnson admitted of the Yoruba moral system can be said of many other African communities. According to Johnson, the Yoruba moral system taught religiousness, reverence for ancestors and authority, filial piety, chastity, truthfulness,*

*honesty and kindness. These were taught through different avenues of acculturation, including parables and proverbs”.*

Emphasising on the relevance of this mode of transferring knowledge (oral tradition), Omolewa (2007) cited in Oppong, (2013 p. 207) says that "this continues to be a reservoir of inexhaustible wisdom where Africans learn about their origin, history, culture and religion; about the meaning and reality of life; about morals, norms and survival techniques".

### **4.3.9 Conviviality /Affability**

Conviviality is referred to by Kombou & Feudjo (2007) as a term used to denote all positive, favourable social interactions between individuals which determine their socio-professional relationships. Africans in general and Cameroonians in particular have high propensity for individuals to celebrate. The organisation of ceremonies which gather people of various cultural groupings is one of the African's strengths and makes the continent outstanding (Debenedett, 1998). All events, even those with very little significance are celebrated (Kombou & Feudjo, 2007). There is no doubt, therefore, that Sagiv & Schwartz (2007) described Africans as high on harmony.

Conviviality is a form of social relationship among members of an organisation. This extreme friendliness is said to have both positive and negative impacts on organisational practices (Kombou & Feudjo, 2007). Conviviality or ‘mechanical solidarity’ (Sylla, 2009) has blurred the line between personal and professional relationships thus influencing the execution of organisational policies (Kombou & Feudjo, 2007; Malunga, 2006). The high degree of conviviality characterising societal behaviour in African has led to a great capacity for the people to forgive and tolerate (Jones & Blunt 1996). Extreme conviviality that exists in social relationships is said to be one of the root causes of favouritism that characterise the organisational or business climate in Cameroon (Cameroon Economic Studies, 2000).

Extreme friendship can lead to favouritism, nepotism and cronyism. Favouritism according to Merriam-Webster (2000) is providing special privileges to a friend, colleague or acquaintance in areas of employment, career and special decisions. Nepotism can also develop from extreme friendship and it is defined as acquiring recruitment, promotion, or the provision of

more favourable working conditions by an individual irrespective of their knowledge, abilities, skills, educational background, qualification and experience but due to their kinship relationship (Ozsemerci, 2003). Cronyism is favouritism shown to a person by appointing them to a position based on mutual friendship (Ozler et al., 2011).

Ozler et al. (2011) assert that there is a close link between favouritism, nepotism and cronyism. The authors posit that these practices are common in societies where traditional ties and interpersonal relations are strong. Some studies claim that favouritism and nepotism are common in developing countries Ozler et al. (2011). Especially in smaller firms (Arash & Tumer, 2008). Favouritism, cronyism and nepotism though have some positive impact to an organisation, especially family business, but are also disturbing to the employees of a company and can lead to lack of trust to the organisation, consequently, lack of motivation and individual performance (Keles et al., 2011). It has been argued that nepotism, favouritism and cronyism are ethical problems for organisations and have a negative impact on motivation; they can cause an increase in dissatisfaction of staff about their organisation (Arash & Tumer, 2008; Nadeem et al., 2015). According to Ozturk (2008) the increase dissatisfaction of employees is because those who are hired based on family ties or friendships do not have the required knowledge or are not often qualified or lack the necessary skills for the job. This was supported by Perez – Gonzales (2006) who postulated that family ties and social connections can shade proper recruitment process leading to the recruitment of less-skilled personnel and the overall consequence is poor organisational performance.

These are just some of the core values that underlie traditional African culture, there are still more of these values that have been identified by researchers but have not been discussed in this study. The next section of the research deals with the cultural values that have been identified in Cameroon's organisations.

#### **4.4 Hofstede's Dimensions in the Context of Cameroonian**

Research based on a variety of paradigms has indicated that national cultural values are related to workplace behaviours, attitudes and other organisational outcomes (Kluckhohn & Strodtbeck, 1961; Hofstede 1980a, Trompenaars, 1993; Schwartz, 1994). Culture, be it

national, ethnic/tribal, family, school, or organisational is characterised by beliefs, norms, values and attitudes (Hofstede, 2011). These measures, or indices are variables that differentiate cultures. Though an organisation is made up people from varied ethnic origin, this does not render the organisation multicultural, since the employees after recruitment are governed by the culture of the firm and not their individual cultures. Thus, cultural differences among workers from different ethnic background do not affect the overall culture of the organisation (Aluko, 2003). Organisational or national culture is determined by peoples' personal values and influence the effectiveness of the role of a leader (Byrne & Bradley, 2007). Organisational practices and norms are shaped by the belief and values that are dominant in a country. These values and belief are not static; they change over time (Pittigrew, 1993; Hofstede, 2011) and are prone to be influenced by other nation's culture like foreign investors. In the case of Cameroon, the infiltration of the Nigerians, French, and Chinese has a significant impact on the culture of the organisations managed by individuals from these nations (Khan & Menjo, 2008).

Hofstede (1980) identified four dimensions of culture which he also applied to organisations, they are; power distance, uncertainty avoidance, masculinity versus femininity and individualism versus collectivism. These dimensions, according to Kombou & Feudjo (2007) are more generalised and do not fit in the context of Cameroon. They claim that professional relationship in Africa has not been similar to that in Europe; as a result, Hofstede's model should be treated based on the context of the nation.

Hernandez (1997) as a further development of Hofstede (1987) model in the African context outlined six principal traits that characterise the African culture; they are: religious, corporate autocratic, collectivism versus individualism, time consciousness, conviviality and wide power distance. Conviviality to an extent can be considered as an aspect of collectivism, but in African culture conviviality is viewed as indispensable in organisational relationship as a result Hernandez (1997) thought is wise to consider it as a separate characteristic of African culture.

As a modification of Hofstede (1980) cultural dimensions, Schwartz (1994, 1999) identified three basic opposing dimensions common in African societies. He called them, embeddedness versus autonomy; hierarchy versus egalitarianism and mastery versus harmony. Reliance on superior authority and rules is an African characteristic that Schwartz et al. (2000) observed and according to them, these traits are subtle manifestations of power

distance, collectivism, mastery, embeddedness, masculinity and hierarchy. This observation of Schwartz and his colleagues indicate a nexus between their model of cultural dimensions and that of Hofstede.

The aim of this section is to verify the extent to which Hofstede's initial four dimensions of culture are applicable in the context of Cameroon.

### 4.4.1 Individualism versus Collectivism

Hofstede (2011) used the term individualism versus collectivism to describe the integration of individuals of a society into primary groups. In individualistic cultures the ties between individuals are loose: people are expected to look after themselves and their immediate family members. In collectivist cultures, people are integrated into strong, cohesive in-group right from birth. This in-group can be extended families that continue to offer protection to those of the group in exchange for unquestioning loyalty. In a collectivistic society, there is preference to respect of the group to which those in the society belong, and usually the family and tribe tend to differentiate between the in-group members and out-group members (Ogedengbe et al., 2012).

Using Hofstede (2011) classification of national culture, African cultures are predominantly collectivistic. In Cameroon, community goals such as works in family farms, take precedence over individual goals, (Hernandez, 1997; Kombou et al., 2000; Wamba, 2003). The tight harmonious social relationships in the African society have been attributed to religiousness and large extended families (Ogedengbe et al., 2012). The extended families and religious affiliation are believed to offer protection (Kombou & Feudjo, 2007). The extended family system also constitutes an important economic unit of production, distribution and consumption (Ogedengbe et al., 2012). Africans believe that an individual acquire significance by pertaining to a lineage or clan, all his achievements belong to this group (Sylla, 2009).

Kluckhohn (1951) quotes Africans as having an interdependent relationship with one another and that they place priority on the goals of the community rather than on individual goals. This view is supported by Malunga (2006) who claims that collectivism is seen in almost



every aspect of the African societies; delegation in SMEs (Nkakleu, 2002), leadership style (Kamdem, 2007).

Schwartz (1999) used an alternate terminology; embeddedness versus autonomy when referring to the relationship between individual and group. He continued by saying that this dimension has an impact on the behaviour of employees towards their work and incentive systems, which are the two major problems that African countries are encountering (Dia, 1996). In cultures characterised by embeddedness, employees add meaning to their life through social relationships, also by being able to be identified with a group which they hold dear; in which they are embedded (Munene et al., 2000).

Thomas & Bendixen (2000) identify a form of collectivism in Africa, where the individual acts autonomously, but still remain socially united, they term it communalism. It is a mixture of collectivism and individualism. The idea behind communalism is to separate organisational practices from social obligations. Blunt & Jones (1997) in describing the dominant behaviour of employees in African organisations based on culture, quoted Dia (1994) who ascertained that individual achievements are less valued in Africa than interpersonal relations. Economic dealings are more valuable if they have a high capacity to strengthen group ties.

On the issue of collectivism, Eloundou-Enyegue & Shapiro (2004) assert that both traditional and modern life of Cameroonians is governed by collectivism. Solidarity among community members can be seen from the structure of the community, the shape of habitats, from artifacts and during celebrations. Nyamnjuh (1999) described Cameroonians as having the propensity to vacillate on most issues of collective interest, acting in a manner to counter all efforts to pursue common interest and aspirations.

Hofstede (1999) claims that the connection of people in a society is influenced by the values that are predominant in the society and that these values program the mind of the people, hence cultural values determine management style. The above mentioned African authors, all mentioned collectivism as a characteristic of societal or national culture and not in a business context. The extent to which collectivism is practiced in business organisations, among employees and between employers and employees in Cameroon still remained to be determined (Kombou & Feudjo 2007).

In recent years organisational culture researchers have noticed that there has been a drift of organisational culture in some countries from collectivism to individualism, especially in countries where industrial relation system depends on state-sponsored collective principles and voluntary collective employee and employer institutions (Bubaker, 2009). This has been noted as the case with Cameroon. Eloundou-Enyegue & Shapiro (2004) posit that individualism is gradually paving its way into the society, but the individualistic tendencies are not yet fully integrated into the traditional practices.

### 4.4.2 Masculinity versus Femininity

Hofstede (2011) uses the term masculinity and its opposite femininity, to explain the characteristic of a society. Referring to the distribution of values between genders, Hofstede found out that the values of women among societies differ less than men's values. Hofstede (2011) used two sets of opposing adjective to describe masculine and feminine cultures. He said feminine culture is common in countries where both men and women have modest and caring values while in masculine countries the dominant values for men are assertiveness and competitiveness. The women in masculine culture are to an extent assertive and competitive, but not as the men. Modesty and care are at the forefront of interpersonal relationship and are sine qua none to organisational success (Hofstede, 2011).

African society is traditionally more feminine in nature. Greater emphasis is laid on the maintenance of warm personal relationship, caring for the weak and the development of cooperative spirit, contrary to a masculine society where assertiveness and competitive spirit are encouraged (Hofstede, 1991). The feminine disposition of African society creates a closed circuit between humans and their environment oriented toward harmony. There is a strong emphasis on settling disputes and restoration of harmonious personal relationships (Ogedengbe et al., 2012). A typical African worker sees work as an instrument of activity rather than as a central life interest, since it serves as a means of securing his/her needs (Blunt, 1983; Ogedengbe et al., 2012). Another peculiar cultural form of African society is the indigenous system of saving and credit where credit is given at festive periods, which serves as a unifying factor for the local people.

A notable aspect of gender related issue in Africa is inequality between males and females. Gender equality is top of the agenda of many debates in Africa today (Revue Economique et Sociale, 2003). Schopenhauer (2005) explained how women are viewed and treated in African societies, they were not allowed to occupy roles related to high intelligence and physical might. Hofstede has been criticised for explaining an individual's personality based on biological phenomenon, that doing so is difficult (Kombou & Feudjo, 2007). These authors claim that people's behaviour is better explained by the culture of an organisation since education and training of the members of the organisation depends on that culture.

### 4.4.3 Power Distance

Hofstede (2011) defines power distance as the extent to which the less powerful members of organisations and institutions (like the family) accept and expect that power is and should be distributed unequally, meaning that the existence of power inequality in the society is a normal phenomenon. It is characterised by autocratic leadership, many hierarchical levels, and inequality and power differences. This dimension explains the level of equality among members of an organisation, or the management style exhibited by an organisation leader. This dimension suggests that the level of inequality in a society is endorsed by the followers as well as the leaders (Hofstede, 2011). There exists no perfect equality among members of an organisation (Hofstede, 1987) or in other words, all societies are unequal, but some are more unequal than others (Hofstede, 2011).

African societies are characterised by a wide power distance between the superior and the subordinate (Hofstede, 2011), the manager does not concert with their subordinates in decision-making (Kombou & Feudjo, 2007). Decision-making rest with managers, this may make employees less willing or prevented from participating in the decision-making process (Oppong, 2013). An employee, in order to secure his/her job must be obedient and submissive to the manager (Hernandez, 2007; Iguisi, 2014).

The high power distance results in managers resisting to involve subordinates in decision-making as this could mean bridging the gap between them, which is usually considered as weak management (Oppong, 2013). This kind of practice can be destructive to an organisation, for the competence of an employee cannot be demonstrated (Moussa, 2001).

Modern organisations require flexible work arrangements governed by trust and justice; an opportunity for workers to participate in improving production processes (Elvira & Davila, 2005). Jones et al. (1995) claim that the relationship between employees and their leaders should be paternal. According to Linqvist & Adolph (1996) paternalistic leadership style is ideal for organisations in Africa because societies are egalitarian within age groups and hierarchical between age groups.

Discrimination in relation to power expression by a boss is not only limited to subordinates, women are also considered as weaker and less capable to make important organisational decisions, especially strategic ones. Conflict could therefore arise when there is a female boss to spearhead the decision-making process as this may draw resistance from the men. Likewise, young male bosses could face resistance from older subordinates due to the culture of respect for the elderly, who is regarded as the wiser (Oppong, 2013).

#### 4.4.4 Uncertainty Avoidance

Hofstede (2001) defines uncertainty avoidance as “the extent to which members of a culture feel threatened by uncertain or unknown situations and try to avoid such situations”. Cameroonians do not make any plans because of their uncertainty about the future (Johnson-Hanks 2005). The ability of Cameroonians not being able to avoid uncertain situations is seen in their inability to absorb the shock of the 1980s economic crisis and took the country about two decades to come out of the gloom. Cameroonians plan for very few events in their life, death often takes them unaware, and that is why it is not uncommon to see children of the same parents fighting over their father’s property after his death because he did not have a will. They still blame the two-decades-old economic crisis for the ambiguity and insecurity that they presently experience as if life were about life prior to the crisis (Johnson-Hanks, 2005).

Social and economic life in Cameroon is volatile; this can be seen from the unreliability of transport, higher education not being a guarantee of employment, increasing difficulty to obtain credit from a bank and to start up a business. Johnson-Hanks (2005) claims that the reasons for the above behaviour is because life in present day Cameroon is objectively unpredictable and the 1980 crisis is used in a figurative sense to denote the world as being

uncertain and also to legitimise behaviour contributing to the uncertainty. The crisis is used as an excuse for malpractices such as corruption and witchcraft in the society and the workplace, these practices are considered as norms and people get penalised for not practicing them.

Due to the acute uncertainty that plaques Cameroon, careers are not planned. Professional paths are not chosen or known in advance; most often they come by chance or by divine intervention (Guyer, 1984). Students just pursue education, sit in for as many competitive examinations as possible, and then whichever one they succeed in, then fine. That is why it is common to hear the phrases 'when the future decides'; 'c'est que je trouve, je fais' (whatever I find, I do); 'l'impossible n'est pas Camerounais' (impossible is not a Cameroonian). Cameroon is a country of 'wait and see', the people are unpredictable. Nyamnjoh (1999) claims that, the unpredictability is in their dealings with the external world as well as with each other. He went on to say that Cameroonians find it very easy to present themselves as innocent victims of forces beyond their control. This behaviour, Nyamnjoh (1999) says has caused most Cameroonians not to assume their responsibilities and laying the blame on others when failures arise. They have adopted questionable survival strategies. This involves making ends meet despite their circumstance and means. People have resorted to corrupt practices in work places in order to make more money. This situation has placed the inhabitants of the country in a position of lack of trust on both management efforts and employee commitment.

### **4.5 Links between Cultural Values, Leadership styles and Employee motivation in Cameroon**

Organisational culture is influenced by national culture or the macro culture (Hellriegel et al., 2004). Bureaucracy and acute corruption are the dominate aspects of Cameroon's culture (Transparency International, 2011); these patterns of behaviour have influenced organisational practices. According to Barrett (2005) organisations can be more flexible, less hierarchical and bureaucratic, and work collectively if they are united by a shared set of values.

Some well known researchers have conducted studies on management practices in relation to culture in some parts of Africa. For instance, the GLOBE researchers studied the sub-Saharan Africa (House et al., 2004). Hofstede studied three regions in Africa; West African region (Nigeria, Ghana and Sierra Leone), East Africa region (Ethiopia, Kenya, Tanzania, and Zambia) and South Africa (Hofstede; 2011). Igusi (2014) has added to cultural studies, updated empirical data from Nigeria. Albeit all these studies, there is still a gap in management literature on the relationship that exists between cultural values, leadership styles and motivation in Africa (Boukar & Julien, 2009; Feudjo & Kombou, 2007; Kamdem, 2002; D'Iribarne, 1990; Ogedengbe et al., 2012).

Cameroon, just like many other sub-Saharan African countries is surrounded by a turbulent economic environment, subjected to high pressure from the community. An entrepreneur in Cameroon has to deal with hostile and predatory political authorities, with virtually no regulations and policies for protecting business (Kombou & Feudjo, 2007). They, in the mist of all these odds have to ensure optimal organisational performance. This entails motivating employees according to their needs.

Organisations in Cameroon are embedded in strong cultures that are reflected in practices and customs that may not be pleasant for an outsider (Henry, 1988). These organisations operate in settings that do not foster growth. They are characterised by small size, lack of internal and external growth, less qualified employees and informal capital structure (Kamdem, 2002). This explains the existence of many micro and small size informal enterprises in Cameroon (Galieue & Madjimbaye, 2006). The structure of these firms is as a result of adaptation to a particular configuration conditioned by cost and the market situation, which has limited their growth. High transaction and legal costs have forced organisations to function informally, with more emphasis on interpersonal relationships (Galieue & Madjimbaye, 2006).

### **4.5.1 Cultural Values and Leadership Styles in Cameroon**

Organisations in Cameroon function in an economic environment that is most often hostile, with high community pressure, strong political interference, lack of or poor implementation of regulations and policies protecting their operation. The organisations are embedded in a multifaceted culture resulting from over 250 ethnic groups. These conditions can be obstacles

to the management of organisations (Galiegue & Madjimbaye, 2006). Researches on culture (Hofstede, 1991) have emphasised that socio-cultural variables have determining influence on the performance of a firm, and that it is important to adapt management practices to this socio-cultural context (Galiegue & Madjimbaye, 2006).

Studies have indicated that cultural values influence leadership style. These studies have seen the African culture as either defining the uniqueness of leadership on the continent or constraining leadership development (Kuada, 2010). Blais & Toulouse (1990) confirm the assertion that there is a relationship between the two concepts by studying the behaviour of organisational leaders of many countries. They found out that leadership style is primarily influenced by the cultural environment of the leaders.

It has been noted that empirical data on the nature of leadership style and the relationship it has with culture in Africa is limited (Bolden & Kirk, 2009; Kuada, 2010). Though popular arguments stipulate that the fate of any society lies in the quality of its leadership (Burns, 1978), most of the few existing empirical researches on leadership in Africa seem to be encouraging African managers, organisations and communities to adopt Western leadership styles rather than to appreciate, develop, and/or enhance their own approaches (Bolden & Kirk, 2009).

Unlike other African authors, Jackson (2004) based on collaborative research in a number of African countries asserts that African managers are very skilled in many aspects of management and leadership, particularly in dealing with cultural diversity and multiple stakeholders and enacting humanistic management practices. According to Jackson (2004), management practice, especially leadership styles in sub-Saharan Africa is shaped by values such as: sharing, deference to rank, sanctity of commitment, regard for compromise and consensus, and good social and personal relations. Albeit this claim of Jackson, Kurfi (2011) asserts that emerging economies lack effective leadership and he attributes this to self-aggrandisements of Africans. A call for "African Renaissance" has been launched within Africa, whereby Africans are urged to liberate themselves from colonial and pre-colonial thinking and reengage with an African value system (Mulemfo, 2000; Ntibangirwa, 2003).

The high power distance culture that characterises many sub-Saharan African countries (Oppong, 2013) have led to a pyramidal decision-making structure; where at the top of the pyramid is the boss and the subordinates are at the bottom (Galiegue & Madjimbaye, 2006).

The centralisation of all decisions at the top of the organisation makes the firm to resemble a large family, where there is a family head who assumes the role of the family leader and the subordinates who are viewed as the children (Kamdem, 2002). Likert (1967) described this type of leadership as paternalistic. Autocratic leadership style is also common in organisations in sub-Saharan Africa, where decisions are made solely by managers who are respected for their position in the hierarchy and also for their age (Ogedengbe et al., 2006).

Boukar & Julien (2009) also claim that the leadership style in Cameroonian organisations is paternalistic. The authors attributed the existence of this style to the importance attached to social and family obligations. In a collective society like Cameroon, the relationship between an employer and the employees resembles that which exists between a father and the children (Galiegue & Madjimbaye, 2006). The employer assumes it as his duty to protect the employees and these ones are required to be loyal to their boss (Bourgoin, 1984). Employers participate in the funeral ceremony of a family member of an employee or to offer them gifts. This family-like kind of relationship, according to Kamdem (2002) can easily lead to unprofessional attitudes and habits in the organisation, and is in conflict with organisational principles and capitalist economy which is individualism and profit maximisation (Kessy, 1998).

The autocratic system of management in Africa resembles the McGregor's theory X management style where the employee's ability to perform a task is not trusted, as a result control is imposed on the employee, leaving him with a little initiative and financial reward is considered as a means of motivating employees (Blunt & Jones, 1992; 1997) and (Jaeger & Kanungo, 1990).

In a collectivist culture, the role of leadership is to facilitate team effort and integration to foster a supportive atmosphere and to create the necessary context or group culture (Ogedengbe et al., 2012). In describing the leadership style in organisations in Cameroon, Tchankam (2008) argues that the process of delegation of authority is anarchic, with more than necessary importance attached to position and functions than to the job itself. The internal structures are centralised and Galiegue & Madjimbaye (2006) claim this centralisation means responsibilities are not well defined, decision-making is complex, there is unwillingness to subject to control and rejection of sanctions.



The score on the individualism dimension for sub-Saharan African is low, meaning that the society is collective. There is a strong attachment to kinship and relationships which are at the forefront of their cultural values. Kinship and relationships might be determining factors during recruitment and promotion of employees (Oppong, 2013; Iguisi, 2009). The tendency is that a sub-Saharan African manager might not recruit qualified employees, but may tend to hire mostly friends and relatives of those already working for the organisation as a sign for his loyalty to his co-workers (Oppong, 2013).

The difficulties in managing organisations in Africa are often linked to importation and application of Western management methods without taking into consideration the specificities of African culture (Shamba, 2007). An African organisation is embedded in strong culture, and bonded to its community with tight links (D'Iribane, 2007). This form of relationship renders management somehow different from universal management norms.

Researchers such as Hernandez (1997); Bourgoin (1984) have confirmed that participative management by objective as a method of governance in African organisations is not effective due to the high power distance that exist in African culture. They have suggested that management based on McGregor's X theory will be best for Africa. Contrary to the above postulate, Shamba (2007) empirically proves that participative management by objective is largely used by some organisations in Africa and the method has proven successful in evaluating the objectives of employees. The conclusion drawn by Shamba (2007) is that African culture is not the unique factor that determines the success of a management method in Africa. Therefore, adopting a management method adapted to African culture is not a guarantee of organisational success. Western management style can be applied in African and obtain good results.

Hofstede (1980b) stressed that the central role of a leader is to build a corporate culture that promotes employee motivation, commitment and involvement. Kombou & Feudjo (2007) empirically proved that poor organisation performance in Africa and Cameroon in particular is not due to its organisation culture. They claimed the culture promotes an emerging system of physical and psychological motivation in Cameroonian industries based on "discretionary altruism".

Kombou & Feudjo (2007) retorted that some firms in Africa in general and Cameroon in particular are characterised by poor performance. Specifically, firms in the public sector

perform poorer than their counterparts in the private sector (Tchankam, 2000). The reason is due to the dependency of the public firms in the state (Bekolo, 1995) and the incompetency of their leaders (Wamba, 2001). Moussa (2001) on his part attributed the poor performance of small and medium size enterprises in Cameroon to socio-cultural and traditional values of their owners.

Leadership style in Cameroon has been described as authoritarian with the president having broad, unilateral powers to create policy, administer government agencies, command the armed forces and negotiate treaties (Background Note: Cameroon, 2006). If the leadership style in Cameroonian organisations is autocratic, how then is it possible for collectivism to be practiced in organisations? The type of leadership practiced in organisations is a matter of concern in this research. The study is aimed at finding out if the perceived autocratic leadership style of the country's boss is the same for organisational boss.

### **4.5.2 Cultural Values and Employee Motivation in Cameroon**

What motivates employees differs from organisation to organisation and from country to country, and it is also based on the working context of the employee. A country with a high collectivist culture, according to Ogedengbe et al. (2012) exhibits a high preference for group decision-making. Consensus and cooperation are valued more than individual initiative and efforts. Motivation is derived from a sense of belonging; rewards are based on group loyalty and tenure. In a collectivist society, goals like security of employment, contribution to the success of an organisation, advancement opportunity to higher level jobs and earnings have symbolic cultural and economic values (Iguisi, 2009). The author also emphasises that most African countries tend to dwell much on social aspects of a job situation. That clear job description is a very strong motivation and seems to be consistent with the traditional African value concern for paternalistic superior-subordinate relations.

Recent studies carried out on assessing the role of national culture on organisational processes in transitional countries claim that the former has influence over the latter (Ardichvili & Kuchinke, 2002). Hofstede (1980; 2001) mentions power distance as one of the dimensions of national culture that has influences leadership style, employee motivation and subcultures in organisations. Blais & Toulouse (1990) in their study of the impact of work-

related values on organisation of firms, management practices and employee motivation in fifty countries around the world found out that they are related. The finding of their study challenged the theories of management universality. The study specifically indicates that the motivation of entrepreneurs of the different countries studied was overwhelmingly influenced by the nature of their environment (culture) (Blais & Toulouse, 1990). Assessing the factors that motivate employees in Africa, Iguisi (2014) discovered that job context factors such as: cooperation, security, opportunity, contribution and earnings are more important motivating factors than job content factors such as: success, consultation, freedom and job itself. Meaning that African employees place more value on interpersonal factors than on the work itself.

It is asserted that one of the factors that hamper development in Cameroon's organisations is the fact that it is situated in a subsistent economy, dominated by expenditure (Galiègue & Madjimbaye, 2006). The collective spirit common in Cameroon's society has an ambivalent impact on organisations. According to Galiègue & Madjimbaye (2006) large part of the profit is spent for subsistence or distributed to relations, thus limiting the amount that ought to be reinvested into the business. Such a decision, on the part of an entrepreneur can be considered to be irrational and against traditional policies governing the functioning of organisations. Work conscious employees may be demotivated by this irrational manifestation of collectivism in their organisations. Collectivism on the other hand, promotes productivity and limits opportunistic behaviours resulting from the asymmetry of information (Fafchamps, 2004).

D'Iribarne (1990) paints a picture of the kind of structure that exists in a collectivist organisation like that of Cameroon where capital accumulation is difficult due to the reason seen above. According to D'Iribarne (1990) the decision-making structure is pyramidal, relying solely on the entrepreneur. This centralisation means lack of precise definition of responsibilities, and resistance to control, open objection to discipline and sanctions.

When comparing the Cameroonian culture with that of the West, Kamdem (2000) asserts that a Cameroonian spends a relatively long period of time for greeting and inquiring about family members. From a western perspective, this may be viewed as an intrusion into one's private life and a waste of time, where as in Cameroon this method of interaction is contingent and important. In Western culture time management is a vital factor to organisational success (Newman, 1986). Kamdem (2002) asserts that the perception of time by an African may pose

as an obstacle to partnership business between an African and a Westerner. Uncertainty in timing and programming of activities is indispensable for the success of a business and can also be a drawback to partnership. In Cameroon being late for work by a boss is viewed as a sign of superiority or power. Organisation leaders and staff demonstrate constant and extreme availability to community members and unexpected events such as funerals, celebrations interfere with organisational activities (Galiegue & Madjimbaye, 2006). The consequence of this perception of socialisation and management of time by Cameroon's organisation has plunged many companies into the difficulty of applying procedures that have already been programmed. They are scared of making plans, but rather prefer to work in improvisation and foresight (Galiegue & Madjimbaye, 2006).

Employees and managers of organisations in Cameroon are motivated only when conditions are stable and secured, they are more comfortable in easy-going than in stressful conditions and lack technical competency. The uncertainty in many aspects of life in sub-Saharan Africa, according to Johnson-Hanks (2005) is as a result of 5 factors; 1) poverty and rapid transition from traditional lifestyles such as colonialism to independence, 2) globalisation issues are also exerting huge weight on Africa as most foreign investors are now viewing the continent as potential and fertile market to be exploited, 3) dictatorships, 4) inflation, and 5) wars and HIV/AIDS. Cameroonian entrepreneurs believe that understanding their environment is an impossible task and will resort to religious or ritualistic practices as the only means of reducing uncertainty (Devaugue, 1977).

This complexity of culture can result to workplace conflict. This phenomenon is evident in countries with a heterogeneous culture like Cameroon (Cameroon Business Studies, 2000). Kombou & Feudjo (2007) confirmed this when they described Cameroon as a multicultural country (diverse national culture and foreign culture), this situation, they said poses huge problem to organisation management. Members of the same ethnic group tend to provide preferential treatment to each other over members of other cultural group (Economic Studies, 2000). The discrimination is clearly evident in the ratio distribution of the labour force in the Country. The private sector is dominated by the Anglophones and Bamilekes ethnic-cultural groups of West Cameroon, and the public sector by the Bulu and Beti groups of Southern Cameroon (Economic Studies, 2000).

Cameroon organisations are characterised by bureaucratic managerial style, where the boss makes all the decisions. Corruption is common place in the business environment, slow

decision-making process and bureaucracy are not left out, these situations make it challenging to do business in Cameroon (CBER 2009)<sup>3</sup>. Transparency International's corruption Perceptions Index ranked Cameroon the 146<sup>th</sup> corrupted country in the world (Country Watch Inc., 2010). The minister of finance Mr. Menye in 2009, mentioned widespread corruption at all levels of interaction between the state, informal economy and businesses as the dominant feature of Cameroon culture. He said many businesses would rather prefer to offer bribes when confronted with a tax bill, than to pay the tax (CBER, 2009). Minister Menye explained that *“Cameroonians have a culture of negotiating a price for everything. We are dealing with wider issues and cannot expect the problem to be solved quickly. However, what we can do is to create more efficient systems that promote better business practices and thereby improves the investment environment”* (CBER, 2009).

This kind of culture is not limited to Cameroon; it is a common trait in most of the developing countries. Bowen et al. (2007) in their study to find out the traits common in organisations (contractors in particular) in the developing countries discovered that this class of people possesses unethical conduct marked by fraud, bribery, dishonesty and unfair practices. These traits, as postulated by Freeman (1994) and Friedman (1970) have a negative impact on the image of an organisation. Unfair Practices jeopardise the integrity of the business, and lead to lack of trust among stakeholders and scare prospective investors (Moylan, 2005). According to a survey carried out by Diageo PLC in May 2011, the company realised that corruption has a corrosive influence on the democracy, the economy and the nation as a whole and they claim this has altered business practices and the culture of corporate governance. They realised that core values such as respect for the rule of the law, accountability, probity, honesty, integrity and transparency need to be protected and promoted as the basis for development (CBER, 2009).

The government of Cameroon since the mid-1980s has been struggling to bring about economic reforms, one of which is to eradicate government bureaucracy. A claim was made by the Commonwealth Business Environment Report (2009) that since the 1990s, Cameroon's culture and business environment have improved a lot. The fight against corruption in Cameroon has not been the affair of the government only; even independent bodies have put together their effort in this fight against corruption. For example, Business Coalition Against Corruption (BCAC) was formed in May 2011 by a group of private

---

<sup>3</sup> Commonwealth Business and Economic Report

organisations in Cameroon. The objective of the movement was to transform the culture of business in Cameroon. This, the report says is due to many organisational reforms to improve economic practices and governance. International investors have also contributed to this change in organisational culture (CBER, 2009). Despite the determination to root out corruption and bureaucracy, Andrew & Thierno (1995) claimed that Cameroon unlike other Francophone African countries like Burundi, Togo, Mali, Senegal and Cote D'Ivoire has not changed from its bureaucratic culture.

### 4.6 Conclusion

Cameroon has been portrayed as a pluralistic nation with diverse ethnic cultures as well as foreign cultures. African authors such as Galiegue & Madjimbaye (2006); Kamdem (2002); Tchankam (2008) and others have raised questions concerning the impact of African cultural values and leadership styles on organisation performance. The results from most of these studies blame the poor performance of organisations on management permission of traditional values to dictate and dominate organisational values. The high power distance in Africa has partly resulted in an autocratic style of leadership, this means that employees are not allowed to participate in the decision-making process.

It is obvious from the literature review that a considerable number of studies have been done on African cultural values, very few on the relationship between cultural values, leadership style and employee motivation; and seemingly none of this relationship in Cameroon. Some of the studies postulate that strategic leadership depends on the motivation to lead and to follow and on personality and cultural value orientation (Zoogah, 2009). The influence of culture on management is perceived through motivation, recruitment, reward system, respect, promotion and authority (Ogedengbe et al., 2012).

Literature on culture in Africa have revealed that the continent possesses a diverse and strong embedded culture (Schwartz, 2007). Entrepreneurs in Africa are embedded in strong culture, and are tied by close links to their community (Galiegue & Madjimbaye, 2006). Consequently, successful management practices in African must take account of this fact (Galiegue & Madjimbaye, 2006). Iguisi (2014) in his study of the factors that motivate employees in African organisations discovered that job context factors such as cooperation,

security, opportunity, contribution and earnings are more important motivating factor than job content factors such as success, consultation, freedom and the job itself are strong determinants of motivation. It therefore means that African employees place more value on interpersonal factors than on the work itself. The preference of these factors can be linked to the collectivistic culture of the societies.

The research questions raised here is what is the culture of Cameroon place based Hofstede's cultural dimensions? What sort of relationship exists between cultural values, leadership style and employee motivation in Cameroon? Studies have indicated that the dominant leadership style in sub-Saharan African organisations fluctuates between autocratic and paternalistic, what then is the dominant style in Cameroon organisations?

The next chapter will describe the research methodology employed by this study in order to find out the answers to the questions raised by this study.

## Chapter Five

### Research Methodology

#### 5.1 Introduction

The aim of this chapter is to set out empirical aspects of the research; the research issue, describe the data set, how it was approached empirically and the rationale for the approach. The researcher aims to provide sufficient detail and transparency for this research to be carried out and to be replicated at least in principle.

A survey questionnaire was developed based on Hofstede's Value Survey Model (2013), Likert's Leadership model and the motivation models of Maslow, Herzberg and Vroom. Focus group and experts reviewed the instruments and necessary changes were made. Pilot studies were done on 50 participants made up of Cameroonian living in London. Cronbach's alpha was computed to determine the internal consistency of the measurement of all scales from the sample used in this study. Reliability estimates were computed for the items used to measure each sub-scale. The alpha coefficient for the variables in this study falls within the range of accepted value (7.8).

#### 5.2 The Research Process

Saunders et al. (2012) posit that a research process is made up of a number of stages; these stages include the research philosophy, research approaches, research strategies, data collection methods and time horizons. This research has adopted two main philosophies or paradigms which are the quantitative and qualitative approaches otherwise known as the positivist and phenomenological approaches.

It is believed that for a business and management research to reflect the stance of realism, it should comprise a mixture of the positivist and interpretivist or quantitative and qualitative philosophies (Collis & Hussey, 2009). This is because realism recognises that people are not objects to be studied in the manner of the natural sciences. Realism stresses the essence of



understanding people's behaviour as well as also seeking to understand broader social forces and processes that influence, and constrain the nature of people's views and behaviour (Saunders et al., 2012). The choice of the research philosophy is also determined by the nature of research questions that the study seeks to answer (Saunders et al., 2012). The main aim of this research is to capture the perceptions of both managers and employees on the business culture, leadership styles and employee motivational practices as well as recruitment and promotion factors present in their organisations. According to the researcher's view, a single philosophy or approach will not provide enough data that will permit an adequate conclusion.

Unlike Hofstede (1980, 1991, 2007) this research adopts mixed methods, both quantitative and qualitative approaches were employed. Using these approaches can be advantageous because, at its most general form, social and management sciences involve the study of the behaviour of individuals and/or the properties of some kind of social system, which is composed of individuals. As such the data collected comes from individuals and includes variables describing characteristics of individual behaviours, or answers to questions from individuals. Most of the characteristics, perceptions and reasons for some particular behaviour of these individuals cannot fully be understood from just answers from the questionnaires.

The quantitative method involves mapping data into numbers. The qualitative approach takes the form of storytelling. The scaling method used is the method postulated by Likert commonly called the Likert scales. This study used the 5-scale calibration ranging from 1 to 5. Examination of the data set includes descriptive and inferential statistical analysis.

One of the overarching limitations of using both methods is that the techniques employed offer workplace insights by proxy. The two methods used capture espoused values and behaviour rather than enacted values and operationalised behaviour that can be gleaned from direct observation. The qualitative method was concerned with perceptions of situations which might not have been obvious from on the spot observations of events.

The researcher was able to form a pilot study group in the UK made up of 50 participants all of which were Cameroonian studying in the UK. The snow ball process was very useful for the formation of the pilot study group, they were composed of friends, friends of friends and colleagues. Focus groups made up of 50 participants who were experts in organisational behaviour and independent observers was employed in the study as well. A panel discussion

was effectuated whereby the experts were asked questions about cultural values based on Hofstede (1991) four pioneer dimensions of culture. Included in the questionnaire are questions about the factors that motivate employees in Cameroon based on the models of Maslow, Herzberg and Vroom. As well as the leadership styles present in the Cameroonian organisation based on Likert's leadership model. These experts gave their opinions on the issues raised during the discussion. Feedback from the pilot study and the focus groups aided in the amendment of the questionnaire.

Experts have noted that there are numerous obstacles to accessing information in the developing countries. As a result, research studies in these countries are most often very difficult and daunting (Litewka, 2011). There are a number of barriers to obtain information from these countries. Uhegbu (2002 p. 62) identifies five obstacles to information access and use; they are: economic, social, environmental, infrastructural and occupational. Etim (2001). Identified physical infrastructure, technical and managerial capabilities as other obstacles to information access. Other challenges identified by (Ugah, 2007) are lack of awareness, information inaccessibility, bibliographic obstacles and rising costs. An online report from the Association of Commonwealth Universities asserts that accessing scholarly information for research and teaching in the developing countries is a major concern ([www.acu.ac.uk](http://www.acu.ac.uk)).

The consideration of this fact is an important part of the research process. One of the major problems encountered in the course of this research was lack of and the difficulty of acquiring information. The methodological choices of this research were, however academic in nature, but were also mediated by pragmatic constraints. Given the high level of corruption in organisations in Cameroon it was not possible to do an ethnographic research or use observational techniques. The existence of these problems resulted in data been drawn from a variety of sources, for example focus groups, questionnaires, face to face interviews were employed to maximise the chances of acquiring meaningful data. To arrive at the general conclusion, research work findings were augmented with information from other sources such as; Archives, Web based sources, Trade groups in the Cameroon, Newspapers, International sources, WTO, World Bank.

The research methodology was adapted to the situation encountered in the field bearing in mind the need to be objective and the need for the research method to be transparent so as to enable replicability by future researchers. Every effort was made to be faithful to the content and the spirit of the data gathered during the research process.

### 5.3 Research Strategy

This section of the study discusses the general plan of how the researcher went about answering the research questions that were raised. Saunders et al. (2012) warned that research questions that are not clearly defined may lead to cloudy results. Here, the research aims and objectives derived from the research questions are listed. The specification of the sources from which data is to be collected and consideration of any constraints that will inevitably appear (for example access to data, time, location and money, ethical issues) are also discussed here.

The focus of the study as earlier mentioned is to investigate the direct impact of cultural values on employee motivation and the indirect impact via leadership styles. The cultural values present in Cameroon are investigated as well as the leadership styles that are perceived to be dominant in organisations in Cameroon and the style preferred by subordinates. An investigation of the motivation factors present was not excluded from the study. The study was designed to investigate a number of areas within the wider topics, these include employee recruitment and promotion practices within organisations.

The super ordinate aim is concerned with economic growth and development in Africa as a whole and Cameroon in particular. To facilitate the achievement of the research aim, the following broad objectives as listed in Chapter One have been followed:

1. An examination of the culture in the Cameroon as exemplified in the data set using the framework provided by Hofstede (1991); focusing primarily on individualism versus collectivism, power distance, uncertainty avoidance, and masculinity versus femininity.
2. Carrying out this objective involves the following steps:
  - a. The types of leadership styles present in Cameroon's organisations.
  - b. Employee motivation factors in Cameroon's organisations.
  - c. The leadership styles in relation to the cultural values identified.
  - d. Employee motivation in relation to cultural values exemplified by the sample.
  - e. Leadership style in relation to employee motivation.
  - f. The impact of culture on employee motivation via leadership.

The research process was divided into a number of stages as set out in Chapter One to enable replication of the research.

1. Stage 1 of the research consisted of a review of the relevant literature in order to identify the direct effects of cultural values on employee motivation and the indirect effects via leadership style. This enabled the development of a conceptual framework to inform the study.

The literature review led to setting out provisional hypotheses and research questions relating to the complex relationship between cultural values and leadership style and their impact on employee motivation (Figure 3 p. 19) and consequently organisational performance.

2. Stage 2 consisted of identifying and selecting the key SME's in Cameroon where the research was done. This enabled (a) comparing the provisional hypotheses to the actual situation in the selected SMEs in Cameroon and (b) modification of these general hypotheses in the context of Cameroon.
3. Stage 3 consisted of doing pilot studies through several focus groups largely made up of Cameroonians and sub-Saharan Africans who live in London. To help (a) modify the hypotheses and (b) refined and adapted the questionnaire.
4. Stage 4 was the field work in Cameroon.
5. Stage 5 consists of testing the hypotheses against the data generated from field work.
6. Stage 6 consists of comparing the findings with the literature, looking for similarities and differences.
7. Stage 7 consists of determining the extent to which the hypotheses at stage 3 are generalisable to the situation in Cameroon.
8. Stage 8 consists of an attempt to make policy recommendations on the basis of findings in the previous stages.

Survey research is a widely used tool, not only of research and marketing organisations, but also of national and local government. This type of research according to Williams (2003) is based upon the well-established statistical principles of sampling. This is where an identified population of people or thing is selected and it is possible to devise procedures whereby the sample taken will reflect the characteristics of the wider population. Social survey research says Bryman (2012) is comprised of a cross-sectional design in relation to which data are collected predominantly by questionnaire or by structured interview on more than one case and at a single point in time in order to collect a body of quantitative or quantifiable data in

connection with two or more variables, which are then examined to detect patterns of association. Although it is true that some surveys are straightforward and descriptive the more ambitious the research objectives and questions, the more complex the design has to be. The above postulates conditioned the choice of strategy for this study. In this thesis, both quantitative and qualitative research strategies drove the formulation of the research questions, which in turn drove the collection and analysis of data. The findings were then fed back into the research literature relating to the issue of cultural values and areas investigated (Bryman, 2012).

#### 5.4 The Survey Sample

Surveys are very important for finding answers to research questions through data collection and analysis (Sekaran, 2003) however, if the correct population is not targeted, then valid generalisations will not be possible. The sampling technique used in this research might be described as a network technique involving elements of randomness, snowballing and stratification. The SMEs of the two organisations in the research was selected as the research domain. Then connection with one member of the firm led to connection with the firm and subsequently connection with others members of the firm.

200 questionnaires were distributed and 135 answered and returned, with a response rate of 67.5%. All the five ethnic groups in Cameroon were represented in the sampled population (Table 11). The 135 participants came from all the levels in the organisations (Table 12). 30 managers and employees out of the 135 who answered the questionnaires were selected for the interview and 10 (4 managers and 6 employees) participated in the interview.

**Table 11: Ethnic Origins of the sampled population**

<b>Ethnic Group</b>	<b>Frequency</b>	<b>Percent</b>
Grass Fielders	72	52.2
Coastal Tropical Forest People	34	25.4
Southern Tropical Forest People	16	11.9
Fulani	7	5.2
Kirdi	5	3.7

The geographical area over which, the possible respondents are spread, and the nature of the sampling frame, will affect the choice of sampling technique. The sampling frame is the list of all the units in a population as far as they can be ascertained and the individual items chosen by a sampling technique are known as a sample (Sekaran, 2003). A suitable sampling frame for this research, which has as one of its main objectives, investigating the attitudes of employees and managers toward employee motivational practices of their leaders, will require the selection of a sample from each organisation in the study.

The researcher chose to use a survey research design because the sampled elements and the variables that are being studied are simply being observed as they are, without making any attempt to control or manipulate them (Ojo, 2003). The theoretical population of the study consists of the workers from basically SMEs of the banking and telecommunication sectors of two regions in Cameroon (North West and South West Regions), but as shown in Table 11, all the five main ethnic groups of Cameroon were represented in the sample.

To ensure effective coverage and lower cost, the respondents were stratified into junior, middle, and senior managers. It is believed by the researcher that the sampled elements for the study have significant understanding of the concepts and terminologies used in the study and contained in the questionnaire they completed. This premise was based on the educational background of the respondents in which only 9.4% of them have the General Certificate of Education; Ordinary Level or equivalent, 35.5% have Advanced Level or equivalent, while the remaining 52.9% of the respondents possessed higher educational qualification (Table 13). Primary data collected through the administration of questionnaires were used for this study.

Prior to the actual data gathering, the questionnaire was piloted on 50 participants, composed of Cameroonians studying in London. These ones were chosen based on their past work experience in Cameroon, as this placed them in a better position to provide informed answers to the survey questions.

### **5.4.1 Demographic Characteristics of the Sample**

200 managers and employees were selected from the chosen 10 SMEs to participate in the survey. 135 out of the 200 participants answered and returned the questionnaires. Section one of the questionnaire contained questions aimed at gathering information to create a profile of

the respondents. Questions about their gender, age, level of education, position in their organisation, their length of service with the company and job role were asked. This following paragraphs give in a summary form the demographic information of the respondents.

The demographic characteristics can be a significant factor when researching the relationships between cultural values, leadership styles and employee motivation, five of these characteristics are analysed in this study. They are: (1) gender, (2) age, (3) level of education (4) position, and (5) work experience. The research results of the mentioned demographic characteristics are given below.

#### 5.4.1.1 Respondent's position

As can be seen in Table 12, of the 135 respondents who completed the questionnaire 61.6% were employees or general staff, 15.2% junior managers or team leaders, 12.3% were middle managers, 5.1% consisted of senior managers and 3.6% were Executives. This researcher wanted the sample to represent employees at every level in the organisation, both workers and their managers.

**Table 12: Respondent's position in organisation**

	<b>Frequency</b>	<b>Percent</b>
<b>General staff</b>	85	61.6
<b>Junior Manager</b>	21	15.2
<b>Middle Manager</b>	17	12.3
<b>Senior Manager</b>	7	5.1
<b>Executive</b>	5	3.6

#### 5.4.1.2 Level of Education

The result in Table 13 indicates that 52.9% of the 135 respondents had a degree or its equivalent, 35.5% had Advanced level or its equivalent and only 9.4% had the ordinary level or its equivalent.

**Table 13: Respondent's level of education**

	<b>Frequency</b>	<b>Percent</b>
Ordinary level or equivalent	13	9.4
Advanced level or equivalent	49	35.5
Degree or equivalent	73	52.9

#### 5.4.1.3 Age of Respondents

A high proportion of the employees sampled were in the age group of 21-30 (Table 14), this group made up 42.0% of the total population. Second was the 31- 40 group which made up 41.3% of the total population. 12.3% of people were from the age group of 41-50, then 1.4% was less than 20 years and finally only 0.7% was between the ages 51-60.

**Table 14: Respondent's age**

	<b>Frequency</b>	<b>Percent</b>
<b>Less than 20</b>	2	1.4
<b>21-30</b>	58	42.0
<b>31-40</b>	57	41.3
<b>41-50</b>	17	12.3
<b>51-60</b>	1	0.7

#### 5.4.1.4 Respondent's Years of Experience or Length of Service

Of the 135 respondents, 22.5% had worked for their organisation for less than one year, 34.8% had worked for between 1 to 3 years, 24.6% had worked for between 4 to 6 years and 15.9% had worked for more than six years (Table 15).

**Table 15: Respondent's length of service**

	<b>Frequency</b>	<b>Percent</b>
<b>Less than one year</b>	31	22.5
<b>1-3 years</b>	48	34.8
<b>4-6 years</b>	34	24.6
<b>Above 6 years</b>	22	15.9



#### 5.4.1.5 Gender

A high proportion of the population sampled were male, this group made up 55.1% of the total population and 42% were female (Table 16). However, both male and female were represented in the survey.

**Table 16: Respondent's gender**

	<b>Frequency</b>	<b>Percent</b>
Male	76	55.1
Female	58	42.0

The questionnaire numbers 44 questions, but several of the questions contain multiple lines. The questionnaire is made on a five-point scale. For some demographic items, more detailed rating scales are provided.

This thesis proposed to conduct a research that investigates the direct impacts of cultural values on employee motivation and the indirect impact via leadership style in Cameroon organisations. The hypotheses in this research reflect the above mentioned three concepts. The study aims at discovering if there are any correlations between cultural values and leadership styles; cultural values and employee motivation and leadership style and employee motivation in Cameroon.

#### 5.4.2 Research Domain

The research domain was chosen based on the reasons that the researcher thought will ease information access. State run or public organisations are characterised by extreme bureaucracy, this and other factors make access to these organisations more difficult. The private sector organisations in Cameroon are much more flexible than the public organisations. For this reason, this study focused on the managers and employees of 10 banking and telecommunication SMEs of the private sector organisations in Cameroon. The issue of employee motivation is very important to achieve excellent performance,

understanding the relationship between this, cultural values and leadership style and the recruitment and promotion patterns, warrant a sample that could to an extent, readily and easily provides information. Specifically, the study was conducted in two regions of the country (North West and South West). These regions and organisations were chosen because of two reasons.

1. It was thought that the researcher's connections in the banking and telecommunication SMEs in these regions would facilitate access to the managers and the organisations.
2. The banking and telecommunication organisations are the most vibrant in terms of employment and are also known for their exponential growth. They contribute immensely towards the country's economic development and its gross national product. These sectors are located in the modern sector of the economy as such, provide an adequate setting for studying the cultural values exhibited by Cameroonian organisations and the nexus these values have with leadership style and employee's attitude toward work and organisations

### 5.5 Research Design

This is the logical structure of inquiry that determines how data collection and analysis should commence. Research design involves stating the conceptual framework within which the research would be conducted. As earlier stated, the intention of this research is to understand the impact of cultural values on leadership style, and employee motivation in Cameroonian organisations. To achieve that aim, the study has been designed to elicit attitudinal responses by using questionnaire surveys. The purpose of the study is exploratory, that is getting an insight of the relationship that exists between the three variables- culture, leadership style and employee motivation. As a methodology, the study has chosen to use a quantitative questionnaire survey and qualitative open-ended interviews to gather data. The managers and employees of 10 SMEs of the banking and telecommunication sectors in the North West and South West regions of Cameroon were investigated. The questionnaire focused on cultural values, leadership styles, and motivation. The interview focused on the three constructs and well as the leaders consideration of certain factors during recruitment and promotion of employees affect their motivation. The conceptual structure of the study has been developed based on analysing some contemporary theories of culture, leadership style

and employee motivation. To determine the extent to which cultural values and leadership style influence the motivation of employees in Cameroonian organisations, the theoretical frameworks of Hofstede (1991) cultural dimensions, Likert (1967) leadership styles and motivation theories of Maslow (1954), Herzberg (1959), and Vroom (1964) are used.

This study's focus is on knowing the traditional and modern value factors that are perceived and preferred by employees in their organisations for appropriate management; the value factors investigated in this study that the employees perceived affect their recruitment and promotion are: family, ethnicity, social relation, education, work experience, indigenous language and friendship.

### 5.5.1 Data Collection Methods

The choice of any particular data collection method depends on various factors, which include: the size of the sample, the extent to which they are clustered in one place or are widely scattered, as well as the time and resources available, the degree of sensitivity of the material being collected, and the complexity of the material (De Vaus, 2014). This researcher asked questions and interpreted them effectively by listening carefully and not being influenced by pre-conceived ideas regarding results as well as being adaptive and flexible enough to respond to any situation that arose.

To achieve good construct validity, both good theory and good measurement are needed. For this to occur, it is vital to use more than one approach or method of operationalisation simultaneously, and to look for convergence between these approaches. This process of using more than one method to operationalise is called triangulation (Jick, 1979; Golafshani, 2003). In the social sciences it is undesirable or not enough to use questionnaire measurements only; where possible, they should be supported by, for example by a comparative study or an available descriptive method (open-ended interview) (Iguisi, 2014).

Measures based on deeds (actions, nonverbal behaviour) have to be interpreted to find the underlying constructs, those expressed in words. If nothing else, but data about deeds are collected, it should be questioned whether it has gained any insight by postulating cultural values at all or whether the analysis can be kept entirely at the level of behaviour. In this

study, however, questionnaire, interviews and document measurements were extensively employed for the reason explained above.

### 5.5.1.1 Questionnaire Used in the Survey

The questionnaire was based largely on the Value Survey Model developed by Hofstede (2013) to be used for cross-national comparison of work-related values. The quantitative data elicits information from the managers and employees on: 1) cultural dimensions of individualism, power distance, masculinity and uncertainty avoidance postulated by Hofstede (1980, 1991) and work related values; 2) the different leadership styles as postulated by Likert (1967); and 3) the motivation factors of Maslow (1954), Herzberg (1959), and Vroom (1964) in the sub-Saharan African context as a whole and Cameroon in particular.

One important way of ensuring that the right instruments were used and that the correct measurements were taken, is that the outcome must be in consonance with two major criteria for measuring quality known as validity and reliability (Ojo, 2003). To ensure the validity and reliability of the questionnaire used for the study, it was reviewed by experts of focus groups and necessary changes were made, which was then piloted on 50 participants to test for its ability to achieve the stated objectives of the research, level of coverage, comprehensibility, logicality and suitability for prospective respondents, its reliability and usefulness in providing valuable results (Bird & Dominey-Howes, 2008). The pilot phase was also practical for detecting major defects in questionnaire design (Bird, 2009). Cronbach's alpha was computed to determine the internal consistency of all scales from the sample used in the study and a value 0.731 was obtained. Reliability estimates were computed for the items used to measure each sub-scale as proposed by Hofstede (1991) and Likert (1967).

Bird (2009) asserts that questionnaire format, sequence and wording, the inclusion of classification, behavioural, knowledge and perception questions, and questionnaire length and output, need to be considered to ensure reliability, validity and sustained engagement of the participant. The questionnaire tool is the easiest and the most frequently used instruments. This produce provoked verbal behaviour, which is used to predict other behaviour, both verbal and nonverbal (Iguisi, 2009).

This research employed open ended questioning format for some of the questions because of its numerous advantages. The advantages of open-ended questioning include freedom and spontaneity of answers, opportunity to probe and usefulness for testing hypotheses about ideas or awareness (Bird, 2009). Open questions allow time and space for free-form responses which give room for participants to share their understandings, experiences, opinions and interpretations of, as well as their reactions to, social processes and situation (McGuirk & O'Neill, 2005). Questionnaire measurements, once they are collected, are self explicit and take less subjective interpretation from the researchers than content analysis, interview and experiment measurements. The best strategy, therefore, is to use questionnaire measurements (Igusi, 2009). The questionnaire tried to obtain a fair representation of the opinions of everybody being led by another person (subordinates) as well as managers themselves. Only the questions that have significant relevance for the understanding of the effect of culture on leadership styles and employee motivation are examined in this study. This research approach has been adopted because it reflects the respondents' point of view and their underlying behaviour and thus should be able to reveal their common and uncommon characteristics and local culture.

In analysing the results of the questionnaire, the study made use of the Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS). Except for nominal data, the study ran statistical means, standard deviation and percentages. The questionnaire was divided into five sections. The first section contained the general information about the respondents, the second section was designed to find out the cultural values in Cameroon, the third section consisted of questions on employee motivation, the fourth section, covered leadership styles and the fifth section covered the relationship between the three main constructs of the study.

Despite the benefits of using questionnaires as a tool for generating information on some aspects of a study, research has shown that in order to capture the true complexity of a hazard in a societal context, mixed methodologies of both qualitative and quantitative techniques should be applied (Bird, 2009). Reiman & Oedewald (2002) suggest that questionnaires should be complemented with other methods such as interviews, observation or analysis of documents to have complete framework of culture. The responds from the interview will help explain the results obtained from the questionnaires.

### 5.5.1.2 Qualitative Research Methods

There is a limitation in the use of quantitative methods to explain and provide adequate understanding of values, behaviours and perceptions of workers in an organisation. To unveil the underlying meaning of the values, behaviour and perceptions of employees in organisations, it is imperative that a qualitative research method be used.

Unstructured open-ended discussions were employed during the interview phase. As earlier mentioned, a sample of 30 managers and employees were selected to participate in the interview. Only 10 participated in the process, 4 out of the 10 interviewees were managers with at least 3 years work experience and the remaining 6 were subordinates with at least one year of work experience. These criteria guided the selection of the interviewees with the help of the human resource department in the organisations. The reason why the researcher employed a triangulation method in the research is to elicit information that explain the meaning of the managerial practices in relation to socio-cultural context as expressed by the data from the respondents in the quantitative questionnaire survey. The aim of this combination is to allow for the presentation of deeper understanding of the reasons and cultural assumptions behind the expressed views of the values identified in the quantitative data.

The conversion of qualitative to quantitative variables is widespread in research. However, leading scholars in the fields of culture, leadership and motivation are careful to stress the illusive nature of qualitative variables. Qualitative variables are impressionistic and their quantification is necessarily arbitrary.

Likert scale is expressed as cardinal numbers; 1, 2, 3...N or in the case of correlation coefficients, fractions between -1 and +1. These ordinal numbers are arbitrary in the sense that they really indicate ordinal relationships; 1st, 2nd, 3rd.....last; greater versus less; strong =5 and weak =1, when strong =10 and weak =2, or strong =1 and weak =0.25.

These cautionary remarks explain the researcher's use of phrases like 'seem', 'indicate', 'suggest'. Focus groups and interviewees used similar words, for example 'I think that', 'I felt upset or pleased or happy or annoyed'. Such expressions seem on the face of it to be vague, but none the less it is the researcher's view that they express real judgements and impressions.

### 5.5.2 The Interview Process

To be able to cover all the issues raised in the research questions, the interview schedule was divided into two parts. Firstly, the questions that probed respondent's opinion on the relationship between cultural values and the leadership style of managers and employee motivation. The second part consists of investigating the relationship between cultural values, leadership style and employee motivation through recruitment and promotion practices of managers. The values investigated in the second part of the interview include modern and traditional values that interplay in the operationalisation of African organisations, these values are friendship, family orientation, social relation, tribe of origin, indigenous language, level of education and work experience (Iguisi, 2009). These value factors are perceived by the respondents to influence management's decisions on recruitment and promotion.

The aim of the two part interview was to cross check and therefore triangulate with the quantitative data. The questions were tested on focus groups constituting of experts in the field of management. The focus groups discussion took the form of a Socratic dialogue (Remenyi & Griffiths, 2009). The responses derived from the focus groups were used to amend the questions that were finally used for the interview. As mentioned above; the questions focused on the direct relationship between cultural values and employee motivation and the indirect relationship via leadership style. The above mentioned traditional and modern value factors are perceived by respondents to influence employee motivation. Their effects on motivation is especially felt when they are considered during recruitment and promotion of employees. The dominance in consideration of traditional value factors over modern factors, by most African managers during organisational processes has been a subject of study by many African management scholars (Yesufu, 1998; Oppong 2013, Iguisi, 2014). These scholars have segmented these values into two categories: modern (Western) and traditional values. According to them the Western values are work experience and level of education. While the traditional African value factors are family orientation, ethnicity, social relation, friendship and indigenous language.

Cultural studies focus on the underlying meaning of human behaviour; just quantitative survey cannot effectively explain important undetected implicit cultural understandings. Since the research inquiries were centred on the perceptions, attitudes, and value systems of

employees as well as managers with reference to dimensions of culture, leadership styles, motivation patterns, the researcher reckoned that interviews were indispensable. Interviews scratch beneath the surface of human behaviour, it gets people to talk and express what is on their minds, give their perceptions. In connection to the advantages that unstructured interview have, Schwartz (1979) said it is an appropriate tool for revealing information about the complex, hidden subjects or to dig into the reasons why people express certain opinions.

Closely related to the theoretical perspectives and methods in this study is the combination of multiple research methods in its design. The intention is to find out in order to understand the impact of cultural values of the employees from a qualitative perspective on the quantitative data for appropriate and effective management in a particular work context. The study makes use of extensive qualitative interviews to explaining the quantitative data. The reason for the adoption of this multiple method is to tap and maximize the strength of each method, while allowing the reduction and prevention of total error of cross-checking and comparing the data elicited by each method. Webb et al. (1966) stress the relevance of combining more than one method in research investigation as a means of providing reliable results.

### 5.5.3 The Interview Story

The interviews were conducted personally by the researcher. They were carried out in two regions of Cameroon; the North West and South West Regions. They were conducted in a more relaxed setting and out of the company's premises. The reason for this was merely to put the interviewees at ease.

Each interview process lasted for at least an hour with the longest two and half-hours. A notebook was used to note the data in the field as well as a recording instrument with the consent of the interviewees.

These interviews were held in public places like café and restaurant. The researcher's intention was to make the process and atmosphere natural, lively and flexible. This actually worked because, several attempts to speak with the interviewees in a formal setting failed. The informal setting puts them at ease and they were able to open up and discussed lengthily without from work processes. Although there were some noises in the background, they were



not loud enough to disturb the process. In situations where an interviewee could not make the appointment at the scheduled venue, an arrangement was made to meet them at their homes. This still had the same effect on them as if it was in a public place since they were in the comfort of their homes.

The respondents were very keen on the issue of confidentiality and anonymity. They were fully assured of this and the researcher has kept to the promise. The names of the participants and their organisations have not been revealed in the study. As has already been mentioned in the study, corruption is a big issue in Cameroon; the government has pledged to wipe it out in both public and private organisations. Managers and employees are careful not to give out information that could reveal the existence of any trace of malpractice in their firms.

My experience as a Cameroonian who has worked in the country facilitated the process to an extent. I understand how work environments are like in Cameroon; during work hours, it is relatively difficult to discuss with an employee even with the consent of the boss. With my experience as a former Cameroonian employee, I was able to relate to the respondents' stories and could discern if something was lacking from the information they provided. This was particularly important, because it guided me to know what question to ask next in order to get reveal their deep thoughts.

### **5.5.4 Advantages and Disadvantages of Interview**

The positive side of an interview method in research has already been discussed in this study. Though this method has its positive side, like questionnaire survey, it also has some disadvantages too. The disadvantages address the issue of error and bias (Kahn & Cannell, 1957). Kahn & Cannell argue that except for the interviewer's misinterpretations, or errors in recording responses, it is in the respondent's answers that the rest of the bias factors are manifested. Errors in asking questions arise when the interviewer, in an attempt to reword or rephrase certain questions so as to fit the respondent's understanding, loses the idea in the original question. At times a question may be posed in such a way that it incorporates the interviewer's opinions of what constitutes an appropriate answer to the question and, in that way, the response to the question is biased information. Also, the respondents in the bid to

conceal certain practices in their firms, may answer some questions in such a way that do not give the actual picture of the situation in their firm.

The qualitative unstructured open-ended interviews are appropriate in that it direct the researcher to getting the meaning that prompts and guides values and behaviour in work situations. According to Lofland & Lofland (1995) qualitative research is very appropriate for deciphering how people relate to cultural values and social practices because its methods permit one to get closer to the social life to make records of the people actually involved in cultural and social practices. The knowledge provided by qualitative methods through greater familiarity with social situations, and also through subjective definitions and interpretations is therefore essential for generating important, undetected implicit cultural understandings and social conditioning of the respondents as a base for further generalisable studies. This is an important concern for this study.

### **5.6 Statistical Analysis**

Collected data were processed with the aid of SPSS 20.0 - Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (version 20.0) software. This process resulted in: Descriptive statistical analysis of the data collected, which included calculation of the mean values such as the mean, median, and mode, and the measures of dispersion around the mean values, i.e. the standard deviation.

The research employs bivariate analysis, which determines the existence and characteristics of associations both between individual elements of independent and dependent variables, and collectively between independent and dependent variables in the research, which included various tests (relationships significance and correlation).

### **5.7 Conclusion**

The study employed a mixed method to acquire information. Employing both qualitative and quantitative research methods allow for triangulation. The survey was carried out in 10 SMEs of the banking and telecommunication firms in the private sector organisations. The

managers and employees of these organisations were asked to give their opinions on the leadership style and motivational practices in their organisations and the direct and indirect relationship these practices have with the existing cultural values. 200 employees and managers received a questionnaire each, 135 responded to the questionnaire. 30 managers and employees were selected for in-depth interviewed to investigate the link that exists between the cultural values, leadership styles and people's general feeling of motivation, and their perceptions on the factor influencing recruitment and promotion in their organisations and the nexus these have with culture. 10 out of the 30 selected managers (4) and employees (6) participated in the interview.

The models of Hofstede, Likert, Maslow, Herzberg and Vroom together with related literature guided the design of a conceptual framework. The formulated research questions and hypotheses aided in the collection and analysis of data. The results of the Cameroonian sample were then compared with the information in the literature. The questionnaire contained questions on cultural values, leadership style and employee motivation. As well as questions on wider areas such as employee recruitment and promotion factors and the impact management's consideration of these factors have on employee motivation.

The next chapter presents the results of the field work in Cameroon. Only the questionnaire results are presented in the chapter.

## Chapter Six

### Presentation of Empirical Results

#### 6.1 Introduction

The specific focus of this research is to investigate the direct and indirect impact of cultural values on employee motivation via leadership styles in Cameroon's organisations. Motivation is a critical element that affects the performance of firms and the economic performance of Cameroon as a whole. In order to find out the cultural values that Cameroonians exhibit and that which exist in organisations; this researcher conducted a survey of 135 managers and employees from some SMEs in two private sector organisations; banking and telecommunication. This survey is aimed at investigating the direct link between cultural values and employee motivation and the indirect link through leadership styles. Also, the perceptions of respondents on the consideration of traditional and Western value factors during recruitment and promotion by managers and the impact these have on employee motivation (Chapter Eight).

The research questions have been repeated here for the readers' convenience. They are:

1. To what extent does the culture present in Cameroon corresponds to Hofstede (1991) cultural dimensions, that is, what are the scores of Cameroonian managers and employees based on the sample with respect to Hofstede's dimensions of: (i) power distance, (ii) individualism/collectivism, (iii) masculinity/femininity, and (iv) uncertainty avoidance?
2. How does the Cameroon score compare with Hofstede's (1991) scores for the West African Region?
3. Which leadership styles are perceived to be dominant in Cameroonian organisations?
4. Which styles do the employees prefer and which styles do they reject in their work organisations?
5. What are the factors that motivate employees in Cameroon?
6. What relationship exists between cultural values and leadership style?
7. What is the relationship between leadership style and employee motivation?

8. Does the Culture present in Cameroon's organisations have any effects on the management practices of leadership style and employee motivation?
9. What are the values perceived by managers and employees to influence recruitment and promotion in their organisations?
10. To what extent does the consideration of these values affect attitudes in the workplace?
11. To what extent are employees satisfied with their level of involvement and commitment to their organisations and what role does employee involvement play in their performance?

The questionnaire is divided into five virtual sections, each with a specific goal to capture information about a particular area of the research (Appendix C, Questionnaire). In the first section, questions 1 to 7 gathered information to create the profile of the respondents; asking about their job role, their highest level of educational qualification. They were also asked their age, length of service with their company, position in the company, and gender.

In the second section, questions 8 through to 19 were asked to investigate the type of cultural values common in Cameroonian.

The third section aims at identifying the leadership styles present in organisations in Cameroon. In questions 28.1, 28.2 and 28.3 respondents were given a list of descriptions of leadership styles ranging from 1 to 4, with 1 describing an authoritative leader and 4; a consultative leader, and were asked to choose which style of leader they would like to work for, to indicate the style they feel best describes their own manager, and then the leader they will prefer not to work under.

In the fourth section, the respondents were asked questions related to management practices of recruitment, promotion, and performance. Question 29 asked respondents how they earned their position in the organisation. Question 30 is concerned with the factors management may consider when recruiting employees. While question 31 is concerned with the factors for appointing employees to leadership positions, questions 32 asked respondent if management informs them of their job performance. Question 33 is aimed at finding out whether management stimulates employees towards better performance. Question 34 inquired about the existence of criteria for performance measurement. Question 35 asked about the frequency of target specification.

In the fifth section, the involvement and commitment practices within the organisations studied, were investigated. In question 36 employees were asked about the level of satisfaction they felt with the amount of involvement they were allowed. Question 37 asked about loyalty to the organisation. Question 38 asked respondents if they are proud of their organisation. Question 39 was concerned with the extent of commitment to the organisation's objective of increase performance. Question 40 asked about the respondent's extent of involvement in the achievement of greater performance. Question 41 is concerned with the relationship between a boss and their subordinates. Question 42 asked about how long the respondents think they can work in their organisation. Questions 43 to 45 are concerned with the relationship between the three constructs, and the reasons for their answers.

It was hoped that by asking these questions employees would be given an opportunity to suggest which form of motivation they feel, should be used in their company, should motivation be increased by involving employees in decision-making and therefore making them more committed or should greater levels of performance be sought through financial incentives and authoritarian rule?

It is hard to determine causation from surveys, whether one thing just leads to another or that A caused B. However, surveys can show that the association between A and B can be strong to an extent that a causal link is likely. Cultural surveys use correlation method to provide results concerning relationships between variables. In this study in order to determine if there is any association between factors, a correlation method was used. Correlation, unlike statistical significant is able to tell how strongly something is associated (William, 2003), but, not whether causation is involved. Again the significance of any correlations has to be established and a Pearson significance value of less than 0.05 is usually required. A combination of tables and descriptive text and SPSS generated data are used to analyse and present findings.

The questionnaire and interview focused on questions about the cultural values, leadership styles and motivational practices existing in organisations in Cameroon.

## 6.2 Identification of the Dimensions of Culture based on Hofstede Model

As stated in Chapter Five, the quantitative questions were primarily drawn from Hofstede's Value Survey Model (VSM, 2013) on the dimensions of culture. These dimensions are (1) power distance (2) uncertainty avoidance (3) individualism and (4) masculinity. This section will now present the scores for the culture of Cameroon based on the data gathered from this research and will compare the scores with Hofstede's for the West African Region (WAR). In Hofstede's IBM study, he sampled three countries in the WAR; Nigeria, Ghana and Sierra Leone, though Cameroon was not among the countries Hofstede studied, it is situated in the WAR as such, shares similar cultural consequences as the other countries in the region (Oppong, 2013).

The research question to be answered in this section is as follows:

*To what extent do Hofstede's dimensions of culture, specifically power distance, individualism/collectivism, masculinity/femininity and uncertainty avoidance map into the situation of Cameroon with respect to the data of this study?*

The parameters used for measuring the different dimensions are discussed separately below. The second part of the questionnaire contains questions that help to identify the cultural dimensions in Cameroon (Appendix C). The following paragraphs compare the scores for Cameroon based on data from this study with that of Hofstede for the dimensions of culture of the WAR. Table 17 presents the scores for the four dimensions of culture considered in this study, calculated based on the formula provided by Hofstede (1991). A step by step presentation of how these values were calculated is shown in Appendix A.

**Table 17: Cameroon's Scores on Hofstede's Dimensions of National Culture**

Country	PDI	IDV	MAS	UAI
West African Region (WAR) -Hofstede	77	20	46	54
Cameroon - This Research	78	18	64	48
Absolute Difference	<b>1</b>	<b>2</b>	<b>18</b>	<b>6</b>

Table 17 presents the results from the analysis of Cameroon's data (this research) along with those obtained by Hofstede in his 50-country study of IBM (1980, 1991). Cameroon was not

among the West African countries that Hofstede studied. Hofstede's conclusion for the culture of this region was arrived at based on the data he collected from Ghana, Nigeria and Sierra Leone. Cameroon is described as Africa in miniature also is situated in West Africa; the country is believed to have the same cultural underpinning and characteristics as its neighbouring countries. Oppong (2013) argues that all sub-Saharan African countries have diversified, but similar cultural consequences. Based on the above argument, the assumption adopted in this study is that the culture of Cameroon is sufficiently similar or quasi-similar to that of the three West African countries of Hofstede's study to allow for comparison.

### 6.2.1 Power Distance Index (PDI)

The power distance index for Cameroon based on the data from this study is 78. This value was obtained by using the formula provided by Hofstede (1980) to calculate this dimension (see Appendix A). When Hofstede's IBM (WAR three-country) score is compared with the Cameroon single country score, it is found that the difference in power distance (more inequality between subordinates and superiors is expected and accepted) is slightly higher than Hofstede's WAR index which was 77. This value still falls within Hofstede's postulated range for PDI which is between 11 and 104: its theoretical range is from -90 (no power distance) to + 210 (supreme power distance) (Hofstede, 1983).

The detail results indicate that the single-country Cameroon score for power distance is related largely to the fear of disagreement of superior rather than to perceived style of the leader. The results also show that the differences in power distance between the sub-groups are related largely to the perceived style of the superior, rather than to fear of disagreement.

### 6.2.2 Individualism Index (IDV)

The individualism index was calculated based on the formula from Hofstede (1980) (Appendix A). On individualism, get recognition for a job well done (question 27.9) had the highest mean score (mean = 2.42) followed by (question 27.8) work in a comfortable



environment (mean = 2.38), then by (question 27.1) have sufficient time for self and family (mean = 1.79), and then (question 27.5) working with cooperative colleagues (mean = 1.65).

The IDV for Cameroon based on this study is 18 while Hofstede's value for WAR was 20. The IDV index for this study is slightly lower than Hofstede's WAR index which was 20. The slightly lower IDV score for Cameroon may indicate that the country is more collective than what the WAR score may suggest. The score compared to Hofstede's WAR score may suggest that enduring collective value is strongly embedded in Cameroonians and despite the persistent influence of Westernisation, the citizens still hold tight to their collective values.

### 6.2.3 Masculinity Index (MI)

By using the formula provided by Hofstede (1980) the masculinity index for Cameroon has been calculated (Appendix A). On the masculinity dimension, recognition for good performance (question 27.9) had the highest mean score (mean = 2.15) followed by (question 27.10) opportunity for promotion (mean = 2.05), followed by (question 27.5) cooperative colleagues (mean = 1.65) and then (question 27.4) employment security (mean = 1.64).

The data suggest that the MI for Cameroon based on this study is 64 while that of Hofstede's for WAR was 46. The score for this study is higher than Hofstede's WAR score, this may indicate that Cameroon is more masculine than what Hofstede's WAR score suggests, that more emphasis is placed on job values (earnings, advancement, recognition, achievements, competition, and challenge) than on social relationships (cooperation, employment security, working condition and relation with manager). The high score appears to be related primarily to the varying degree given to cooperative colleagues, security of employment versus opportunity for promotion and recognition for good performance.

### 6.2.4 Uncertainty Avoidance Index (UAI)

Using the formula provided by Hofstede (1980) (Appendix A), calculation based on data from this study indicates that 42% disagreed and 39.1% strongly disagreed on the crucial

item of rule-orientation (question 10), only very few 2.2% strongly agreed and 10.9% agreed that organisations rule should not be broken in any circumstance. 3.6% were undecided.

The data indicate that the UAI for Cameroon is 48 as opposed to 54 for Hofstede's WAR study. The difference of 6 may indicate that Cameroonians are less anxious than what Hofstede's WAR for UAI score suggests, people are abiding to rules and more people do not want to leave their jobs. The overall average score for Cameroon characterised the culture as being flexible not rigid. According to Hofstede (1983) elevated scores on the UAI mean a higher mean anxiety level between individuals in a country and they turn to avoid attitudes and behaviours that could increase this anxiety such as doing away with rules or considering leaving one's job when things get tough.

The differences in uncertainty avoidance are related more to stress at work and security of employment rather than to rule orientation (Hofstede, 1991). The relatively low score of uncertainty avoidance for the Cameroon is related more to stress at work and employment stability than to rule orientation.

What do these results suggest? First, there is evidence that Hofstede's results as well as the results of this study were products of the sample studied. Again, Hofstede's study comprises of three separate countries of West Africa (Nigeria, Ghana and Sierra Leon). The data point to the selective influence of other factors like age, education, position, gender and ethnicity on the four cultural dimensions. The most interesting feature highlighted is the divided opinion on the willingness to break rules in the perceived interest of the organisation. The difference between the present study and Hofstede's IBM study should be viewed from the perspective of the contrasting samples on which they are based. The sample for the Hofstede's study consisted of seven occupational groups; two groups of managers, two groups of university-trained professionals, two groups of highly skilled technicians and one group of clerical employees. Hofstede's study was based in a single organisation-IBM. In this study data from 10 SMEs of two firms have been used for the present analysis. The time, perception of endearing values, the sample type, size and the difference in data collection between the Hofstede's study and the present study may also have contributed to some of the differences.

The PDI index for this study (78) and for Hofstede's (1991) study (77) is almost the same with a difference of only 1. There is little variation in the MAS index between the two studies

which suggest a more unified regional culture. That within a given region, one or more cultural dimensions may be more stable while others may be ambiguous and less amenable to sampling variations.

On individualism, the differences appear to be related primarily to the importance of cooperative colleagues and working condition. Still on individualism, the low score appears to be related primarily to the importance attached to work environment, have sufficient time for self and family and cooperative colleagues.

On masculinity, the difference appears to be related primarily to the varying importance given to opportunity for advancement and cooperative colleagues. Further, different dimensions show different ranges of variation across sub-groups and across studies, thereby giving rise to a hypothesis that the four dimensions differ in the extent to which they are culture-bound. They also point to the selective influence of factors like age, education and job level.

The results of this study confirm Hofstede's (2011) contention that a high power distance usually accompanies a low individualism. The combination of high power distance and low individualism scores was a common finding in the original Hermes studies which is hardly surprising considering that they represented opposite poles of the same factor (Hofstede, 1980).

The relative harmony between the scores for the present study and Hofstede's WAR might confirm the assertion that sub-Saharan or West African countries share the same cultural consequences. There are also indications that the endearing West African values have been stable over time. Hofstede (1980) contends that the dimensions of culture should be stable over time; this is partially confirmed by Sondergaard (1994) in his review of replication studies. This is confirmed by the findings of the present study.

The study shows that both IDV and MAS scores are influenced by the kind of job held by the respondents and the sectors of the economy in which they are employed. However, the Cameroon data do not discredit the importance of Hofstede's study. Instead, it demonstrates a bias in Hofstede's results, which, until now, was only assumed. It should be recognised that the bias was not in his comparison of the samples across countries, since he compared similar groups. The bias was in the total sample with regard to the societies that he was studying. Obviously, if a relativistic culture model was to be empirically evolved, it was essential that a

study be carried out such as Hofstede's using an organisation that operated across national boundaries or using the IBM in Cameroon thereby ensuring comparability of results. The results gotten from the Cameroonian sample show that Hofstede results for West African countries should not be treated as fully representing the national culture of the individual countries in the region. If appropriate conclusions are to be drawn based on Hofstede's relativistic cultural findings, a broader representational study of the individual countries of West Africa is needed.

In conclusion, the results support the hypothesis H1 which states that: *Cameroon's scores for the cultural dimensions of power distance, masculinity/femininity, collectivism/individualism and uncertainty avoidance falls within the range of data set obtained by Hofstede (1991) for the culture of the West African Region.*

The above results pertained to the cultural values present in the nation of Cameroon based on Hofstede's dimensions of culture, but, how these values manifest themselves in the organisations is discussed in the next section. Establishing a connection between cultural values, leadership style and employee motivation will be based on the data obtained for the individual value description.

### 6.3 Cultural Values in Organisations

Cultural attributes are easily measured by considering indicators such as shared values of collectives (House et al., 2004). The work values that the study investigated and which led to the test of hypotheses are cooperation among employees, the relationship between the boss and the subordinates, specification of targets by management, criteria for performance measurement and employee participation in decision-making. This section is concerned with the manifestation of cultural values in work situations.

The data in Table 18 indicate the structure of the individual values. It shows that participation has the highest mean score of 4.37, and then followed by cooperation among employees with a mean score of 3.92 and the existence of criteria for performance measurement (3.62). The information shows that the relationship between employees and their boss has the lowest mean score of 1.44.

**Table 18: Structure of Cultural Values**

<b>Cultural Values</b>	<b>1</b>	<b>2</b>	<b>3</b>	<b>4</b>	<b>5</b>	<b>Mean</b>
Cooperation	50%	36.2%	5.8%	2.2%	2.2%	3.92
Relationship with boss	67.4%	20.3%	8.0%	1.4%	0.7%	1.44
Participation	2.2%	2.2%	2.9%	40.6%	50.0%	4.37
Specification of targets	19.6%	16.8%	7.2%	37.5%	16.7%	2.95
Criteria for performance measurement	11.6%	9.4%	5.8%	48.6%	22.5%	3.62

The results of the manifestation of cultural values in work settings have been presented individually in the tables below.

### 6.3.1 Cooperation

Question 13 on the questionnaire was concerned with assessing the level of importance respondents attached to cooperation and teamwork. This variable measures the level and importance of interaction among employees.

**Table 19: Cooperation among Employees**

	<b>Frequency</b>	<b>Percent</b>
Very important	69	50.0
Important	50	36.2
Neutral	8	5.8
Little importance	3	2.2
No importance	3	2.2

The data in Table 19 indicate that a high percentage of the respondents (50.0%) were of the opinion that cooperation was very important for them, they viewed interaction among them as a very important work value. 36.2% express their view that the value was important, overall, 89.5% said cooperation was important.

### 6.3.2 Interpersonal Relationship with the Boss

Question 41 on the questionnaire asked respondents how necessary it was for them for their boss to be interested in their social and psychological well-being in and outside the work environment.

**Table 20: Interpersonal relationship between the boss and subordinates**

	<b>Frequency</b>	<b>Percent</b>
Very necessary	93	67.4
Necessary	28	20.3
Makes no difference	11	8.0
Not very necessary	2	1.4
Not at all necessary	1	.7

As can be seen in Table 20, 67.4% of the employees thought it was very necessary for the boss to be interested in their social and psychological well-being. 20.3% said it was necessary, while only a minute percentage (cumulative 2.1%) thought it was not necessary.

### 6.3.3 Specification of Target

Question 35 was concerned with the frequency of specification of target in the respondent's organisations. The question aimed at finding out how often targets are specified for the employees.

**Table 21: Target Specification**

	<b>Frequency</b>	<b>Percent</b>
Very often	27	19.6
Often	37	16.8
Sometimes	10	7.2
Seldom	38	37.5
Never	23	16.7

Table 21 shows that a high proportion of the respondents expressed the view that targets were seldom specified to them by management (37.5%), 16.7% were of the opinion targets are

never specified. Summing up the percentages of those who were of the opinion that targets are specified, a cumulative percentage of 36.4 was obtained, while a cumulative percentage of 54.2 said targets are rarely specified, indicating that a high proportion of respondents expressed the view that management hardly specify targets to employees in their organisations.

#### 6.3.4 Performance Measurement

Question 34 was concerned with the existence and implementation of criteria for performance measurement. Respondents were asked to give their opinion about the frequency of management to have set criteria for performance measurement.

**Table 22: Performance measure**

	<b>Frequency</b>	<b>Percent</b>
Very often	16	11.6
Often	13	9.4
Sometimes	8	5.8
Seldom	67	48.6
Never	31	22.5

As can be seen in Table 22, a total of 71.1% (majority) of the respondents were of the opinion that there are seldom or never any criteria for measuring performance in their organisation. Only 11.6% polarised on the opinion that very often these criteria exist in their firm and 9.4% expressed the view that there are often a criteria for performance measurement.

#### 6.3.5 Involvement in Decision-Making

Question 26 of the questionnaire was concerned with respondent's opinions on their involvement in the decision-making process, the respondents were asked to state their level of agreement or disagreement with management involving them in the decision-making process in their organisation.

**Table 23: Participation in decision-making**

	<b>Frequency</b>	<b>Percent</b>
Strongly agree	3	2.2
Agree	3	2.2
Neither agree nor disagree	4	2.9
Disagree	56	40.6
Strongly disagree	69	50.0

Table 23 indicates that 50% strongly disagree and 40.6% disagree giving a total of 90.6% of respondents who were at the disagreement end of the scale, while only 2.2% strongly agreed and 2.2% agreed, making a total of 4.4% at the agreement end of the scale. Overall, the majority of the respondents disagrees that their opinion is consulted when making-decisions. Meanwhile the response to question 27.7 indicates that the respondents were at their best when they were involved in decision-making. They want to be shown that they matter and that they are valued.

#### **6.4 Identification of Leadership Styles in Cameroon's Organisations**

As has been indicated by the literature, the success or failure of an organisation depends to a large extent on the quality of the leader and the style the leader adopts in managing the organisation, and on the acceptance of this leadership style by the followers. The manager or leader is the engine of progress or the cause of stagnation in any organisation (Buble et al., 2014). It is through proper and effective management that the talents and energies of followers are harnessed to harmonise individual employee's goals with the corporate goals of the organisation. The attitudes that employees have towards their leaders are important factors in determining the level of success that an organisation achieves in realising corporate goals and the goals of individuals in the organisation. An employee's attitude towards their superior affects their entire work attitudes and motivation patterns; this shapes their entire perception of the organisation and their place in it (Likert, 1967; Buble et al., 2014).

In this section of the study, extensive data were generated by analysing the questions on the questionnaire on leadership styles. These questions were based on Likert's (1967) questionnaire on leadership styles. Employees were asked to comment on the leadership



styles that they perceived exist within their organisations. They were supplied with a list describing the four leadership styles postulated by Likert (1967). The styles were autocratic, paternalistic, participative and consultative. Respondents were asked to choose from among the styles the one they would like their leader to be. They were also asked to indicate the style they feel best describes their own manager, and to choose the leader they will not prefer to work for. Finally, they were asked to express their opinion on the relationship that exists between employees and leaders in their organisation. The questions on the relationship between the leaders and employees focused on: motivation, communication, interaction, decision-making, control, relationship, and goals.

The research questions that this section of the chapter set out to answer are:

*Which leadership style is perceived to be the dominant style within organisations in Cameroon? Which are the preferred style(s) and which style(s) would be highly rejected by the employees?*

#### 6.4.1 Preferred Leadership Style

The data presented in Table 24 indicates that the majority of the respondents (41.3%) preferred a paternalistic leader. The second preferred leader is a consultative one; this style was chosen by 40.6% of the respondents. The difference between their first and second choices of preferred leadership style is very slim, just 0.7%. A relatively low proportion (13%) of the respondents preferred a participative leader, while only 2.2% preferred an autocratic leader.

**Table 24: Preferred Leadership style**

<b>Leadership style</b>	<b>Frequency</b>	<b>Percent</b>
Autocratic	3	2.2
Paternalistic	57	41.3
Consultative	56	40.6
Democratic/participative	18	13.0

### 6.4.2 Dominant/Perceived Leadership Style

According to the data presented in Table 25 only 11.6% of the respondents indicated that their manager most closely resembles a democratic leader, while 16.7% said their boss closely resembles a consultative leader. Paternalistic leadership style is perceived by the highest proportion the respondents as the dominant style in their organisations (38.4%), while 30.4% of the respondents perceived that their boss most closely resembles an autocratic leader. The polarisation of respondent's opinion on paternalistic leadership style as the dominant style indicates that the role of organisation leaders in Cameroon most closely resembles that of a father than an employer. Paternalistic leadership style is also common in collectivistic cultures. As suggested by the result, the percentage difference between the first two dominant leadership styles (paternalistic and autocratic) is just 8% indicating that the two styles are strongly expressed by the leaders such that the respondents find it a bit difficult to see just one of them in their leaders. The dominant leadership style is perceived to be paternalistic; this does not support the hypothesis H2 which states that *the dominant leadership style is autocratic*.

**Table 25: Perceived /Dominant leadership style**

Leadership Styles	Frequency	Percent
Autocratic	42	30.4
Paternalistic	53	38.4
Consultative	23	16.7
Democratic/Participative	16	11.6

### 6.4.3 Rejected Leadership Style

The rejected leadership style question was not among the questions on Hofstede's VSM questionnaire, the question has been added to this study because the researcher thought the answer will provide clues to how employees feel towards their leaders. The question is an innovation to the Hofstede's study, but a contribution of this study. The question was asked thus, *which leader would you strongly prefer not to work under?* As indicated in Table 26, 87% of the respondents rejected the autocratic leadership style, while only 0.7% preferred not

to work under a paternalistic leader. Almost all the respondents rejected an autocratic leadership style.

**Table 26: Rejected Leadership style**

<b>Leadership styles</b>	<b>Frequency</b>	<b>Percent</b>
Autocratic	120	87.0
Paternalistic	1	0.7
Consultative	6	4.3
Democratic/Participative	8	5.8

Some answers to the questions in this section on leadership styles also contributed to the calculation of the power distance index (PDI). Some of these employees and managers were also interviewed about their perceptions of the impact of leadership style on their attitude towards work. The results of the interview are presented in Chapter Eight.

After having determined the dominant leadership style in Cameroon's organisations which is the paternalistic style, the next questions on that subject was concerned with the relationship that exist between cultural values and leadership style, and leadership style and employee motivation. In order to answer these questions, the characteristics of the different aspects of leadership style as applied in organisations have been analysed and the data obtained for these individual aspects are used to determine the correlations between leadership style and cultural values and leadership style and employee motivation. The analytical results obtained for the dimensions of the leadership style are presented in the following section.

## **6.5 Leadership Style Dimensions**

After having identified the preferred, perceived and rejected leadership styles, the study will proceed with the presentation of the results of leadership style characteristics. As discussed in the literature section, leadership style variables have been grouped into seven categories: motivation, communication, interaction, controlling, decision-making, relationship, and goals. The scale of measurement of the level of agreement or disagreement to the existence and influence of the factors ranges from 1 to 5: 1=strongly agree; 2=agree; 3=neither agree nor disagree; 4=disagree; 5=strongly disagree.

**6.5.1 Motivation as an Aspect Leadership Style**

Motivation has been defined as "encouraging people to achieve organisational, group, and individual goals which are interwoven" (Buble, 2014, p. 166). It involves every influence that causes, directs and maintains the targeted behaviour of people. How leaders achieve this effect is the question under consideration here. In the pursuit of an answer to this question this research considered four basic leadership style variables concerned with motivation:

1. Type of motivation
2. Factors of motivation
3. Attitudes towards the company and its goals
4. The opinion of those responsible for setting the company goals.

The answers to the questions that were concerned with these variables are given in Table 27. The most important of the motivation variables is the factors of motivation and as can be seen in the table, involving employees in decision-making is seen to be the most important factor of motivation for the respondents as this makes them feel responsible. Their work environment is also a matter of concern to them and has a bearing on their level of motivation.

**Table 27: The structure of motivation variables as aspects of leadership style**

Motivation variables \ Scales	1	2	3	4	5	Mean
Type of motivation	10.9%	26.8%	19.6%	27.5%	13.0%	3.05
Factors of motivation	67.4%	20.3%	8.0%	1.4%	0.7%	1.44
Attitudes towards the company and its goals	11.6%	9.4%	5.8%	48.6%	22.5%	3.62
The opinion of those responsible for setting the company goals	8.7%	9.4%	28.3%	34.8%	16.7%	3.42

**6.5.2 Communication as an Aspect of Leadership Style**

The generic definition of communication is that it is the process of transferring information from one person to another. Interpersonal communication is the indicator of the involvement of an individual in a group; also it is an indicator of an individual’s self-actualisation. Hence,

it is not a cliché to say that, the development of good communication in the company significantly affects its business performance, and demonstrates the dominant leadership style used by the leader (Buble et al., 2014). The following variables have been used to determine the level of development of communication by the leaders in the organisations studied.

1. Most common direction of communication flow
2. Accepting information given by subordinates
3. Awareness of the subordinate's problems.

The answers to the questions related to the above listed variables are given in Table 28. As shown by the data, the common direction of communication flow is vertical from superior to subordinates. Superiors do not accept information given to them by their subordinates. They are aware and care for the personal problems of their subordinates. It means that managers are interested in the employee's personal life and would listen to their problems, but will not accept information from subordinates related to running the firm. The managers find it hard to accept information given to them by their subordinates; they feel it is a challenge to their authority.

**Table 28: The structure of communication variables as aspects of leadership style**

<b>Communication variables</b> / <b>Scale</b>	<b>1</b>	<b>2</b>	<b>3</b>	<b>4</b>	<b>5</b>	<b>Mean</b>
A common direction of communication from boss to employee	51.4%	31.2%	2.2%	8.7%	4.3%	1.81
Accepting information given by subordinates	2.9%	4.3%	2.9%	50.7%	37.0%	4.17
Awareness of the subordinates' problems.	32.6%	55.1%	5.1%	2.9%	2.2%	1.84

### 6.5.3 Interaction as an aspect of leadership style

Interaction is commonly defined as the process of mutual and reciprocal influence of two or more people on each other's behaviour. Interaction is very important for the management, and it manifests itself through the leadership style applied by a certain manager (Buble et al., 2014). In order to determine how developed the interactions between the manager and his/her subordinates are, three variables were tested. These variables are:

1. Nature and quantity of interaction with subordinates

2. The existence of teamwork and cooperation between respondents in their work departments
3. Frequency of seeking ideas and consent from subordinates

The answers to the questions which describe the interaction variables are given in Table 29. The data show that 38.4% strongly agree that there is more social than professional interaction between superiors and subordinates and 47.8% agreed, therefore, the majority of the respondents were of the opinion that there is more social than professional interaction. As concern teamwork and cooperation, 50.7% disagree and 34.1% strongly disagree that there exist these values in their organisations. Most of the respondents (38.4%) strongly disagree that their superiors frequently seek their ideas and consent. For social reasons employees cooperate among themselves, but when it comes to professional matters, there is little or no teamwork and cooperation among them. Employees blame it on management's inability to encourage teamwork. The fact that employees rarely participate in decision-making, indicates that the management does not value their opinions and ideas. This means that subordinate's influence in the organisation is minimal.

**Table 29: The structure of interaction variables as aspects of leadership style**

Interaction variables / Scale	1	2	3	4	5	Mean
Nature and quantity of interaction with subordinates	38.4%	47.8%	5.8%	4.3%	1.4%	1.80
The existence of teamwork and cooperation between respondents in the work departments	5.1%	5.1%	2.9%	50.7%	34.1%	4.06
Frequency of seeking ideas and consent from subordinates	7.2%	8.0%	8.7%	35.5%	38.4%	3.92

#### 6.5.4 Decision-making as an Aspect of Leadership Style

Decision-making is defined as a process of identifying and selecting from among possible solutions to a problem, according to the demands of the situation (Al-Tarawneh, 2012). Who the decision-makers are and how intensely the subordinates are involved in the decision-making process has a significant impact on the realisation of the decisions made. Therefore, it is very important to examine how this process takes place in organisations. One variable has been tested for this purpose: the involvement of subordinates in decision-making.

The answer to the question (26) which describe decision-making is given in Table 30. The data indicate that 50% of the respondents strongly disagree and 40.6% disagree that subordinates are involved in decision-making in their organisations. From Table 30, it is very clear that decision-making is done by those at the top of the hierarchy; employees are not involved in the process, even in those decisions related to them and the job they perform.

**Table 30: The structure of decision-making variables as aspects of leadership style**

<b>Decision making variables</b>	<b>1</b>	<b>2</b>	<b>3</b>	<b>4</b>	<b>5</b>
<b>Scales</b>					
Involvement of subordinates in decision making	2.2%	2.2%	2.9%	40.6%	50%

### 6.5.5 Goals as an Aspect of Leadership Style

Goals are defined as the "desired future conditions that the organisation intends to achieve" (Etzioni, 1964, p. 6). Therefore, considering that these conditions focus on company's purpose, the way they are being achieved is very important. From this follows that every manager first tries to define these goals in an appropriate way, and achieve them afterwards in order to ensure company's development and growth. In order to examine how company goals are set and achieved, three variables were tested:

1. Those involved in setting the goals.
2. The existence of the resistance toward goals
3. The frequency of goal analysis and achievement.

The answers to the questions (18-20) which describe the mentioned variables are given in Table 31. The data show that 50% disagree and 29.7% strongly disagree that subordinates are involved in setting the goals in their work place. As concerns the resistance to goals questions, 41.3% disagree and 40.6% strongly disagree that there exist resistance toward realisation of goals. On the frequency of goal analysis question, 46.4% disagree and 23.3% strongly disagree that goals are frequently analysed. The conclusion that can be arrived at here is that goals are being set by managers and imposed on the subordinates. The subordinate's view points are not taken into consideration when setting goals. Even though subordinates are not consulted during the goal setting process, they do not show any resistance as to achieving these goals. Goals are rarely analysed to verify if targets are met.

**Table 31: The structure of goals variables as aspects of leadership style**

<b>Goals variables</b> / <b>Scale</b>	<b>1</b>	<b>2</b>	<b>3</b>	<b>4</b>	<b>5</b>	<b>Mean</b>
Those involved in setting the goals.	1.4%	3.6%	13%	50%	29.7%	4.05
The existence of the resistance toward goals	2.2%	6.5%	7.2%	41.3%	40.6%	2.16
The frequency of goal analysis	5.8%	11.6%	10.9%	46.4%	23.2%	4.71

**6.5.6 Controlling as an Aspect of Leadership Style**

Controlling as defined by Draft (1997) is a management function aimed at monitoring employees' activities, determining whether the company is directed towards the goals set, and if needed, corrective decision-making. One of the duties of the management is to ensure that the company develops in such a way as to stay on track of achieving these goals. In this respect, empowerment and trust in employees are being developed as new trends. To verify whether this is so in the examined case, the following two variables were tested:

1. Holder of the controlling function
2. Existence of resistance to rules

The answers to the questions which describe the controlling variables are given in Table 32. The data show that 49.3% agree and 45.7% strongly agree that only managers are holders of the controlling function. On the resistance to control question, 44.9% disagree and 35.5% strongly disagree that employees are resistant to control or rules. The conclusion that can be drawn from the data is that the controlling function is held entirely by all managers, some individuals may from time to time show resistance to the rules, but a majority of them comply.

**Table 32: The structure of controlling variables as aspects of leadership style**

<b>Controlling variables</b> / <b>Scales</b>	<b>1</b>	<b>2</b>	<b>3</b>	<b>4</b>	<b>5</b>	<b>Mean</b>
Holders of controlling function.	45.7%	49.3%	2.9%	0.0%	0.0%	1.56
Resistance to control	5.1%	6.5%	5.8%	44.9%	35.5%	4.01



**6.5.7 Relationship as an Aspect of Leadership Style**

This dimension describes the kind of connection that exists between superiors and subordinates. Two relationship variables were considered:

Subordinates' disagreement with their boss

Superiors concern about subordinates' well-being

Other two leadership variables which were tested are subordinates' disagreement with their boss and managers inquiring about subordinates' well-being. The answers to the questions related to the listed variables are given in Table 33.

**Table 33: The structure of relationship variables as aspects of leadership style**

<b>Relationship variables</b> / <b>Scale</b>	<b>1</b>	<b>2</b>	<b>3</b>	<b>4</b>	<b>5</b>	<b>Mean</b>
Disagreement with boss.	90.6%	4.3%	0.7%	1.4%	0.7%	1.13
Concern about subordinates' well-being	67.4%	20.3%	8.0%	1.4%	0.7%	1.44

The results in Table 33 show that, 90.6% of respondents felt that in their work environment, subordinates are always afraid to express disagreement with their superiors. A further 4.3% said this was only the case sometimes, while 0.7% was undecided. 1.4% said it seldom happened and 0.7% said they had never felt that in their organisation. As concern the question on managers inquiring about the well-being of their subordinates, 67.4% strongly agree to the fact. It can be concluded that managers inquire about their subordinates' social and psychological well-being and at the same time they do not want their subordinates to disagree with them, but to always accept what they tell them even if the subordinates agree or not.

The predominance of paternalistic and autocratic styles of leadership that exists within organisations in Cameroon is reflected in respondents' answers to this question about the freedom to disagree. As was stated previously, managers who operate this style of management do not expect their subordinates to disagree with them. The results show that there are a significant number of the respondents who feel that, subordinates are fearful of disagreeing with their manager.

Cameroonians are polarised in their preference between the paternalistic and consultative leaders. However, they seem more comfortable with a paternalistic leader who usually makes his/her decisions promptly, but, before going ahead, tries to explain them fully to his/her subordinates. He/she gives them the reasons for the decisions and whatever questions they may have, acts as a father figure and shows complete concern for his workers. We see here the preference of a type of leadership style which is different from the aforementioned four: a leader who shows interest in the social and psychological well-being of their subordinates as well as involving them in decision-making. This is a sort of hybridised leadership style; that which is neither pure paternalistic nor pure consultative but a mixture of both. Hofstede (1980) interprets this phenomenon as the difference between both a dependence and counter-dependence where power distances are smaller.

The fact is that considering certain work situations, employees expressed a reasonable amount of satisfaction with all leadership styles, even with the autocratic and democratic styles. They, in different work situations or at one time or the other supports this. This lack of clear preference for any single style of the majority of the employees at all times could be traced back to the traditional patterns of authority and interpersonal relationships, which was discussed in Chapter Four as authoritarian-paternalistic and based on consensus. This is derived from fear of eroding their authority by being familiar with the employees on the one hand, and on the other hand, trying to balance Western management theories with traditional authority (Oppong, 2013). The managers, when interviewed, explained this dual-value of polarisation and responsibility in their leadership styles as a strategy to cope with the increasing demand of Western and traditional insurgence in the organisation. Many managers, though trained in schools in Western management concepts tend to deviate from the practices at the slightest disappointment with the results of the workforce and then lapse into the dictating traditional style that they think will be effective in managing organisations in their society. This polarisation of preferences by the Cameroonian respondents is not specific to Cameroon, or to Africa; we find it in all large power distance countries.

The results presented above may lead to the argument that Cameroonian employees tend to perceive their leaders as people more concerned with human relations. This seems to satisfy the sub-Saharan African cultural idea of the right relations with, and the behaviour of other people. This cultural phenomenon may have affected employee's attitudes to leadership behaviour and consequently their entire attitudes towards the organisation.

The data indicate that though the majority of the employees rejected an autocratic leadership style, 2.2% were happy with an autocratic type leader. This indicates that some people are motivated when they are told what to do. McGregor (1960) described this type of employees as theory X individuals. They are inherently lazy and are not happy with their job. Hence, an authoritarian leader is needed to ensure that they fulfil their objectives. Theory X employees need to be closely supervised and work best under threat of punishment.

The above analysis, therefore, leads to the conclusion that managers and employees tend to practice and accept only those management principles that strengthen the different styles identified in this research. Hence, the reason why the preferred styles of authoritarianism, paternalism, consultation and democratic have been found in the organisations studied is an indicator that Western management practices are gradually creeping into and gaining influence in the Cameroonian society.

### 6.6 Identification of Employee Motivation Factors

This section presents the data on Maslow's, Herzberg's and Vroom's motivational factors. Employees and their managers have been asked to tell what motivation factors they perceived to influence them in their work settings. That is, the employees will be telling the readers through the ranked order of the factors of motivation postulated by the above-mentioned theorists. Table 34 presents the data. The survey questionnaire from which the data were obtained was part of Hofstede (2013) VSM, which was also used in the calculation of Hofstede's dimensions of culture. The question to be answered here is:

***Which motivating factors explained in Maslow's, Herzberg's, and Vroom's theories and models of motivation would most highly motivate the Cameroonian employees in their work environments?***

Question 27 on the questionnaire asked respondents to choose from a list of ten motivation factors in order of importance to them in a job in an ideal situation. Each of the ten questions had a five-point scale from which respondents were asked to choose one: (1) very important, (2) important, (3) neutral, (4) little importance, (5) no importance

The data on motivation was systematised into two dimensions - extrinsic and intrinsic to facilitate understanding. The following sections give the results by key variables, and then the summarily.

### 6.6.1 Extrinsic motivation Variables

As earlier mentioned, extrinsic motivation is the motivation which comes from outside of the individual and according to Lawler (1973) its realisation results in social rewards. Due to the importance of this kind of motivation, it is necessary to determine how it is provided and what factors significantly influence its realisation.

The following variables have been tested to get answers to the above mentioned questions:

1. Have sufficient time for personal and family life
2. Have a well respected and trusted boss
3. Have security of employment
4. Work with people who cooperate with each other
5. Work in a comfortable environment.

**Table 34: The structure of extrinsic motivation factors**

<b>Extrinsic motivation variables</b>	<b>1</b>	<b>2</b>	<b>3</b>	<b>4</b>	<b>5</b>	<b>Mean</b>
Have sufficient time for family and personal life	44.9%	38.4%	8.0%	3.6%	2.9%	1.79
Have a well respected and trusted boss	59.4%	31.9%	3.6%	2.2%	0.7%	1.50
Have security of employment	50.0%	37.7%	6.5%	2.2%	1.4%	1.64
Work with people who cooperate with each other	50.0%	36.2%	5.8%	2.2%	2.2%	1.65
Work in a comfortable environment.	27.5%	29.7%	17.4%	18.8%	2.9%	2.38
<b>Overall extrinsic motivation factors</b>						<b>1.79</b>

As can be seen in Table 34 the employees prefer working with a boss they can respect and trust. To them, a boss they respect and trust serves as a motivator, it means these employees put in their best at work when they perceive that their superior is someone respectable and trustworthy. Cameroonian employees do not really care about the environment in which they work, provided there is cooperation among them. Secondly, they are concerned about their

job security; this may be partly because they have large and extended families to take care of, also because it is very difficult to find a job in Cameroon. The mean score in descending order is as follows (Table 34): a respected and trusted boss (1.50), security of employment (1.64), cooperation (1.65), time for family and personal life (1.79), and comfortable working environment (2.38).

### 6.6.2 Intrinsic Motivation Variables

Intrinsic motivation comes from within an individual or from the job itself. It plays a more significant role in an employee's performance than extrinsic motivation, so if it is low, employees cannot be expected to work effectively (Herzberg, 1967). The following five variables have been used to test the strength of intrinsic motivation in employees.

1. Good job description
2. Challenging job
3. Involvement in decision-making
4. Competence
5. Achievement.

**Table 35: The structure of intrinsic motivation factors**

<b>Intrinsic motivation variables</b> <b>Scales</b>	<b>1</b>	<b>2</b>	<b>3</b>	<b>4</b>	<b>5</b>	<b>Mean</b>
Good job description	22.5%	27.5%	17.4%	17.4%	12.3%	2.69
Challenging job	16.7%	20.3%	17.4%	29.7%	13.8%	3.04
Involvement in decision-making	52.9%	37.7%	4.3%	1.4%	0.0%	1.53
Competence	28.3%	37.7%	16.7%	8.0%	7.2%	2.27
Achievement	31.2%	32.6%	8.7%	19.6%	5.8%	2.35
<b>Overall intrinsic motivation factors</b>						<b>2.38</b>

As shown in Table 35 the intrinsic motivational factor with the highest mean score is challenging job (3.04), followed by the good job description factor (2.69). Involvement in decision-making scored the lowest (1.53). The descending order of the mean scores (Table 35): involved in decision-making (1.53), competence (2.27), achievement (2.35), job description (2.69), and challenging job (3.04).

In sum, the data in Table 34 and Table 35 suggest that extrinsic motivation (1.79) has a lower mean score than intrinsic motivation (2.38). This is a good indicator as intrinsic motivation deals with conditions that are related to the job itself and these factors when supplied leads to commitment to work; a condition sine qua non to organisational success. Answering the research questions raised above, extrinsic motivational factors are more important to Cameroonian employees than intrinsic factors.

The respondents indicate that they will perform better in the condition that their superior is well respected and trusted and if they are involved in decision-making. According to Buble et al. (2014) intrinsic motivation drives employees to a higher level of commitment than extrinsic motivation but, in this study there seem to be preference of extrinsic motivation factors by Cameroonian employees than intrinsic motivation factors. The success of organisations in Cameroon may largely depend on the leader's ability to command respect and trust, encourage cooperation among employees, and ensure job security as well as involving employees in decision-making.

### **6.6.3 The role of Family in the Cameroonian Society**

Family is very important to Cameroonians and Africans at large; it is the core of their very existence and the motive of their behaviour. It is the basic unit of social life. The importance of family is revealed in the words of Awoniyi (2015), who said "without the family there would be none of the kinship ties that are essential to a comprehensive social life, with an intricate network of social relationships" (p. 9). It is indispensable to understand the strength of family bonds because of its unparalleled implication for management: leadership, motivation, recruitment and promotion tendencies in African cultures.

The social, economic and political daily lives of Africans revolve around family groups. A traditional African belief that there is only one universal family to which all humans belong; which is fragmented into a multiplicity of peoples and cultures (Awoniyi, 2015). This concept of universality of the human family has resulted in traditional Africans recognising all human beings as brothers. This notion is of great importance to the African people, hence the communalism that characterises the society. The bond is so strong to the extent that it is very difficult for family or quasi-family bonds to be loosened in the foreseeable future in

Cameroon; the social, economic and political fabrics of the country will continue to be woven by icons denoting family units; and the conception of the society will still remain under the control of familial ideologies (Oppong, 2013).

Cameroonians derive their identity from being a member of a family and the norms and values of the family are prioritised over those of an individual (Nyambegera, 2002). This was termed by Schwartz (2006) as embedded culture, where people are likened to entities embedded in the collectivity. Belonging to a family is believed to add meaning to life. The family is the centre of social and economic daily life in Cameroon. The values associated with family mean that a typical African has to take care of the needs of their immediate family, and that of the members of an entire lineage in the extended family (Awoniyi, 2015). This explains why relationships are so strong in Cameroon and Africa at large.

The family also plays an important role in African managerial studies. A powerful relationship in Africa is often portrayed in the manner of family (Martin, 1991a). As such the responsibilities of the one who is in charge within the organisation is viewed as similar to the responsibilities of one who is answerable for the family; the authority of an organisational leader on the other hand requires the same respect and obedience as the authority of family heads. The dominance and the preference of a paternalistic leader as indicated in this study may explain this phenomenon. This notion of family and mutual obligation is contrary to the ideology of Western organisational management. Western organisational management promotes competition for organisational power. Although many changes have taken place in African organisations due to the influence of Western values, many traditional organisations have remained resilient and survived, though often in another manner. The family, community systems, tribalism/ethnicity and social relationships have remained untouched by acculturation.

The community values such as ethnicity and family have never been introduced into conventional organisations in Cameroon. Comparing the performance of a Westernised African organisation with local organisations within Africa can shed more light to this assertion. Examples of organisations where family values dominate were identified in Ghana by Damachi (1978).

## 6.7 Factors of Recruitment and Promotion of Employees

Employee performance may be dependent on how they were recruited, promoted and on the reward system in place. Questions 21 to 23 address these subjects. In question 21 employees were asked how they earned their position or job. Only 5.1% of the respondents earned their position through promotion based on job experience (Table 36), 5.8% earned theirs through job seniority, academic or professional performance accounted for 25.4% of the total population, while the majority (61.6%) earned their position through "other" factors. The "other" factor was identified as being ethnicity, social relationships, friendship, indigenous language and family orientation. These factors were the same for recruitment and promotion.

The research question that is answered by this section is: *What are the factors perceived by managers and employees to influence recruitment and promotion in their organisations?*

### 6.7.1 Recruitment

Employees were asked to indicate the factors they perceived had an impact on their recruitment into their organisation. A list of factors was given to them and they were required to rank them according to their perceived importance. The result is presented in Table 36.

**Table 36: Statistical presentation of factors for recruiting employees**

	Age	Job seniority	Job experience	Job accomplishment	Level of education	Other factors
N	135	135	135	135	135	135
Mean	3.32	3.76	3.51	3.69	3.69	2.00
Median	3.00	4.00	4.00	4.00	4.00	2.00
Std. Deviation	1.012	1.156	1.257	1.260	1.223	1.103

Table 36 gives the statistical presentation of the results; that is the mean, median and standard deviation. The factors that the study assumed would be perceived as influencing employee recruitment were the same factors considered in promotion.



On question 23 respondents were asked to give their opinion on the factors management considered in recruiting employees (Table 37). The question was sub-divided into six questions corresponding to the number of factors that were considered.

Question 23.1 asked about the degree of importance management place on age when recruiting, the majority (32.4%) of the respondents said it was of little importance, while 30.5% were undecided and preferred to remain neutral (Table 37).

On question 23.2 respondents were asked to rate their level of importance of job seniority for management in recruiting employees, the majority (43.3%) of the respondents said it was of little importance, 27.5% argued that it was of no importance to them. Just very low percentage (11.4%) of the respondents said job seniority was important and 4.8% are of the opinion that it was very important.

When participants were asked to rate the importance management placed on job experience (question 23.3) when recruiting employees, the majority (40.1%) said it was of little importance, 23.7% responded that it was of no importance, while only 14.5% considered it to be an important factor for management.

The next factor that was considered on question 23.4 was job accomplishment, the majority (37.5%) of the participants shared the view that job accomplishment was of little importance to management when recruiting employees, and 27.8% of respondents claimed it was of no importance. A very low proportion of the respondents (14.7%) said it was an important factor for management, while 6.2% said it was very important.

**Table 37: Level of importance of each factor of recruitment**

<b>Scales \ Factor</b>	<b>Age</b>	<b>Job seniority</b>	<b>Job experience</b>	<b>Job accomplishment</b>	<b>Level of education</b>	<b>Others</b>
Very important	10.5%	4.8	9.4%	6.2%	7.2%	28.1%
Important	15%	11.9	14.5%	14.7%	10.3%	<b>53.4%</b>
Neutral	30.5%	10.3	10.0%	11.6%	12.5%	4.5%
Of little importance	32.4%	43.3	40.1%	37.5%	38.2%	5.2%
Of no importance	9.4%	27.5	23.7%	27.8%	29.5%	6.5%

Question 23.5 was concerned with the level of education as a factor for management of recruiting employees; the majority (38.2%) of the respondents said educational achievement was of little importance to management, while 29.5% said it was of no importance. Just as the

other factors already mentioned, a relatively low proportion of respondents polarised on the view that level of education is either important (10.3%) or very important (7.2%). As can be seen in Table 37; the first five factors: age, job seniority, job accomplishment, job experience and level of education scored the highest percentages in the 'of little importance' scale and relatively high percentages on 'of no importance' scale.

Question 23.6 questioned respondents on the level of importance of "other" factors for management when recruiting employees, 53.4% responded that "other" factors were important for management; while 28.1% said it was is important. A cumulative percentage of 81.5% of participants said the "other" factors were what management based on in recruiting employees. This answer harmonises with the response to question 21 where the majority of employees said they earned their position into their organisations by other means. A detail explanation of what the "other" factors entail is discussed in Chapter Eight.

### 6.7.2 Promotion

As in recruitment, the employees will again tell what factors they perceived influence their promotion in the organisations. That is, the employees will be talking about the factors, which they perceived that management consider when promoting employees in their organisations.

**Table 38: Statistical presentation of factors for promoting employees**

	<b>Age</b>	<b>Job seniority</b>	<b>Job experience</b>	<b>Job accomplishment</b>	<b>Level of education</b>	<b>Other factors</b>
N	135	135	135	135	135	135
Mean	3.32	3.76	3.50	3.59	3.66	2.15
Median	3.00	4.00	4.00	4.00	4.00	2.00
Std. Deviation	1.012	1.156	1.257	1.260	1.223	1.103

Table 38 gives the statistical presentation of the results; that is the mean, median and standard deviation of the different factors of promotion. The factors that the study assumed would be perceived as influencing employee's promotion were the same factors considered in recruitment.

On question 22 respondents were asked about the factors management considered in promoting people to leadership positions (Table 39). The question was sub-divided into six questions corresponding to the number of factors that were considered.

Question 22.1 asked about the importance of age in promoting people to leadership positions, a majority (36.2%) of the respondents were undecided, while 35.5% said age was of little importance in appointing people to leadership positions (Table 39).

On question 22.2 was on the importance of job seniority in promoting people to leadership positions, a majority (41.3%) of the people said it was of little importance, 27.5% argued that it was of little importance to them and the remaining 17.7% said job seniority was an important factor in appointing people to leadership positions in their organisation.

When participants were asked about the importance of job experience for management (question 22.3) in appointing people to leadership positions in their organisation, the majority (31.9%) said it was of little importance, 21.7% responded that it was of no importance, while only 14.5% considered it to be important.

The next factor that was considered on question 22.4 is job accomplishment, the majority (35.5%) expresses their view that job accomplishment was of little importance, and another 26.8% claimed it was of no importance.

**Table 39: Level of importance of each factor of promotion**

Factor \ Scales	Age	Job seniority	Job experience	Job accomplishment	Level of education	Others
Very important	6.5%	5.8%	9.4%	7.2%	7.2%	26.1%
Important	10.1%	10.9%	14.5%	16.7%	12.3%	<b>51.4%</b>
Neutral	36.2%	12.3%	13.0%	11.6%	14.5%	6.5%
Of little importance	35.5%	41.3%	39.1%	35.5%	36.2%	7.2%
Of no importance	9.4%	27.5%	21.7%	26.8%	27.5%	6.5%

Question 22.5 was concerned with the level of education as a factor for management for promoting employees; the majority (36.2%) of the respondents said educational achievement was of little importance to management. As can be seen in Table 39, age, job seniority, job accomplishment, job experience and level of education are of little importance to management when promoting employees.

51.4% responded that the "other" factors (question 22.6) were important for management in promoting employees, while 26.1% said it was very important. This answer harmonises with the response to question 21 where most of the employees said they earned their position into their organisations by other means.

Answering the research question raised above, the majority of the respondents polarised on "other" factors as influencing employee recruitment and promotion. An elaborate discussion of what the "other" factors entail is presented in Chapter Eight.

### **6.8 Employee Involvement, Commitment and Performance**

This section of the study discusses management practices of involving employees to organisational processes, how they encourage commitment and motivation and how they all affect performance. Employee commitment and involvement form an index of motivation in the organisation. This is very important because employee's levels of commitment and involvement with organisation's goal are different. These different levels of involvement and commitment depend on the existing leadership style which in turn influences employee motivation. Let us now find out what the answers reveal.

#### **6.8.1 Employee Involvement and Commitment**

In question 36 respondents were asked if they were satisfied with the amount of involvement they have in the decision-making that takes place in different circumstances and levels of the organisation. Question 37 and 38 were concerned with the employee's level of commitment to the company, by investigating whether they felt loyal to their organisation (question 37) and are proud to talk about the organisation they work for (question 38). In question 39 they were asked the extent of their commitment to organisational objectives to increase performance. Furthermore, in question 40 the employees were asked about their extent of involvement in the achievement of greater performance for the company. By asking these questions, employees were given an opportunity to suggest which form of motivation they

felt should be used at the company, should motivation be increased by involving people more and therefore making them more committed or should greater levels of performance be sought through financial incentives and the strict application of a paternalistic/autocratic rule?

The research question that this section answered here is: *"To what extent are employees satisfied with their level of involvement and commitment to their organisations and what role does employee involvement have to play in their performance?"*

In question 36 when the employee's level of satisfaction with the involvement in organisational decision-making process was investigated, the data in Table 40 indicate that 44.2%, which was the majority were dissatisfied with their level of involvement, while 26.1% were strongly dissatisfied. 10.1% were neither satisfied nor dissatisfied. Only very few people were satisfied or strongly satisfied, 8% and 8.7% respectively.

**Table 40: Level of satisfaction with involvement in decision-making**

	Frequency	Percent
Strongly satisfied	12	8.7
Satisfied	11	8.0
Neither satisfied nor dissatisfied	14	10.1
Dissatisfied	61	44.2
Strongly dissatisfied	36	26.1

Question 37 specifically asked them about their level of commitment to the company, by investigating whether they felt loyal to the organisation. There were, as can be seen in Table 41, significant numbers of respondents who agreed that they felt loyalty to their organisation. There were 72.5% of those questioned who agree with this statement (29.7% strongly agreed and 42.8% agreed).

**Table 41: Level of commitment to organisation**

	Frequency	Percent
Strongly agree	41	29.7
Agree	59	42.8
Neither agree nor disagree	12	8.7
Disagree	14	10.1
Strongly disagree	8	5.8

Question 38 is still concerned with employee commitment, but this time around inquiry was made to find out if they were proud to talk to people about the organisation they work for. The results in Table 42 indicate that a significant number of employees agreed to the statement (42% agreed and 26.1% strongly agreed), only 15.2% and 8.7% disagreed or strongly disagreed respectively.

**Table 42 Pride to belong to one's organisation (commitment**

	<b>Frequency</b>	<b>Percent</b>
Strongly agree	36	26.1
Agree	58	42.0
Neither agree nor disagree	8	5.8
Disagree	21	15.2
Strongly disagree	12	8.7

There is a certain level of dissatisfaction with the individual employee involvement with the decision-making process of their organisation but many respondents felt loyalty to the organisation and proud to be working there. Despite of the fact that many employees stated that they had little or no say in decisions made about their job, working conditions, and the operation of their department, they were still very committed to their organisations.

Questions 39 and 40 were concerned with the extent of employee involvement and commitment to the achievement of the organisation's objective of greater performance. Table 43 contains data for employee commitment.

**Table 43: Employee commitment**

	<b>Frequency</b>	<b>Percent</b>
Very committed	26	18.8
Committed	53	38.4
Neutral	21	15.2
Not really committed	26	18.8
Not at all committed	9	6.5

As can be seen in Table 43 with regard to employee commitment to their organisation, the data indicate that 18.8% said they were very committed, 38.4% of respondents were committed and 18.8% were somewhat committed. A high proportion of the employees were committed to their organisation, a cumulative percentage of 58.5%.

Table 44 has the data for employee involvement with their organisation.

**Table 44: Employee involvement**

	<b>Frequency</b>	<b>Percent</b>
Very involved	10	7.2
Involved	21	15.2
Neutral	11	8.0
Not really involved	67	48.6
Not at all involved	26	18.8

The results in Table 44 with regard to employee involvement with their organisation reveals that only 7.2% of the employees felt they were very involved in the decision-making process, while only 15.2% felt they were involved. Additionally, the majority 48.6% felt not really involved while 18.8% felt they were not at all involved. Most of the employees were not really satisfied with their level of involvement to the decision-making in the organisation. Although many employees were committed to the objective to increase organisational performance only a few felt involve in the achievement of this objective.

### 6.8.2 Organisational Performance

The following two questions are concerned with the role of management to improve performance; respondents were asked if they are informed about their performances (question 32) and if they are stimulated by management to improve their performances (question 33).

**Table 45: Management informs employees about job performance**

	<b>Frequency</b>	<b>Percent</b>
Very often	15	10.9
Often	37	26.8
Sometimes	27	19.6
Seldom	38	27.5
Never	18	13.0

A high percentage of the employees (27.7%) said they seldom get information about their performances from management, while 26.8% confirmed that they are always informed. But,

19.6% said it was just sometimes that they were informed about their performances and 13% have never been given any information (Table 45). A cumulative percentage of 58.5% have, at least, if not so often, received information about their performances. This fraction constitutes more than half of the total population.

Question 33 is concerned with the ability of management to stimulate employee to improve performance. They were asked about the frequency at which this occurs in their organisation; 34.8%, which was the majority said they are not often stimulated, while 28.3% said it was only a matter of sometimes and 16.7% have never been stimulated at all (Table 46).

**Table 46 Management stimulation of employee to improve performance**

	<b>Frequency</b>	<b>Percent</b>
Very often	12	8.7
Often	13	9.4
Sometimes	39	28.3
Seldom	48	34.8
Never	23	16.7

It is indicated by the finding that the ability of management to stimulate employees to improve their performance is an issue; the majority of the employees, 51.5% felt the stimulation given to them was not strong enough to produce any effect.

## **6.9 Summary of the Findings**

The main purpose of the study is to explore the role of cultural values in achieving organisational excellence in the areas of leadership and employee motivation. Specifically, the aim is to investigate the direct effects of cultural values on employee motivation and the indirect effects via leadership style. Also, the study looked at the impact of management's consideration of traditional and Western value factors during recruitment and promotion of employees on their attitudes toward work. The level of employee involvement and commitment in relation to motivation was also of interest in the study.



Some of the research questions that were raised in Chapter One have been answered in this chapter. The following paragraphs present a brief summary of the answers to the questions.

The results obtained for the dimensions of culture from the Cameroonian sample confirm Hofstede's (1991) findings for the West African Region. Cameroon shares similar cultural consequences as the other countries in the region. Although there are some slight differences between the scores of the dimensions of the present study with that of Hofstede for the WAR; the differences are not great enough to suggest that there is any discordance between the two studies. This confirms Hofstede's postulate that cultural values are deep-seated; that cultures do not change and that if there should be any; it will take a considerable long period of time for it to be significant (Hofstede, 1980).

The study suggests that the perceived dominant leadership style in Cameroon's organisations is paternalistic then followed by autocratic. The preferred style is paternalistic second by consultative leadership style. Manager's view of dominant leadership style was different from that of employees, the majority of them express the view that leadership style was consultative in their organisations that employees are given the opportunity to participate in decision-making.

The data indicate that extrinsic motivation factors have lower mean scores than intrinsic motivation factors. The general feeling from managers was that pay package was the factor that motivates employees the most, but the absence of this factor does not prevent employees from being committed to their organisation. The employees on the other hand said involving them in decision-making and having as leader, someone they can respect and trust were very important factors for increasing their level of motivation, hence confirming the fact that they preferred a consultative leader.

Succinctly, managers stated that they felt motivation was high in their companies as there was a high level of employee involvement and commitment. Some employees that were interviewed linked commitment to high unemployment level and scarcity of jobs in Cameroon. They said because of fear to lose their jobs many are compelled to be committed to their organisation. Employee commitment and involvement form an index of motivation in the organisation. Employee motivation, recruitment, and promotion are affected and influenced by lots of circumstances among which include cultural values, leadership styles, family, educational qualification and perhaps ethnic affiliation.

The results also show that most of the managers and employees polarised on the view that societal culture influences organisational culture. The managers and employees perceived that traditional value factors such as ethnicity, friendship, family, social relation and indigenous language severely influenced management decisions on promotion and recruitment than conventional factors such as work experience and educational experience.

The conclusion that can be drawn from the results is that management practices are culturally bound and not universal as postulated by Likert (1967). The best management styles are not those that have had success in some regions or countries, rather, they are those that take into consideration the cultural preferences of those being managed. The collectivist culture of Cameroon has led to the preference of the satisfaction of extrinsic needs above the intrinsic needs. The importance of family to a Cameroonian means that everything they do revolve around the satisfaction of their family needs.

## Chapter Seven

### Analysis and Interpretation of Quantitative Results

#### 7.1 Introduction

The preceding chapter reported the results generated from the quantitative data with a shallow interpretation. This chapter will summarise and interpret the research findings in details. In interpreting the findings, the study will be guided by the research questions that have not been answered in the previous chapter. The study will begin with the analysis of the correlations between cultural values, leadership style and employee motivation patterns perceived to exist in Cameroonian organisations.

#### 7.2 Analysing the Link between Cultural Values, Leadership Styles and Employee Motivation

This section of the study is aimed at finding out the correlations between cultural values, leadership styles and employee motivation. Firstly, the correlation between cultural values and leadership styles will be looked at. Secondly, the relationship between cultural values and employee motivation will be considered and finally, the link between leadership styles and employee motivation will be analysed. The strength of the correlations in this study will be verbally described using the suggestion provided by Evans (1996) concerning the strength of the absolute value of  $r$ :

- 0.00-0.19 very weak relationship
- 0.20-0.39 weak relationship
- 0.40-0.59 moderate relationship
- 0.60-0.79 strong relationship
- 0.80-1.0 very strong relationship

The cultural values used in this section to establish correlations are organisational or work related values that feature on Hofstede's (VSM, 2013) and the dimensions of leadership style are adopted and adapted from Likert (1967) model. These variables have already been analysed individually in Chapter Six. The paragraphs that follow will present the correlations between the three constructs. The general research question to be answered here is; *does the Culture present in organisations in Cameroon have any effects on of leadership style and employee motivation?*

### 7.2.1 Analysing the Correlation between Cultural Values and Leadership Style

The research question that led to this analysis is: *what relationship exists between cultural values and leadership style?* Table 47 shows the correlation matrix of the relationship between cultural/work-related values and leadership style characteristics. It should be noted that most of the correlation coefficients are mostly of lower intensity ( $p \leq 0.4$ ), indicating a weak reciprocal relationship which should be accepted with caution. Table 55 (Appendix B) indicates that some aspects of organisational cultural values correlate with some dimensions of leadership styles, for instance, there is a moderate positive correlation between these two work-related values: specification of targets (0.576) and criteria for performance measurement (0.484) with motivation as a leadership style characteristic. This may suggest that employees are more motivated when they are led by someone who specify targets to them and who also implement performance measure criteria. Another striking correlation is that between relationship as a dimension of leadership style and the work value that emphasises interpersonal relation between subordinates and their boss (0.605). This value indicates a strong and positive correlation between that particular aspect of leadership style and work value. The implication of this finding is that leaders aiming at promoting interpersonal relationship in their organisation should develop good relationship skills.

One of the interview questions was designed to find out if a relationship exists between leadership style and cultural values. All the managers who participated in the interview agreed that there is a relationship between cultural values and leadership style.

**Table 47 Correlation Matrix for Cultural Values and Leadership Style Characteristics**

Pearson Correlation Sig. (2-tailed) N=135	Motivation as an aspect of leadership style		Communication as an aspect of leadership style		Interaction as an aspect of leadership style		Decision- making as an aspect of leadership style	
	Cor	Sig	Cor	Sig	Cor	Sig	Cor	Sig
Overall cultural values	.602**	.000	-.050	.571	.050	.569	-.032	.714
Pearson Correlation Sig. (2-tailed) N=135	Goals as an aspect of leadership style		Controlling as an aspect of leadership style		Relationship as an aspect of leadership style		Overall leadership styles	
	Cor	Sig	Cor	Sig	Cor	Sig	Cor	Sig
Overall Cultural values	.059	.502	.041	.640	.098	.264	.305**	.000

Motivation as an aspect of leadership style is the only leadership style variable that correlates with overall cultural values with a correlation coefficient of 0.602, an indication of a strong positive relationship. This indicates that the motivating characteristic of a leader is very important in promoting better organisational culture: a culture that emphasises values such as cooperation, involvement, good interpersonal relations, specification of targets and performance measurement.

All the work-related values grouped together were correlated with all the leadership style characteristics and the data in Table 47 indicate that there is a positive correlation between overall leadership style characteristics and overall cultural values (0.305). This value supports hypothesis H4 above which states that: *there is a positive relationship between cultural values and leadership styles*. The relationship between the cultural values and leadership style, however, is a weak one.

The conclusion that can be drawn from the data in Table 47 is that involving employees in decision-making by management and showing concern in their personal and psychological wellbeing affect their level of motivation. The relationship between these two variables and level of motivation is direct, the more subordinates are given the opportunity to participate in decision-making, the higher their level of motivation. This is also true when superiors show concern in the well being of their subordinates. This means that leaders of organisations in Cameroon can boost motivation by involving employees in decision-making and by being interested in their well being. This makes them feel valued, responsible and recognised. In addition to that, providing material rewards to the employees is a significant motivating factor. Therefore, developing an organisational culture that promotes the participation of

employees in decision regarding their work will go a long way to motivate them to do better for their organisation.

### 7.2.2 Analysing the Correlation between Cultural Values and Employee Motivation

This section of the study answers the question that aims at investigating the relationship between cultural values and employee motivation (intrinsic and extrinsic) in organisations in Cameroon. The research question to be answered is: *what is the relationship between cultural values and employee motivation?* Correlation method of investigation has been used to measure the strength of the relationships between the variables. For any link to exist the significant value must be less than 0.05 in order to establish any valid correlation.

Table 56 (Appendix B) lists five dimensions of work values, they are: cooperation, the relationship between subordinates and their superiors, specification of targets, performance measurement and involvement in decision-making. These cultural values were correlated with ten employee motivation factors; five intrinsic and five extrinsic factors. The five extrinsic motivation factors are: time allocated for personal and family life; work with a respected and trusted boss; employment security; cooperation among employees and working in a comfortable environment. The five intrinsic motivation factors are: good job description; challenging jobs; participation in decision-making; competence and achievement.

The relationships between the factors were determined by using the Pearson r Correlation method of SPSS. Work-related values were investigated from respondent's answers to questions 12, 13, 34, 35 and 41. The extrinsic motivation questions were 27.1, 27.2, 27.4, 27.5, 27.8 and intrinsic motivation was concerned with questions 27.3, 27.6, 27.7, 27.9 and 27.10. The replies to the work-related values questions were correlated with replies to motivation factors questions in order to establish relationships between these variables.

The data in Table 56 (Appendix B) indicate that there is a correlation between some cultural value factors and some of the factors of motivation. Specifically, cooperation among employees (work value) correlates with all the extrinsic motivation factors except with the factor; working in a comfortable environment. Cooperation is the work value that has greater impact on employees' extrinsic motivational stimulus. A change in the level of cooperation

among employees will lead to a corresponding change in the amount of time they spend in caring for their personal and family life, respect and trust they have for their boss, employment security, and cooperation among themselves. It can be noticed that involving employees in decision-making as a work value, correlates with three out of the five extrinsic motivation factors. Overall cultural values have correlations with all extrinsic motivation factors except with employment with job security. It is important to note that the strongest correlation is between overall extrinsic motivations and cooperation (0.595) as work value, there is a weak correlation between overall extrinsic motivations and involved in decision-making (0.3). However, employees are motivated when there is cooperation among them and when they are involved in decision-making. The most important of all is that a link can be established between overall extrinsic motivation and overall cultural values.

On the intrinsic motivation and the cultural value part of the correlation matrix, the strength of the link between correlated variables is weaker than on the extrinsic motivation part. It can be seen in Table 56 (Appendix B) that most of the correlation coefficients scored below the value of 0.3. Extrinsic motivation factors have a stronger correlation with cultural values (0.388) than intrinsic motivation factors (0.290). This means that if values such as cooperation and participation are promoted in an organisation, and employees are given the opportunity to have enough time for personal and family life; if the boss is one that can be respected and trusted; if there is employment security; if employees work as a team and if the working environment is comfortable, then their performance will improve. This finding does NOT support hypothesis 3 (**H3**) which stated that: *There is a stronger correlation between cultural values and intrinsic motivation than there is between cultural values and extrinsic motivation.*

When all the motivation factors; intrinsic and extrinsic factors are combined together to form the overall motivation category, it correlates with two cultural values; cooperation and involvement in decision-making (Table 48). The correlation matrix also indicates that overall motivation has a positive and significant relationship with overall cultural values (0.390). This is in support of the hypothesis **H5** which states that: *There is a positive relationship between cultural values and employee motivation.* The relationship, however, is a weak one which needs to be accepted with caution.

**Table 48: Correlation matrix of cultural values and employee motivation (extrinsic and intrinsic motivation factors)**

Pearson Correlation Sig. (2-tailed) N=135	Cooperation		Interpersonal relation with boss		Specification of targets		Performance measurement		Involved in decision-making		Overall cultural values	
	Cor	Sig	Cor	Sig	Cor	Sig	Cor	Sig	Cor	Sig	Cor	Sig
<b>Overall extrinsic motivation</b>	.595**	.000	.073	.404	.035	.691	.140	.878	.300**	.000	.388**	.000
<b>Overall intrinsic motivation</b>	.142	.105	.141	.107	.080	.364	.125	.152	.234**	.007	.290**	.001
<b>Overall motivation</b>	.403**	.000	.101	.255	.068	.444	.092	.300	.314**	.000	.390**	.000

The managers interviewed were asked if they felt that the culture of their organisational can have effects on the level of employee motivation. Two of the managers said that high level of motivation was highly needed for employees, and that performance depended on them. However, one felt that such a situation was possible if the organisational structure was democratic, and the other felt it would only be the case if employees had a high status level.

### 7.2.3 Analysing the Link between Leadership Style and Employee Motivation

The aim of this section is to answer the research question that asked: *What relationship exists between leadership style and employee motivation?* The hypothesis (H6) linking leadership style and employee motivation states that: **there is a positive correlation between leadership style and employee motivation.** A bivariate statistical analysis was conducted, which included the tests of correlation and test of significance of differences. The test was done using Pearson's coefficient and as earlier mentioned, for any causal link to exist the significant figure must be less than 0.05 in order to establish any valid correlation.



7.2.3.1 Leadership Style versus Extrinsic Motivation

As indicated in Table 57 (Appendix B) some extrinsic motivation factors correlate with some aspects of leadership style. For example, motivation as an aspect of leadership style correlates with working with a well respected and trusted boss, the correlation coefficient is 0.382 indicating a weak link.

Table 49: Correlation matrix of Leadership style and employee motivation

Pearson Correlation Sig. (2-tailed) N=135	Motivation as an aspect of leadership style		Communication as an aspect of leadership style		Interaction as an aspect of leadership style		Decision-making as an aspect of leadership style	
	Cor	Sig	Cor	Sig	Cor	Sig	Cor	Sig
Overall extrinsic motivation	.140	.109	.066	.454	.113	.196	.054	.535
Overall intrinsic motivation	.152	.082	.034	.702	-.003	.975	.089	.308
Overall motivation	<b>.174*</b>	<b>.048</b>	.067	.450	.056	.524	.090	.306
Pearson Correlation Sig. (2-tailed) N=135	Goals as an aspect of leadership style		Controlling as an aspect of leadership style		Relationship as an aspect of leadership style		Overall leadership style	
	Cor	Sig	Cor	Sig	Cor	Sig	Cor	Sig
Overall extrinsic motivation	<b>.177*</b>	<b>.043</b>	<b>-.175*</b>	<b>.046</b>	.087	.323	<b>.199*</b>	<b>.023</b>
Overall intrinsic motivation	<b>.427**</b>	<b>.000</b>	-.082	.350	.121	.167	<b>.325**</b>	<b>.000</b>
Overall motivation	<b>.370**</b>	<b>.000</b>	-.143	.105	.092	.297	<b>.316**</b>	<b>.000</b>

The data trend indicates that the level of employee motivation is elevated when they are led by someone they respect and trust. Also, working in a comfortable environment correlates with goals setting as an aspect of leadership style with a correlation coefficient of 0.271, a weak link still. Working in a comfortable environment is the only extrinsic motivation factor that has a relationship with all the leadership style characteristics put together (overall leadership style). Leaders should expect better results when working conditions are better. Other factors such as having sufficient time for family and personal life, job security and cooperation correlate with interaction as a leadership style characteristic, but the links are weak.

All the leadership style characteristics merged together correlates only with working in a comfortable environment with a coefficient of 0.359 indicating a weak link. All the extrinsic

motivational factors put together and all leadership style characteristics combined together scored a correlation coefficient of 0.199, indicating a very weak link between overall extrinsic motivation and overall leadership style characteristics (Table 49).

### 7.3.2.2 Leadership Style versus Intrinsic Motivation

The data in Table 57 (Appendix B) indicate that a link exists between some leadership style variables and intrinsic motivation factors. For example, there is a correlation between the motivational factors of employees having a good job description and achievement and leadership style dimension of goal setting. There is also a correlation between achievement and overall leadership style. The overall leadership style characteristics have a nexus only with achievement. While overall intrinsic motivation correlates only with goals as an aspect of leadership style characteristics. The strength of the correlation is 0.427, the highest so far in this category, indicating a moderately strong relationship.

Comparing the correlation coefficient for overall intrinsic motivation and overall extrinsic motivation (Table 49), it is evident that the former has a stronger correlation (0.325) with overall leadership style characteristics than latter with overall leadership style characteristics (0.199). Overall motivation, which is intrinsic and extrinsic motivation factors combined together correlates only with goals as an aspect of leadership style. Goals as an aspect of leadership style correlate with more motivation factors than any other leadership style characteristic.

Succinctly, there is a relationship between overall motivation factors and overall leadership style characteristics. The correlation coefficient is 0.316 indicating a weak positive relationship. This result supports hypothesis **H4** which states that: *there is a positive correlation between leadership style and employee motivation.*

**7.2.4 Correlations between Cultural Values, Leadership Styles and Employee Motivation**

This section analysis the relationship that exists between cultural values, leadership style and employee motivation, as mentioned in chapter one, cultural values affect employee motivation directly and indirectly through leadership style. The research question to be answered here is: *What relationship exists between cultural value, leadership style and employee motivation?*

**Table 50: Correlation matrix for Cultural Values, Leadership Styles and Employee Motivation**

Pearson Correlation Sig. (2-tailed) N=135	Overall Cultural values		Overall Leadership style		Overall Employee motivation	
	Cor.	Sig	Cor.	Sig.	Cor.	Sig.
Overall Cultural values	-----	----	.305**	.000	.390**	.000
Overall Leadership styles	.305**	.000	----	----	.316**	.000
Overall Employee motivation	.390**	.000	.316**	.000	----	----

It is clear from Table 50 that there exist a positive correlation between cultural values and leadership style, cultural values and employee motivation, and leadership style and employee motivation. This is in support of the hypothesis **H7** which states that: *there is a correlation between cultural values and leadership style, cultural values and employee motivation and leadership style and employee motivation.* It should be noted that the above mentioned correlation coefficients are mostly of lower intensity ( $P \leq 0.4$ ), indicating a weak reciprocal relations which should be accepted with caution. In other words, the workers become more motivated when values such as cooperation and involvement of subordinates in decision-making are encouraged. Still, if in the organisations performance measure criteria are instituted, if the leadership style of the boss is dominated by motivational aspects, then employees will have a different perception about their work; that which increase performance. According to the suggestions of the strength of correlations postulated by Evans (1996), all the aforementioned correlations are of weak intensity. It can be concluded that cultural values affect employee motivation directly and indirectly through leadership styles.

Six out of the seven hypotheses generated in this study have been supported. The statistically significant correlations between the overall grade of the five cultural values and the grade of the overall leadership styles, overall cultural values and overall employee motivation and overall leadership style and overall employee motivation were all positive but weak. This leads to the conclusion that there is a link of lower intensity between cultural values and leadership styles; cultural values and employee motivation and leadership styles and employee motivation. The indirect relationship between cultural values and employee motivation is through leadership style. The style of a leader is more or less determined by the values of the society in which they belong or by the values of their organisation, leadership style in turn has an impact on the level of motivation of employees (Hofstede, 2011; House et al., 2004).

Cultural values, leadership style and employee motivation all influence the performance of an organisation (House et al., 2004) hence; their importance to contribute to organisational effectiveness cannot be underestimated. In as much as the models of Hofstede, Likert, Maslow and Herzberg were replicated to the best possible way, the findings of this study confirm the robustness of these models in Cameroonian organisations, although there were some minor differences.

### **7.3 Cultural Values and Organisational Management in Cameroon**

This section compares the results of this study with the literature, specifically the manifestation of Hofstede's categories of culture in Cameroonian organisations and their implications on employee motivation directly and indirectly through leadership style.

#### **7.3.1 Power Distance**

The quantitative results presented in this chapter, easily leads to the conclusion that the effects of high power differentiation are pervasive in Cameroon. Organisational leadership style is perceived to be dominantly paternalistic, then closely followed by the autocratic style.

The perceived leadership styles have been attributed to the collective nature of the society and the system of hierarchy that is in place (Ogedengbe et al., 2012). The hierarchical system is characterised by disproportionate respect for the elders and those in authority, highly centralised decision-making and abused of power by those in authority (Waal & Chipeta, 2013). It is accepted by acculturated Cameroonians that a greater disparity exists between a leader and their followers than is the case in the Western societies (Johnson, 2005). Although the dominate leadership style is paternalistic, meaning leaders show proportionate concern for the well being of their subordinates thereby helping to maintain harmony in organisations (Ogedengbe et al., 2012), the leaders possess traits of autocracy in them as they make and impose their decisions on their followers and do not give them any opportunity to challenge these decisions.

Much importance is attached to recognition, appreciation and monetary incentives as a means of motivating employees by management (Ogedengbe et al., 2012). A man's status is of high importance in Cameroon, some even go extra miles to buy status. A Cameroonian with academic qualifications expects a high status position, regardless of his ability and little attention is paid to ability. People attach more importance to status than both ability and financial reward (although the latter increases with increased status). People seek a job title that reflects as much status as can be gotten from a job. It is evident from this research that status as incentive seems to be central to the African personality (a dominant feature of high power distance culture). The postulate of Oppong (2013) that an African will always be influenced by his/her cultural values and their recognition of these values could influence the relationship between subordinate and boss is evident in this research. An African traditionally would be motivated for status in the service of his community. If he fails to serve the interest of the community, he would lose his position. It is the value placed on the position and status of Africans as a whole that creates a gap between superiors and subordinates.

Attitude towards authority is a feature of Cameroonian culture that manifest itself even in the workplace (Gardiner, 1998). Gardiner (1998, p. 496) described this attitude as "almost subservience- certainly a little more than just respect". People are not allowed to question those in authority. In Cameroonian society as well as in the sub-Saharan Africa, leadership is closely linked to authority irrespective of how the position was earned; be it leadership derived from old age, wisdom or from status or formal position (Oppong, 2013). Gyekye (2003) said the reason behind this view is that holders of high office are often perceived as

exercising or supposed to exercise leadership, which can lead to the success of group performance. In Cameroonian organisations, the boss is a key figure; power is centralised, if the boss has to trust someone, he/she would prefer to trust a member of his/her family and or from their ethnic group. The respect for authority has pushed Cameroonians to work by the rules, especially rules with established values, since they know that non-adherence will lead to punishments either by the authorities or deities. As long as the rules are well defined and accompanied with disciplinary actions, Cameroonians will abide to them and this is likely to improve organisational performance (Oppong, 2013).

Decision-making is another aspect of authority that creates a gap between superiors and their subordinates in Cameroon. Decision-making most often rests with the managers as a manifestation of their authority; employees are not allowed to participate in the process. The high power distance index means Cameroonians accept individuals in society as being at different levels. The organisations are characterised by rigid bureaucratic structures and hierarchies bound by rules (Ogedengbe et al., 2012). The fact that power is not equally distributed result in the leaders resisting to involving subordinates in decision-making and lord over their followers. They believe that consultative or participative style may close the gap between them and their subordinates thereby undermining their ability to command respect and exercise their authority.

Women could also suffer discrimination as they are considered weak and less capable of making important organisational decisions, especially strategic ones. Conflict could therefore arise when there is a female boss to oversee the decision-making process, as this may draw resistance from the men (Johnson, 2005). Likewise, young male bosses could face resistance from older subordinates due to the value placed on the respect for the elderly. The society considers the elderly to be a repository of knowledge, meaning that they are wiser than those younger in age.

Management leadership style in Cameroon seems to be consistent with the high power distance score identified in this research. This produces a type of authoritarianism where the boss is viewed as having absolute power and cannot be openly contradicted. Certainly, consultation and participation is seen as weak. The data show an expected preference for consultative/paternalistic leadership style, not paralleled by the Cameroon's actual behaviour when working with his manager. It looks as if these employees are condemned by the cultural

inclination of their society, what they prefer is what they cannot get, because their culture will not permit that to happen. They accept the situation as it is but, are not happy with it.

### 7.3.2 Individualism versus Collectivism

The low individualism score reported in this research should not be a surprising result. The culture of Cameroon just like that of other sub-Saharan African countries, is predominantly collective. According to Ogedengbe et al. (2012) the collectivist nature of the culture can be attributed to the pervasive influence of ethnicity, religious affiliation and family which suppress individualism.

However, closer observation of the make-up of the score led the study to argue that perhaps two sets of values operate together in the culture, with respect to the organisation and the community. Cameroonians express mixed attitudes towards their company; workers are more likely to be committed to their employers if the companies are in the communities where they have a special attachment to the land. However, if employees are alienated from the company, they may consider it as just a means of survival. This attitude is contrary to their collectivism orientation (depicted by the low score for individualism), this is manifested in long-term commitment to the group that they belong (Oppong, 2013). Cameroonians see themselves as social beings whose needs are better satisfied as a group rather than as individuals.

The low score for the individualism dimension defines Cameroonians as collectivists whose self-image is defined as 'we' and not 'I' (Oppong, 2013). Individuals sacrifice their needs for the interest of the group they belong to. The intense sense of belonging to a group is an endearing value in Africa as a whole. Galiegue & Madjimbaye (2006) observed this and stated that "*an African entrepreneur is embedded in a strong culture, and is tied by close links with his community*" (p. 2). Still on the issue of collectivism in Africa Mbiti (1969, 1992) believes that the individual has little latitude for self determination outside the context of the traditional African family and community. He writes: "*Whatever happens to the individual happens to the whole group, and whatever happens to the whole group happens to the individual. The individual can only say: 'I am, because we are; and since we are, therefore I am'*" (1969 p. 109).

Traditionally, Cameroonians are interested in forming and belonging to a group inasmuch as it is in the interest of the group members. Almost every Cameroonian belongs to an association be it work or socially related. The collectivism orientation signifies working in order to live and group members will foster strong relationship to achieve this. The collectivism orientation may, however, influence disciplinary procedures where the employee may want to defend fellow member to ensure he remains in business and remains a member of the community. The employee may prefer to lie to protect the job of a fellow employee regarded as a community member (Oppong, 2013).

Generally speaking, while African values and behaviours differ in a number of ways from Western values, the African has been taught to adopt a quasi-Western behaviour pattern (Iguisi, 2014). For example, community oriented values (collectivism) are carried into the organisation only informally, with teamwork almost completely absent, individual employees fight for their personal benefits. This deprives the organisation of a strong source of motivation and commitment. The behaviour of an employee in his organisation seems, therefore, to be in a compromising state, he is neither demonstrating his own values nor fully identified with Western values (Oppong, 2013). There seems to be a difference in the way collectivism is practiced in the community and in organisations. It is so far evident that Cameroonians are collectivists, but whether collectivism is also practiced in the organisation is an issue to be analysed.

Individualistic values are for sure to be found in Cameroonian organisations. Most people work purely for financial reasons, as they have to cater for the needs of their family. Collectivist values on the other hand, appear to be very strong in the community than within the organisation. The emphasis on the job title or status serves to impress others outside the organisation (Iguisi 2009). Subordinates respond out of fear or sanction, in fact the powerful sanction is not necessarily present in the organisation, but is in the wider community (it could be in the organisation if the recruitment has been from the family or the community) (Takyi-Asiedu, 1993). There is a strong sense of collective pride or fame as recognition has gained more from outside the organisation than from within the organisation.

This phenomenon of disequilibrium between societal and organisational values was argued by Hofstede (2010). According to him, such imbalance leads to a shift towards greater individualism or pressure for a more collectivist social order. While it may be true that individualism is on the increase in the Cameroonian organisations it appears that it coexists



with more fundamental collectivist values in the society. This phenomenon is the opposite of what exists in some Western countries which are characterised by individualistic culture. In these countries, Individualism dominates in the society but, teamwork operates in organisations. While in Cameroon, collectivism dominates in the society and individualism in the work place.

### 7.3.3 Uncertainty Avoidance

The score for uncertainty avoidance for Cameroon can be linked to their behaviour towards community rules. Cameroonians may work for the community by rule in order to avoid failure. They believe failure comes from people's ability to take initiative and unprogrammed activities (Oppong, 2013). Cameroonians have high respect for their tradition and are resistant to change. Organisations may be imbued with a rigid code of behaviour and are intolerant to unorthodox ideas or behaviour, especially those that lead to the contradiction of the boss. This is believed to have contributed to the score for uncertainty avoidance in Cameroon which is said to hamper innovation and breeds demotivation.

Most managers and employees regard security as an important factor in their work. They believe that unchanging structures reinforces security. (Waal & Chipeta, 2013). Structures such as rigid bureaucracy and rule-bound hierarchy that was developed in the colonial era still exist in most organisations.

### 7.3.4 Masculinity versus Femininity

According to Hofstede (1980), the traditional African society is dominated by a feminist culture. There is greater emphasis on developing and maintaining warm personal relationship, caring for the weak and developing cooperative spirit (Ogedengbe et al., 2012). The relatively higher score on masculinity for Cameroon compared to Hofstede's (1991) score may indicate that the country is becoming more masculine, with increased emphasis placed on job values (achievements and competition) than on social relationships. Generally, Job security is an important trait for African employees (Ogedengbe et al., 2012). The relatively high

importance of security of employment to most employees should also be viewed from the perspective of a high unemployment level in Cameroon and the need to provide for one's family members.

The individualism score for Cameroon is lower than Hofstede's for the WAR. Although the country is high in masculinity, the study shows that most employees lack achievement motivation which is a masculine trait. They do not perceive task achievement as motivational. Leaders view their subordinates as dependent, not willing to learn and expect instructions to be repeated to them.

The above results should not be misleading. The quantitative data and findings on the cultural dimension scores for Cameroonians, seem very impressive, and are simply generalisations. As noted by Iguisi (2009) results like these may run the risk of being criticised as simply oversimplification of a more complex and dynamic issue of culture.

### 7.4 Summary

Succinctly, the empirical findings on Hofstede's dimensions of culture in Cameroonian sample have been presented and discussed. The similarities and differences between Hofstede's (1991) scores for the West African region and Cameroon have been discussed. The study has also presented and discussed the different leadership styles present in organisations in Cameroon, and has identified the perceived, the preferred and the rejected leadership styles for the Cameroonian sample.

The findings of this research confirm the robustness of the models of Hofstede, Likert, Maslow, Vroom and Herzberg for the Cameroonian sample. The scores for the dimensions of culture in Cameroon generally concurred with those of Hofstede's (1991) WAR scores, however, there are some slight differences in the scores for some of the dimensions. The managers interviewed expressed the view that the culture of their organisations is strongly influenced by Western practices, especially as most companies in the country are relatively new and privately owned.

Empirical evidence from many studies assume that the outcome of the influence of cultural variation on employee motivation in the Western world, which is the possibility of the spread of achievement orientation may not be so widely distributed among the populations of the other parts of the world, where socio-cultural and economic conditions are blatantly different and characteristically (extrinsic) traditional. Wright et al. (2008) raised an argument about the realities of motivation in the context of workplaces. They said that motivation is more complicated than originally thought, and that although ideas about collectivism and individualism certainly explain some important aspects of workplace behaviour, an orientation to practicality and the emotive side of life in many workplaces also affects behaviour in quite subtle ways. They went further to suggest that it is important for organisation leaders to have in mind the complexities of national culture and its inexplicable influence on each individual's motivation. The influence of culture on individual employee motivation is said to be puzzling because the survey results indicate that different employees were affected in different ways by the way things are done in their company. But, nevertheless, high percentage of the respondents were affected in the same way.

The work environment in Cameroon is changing as is confirmed by the literature in Chapter Four, these changes occur in ways that have an effect on the meaning, consequences, and development of employee motivation. The Western world emphasise greatly on the importance of high levels of employee motivation, they are perceived as paramount issues on political, social, and economic platforms in many countries around the world (Tsiganou 1991). As a result, there has been greater interest in managing production in less bureaucratic ways and in making work life more meaningful and satisfying by allowing workers to participate in the decision-making process.

On leadership, it should be noted that employees polarised on paternalistic style as their prefer leadership styles (Table 25 in Chapter Six). The preference of all the styles as indicated in the data means that different styles are expected to be employed in varying situations in the organisations. This means that in a single organisation, one can find paternalistic, consultative, democratic and autocratic styles. This calls for flexibility on the part of managers. For example the dominant leadership style can be paternalistic, but when leading professionals and human resources, a democratic style could be employed. Or when processes have to be done strictly by the rules, then an autocratic style is needed.

The motivational factors that are considered to highly motivate Cameroonian employees in their work environments were also identified in this chapter. Surprisingly, the data indicate that employees in Cameroon are motivated by extrinsic factors more than intrinsic factors. The relationship between them and their boss and cooperation among them is of paramount importance.

On commitment and involvement factors, the data indicate that Cameroonians are committed to their organisation, even though they are not involved in the decision-making.

There is a paucity of studies on the impact of cultural values on employee motivation in the sub-Saharan African countries, numerous researches have been done on this subject in the developed countries for many years now. The majority of these studies confirmed the assertion by earlier researchers that there is a relationship between cultural values and employee motivation and leadership style (Kunnanatt, 2008).

The results of the quantitative data show that five out of the seven hypotheses have been supported. The correlation strengths are of weak intensity. The weakness in the correlation strengths might probably be attributed to the inference of 'noise' factors; that is, factors that interrupted the chain of causation between the hypotheses about cultural values, leadership style and employee motivation.

The 'noise' may be due to significant variables excluded from the initial testing of the model, such as age, ethnicity, position in the company, length of service, level of education, gender and so on.

'Noise' may simply be as a result of the sample size. The researcher investigated the factors listed above, by investigating the descriptive statistics outlined in Chapter Five above. Of course, these factors within the sample constituted small subsets of the entire sample.

Examination through re-examining the descriptive statistics in Chapter Five demonstrated very little of further enlightenment. So at this juncture the point made is that the rather weak confirmation of the five hypotheses could not be strengthened by a deeper investigation of the descriptive statistics. Neither did further tests of the model, that is, the quantitative model revealed much of interest with respect to Cameroon. From the point of view of the empirical methodology, the results were significant (Chapter Seven).

The researcher pursued the matter further, by taking a qualitative turn. The qualitative model was aimed at getting the perception of respondents on the influence of the 'noise' factors on the motivation. This was investigated by analysing the factors considered by organisation leaders during recruitment and promotion.

The reasons why the researcher added qualitative analysis to quantitative analysis are;

1. The research was concerned with perceptions, and perceptions have a qualitative dimension. Philosophers of mind speak of qualia (Pipaneau, 2002; Block, 2002)
2. The notion of culture itself is measurable quantitatively, but it also has a qualitative element that is measurable in a different way- by listening to what people say and the emotional content of what they say.
3. Given the problems of researching in Cameroon, often qualitative evidence, via personal interview is more reliable than quantitative evidence.

The next chapter discusses the impact of the 'noise' factors on employee motivation. Precisely, the employees express their emotions on the perceived influence of these factors on management decisions on recruitment and promotion.

## Chapter Eight

### Analysis and Interpretation of Qualitative Results

#### 8.1 Introduction

This chapter presents the data generated from the qualitative interviews. The respondents will give their opinions on the style of their leaders and the effects this style have on their motivation and performance; the impact of motivation on their level of involvement and commitment. The participants will also tell their stories about the modern and traditional criteria they perceive management apply when recruiting and promoting employees.

First of all, the perception of some of the managers and employees of the type and nature of leadership they perceive is present in their organisation was also considered. Both categories of respondents vehemently expressed their feelings as can be seen below.

#### 8.2 Perceptions on Leadership Style

Employees and managers of the organisations studied were interviewed on the nature and type of leadership practices common in their workplaces and the impact these have on their attitudes toward work. Their opinions are expressed below with minimum interpretation to allow the subjects speak for themselves.

Employee 1,

**"My boss is a dictator; I get tensed each time he is around. He shouts without any control and this makes me not to do my work well".**

Employee 2,

**"For the reason that I can't contradict my boss, I accept at times to do things that I know are not correct just because I want to keep my job. This wears me out, I can't leave because jobs are hard to find now-a-days".**

Employee 3,

**"My boss claims he is always correct. He screamed at us when under pressure from a client. He sometimes bullies employees".**

Employee 4,

**"My boss does not involve me in decision-making; this makes me feel useless and dictated upon. It hinders innovation".**

Employee 5,

**"When people are always told what to do, they at a certain point become insipid. This kind of feeling is counter-productive; the next thing is that they may not want to continue working for the company".**

The managers were given a list of leadership styles to choose from, the question asked them to pick from among the styles, the one they perceived to closely resemble that present in their organisation. Below are the responses they gave:

Manager 1

**"It is evident that the leadership style in this organisation is paternalistic, the manager acts as a father figure and shows complete concern for his workers. Employees are encouraged in this organisation not to conceal their problems; they have been assured that the management will not resent their effort in helping them with their personal problems".**

Manager 2

**"Leadership style in this organisation is autocratic, the boss makes almost all the decisions and just communicates them to the employees and there is no room for objection from the employees. They are expected to obey all instructions given to them by the management".**

Manager 3

**"It is purely autocratic. The employees of this organisation are just like a wheelbarrow, they lack the initiative to do anything; always waiting to be told what to do".**

In summary, the main issue the employees were more concerned with was the fact that they are no part of the decision-making process. The managers on their part felt that an autocratic leadership style is necessary for managing employees in their organisations. Some of the employees perceived that the leadership style of their boss is autocratic, while others thought that it is paternalistic. The employees claimed that their boss dictates upon them, they were not involved in decision-making. The general feeling expressed by most of the employees is that they are not comfortable with the leadership style existing in their workplaces as such they deplore it.

### **8.3 Perceptions on the Influence of Cultural values on Employee Motivation**

This section of the study shows how some managers expressed their feelings on the impact that culture on their motivation. Some of them also believed that these practices influence performance, their opinion on this influence is also presented here.

The managers were asked if cultural values can affect employee attitude toward their job. Their responses are:

**"Culture positively affects employee feelings of motivation, but this depends on the style of the leaders which in turn affects their level of commitment and involvement".**

Manager 2:

**"The way we do things in this organisation have a tremendous impact on the attitude of employees toward their job. If you want employees to perform better; empower them. Let them feel they are in control and they will multiply their efforts".**

When these managers were asked about the extent of the relationship between cultural values and motivation, the response was:



**"The relationship is not good, the majority of the employees is not motivated to work in this organisation and are always looking for opportunities elsewhere. Most of them are just here to raise money to travel abroad. The leaders need to derive strategies that will enable employees to be committed to their organisation".**

Manager 3:

**"It is good in some parts of the company, but not in others".**

Manager 4:

**"The relationship is just theoretical in an actual situation, this relationship does not exist".**

Finally, the managers were asked if they think cultural values and employee motivation affect organisational performance. A manager answered:

**"Organisational performance is dependent on cultural values, employee motivation and if these factors are improved, performance level will increase".**

Still in line with the link that exists between motivation and performance, some managers expressed their views as to the kind of relationship that exists between them. One manager stated:

**"There is a connection between the motivation, involvement and commitment. I also think that these factors affect our performance in this organisation".**

Manager 4:

**"There is little or no motivation for employees in this organisation other than pay; however, it does not stop them from feeling committed to their organisation. Their performance is not bad as well".**

When managers were asked to comment on the effects cultural values have on employee commitment and involvement, most of them felt the level of involvement and commitment was average and that there was a need for them to be increased. The majority of the employees felt that they were left out in decision-making. Some said that though they were not involved in decision-making; they were still committed to the company.

In sum, the majority of the managers expressed the view that there is a relationship between culture and employee motivation. In addition to that some of them further argued that motivation also affects the employees' level of involvement and commitment to their organisation. The managers argued that employee performance was dependent on their level of motivation.

### **8.4 Influence of Recruitment and Promotion Practices on Employee Motivation**

This section discusses the perceptions of respondents based on in-depth interviews of 4 managers and 6 employees on how cultural values influence employee motivation directly and indirectly via leadership style. The study used two scenarios: recruitment and promotion processes to demonstrate how the three constructs of this study are related. Recruitment and promotion are two important areas where leadership skills are expressed. Organisation leaders in Cameroon are faced with the dilemma of choosing between two opposing set of values when recruiting and promoting employees. This section, therefore, inquires the perceptions of both employees and managers on the impact the consideration of traditional African and Western value factors during recruitment and promotion of employees have on their motivation. The factors investigated were; ethnicity, friendship, family orientation, social relationship, indigenous language, work experience and educational experience.

The questionnaire contained a question which asked respondents to select from among age, educational experience, work experience, seniority of service and others as the factors that influence management decisions on recruitment and promotion. The majority of the respondents polarised on the 'others' as the most influencing factor. This section therefore presents an elaborate narration of what the 'others' factor is as well as the opinions of the employees and managers vis-à-vis the influence of these factors on recruitment and promotion decisions and their impact on employee attitudes toward work. These factors are classified into two groups, the Western factors which are; educational experience and work experience and the traditional factors which are; ethnicity, friendship, family, social relation and indigenous language.

The managers and employees defined Western factors as those intrinsic to their work and traditional factors as those extrinsic to their work. These factors were classified based on the coding keys below that were devised to scale the factors:

T.I. = Treated Important

N.T.I. = Not Treated Important

T.I.N. = Treated Important Necessary

T.I.N.N. = Treated Important Not Necessary

**Table 51: Importance of factors of Recruitment and Promotion by managers and employees**

<b>Factors of recruitment and promotion</b>	<b>Managers</b>	<b>Employees</b>
Educational experience	T.I.N.N.	T.I.
Work experience	T.I.	T.I.N.
Family	T.I.N.	N.T.I.
Ethnicity	T.I.N.	N.T.I.
Social relation	T.I.N.	N.T.I.
Indigenous language	T.I.N.	N.T.I.
Friendship	T.I.N.	N.T.I.

Table 51 summarises the perceptions of the managers and employees on the importance and necessity of the various factors of promotion and recruitment that the management of their organisations considers.

#### 8.4.1 Recruitment

The opinions of the employees and managers on each of the factors perceived to influence recruitment were rated on both quantitative and qualitative basis. The intrinsic (Western) and extrinsic (traditional) factors perceived by both managers and employees as influencing employee motivation indirectly through recruitment and promotion. These factors are ethnicity, friendship, family orientation, indigenous language, work experience, educational experience and social relations; as presented in Table 52. The table classifies the factors based on what the respondents perceived management base their recruitment decisions on and

the factors they think ought to be applied. The factors are ranked in order of importance to the employees and the managers.

Social relation is the factor perceived by many as having greater influence of recruitment. Table 52 shows that employees ranked family and social relation as the first and second respectively. These two factors are traditional extrinsic factors, which are external to work. The employees ranked work experience first on the list of factors that ought to be considered by management during recruitment and educational experience as the second factor. These two factors are intrinsic factors and important to work. Employees generally, perceived extrinsic factors to influence employee recruitment more than intrinsic factors.

**Table 52: Perceived and desired factors of recruitment**

<b>Recruitment factors in order of importance as perceived to be used by management; perception of the majority.</b>	<b>Recruitment factors in order of importance as desired to be applied; perception of the majority.</b>
<b>Employees</b>	
Tribe of origin/Ethnicity	Work experience
Family	Educational experience
Social relations	Family
Friendship	Social relations
Work experience	Friendship
Indigenous language	Indigenous language
Educational experience	Tribe of origin/Ethnicity
<b>Managers</b>	
Family	Family
Social Relations	Work experience
Tribe of origin/Ethnicity	Formal education
Work experience	Social Relations
Friendship	Indigenous language
Indigenous language	Friendship
Formal education	Tribe of origin/Ethnicity

The managers on the other hand perceived things differently. Looking at Table 52, it shows that apart from social a relation which is extrinsic factor, all the other intrinsic factors ranked higher than extrinsic factors for recruitment. The majority of the managers defended their course; they were of the view that management considers intrinsic factors (work experience and educational experience) when recruiting employees more than extrinsic factors.

Summarising the results in Table 52, there is indication that managers and employees have divergent opinions on the factors they perceive to influence employee recruitment. Managers

perceived that recruitment is influenced by intrinsic factors, while most employees perceived that the process is influenced by extrinsic factors. Extrinsic factors ranked higher than intrinsic factors in the overall population. The next section of the study will present the data on the factors respondents' perceived as influencing promotion.

### 8.4.1.1 Tribe of Origin/Ethnicity

Ethnicity was perceived by a majority of the managers and employees as a critical factor that had pervasive influence on recruitment and promotion in Cameroonian society. They argued that these factors are so central in African belief systems that most Cameroonian attitudes and behaviours are affected by the ethnicity of the employee. Ethnicity affects their motivation and attitudes toward work in their organisations and in the wider society. The following paragraphs contain some of the quotes on perceptions of employees and managers on the role ethnicity plays on recruitment.

Employee 1

**"Ethnicity is the order of the day on an employee motivation to work in most organisations. It governs many aspects of our lives and is very central to us in this country. Ethnicity pervades our thinking and almost, every action we take."**

Employee 2

**"The issue of ethnicity is very critical in this country and need to be addressed; those from the minority and uninfluential tribal background have no voice in this country. This is so discouraging for job seekers".**

Specifically on recruitment, most of the employees argued that management always gives preference to people of their own tribal descent. They stated that, in many instances, these employees do not meet the job requirements, and are not competent in their work. They are unproductive, not professionally qualified, yet they easily find their way into the organisations, get all the jobs they want and occupy the most important positions. Some of the employees summarised the whole process this way:

Employee 3

**"Whenever young people are recruited into organisations, and inquiry is made on who they are, the common answer is that they are from one of the manager's tribe or that they are related to them. The annoying thing is that these people know nothing or very little about the job they are employed to do. Most of them loiter at their job. A good number of them do not have the experience required of the job. Their educational achievement is not the best. It is really sad to see this happening".**

Employee 4

**"It is unconventional management allows ethnicity to thrive in most organisations. Ethnicity was supposed to be a factor common to the society and external to the work setting, but it is now one of the very strong influencing factors in the way employees are recruited. It is sad and unorthodox for organisation leaders to base their recruitment decisions on ethnicity. It is demoralising, as it creates uncertainty in the minds of employees".**

When these employees were asked to further explain how recruitment base on ethnicity creates uncertainties in the employee's mind, they explained as follows:

Employee 3

**"One's position or worth in this organisation is not guaranteed. I am always in fear that I may be thrown out at any moment the 'right' person comes – the man who is a native. This is a very unfortunate situation. It really affects my whole life in this organisation".**

Employee 4

**"This organisation is dominated by employees of the same tribe, at times they even speak in their dialect at work. If one tries to dig further into the issue, the most reliable answer will be that they belong to the same tribe as the manager. It is bad, but this is the way it is played out here, either you accept it as it is or you sort yourself out elsewhere".**

The consideration of ethnicity in employee recruitment was perceived by the employees as not leading to effectiveness in work and organisational management. Rather, it creates

feelings of hostility and contention between employees and produces people, who in the midst of uncertainty and insecurity, resort to doing the best they could for themselves to get out of the situation. In line with this point, some of the managers stated:

Manager 1

**"The focus on the ethnicity during recruitment is not an effective value in an organisation; yet it has a strong dominant influence on organisational practices. If organisational effectiveness should result from it, then our organisations would have been highly productive. The outcome is not good as the non-native employees feel insecure and uncertain about their job and to cope with the situation, they have to resort to other means. The consequence of these nonchalant practices of organisational leaders cannot be over emphasised".**

Manager 2

**"Ethnicity has pervaded our organisation; it is now part of our business. It is really sad that management has decided to turn their back or close their eyes to the adverse consequences it has on employee relations. Employees feel insecure and threatened. Moreover, it puts employees at loggerhead with each other, by bringing those who belong to the majority tribal group in conflict with the minorities. It is inappropriate that management is still recruiting employees based on ethnicity".**

Manager 3

**"Ethnicity has a dominant influence on recruitment in this organisation; it is just too much here. It does not only influence recruitment and promotion, even when demoting or firing employees, ethnicity is at the forefront of the requirements. Employees generally feel bad about it, but are scared to voice out their feelings for fear of being fired. As a result, many of them are not sure of their stay in the organisation. The common tendency is for the employees to figure out the next step they will take. They turn to other means to make sure they have enough to live on in case they are fired before getting a new job".**

The responses of the employees and their managers as reported above show that there is a connection between ethnicity and recruitment and employee's attitudes towards their work.

Some managers and employees feel threatened and insecure because of the perceived influence of ethnicity, as such; they begin to give a different meaning to the prevailing situation to meet their own expectations. This means that some of them may resort to corrupt practices in order to make more money. It is seen here that the malpractices of the organisational leaders lead to unethical conduct on the part of the employees.

The manager and employees define ethnicity as a factor extrinsic to work and the work setting. They also link it to the traditional African cultural beliefs and values and an extrinsic traditional factor. Some of the employees while discussing their feelings about the effect of ethnicity on worker recruitment, motivation and general attitudes toward work and expressing great bitterness over its perceived influence, said:

Employee 2

**"Ethnicity is a factor management strongly focused on during recruitment; it greatly determined our future in this organisation. It is not part of formal management recruitment factors. It is something external to work, yet very powerful in our work setting. It is embedded in our culture. It is part of our tradition. It has pervaded our organisations".**

Employee 3

**"It seems to me that ethnicity cannot be separated in this organisation from our day to day lives. We Africans have the desire to have our relatives around us, we always want to feel at home, and with people we can rely on and confide in. Ethnicity is in our genes. We Africans carry this trait to where ever we go to. No one is really free from the traits, I suppose if just a few of us will not succumb to the influence of ethnicity if we have the chance to. Tribalism is tied to our tradition. It is very easy for some of us to judge those who are practicing it, but, if we are put in their positions we will act in the same way".**

Employee 4

**"Ethnicity influences the recruitment and the sharing of incentives of both managers and employees in this organisation. Employees in this organisation who do not come from the same tribe as the management feel they do not belong to the organisation. We feel bad about this happening here. The general feeling among many managers and**



employees around here is that no one is sure of their job security. Living with such feeling is counterproductive and affect both the work and the workers. Ethnicity is considered as an African value, ethnicity in the way recruitment is effected in this organisation is unjustified and should not be viewed as a value. Rather than contributing to effectiveness in our work, it estranges the employees from work. The feeling of insecurity resulting from not belonging leads to hatred and disappointment among the employees. To sum it all, ethnicity creates a very uncomfortable working environment and situation for all of us and inspires dread in us".

The managers gave their own responses as follows:

Manager 1

**"The management considers ethnicity during recruitment and places great emphasis on it. Even though we may understand that it is a consequence of the African culture that this happens, it is still difficult to accept it as a norm. Managers want to and feel the urge to surround themselves with people from their tribe. They felt insecure in their work and they believe that employing people from their tribe will give them security. Things should not be like that, managers should be sure of themselves, ethnicity should not come into employee recruitment at all it is just not necessary. Employees are uncomfortable at work because they feel insecure"**.

Manager 2

**"Tribalism is powerful in this country. It is a part of our tradition. Its influence in our work cannot be over emphasised in this organisation and in the country"**.

On the whole, ethnicity was perceived by most employees as influencing recruitment in the organisation. It was perceived by most managers and employees as influencing recruitment in their organisations and was described as a traditional (extrinsic) factor to managerial practice. The employees argued that ethnicity does not motivate; rather, that it demotivates and breeds resentment, envy, jealousy and disenchantment among them. These employees said ethnicity alienates them from their work and organisation.

In sum, the perceived influence of ethnicity on employee recruitment was acknowledged by the majority of the employees. Only a small fraction of the population did not view ethnicity

as having any influence. A majority of the employees who thought ethnicity influenced their recruitment did not view it as necessary. Furthermore, the data showed that both managers and employees view ethnicity as influencing recruitment. It can be discerned from the comments of both the managers and employees that ethnicity has negative influence on their attitude toward work. Insecurity and uncertainty were the two common terms that kept re-occurring in most of their comments.

### 8.4.1.2 Friendship

Another factor about which the study asked questions was friendship. Friendship in this context is defined as a friendly relationship among employees of all levels. The most influential of which is friendship among managers. The study was curious to find out about how friendship was perceived to influence employee recruitment. The employees' responses indicate that the most influential friendship in this case is the friendship among the senior managers. These are the ones who recruit employees and make all the important management decisions. The senior managers are the ones responsible for recruitment and not those who partook of the interview. The employees asserted that managers form themselves into small friendship groups, with the objective to facilitate the channelling of their interest to the senior management.

The data gathered from the study show that friendship between managers influence employee recruitment. The data also show that a high percentage of these employees did not view its influence as an asset to the organisation and condemned this friendship among the managers and its influence on recruitment. According to them, this friendship does not have any positive contribution to the organisation. They expressed the view that its persistence and ultimate effect on employee recruitment does not favour employees' well-being in the work setting. That is, the friendship between managers and its effects on employee recruitment prohibit healthy relationships among the employees. In expressing their views, some of the employees stated:

Employee 1

**"Managers, most of the time, go into a consensus with each other to choose a candidate for a position. The influence of friendship among managers in choosing a candidate for recruitment is not conducive for us in this organisation. Those recruited most of the time are not the qualified ones. This does not motivate most employees. Rather than working, you find employees struggling to build up or begging for the friendship of managers. You either do this to get on at work or you just decide not to fawn to anybody and just settle down and make money and leave the job. I don't think this should be the best way to motivate employees in this organisation".**

Employee 2

**"Managers in this organisation operate in cliques and these groupings are sometimes effective in getting their respective views across to the senior management. They also use it for the wrong reason, to slander their colleagues before senior management".**

Friendship results from the interaction among managers at work in the work environment. The employees view it as non-organisational value, and it is not part of the Western management practice. In this case, friendship could be defined as a traditional factor, but intrinsic to work as some managers argued:

Manager 1

**"Friendship between us is a way we collectively tackle our problems. Our friendship groupings have resulted from our motivation to cope with the issues of today's work environment. It is often the case in present day modern organisations".**

Manager 2

**"The relationship between the managers is just casual not a formal one. It is a mode of getting across their views to senior management, although in small numbers. It acts as a very strong motivating force to the managers and employees under our supervision".**

Many employees argued that the friendship networks among the managers play some part in employee recruitment. They stated that the managers, most of the time, influence senior management to recruit a person of their choice through these friendship groups. The employees further argued that because some managers are usually of the senior management ethnic groups, ethnicity may connect managerial ranks together. It is through these

connections and networks that the rest of the managers push their issues across to the senior management. The employees went further to say that, in most cases, the nominated candidate the managers chose to channel to the senior management for recruitment is not even qualified for the job and this is to the detriment of the qualified candidate. In expressing his views on the influence of friendship, a manager stated:

Manager 1

**"We have always negotiated and we do negotiate on issues in our friendship cliques. In the groups we often back-up the benaming of a candidate of our choice for recruitment. The truth is that at times the nomination process is not fair, it is not done with justice".**

When further questioned the manager added that:

**"The truth is that, most of us are self-centred. We often solicit fellow group members to back us up for even questionable nominations. Some of us do it simply because we do not want to hurt our colleagues also so that we can receive favour from them as well. I fully know this is wrong, but everyone does it so that is why I am involved too".**

Most of the employees saw friendship among the managers as ruinous.

They maintained that the managers use friendship to promote the recruitment of candidates who are usually not qualified. These employees perceive friendship among the managers as having a negative impact and denounce its influence as being harmful. They stated that the nomination of an unqualified candidate to the detriment of a qualified candidate creates contention, imprecision and uncertainties in their organisations. Based on this issue, some of the employees said:

Employee 1

**"The existence of friendship groups among managers has brought a lot of uncertainties in this organisation. We have doubts about the quality of employees they recruit. The managers, in their small cliques, have succeeded on some instances to convince the senior management to employ questionable candidates. Most of us in this organisation are aware of this and you can imagine the impact it can have on us, the frustration it brings, the reluctance we can have in performing our jobs. This is just one among the**

**other irregularities we experience in this organisation, it demoralises us and prevents us from getting involved in our work".**

Employee 2

**"Employees are not ignorant of what is happening in their workplace. The scheming that occurs among the managers in their little coteries is obvious to many of us. We abhor it, but cannot say anything about it. It is disappointing to see people with less experience and qualification being recommended and finally recruited not just as an employee of the same level like you, but as your leader; just because they were recommended by the managers. I cannot see anybody who can pretend to feel normal working under such conditions. Consideration of this factor creates a lot of uncertainties and contentions in this workplace".**

The majority of the employees thought that friendship among the managers influence management's decisions on the recruitment of employees. These employees also expressed the view that friendship affects their general attitudes towards work in a negative way.

Friendship was said to influence employee recruitment decisions, but the impact is not as strong as that from ethnicity. Also, many of those employees who thought that friendship influence recruitment thought its importance as unnecessary. They argued that friendship devalues their work and create the feelings of animosity, uncertainty and insecurity among the employees, which affect their attitudes towards work. Finally, friendship was viewed as an extrinsic factor and that it perceived influence is not important.

#### **8.4.1.3 Work Experience**

The next factor that was looked at was work experience. The data show that a very high percentage of the managers perceived that work experience influence recruitment of employees into the organisations and considered it as a motivating factor. But a majority of the employees perceives that the management place less importance on work experience than they ought to do. Some of the managers stated as follows:

Manager 1

**"Some of us managers give great consideration to work experience more than many other factors in the recruitment of employees. Management emphasise on work experience as an important recruitment criterion".**

Manager 2

**"The emphasis on work experience is a conventional recruitment practice. In the modern world, training on the job has greater value than level of education. We prefer this type of recruitment in this organisation because it will be less strenuous for us to train the newly recruited employee".**

The managers linked the management emphasis on work experience to the country's general low level of education. The employees on the other hand, strongly believe that work experience is an important factor that the management should consider during the recruitment of employees. The data indicate that most of the employees reasoned in that light. They also expressed the same view as the managers on the perceived influence of work experience. These employees made the following comments:

**"Work experience is an important factor in employee recruitment, not only in our organisation but in most businesses in this country. It is very important because most people in this country are not educated. Most of us got our training on the job. The consideration of this factor by the management is excellent. It is advantageous to us when employees of this category are recruited because the inexperienced ones learn from the experienced ones".**

Employee 2:

**"My educational level is not that high, the experience I have gained from this job is my only diploma so to speak and that is the reason why I am here today. I do not have much of formal education, but I am better off in terms of productivity than some of the so-called professionals in this organisation, this is not bragging of course. The fact that the management lays greater emphasis on men with experience in our recruitment is commendable. The management knows our capabilities and abilities and that's why".**

Employee 3:

**"Cameroonians believe in doing business with experienced ones. This is why experienced employees are mostly valued in this business. Not only are they productive in the sense that they generate business for the company, but that other employees also learned from them. As you know, experience is the best teacher. Our experienced employees help to train and develop the inexperienced ones and this is good for the employees and the work itself. I personally feel good about the consideration given to work experience in recruiting new ones into this organisation".**

Many of the employees stated categorically that they prefer working with experienced employees than with the professionally qualified managers. These experienced one they said, are those who have spent a considerable number of years in their work usually over ten years. A common reason almost all of them had concerning this particular category of employees is that they teach them practical things on the job, rather than the 'pen and paper' or the office teaching as the professionals usually do. They felt very delighted in the high consideration given to work experience in employee recruitment, describing it, not only as important, but as necessary.

Building on these ideas, the employees stated that:

**"Employees with experience are needed mostly in companies that require skilled workers such as the manufacturing industry. Most managers are aware of this fact and are endeavouring to put it into practice. They are conscious of the fact that, an average Cameroonian has great respect for experienced employees. They rely very much on people that have been on the same type of work for a long time. I like working with them in our business because I gain a lot of knowledge from them".**

Employee 3:

**"Work experience is an important factor considered by management in recruiting employees in this organisation. An experienced manager is highly productive; he acts as a good motivator to others through the degree of experience he brings into the work. He knows all the tactics and strategies involved in motivating and raising the morals of his subordinates. An experienced leader is an effective and productive boss".**

Employee 4:

**"My manager knows what is involved and what it takes to do a good and effective job. Based on his academic level and work experience on the job, he uses his qualities to inspire his subordinates and encourage them to put in more into their work. In fact, he motivates them by his experience and boosts their work morale. Management considers work experience in recruiting employees in this organisation. It is a good thing for management and the employees themselves".**

These managers and employees saw some relationships between the influence of work experience in recruitment and their general attitudes toward work. For example, the employees expressed satisfaction at management consideration of the factor, arguing that employees generally learn more about their work from the experienced managers and other employees than they learn from theories and books. The employees described the experienced managers or employees as highly educated and competent people with lots of knowledge to impart to the young and inexperienced though academically qualified employees. This experienced group of workers was defined as being tolerant, patient, friendly, and respectable and as reputable people with good public relation skills. The employee's reckoned that management's consideration and emphasis on work experience together with educational experience during recruitment in the organisation was not only important and necessary but also should be highly recommended. On these issues, a manager said:

**"Having the knowledge that management considers our work experience before our recruitment is a great source of motivation. This is the only judgmental criteria in our promotion to higher level jobs, but when I remember that this particular factor comes into play, I am a bit motivated and go about my job with confidence knowing and hoping that someday, better things will happen. But, I think it should not be over emphasised more than an educational experience".**

The data show that managers and employees perceived that work experience should influence employee recruitment and that it affects their sense of motivation and their attitudes toward leadership. Again, these employees stated:

**"It is pride and motivating for employees to work together with their experienced bosses, this has been the case in this organisation. These experienced bosses not only teach you the practical values of your profession and responsibilities right on the job,**



**but they also teach you techniques for your effective performance. Most importantly, they uplift your demotivated spirit and increase your level of motivation and morale in your work. They always encourage you to forget about the problems and keep on trying your best because some day, something will be put right. I feel very proud and motivated that work experience has been given high priority in recruitment in this organisation".**

Employee 2:

**"If I enjoy my work and feel motivated and satisfied, it is because of my boss, who has always advised me not to feel discouraged and to be persistent. He not only advises his subordinates, but also takes us on to teach us what good management entails. My boss is good, effective, responsible and always very close to us. I am happy and feel motivated that management realises the value and importance of these academically qualified and professionally experienced men in this organisation and encourage them through recruitment. This factor is not enough in motivating us, good incentives, housing packages and others should go along as well".**

As stated in the preceding paragraphs, work experience has been identified in this study as an intrinsic managerial and work-related factor. The employees also identified work experience as a cultural factor that influence leadership. They said that it is a Western managerial leadership requirement that has been adopted and internalised by Africans. The employees' view work experience as an important requirement for recruitment and should be given priority by leaders during the process. An employee stated:

**"Recruitment of employees based on work experience is a Western value that has been adopted by Africans. It is now very important in our organisation and also remained one of the sources of motivation in our society".**

The employees identified this factor, work experience, as having influence on employee recruitment, the viewed it as a stipulated organisational requirement. It was viewed as a factor, intrinsic to work and also as traditional.

Summarily, work experience was viewed by the managers and employees as a crucial factor in recruitment and effective to their attitudes towards motivation and leadership in their organisations. Its perceived influence was also seen by most of the employees as necessary.

The reasons given by most employees for viewing it as necessary for consideration are centred on the perceived competence and effectiveness of the experienced employees in the organisation. More important is the fact that the employees lacking experience, learn more about work from the experienced employees. Furthermore, the experienced employees act as a morale booster and motivator to the employees generally when the employees are depressed and demotivated about their work.

### 8.4.1.4 Educational Experience

The study also questioned the influence of formal educational qualification on recruitment and promotion. The data on the factors presented in Table 52 indicates that level of education was not generally perceived by respondents as influencing employee recruitment as much as work experience, ethnicity, or friendship in the organisations. Moreover, many of the employees who thought it is important expressed the view that the management placed more emphasis on basic education and or on some measure of professional qualification and training rather than on higher education or professional qualification. When questioned on the qualification expectations, an employee stated that:

**"I think the policy of this organisation stipulates that managers should have at least a degree in their respective profession or associated profession while employees should have a degree or diploma. These requirements are not met by many. Instead, many of the managers have diplomas required of employees. While some do not even have any of the diplomas at all and only possess a General Certificate of Education (GCE) ordinary level required of ordinary employees".**

There were two groups of managers in the sampled population: the high professional and the low professional managers. While the two categories viewed the level of education as influencing employee recruitment, they had different opinions on the level of education which they thought should be emphasised. The highly educated managers were of the opinion that management should maintain the requirement written down in the policy on education for the employees. They felt that the apparent shift has demeaned their profession and discouraged achievement motivation among potential candidates. Employees believe high

professionalism in their work “prepares a manager both theoretically and practically”. Based on this point, some of the manager employees stated:

**"It is really melancholic to work with people who, academically and professionally, have in place. Communicating with them is very boring. They work here simply because they want to make money, but that should not be the case. All they talk about is money, but that is not all our business warrants. I think for someone to be called a manager, they should be aware of the hard facts about their profession. What we see happening here does not foretell well about the long-term development and success of organisations in this country. Management should be called upon to do well to redefine their priorities and emphasis".**

Manager 3:

**"High professionalism in our work gives one the opportunity to have a sound thinking, that is, you apply the broad workable theories acquired in school to work. This is one of the ways we can develop and sustain our industry credibility in this country. Doing our work well involves implementation of tactics and strategies. It involves much more than simply making money for either the industry or for your pocket. This idea of working simply to make money, which is predominant in our business, does not only demean our business, but it is also very destructive to the productivity of the employees as well. These young men and women, who have been recruited without any professional knowledge about what our work entails, will evidently suffer in the long run. It will be hard for them to appreciate the value of their work, which is the reason why we are working".**

But the lowly educated managers who out-numbered the highly educated managers highlighted a different view on formal education. They support the idea that management should consider some measure of basic formal education before recruiting all classes of employees. The reason for this stance is that higher education does not breed business and so promoting high professionalism would make the industry ineffective and unproductive. This group of employees believes that productive employees are not the so-called high professionals. A manager in this group expressed his view as such:

**"There is no need to fill this company with people having academic degrees and diplomas. These people lack practical knowledge, they are good at documenting:**

**writing long grammar, drawing programs and plans and techniques for what they call effective production and marketing, all these are just on paper, testing each other's professional knowhow on paper too but doing nothing in terms of financial contribution which is what this industry needs for survival. All we need in this company is some level of basic education and practical work experience anything else is wastage of resources".**

Employee 4:

**"Employee recruitment necessitates some type and level of education. The company's policy stipulates specific requirements for specific classes of employees, but management does not abide by them. The management, however, still does well despite the fact that they do not fully comply with the set policy on the formal education as a requirement for recruitment. If the management could stick to this irrespective of ethnicity, friendship, and other issues not relevant to work, we will be okay in this work place".**

The employees described education as Western practice and an important requirement for recruitments in the work settings. It is not actually a factor that motivates people in the work place. Education is therefore viewed as an organisational factor, intrinsic to management and the work setting. Elaborating on this point, a manager stated that:

**"Formal education is a very important part of management and organisational policy. It is a must or a stipulation and goes hand in glove with work, as we know it today. It is the requirement that is stipulated in text books as necessary for employee recruitment and promotion; hence, it is imperative for the management to stick to it with the assumption that it motivates employees".**

Summarily, most employees did not perceive educational experience as influencing employee recruitment and promotion. In other words, comparing the importance of educational level vis-à-vis ethnicity, friendship and work experience to employee recruitment, the responses from the participants indicate that the former has less influence than the latter group of factors.

Succinctly, the manager generally perceived education as having less impact on the level of motivation than ethnicity, friendship and work experience. The employees on the other hand perceived education as important, but has less impact on their motivation than the traditional

factors. The data show that most of the participants interviewed on the influence of educational experience did not view it as having any motivational influence on them in the workplace. Most managers and employees viewed its perceived influence as not necessary, arguing that its emphasis as a motivator demoralises the employees, who resorted to making what they consider to be the best of themselves out of the situation.

### 8.4.1.5 Indigenous Language

Indigenous language is another factor about which participants were questioned. Like educational experience, indigenous language was perceived by fewer employees as influential in recruitment and promotion. Indigenous language in this study refers to the native used in the area where the organisation is operating. The concept of indigenous language has been brought in here to assess the extent to which management considers the language of an area in recruiting an employee.

Indigenous language is viewed as an important heritage of Africans in general and Cameroonians in particular. Swartz (1980) stressed the importance of indigenous language in a culture and to an individual. According to Swartz, speech and thoughts are expressed in language and these two facts are determined to an extent by culture. Zakariyah (2013) posits that indigenous language is an instrument of socialisation; "it strengthens the links that binds members of the same group and differentiate the members of one group from those of another". Although Africans hold such a high esteem for indigenous language, data from this research indicates that indigenous language is not an important factor as past work experience for management when recruiting employees. The result also indicates that a high proportion of the employees who considered indigenous language as influential thought the consideration of the factors are not very necessary.

When some of the managers were interviewed concerning the extent of the influence of indigenous language in the recruitment process, they made the following comments:

**"We take into consideration of Indigenous language when recruiting employees into this organisation. The locals subtly insist on that, according to them, for the organisation to demonstrate appreciation for using their land they should have among their staff the**

'sons of the soil'. It sounds reasonable to some people, but to me, this is ridiculous. Most often employees recruited through such means think they are invincible or that their roots are well settled in the ground, they even speak their language during work hours. We actually gain nothing when employees speak their indigenous language because it does not only creates disorder at the work place, but also tarnishes the image of the organisation it makes us look like unprofessional".

Manager 4:

**"Recruitment of employees in this organisation is not only affected by ethnicity and friendship, but also by indigenous language. The management favours those who can speak the language of a particular area during recruitment. In my opinion, this is not fair and just exposes ignorance on the part of management. In addition to that, I don't think there is any place in this country where the residents are all natives. This actually worries me because recruiting an employee base on indigenous language does not favour potential candidates who may have something important to offer to this organisation and to the employees".**

The employees also share the same view as managers on the influence of indigenous language on recruitment. The majority of the employees testifies to the fact that indigenous language has pervasive influence on employee recruitment in their organisation. They considered this perceived influence on indigenous language to be unnecessary. One of the employees' who participated in the interview made the following comment:

**"It is really sad to know that this happens in this organisation, that management hangs the recruitment of employees on their knowledge of indigenous language. This is so discouraging for us. This is one of the reasons why we lack professionals in this organisation. How can we compete with other organisations with such unprofessional practices going on? We are missing out because we can never be proud of the people this organisation produce. In addition to this, more than thousands of languages are spoken in this country, why would an organisation base its recruitment only in one language? How do you expect people to trust us with this kind of disposition"?**

Although, indigenous language was perceived by both management and employees to influence employee recruitment, not very many employees thought it to be as important as

past experience, ethnicity or friendship. But many employees, however, believed it influenced recruitment more than formal education.

As explained by one manager, indigenous language was perceived as an extrinsic factor. It is external to work and to the work setting of the organisation. Its consideration was perceived as an extension of tradition into the modern work setting. The manager expressed his view in the following comment:

**"The influence of indigenous language in employee recruitment can only be explained if one comes to understand the tradition of Cameroon. Cameroonians, by their tradition, belief in their language, they want to keep to their language, they know that it is by so doing that the language will live on. Cameroonians believe that they relate better with someone who speaks the same native language with them".**

An employee viewed indigenous language as part of their tradition and so it's part of them, the employee made this comment:

**"This issue of indigenous language is beyond our control, we can't really do much about its influence in our recruiting. If it must be changed, then change the whole tradition. Our tradition seems to interfere with our work in this respect".**

Employee 2:

**"It is a part of our traditional belief that a person confides in you better when both of you speak the same native language. Many of us Cameroonians believe this. We view someone with whom we speak the same native language as our brother or sister".**

Succinctly, indigenous language was perceived as influencing employee recruitment. Many employees viewed it as influential and described its perceived influence. Indigenous language was also viewed as an extrinsic factor, external to work and to the work setting.

### 8.4.1.6 Family Orientation

The next traditional factor that the study based its interview on was family orientation. Like tribalism, family orientation was observed by a number of employees as influencing

employee recruitment. Many of the managers and employees commented that family orientation strongly influence recruitment in their organisations. They also said management rely so much on it, and that this practice pervades organisations in the Cameroonian society. They argued that family influenced management in recruiting employees and affected the employees' attitudes and behaviours towards their organisations and work. As the preference accorded to family orientation during recruitment affects their motivation and attitudes to work in their organisation so it also affects them in the society and the world at large. In Cameroon work situations, the influence of family is very evident. Some of the managers argued about its influence in the following comments:

**"Family is the core of everything we as Africans do; it is the centre of employees' motivation to work in this organisation. Family is the reason why we work, live; in short, it pervades our entire being, our thinking and every action we take. Family is very central to the actions we take, the reasons why we take such actions and the way we execute the action. Without family, many people will not work or be serious about their work".**

Manager 2:

**"Family is the prime factor that management considers and greatly influences employee recruitment in this organisation. It is most glaring in our attitudes to work and the way we relate to others and our management. It also affects the way we get in and get on in this organisation. Management believes that people with a family to take care of behave differently toward their job than those without family. People with family are more focused and serious than those without".**

Specifically on recruitment, most of the managers claimed that the ability to cater for their family, most especially their extended family, is very paramount reason, motive why people work, it also determines the extent of effort they exert into their work. Some of the managers summarised the whole process this way:

**"When new employees join this organisation, to avoid the hurting yourself, don't try to find out who they are. The common answer one will get is that they are members of one of the manager's family. The truth is that these newly employed individuals are professionally not qualified and they lack the experience needed to occupy the position they have been employed to handle. This is the bitter truth about our situation in this**



**organisation and the society we live in. Family is part and a very important part of our culture. It has its good and bad sides in employees' recruitment".**

Manager 2:

**"It's rather sad that management allows family ties to command the way employees' are recruited in this organisation. Family background was supposed to be a factor private to the individual employee and extrinsic to work, but it is very obvious that it is considered as one of the very powerful influencing factors in the way employees' are recruited and work in this organisation. Management should not allow the family factor to crawl into the organisation, irrespective of the form it takes. It is demoralising as it creates uncertainty and tension in the minds of employees".**

When this manager was further questioned on how the emphasis on the family factor creates uncertainties and tension in the employee's mind, he explained:

**"One cannot be sure of his/her position or his/her worth and stay in this organisation. The tendency is that one can be thrown out any at the moment a family member of the manager or the executive comes in. This is a very unfortunate situation. It really affects my whole life in this organisation".**

Another manager also puts the situation this way. He made the following comment:

**"If you make an inquiry as to the family history of the employees of this organisation, don't be surprised to discover that most of them have a family link with at least one of the managers. The situation is critical, but there is nothing we can do, either we accept it or we leave it.**

The influence of family as well as other extrinsic factors on recruitment is alarming, leading to a situation where some manager and employees feel threatened and insecure. To cope with the uncertainties that lie ahead, they resort to redefine the prevailing situation to meet their own expectations. The redefinition as the employees revealed, involved "working hard in order to be able to earn more money that will enable them provide and save enough for their family will they are still working in the organisation". Just as the employees defined ethnicity, they defined family as a traditional factor and extrinsic to work. They also linked it to African cultural values.

In a nutshell, most managers and employees perceived family as having influence on employee recruitment in their organisations. The managers and employees in their work settings mostly viewed family as unimportant and unnecessary in the recruitment process. This family factor perceived by the managers and employees as influencing management decisions on the recruitment of employees, they described it as a traditional value factor transplanted into the modern work setting. It was further interpreted as the transmission of a societal value into the modern work setting.

### 8.4.1.7 Social Relations

The concept of social relations in Cameroon; is an extension of human relationship that is based on the philosophy of "live-and-let-live" (Kanu, 2010). According to Kanu (2010) this principle is based on the concept of 'Clan vital'. The social relation principle to some extent resembles that of the Chinese Guanxi concept. In Cameroon, social relations take the form of homeboy (Iguisi, 2009). According to Iguisi (2009) homeboy is someone with whom you share many common experiences. Homeboys in Cameroon and across Africa base this relationship on having shared a childhood, a transition to adulthood; belong to the same political party, or having shared schooling, foreign university, etc. They may also base the relationship on common ethnic, geographic, or linguistic origins (Iguisi, 2009). The social relation concept is most often referred to as 'man-know-man' connection.

Social relations operates in both traditional and modern organisational settings. It works very well through face to face involvement. Cameroonian managers and employees do their best to become personally involved with every client, bureaucrats, politicians, traditional rulers, and anyone else who might affect their activities. They do their utmost to forge relationship with influential people because they know that one day their services will be needed. They believe that they will not be able to influence these people unless involved in relationships strong enough to 'make them family members'. If potentially useful individuals have a common past, they make use of it. If not, they create one right away by developing a common present.

The data from this research indicate that the perceived influence of social relations on recruitment is very high. Social relation was defined by the employees as a type of social networking that begins from the set of people one knows, to a set known by that set and so

on. It is a sort of snowball kind of relationship: one friend leading to the next and so on. The data show that social relations were brought out by all the employees and its perceived influence fully was discussed by the employees too. One manager described the influence as “unquestionable and just too extensive”. Most of them stated that one’s chance of being recruited here by management in this organisation is increased when an employee has an influential figure mostly a top family member, politician or a traditional ruler to back him/her up. One employee openly confessed how he started working in his organisation; the manager was his dad's friend, they attended the same school. He did not attend any interview he admitted:

**"I just left from the classroom into the organisation without passing through the formal recruitment process. I did not apply for the job, was not interviewed".**

The employees also stated that the ability to have influential connections to pave one’s way to acquiring a job is part of the Cameroonian belief system. As people get closer to the end of their course, they or their family members start creating the necessary links that will facilitate their recruitment. Employees maintained that Cameroonian has so much internalised the role played by family, ethnicity and social relations in their work life that not much can be achieved or done with regards to social change without the society undergoing total transformation. The employees also supported the fact that the social change would imply changing the people’s belief systems embedded in their culture and tradition. In relation to this one manager made the following statement:

**"Social relation is a very important employee recruitment factor in this country and organisation. What I know is that it is something that affects almost all of us in this country, they that when 'you scratch my back, I will scratch your own also'. Whether its emphasis is good or bad is another question".**

Along the same line, some of the employees also commented:

**"Who a person knows is a factor central to employee recruitment in this organisation. People have gone extra miles just to establish a connection with someone at the top. A man with good connections stands a better chance in this organisation, no matter from which angle you look at it. There is a saying in this country that 'when you have someone on the top of a tree, then you are expected to eat ripe fruits'. Social relation is central to our recruitment".**

Employee 2:

**"Social relation is part of the Cameroonian belief system. It is a way of life in this country that everyone is seeking to be part of it. We should not really expect any change in this nation unless something is done about social relation. It is so pervasive, it pervades our thinking, lives and renders those of us with this influence feel uplifted and motivated towards work and life in general".**

Employee 3:

**"The people we know in our lives are considered as being very important in our recruitment, there is a popular saying that who you know and what you know shape your life. The management recruitment decisions in this organisation are strongly influenced by social relations. I speak with conviction that the majority of the workers here got their way into this organisation through connection".**

The employees were more concerned with the influence of politicians on management during recruitment. Their view was that politicians use their political influence to push forward their candidates into the organisation, despite their experience or qualification. One manager expressed his view on this point thus:

**"Politicians in this country want to control everything; their influence goes beyond the political boundaries to the organisations. Management are often scared to go against them for fear of the obvious consequences. With just a phone call they push someone into the organisation. It is really a sad and unfortunate happening in our organisations".**

Still on the influence of politicians on recruitment some employees argued:

**"Majority of the workers in this organisation came in through political connection".**

This employee further argued:

**"Political connection is one of the most powerful influences on recruitment. The impact of politicians on our recruitment is blatant".**

The employees on the one hand viewed the effect of social relations as ruinous; they argue that some unqualified employees have paved their way into the organisation because they are

connected to someone who can influence the management. The employees went on to state that most of those employees who are recruited through connection treat other employees with contempt and disrespect. The employees expressed their disappointment at management for considering social relations in employee recruitment stating that it stirs up feelings of uncertainties and insecurity among the employees. They are not sure of their positions at work because they could be evicted out of their job any time that a candidate with the right connection is brought into the organisation. Based on these points a manager said:

**"Social relation plays an important role in our employee recruitment. Recruitment in this organisation depends on who one knows than on any other factor. The issue with this form of recruitment is that it creates extreme hatred among the employees. This is because most of the employees who came in through that means do not know much about their profession. Its effect is demoralising, it makes us feel unsecured and feel that the best we to deal with the uncertainties is to make money so fast that when the time comes for us to leave the organisation we should not do so with regrets".**

Employee 1:

**"This network issue in this country is so glaring; people make their way into organisations depending on who they know. What they know is of little significance. Employees often brag about their connections to other employees. This makes those with no connection to feel unsecured. This insecurity affects employees' relationships to their work as they are uncertain about their position in their organisation".**

The interview data indicate that just a small number of employees perceived the management's consideration of social relations in employee recruitment as necessary. Most of the employees perceived the consideration as unnecessary. The data also indicate that managers were more likely to view the influence of social relations as necessary. The employees were less likely to view its consideration as necessary.

In sum, all the employees perceived the tremendous influence of social relations on recruitment and most of them condemned its perceived influence. Those employees who viewed the influence of social relations as unnecessary argued that it devalues their work. These employees abhor the influence of social relation to their recruitment, saying that it prevent most employees from developing both professionally and intellectually. Furthermore, one manager argued that employees who come in through social relations are not willing to

learn. This is because they have the conception that whatever happens, they will always find their way through the organisation. The general feelings common among employees with no connection are insecurity and uncertainty; these feelings affect their perception of work.

Social relations were perceived as an external factor, extrinsic to work and the work setting.

Manager 5:

**"Social relations which significantly influence our recruitment process is something that is outside, not a part of our work. It is an extrinsic factor, external to work, yet it is the most powerful determinant of whatever is done in our organisation".**

As summary social relations was perceived to influence employee recruitment, most of the employees, perceived its influence as unnecessary, arguing that management's consideration of the factor devalues their work and adds more to the already existing uncertainty in the organisation.

### 8.4.2 Promotion

Just like in recruitment, respondents listed factors that are perceived or ought to influence promotion to rank them in order of influence. They told the factors they perceived influence management's decision on promotion.

The factors which are similar to those respondents perceived as influencing recruitment are presented in Table 53. These are traditional factors are external to work or extrinsic factors and modern (Western) or intrinsic factors.

**Table 53: Perceived and desired factor for employees' promotion**

Promotion factors in order of importance as perceived to be used by management; perception of the majority.	Promotion factors in order of importance as desired to be applied; perception of the majority.
<b>Managers</b>	
Tribe of Origin/Ethnicity	Family
Family	Work experience
Social relations	Educational experience
Work experience	Social relations
Indigenous language	Tribe of Origin/Ethnicity
Educational experience	Indigenous language
Friendship	Friendship
<b>Employees</b>	
Family	Work experience
Social Relations	Educational experience
Work experience	Social Relations
Tribe of Origin/Ethnicity	Family
Friendship	Tribe of Origin/Ethnicity
Indigenous language	Indigenous language
Educational experience	Friendship

#### 8.4.2.1 Tribe of Origin/Ethnicity

The result indicates that many respondents perceived ethnicity as influencing employees' promotion. Of all the respondents interviewed, the majority were of the opinion that considers ethnicity during promotion of employees. Table 53 indicates that only a small percentage of the employees thought it was necessary to allow ethnicity influence promotion decision while a higher percentage did not perceive its influence as necessary. The influence of ethnicity is expressed by employees as follows:

Employee 1

**"Promotion in this organisation does not follow formal criteria. Tribalism is an important factor; there is no indication that it is not going to be used by management any sooner".**

Employee 2

**"Promotion in this organisation has nothing to do with professional know how. You just need to belong to the winning tribal group, and then you will be promoted".**

Some of the employees continued to express their view about the perceived influence of ethnicity. They said that the emphasis accorded to tribalism in employees' promotion is unjustified.

The managers on their part express their views on the influence of tribalism during promotion by saying:

**"The consideration given to tribalism in promoting employees in this organisation completely unjustified. Management's insistence on ethnicity during promotion helps to alienate employees from their work. Employee attitude towards their work and company is affected".**

Manager 2

**"My organisation is becoming ethically bound; to be promoted you need to be of the same ethnic group with one of the top management. I just care less about what is happening, I just concern myself with making money".**

Expressing their views also on the influence of tribalism on employees' promotion, some employees stated:

**"I have been working in this organisation for over six years now; I have seen newly employed came in and are now in the management rank, am still here. I am educated and experience than them, but as it shows those things don't matter. The authentic qualification is to belong to the same ethnic cult of one of the management".**

Employee 2:

**"Tribalism is so influential, it's like a cult; it is not only common to this organisation, it pervades all other organisations in this country. This is why this country has a long way to go as far as development is concerned. Emphasising on ethnicity, social relations, friendship and language rather than on competence and education, better work attitudes cannot be expected from the employees".**

Employee 3



**"Emphasising on tribe of origin by management in promoting employees causes conflict, anarchy and uncertainty among the employees."**

The research data indicates that employees were strongly against the consideration of tribalism for promotion than managers. They vehemently expressed their negative feelings to the perceived influence of ethnicity in employees' promotion. Employees viewed the perceived influence of ethnicity on promotion as unnecessary. Ethnicity is a traditional factor and extrinsic to work. Some of the employees viewed the perceived influence of ethnicity in promotion of employees to be strong because of the cultural divergence of their country. Arguing along these lines, one of the Managers stated:

**"Our leaders feel insecure having employees of different ethnic group in their workplace. They think surrounded by their ethnic 'brothers/sisters, is a form of security. They don't recognise the danger in such a decision. "**

In conclusion, tribalism was flagged by most employees as influencing employees' promotions. The result shows that majority of the employees who thought tribalism influenced promotion thought its perceived influence as unnecessary. They said considering ethnicity devalued their work, created hatred and conflicts among employees.

#### **8.4.2.2 Friendship**

The study also interviewed respondents on the perceived influence of friendship in their promotion. The friendship here, as expressed by the respondents is friendship among managers.

The data show that most of the employees thought that the friendship among managers influenced employees' promotion. The research data also show that majority of these employees perceiving the friendship between managers as influencing did not view its perceived influence as necessary. Most employees condemned this friendship among managers. They said its persistence and its long run effect on employees' promotions do not speak well about the employees' well-being at work. In line with this, one manager stated:

**"Some of the managers cannot justify why they recommend certain candidates for promotion. They know that some of the employees they have recommended are not the**

**best in terms of qualification and experience. Management just close their eyes and do it even though they are aware of its impact on employees. Employees are not happy about it. Their unhappiness is reflected in their attitudes to work and their general relationships with one another".**

Still on the influence of friendship, one of the employees further stated:

**"Managers in their clique decide the candidate they want to promote, their choice is always defective, not the best candidate. Most often, those recommended are not the ones qualified. This is devastating to us and to our work".**

The research data indicates that the employees were the majority in perceiving friendship as influencing employees' promotion. They were also the majority to perceive its influence as not necessary. The data show that most of the employees interviewed on the factor believed that management consider friendship in promotion.

A minor proportion of the managers thought that friendship was given less consideration in employees' promotion. The majority of of them, however, considered its perceived influence as not necessary.

Friendship was said to influence employees' promotion. However, most employees thought its perceived influence as unnecessary and not important, claiming that it is the unqualified that are most often promoted to the detriment of the qualified. They emphasised that such an environment is unhealthy for employees and demoralised them.

#### **8.4.2.3 Work Experience**

The data reveal that a most of the employees perceived work experience as influencing employees' promotion. These employees argued that management give great consideration to the value of experience an employee have in the profession before considering them for promotion. They added that experienced employees are productive and that they are aware of the practicalities of their work. Some of the managers and employees commented:

**"The management of this organisation emphasised on work experience as a criterion for employee promotion. They believe that an experience employee is highly productive; that he knows all that is involved in delivering a good job. He knows the best strategies and techniques. I do not judge the management for considering that because they know best".**

From the comment made by the above employee, it is evident that he saw some link between the perceived influence of work experience in promotion and employees' attitudes to work. The employee was satisfied that management considers work experience in promotion. That experienced employee is a treasure for their organisation; they are competent with a lot of knowledge and skills to impart to the newly employed.

The employee thought that management is obliged to consider work experience during employees' promotion as it is an important and necessary factor. Still on work experience, one manager commented:

**"The management here does not joke when it comes to consideration of work experience when promoting employees. We highly appreciate that. Though there are other criteria management base their promotion decision on, I think this is the most relevant and should be more important than educational experience".**

It can be determined from the data that the majority of the managers perceived that employees' promotion influence work experience. The research data also show that a high percentage of managers agreed with the view reported above. The employees on the other hand, emphasised the perceived influence of work experience on promotion as necessary.

Work experience is an intrinsic work factor. Employees viewed it as a work factor set up by management for guiding decisions about recruitment and promotion of employees.

A high proportion of managers and employees perceived work experience as influencing employees' promotion. Still from the data, it is obvious that only a small percentage of the employees, perceiving it as influencing, thought its perceived influence as unnecessary. The majority of them viewed the perceived influence as necessary. The research data also shows that only a minor percentage of the employees were of the view that management does not give any consideration to work experience in promoting employees.

In sum, employees viewed work experience as necessary, the reasons they gave for this opinion is that experienced employee's competence and effectiveness are beneficial for the organisation. They believe that inexperienced employees learn many techniques required to be effective in their job, from the experienced employee right on the job.

### 8.4.2.4 Educational Experience

Educational experience was one of the factors of promotion which the respondents were interviewed on. As can be seen in Table 53, only a minute proportion of the employees thought educational experience have some influence on promotion. The majority of the employees were of the opinion that educational experience was not considered by management in promotion. However, those who claimed that it was considered thought the consideration as necessary.

The research data indicate that the majority of the managers were of the opinion that educational experience is influencing and necessary. Just a minority of the total population interviewed generally perceived educational experience as necessary. In line with the influencing effect of educational experience, one of the employees said:

**"Educational experience to an extent is a criterion management considers in promoting employees in this organisation. This is important because employees need a certain level of education in order to occupy important positions".**

The majority of the managers who perceived educational experience as an influencing factor thought that only a minimum level of education was required for promotion. A manager commented:

**"Management in this organisation considers some level of qualification in employees' promotion. This is encouraging because employees are aware that the need to have a certain level of education to be promoted hence they work hard towards that end".**

The majority of the managers disagreed with the above view. They said the level of education required should be enough to permit employees to be able to read and write.

Many employees did not agree with the idea that a certain level of education was needed for promotion.

In sum, educational experience was generally perceived by the respondents as not having a strong influence on employee promotion. Its influence was the least compared with the other factors already discussed. The results show that the managers were more likely to view educational experience as important and necessary in employees' promotion. The data also revealed that although educational experience was thought to be important in promotion by some employees, the expected level of education was not very high - just being able to read and write.

### 8.4.2.5 Family Orientation

Family orientation is the next factor the study considered. Most of the manager and employees said that family orientation influences management decisions in promoting employees. The respondents perceived that family influenced management in promoting employees and that employee' attitudes and behaviours toward their job are being affected by family ties. Based on this argument, one manager stated:

**"It is sad that management allows family ties to influence the way employees are promoted in this organisation. It is really a shame that family which is a factor external to work is viewed by management as very important to the extent of influencing their decisions on promotion in this organisation. Its demoralises employees and creates uncertainty in their minds".**

This manager went further to emphasise that:

**"One cannot be sure of his/her position in this organisation. At any moment one can be replaced by someone from one of the members of management's family".**

The uncertainty and threat created in the minds of the employees pave way for them to start looking for ways to cope with the situation, either by working harder to have enough money to provide for their family and save for gloomy days or to start looking for a better job in another organisation.

In sum, a high proportion of manager and employees viewed family as an influencing factor in promoting employees in their organisations. The results in Table 53 indicate that the managers and employees perceived family as unimportant and unnecessary in promotion. Family is perceived by the respondents as extrinsic factor, external to work. They said it is a societal value that has been brought into the organisation.

### 8.4.2.6 Social Relations

Social relations have a pervasive influence on employee promotion; its influence is so widespread to the extent that it is viewed as a normal or formal factor. People in this country exert great effort to create a relationship with influential figures to back them. On the influence of social relations on promotion, some of the managers and employees said:

**"One just needs to belong to the winning party or have someone influential in the party to be promoted to whatever position in any organisation in this country. It does not matter what your level of education is".**

Manager 2

**"Social relation is part of our belief system. It flows in our blood streams; social relations are so strong in this country to the extent that it is very difficult to change it".**

Although many respondents perceived social relations as influencing, the data show that one a small proportion of the employees viewed its perceived consideration as necessary

The table indicates that a higher percentage of employees than of managers perceived social relations as influencing employees' promotion. The managers group did quite accept the fact that management considers social relations in promotion. The few managers who accepted its consideration during promotion viewed the perceived influence as necessary.

The manager's population who stated that social relation was needed in their organisation claimed that employees with extensive connections will bring more influential clients to the organisation. The employees who viewed the perceived influence as important and necessary,

were fewer in number than those who viewed it as unnecessary. It means more of the employees viewed the factor as not necessary.

These employees who viewed the factor as unnecessary said its consideration means most of the employees promoted are not often the most qualified. This kind of situation, according to the employees creates feelings of jealousy and envy among them, which have an impact on their work. They employees felt rejected and alienated from their work and organisation. In expressing his view that the consideration of social relations in employees' promotion is unnecessary, one manager stated:

**"It is ridiculous to give room for the so-called 'influential' people to come into our organisation and dictate on who and how we should promote our employees. Promotion should be based on how much an employee has added intellectually and professionally to the development of an organisation".**

In line with the same thought, some of the employees also stated:

**"Emphasising on social relations as a promotion criteria by the management is detrimental to our morale. The management doesn't care about how the employees feel. We feel alienated from our workplace, and have most of us have accepted it as such and we distance ourselves from it too".**

Employee 2:

**"Promotion of employees in this organisation depends on how connected people are. Employees who know people, who can influence management, most often get to the top with no time".**

In sum, a social relation was perceived by most employees interviewed as influencing employees' promotion. As indicated by the data, the majority of the employees who perceived its influence did not view the perceived influence as necessary. These employees said that its consideration was demoralising to them and further make them perceive their work as just a means to make money.

The employees also viewed social relation as an external factor, extrinsic to work.

Social relation is a traditional factor that is linked to the Cameroonian belief system, that true African values are perceived when individuals have strong ties with their community.

### 8.4.2.7 Indigenous Language

Indigenous language was another factor on which the interview was based. This question was to find out if knowledge native language of the area the organisation operates has any influence on employees' promotion. Or in other words, whether or not understanding the indigenous language in the locality where the employee works influences the employees' promotion. Just very few employees thought the consideration of indigenous language was important.

The majority of the employees perceived indigenous language as an influence on employees' promotion. Table 53 indicates that most of the employees that were interviewed and who perceived that indigenous language was influential thought its perceived influence as unnecessary. According to them considering indigenous language as a criterion for promotion was not necessary.

The managers on the other hand did not really perceive indigenous language as influencing promotion. They admit that indigenous languages promote business for the employee in the locality. The employees on their part said having knowledge of the native language of the locality of the business does not guarantee that they will be promoted. They claim there are other more powerful factors management consider such as family, social relation and past work experience. The employees also said that allowing indigenous language to influence the management's decision on promotion in a sort devalues their work and create insecurity and uncertainties in the employees. Some of the managers and employees made the following comments in relation to that:

Manager 2

**"It is true that knowledge of indigenous language by an employee is an advantage for the business, but it does not mean that the employee has the skills necessary for the business".**



Manager 4:

**"It is a shame that promotion in this organisation to an extent is conditioned by indigenous language. Promotion is supposed to be based on the candidates' experience and productivity and not on knowledge of the native language. This alienates employees from their work and organisation. We just stay in the organisation for the sake of making money".**

Employee 2:

**"There is no justification for management for considering indigenous language on promotion; it just leads to having people who are inadequate in high places. This creates tension among employees".**

Employee 3:

**"Emphasising on language in promoting employees in this organisation is not necessary. It just helps to fuel the uncertainties that were already among employees".**

Indigenous language is viewed as having influence on employees' promotion and it's perceived as unnecessary and devalues work, is an external factor, extrinsic to work.

In summary, most of the employees thought that indigenous language influence employees' promotion. However, the percentage of employees who thought it was an influence was lower than those who saw past work experience and ethnicity as influences on promotion.

The data presented in Table 52 and Table 53 indicates that the perception of managers is different from that of employees. Looking at the data it is clear that the two factors described by the study as intrinsic to work were ranked higher by the managers than by employees. The data show that the extrinsic factors were ranked higher than the intrinsic factors by the employees. Past work experience is the only intrinsic factor ranked high by the employees. The data indicate that a high proportion of the employees perceived these extrinsic factors as influencing employees' promotions. Most of the employees also showed negative attitudes to their perceived recruitment and promotion influences. Most of them viewed the consideration of the extrinsic factors as unnecessary. Rather, the employees, though the intrinsic factors, which was considered by just a few of them as actually influencing their promotion, were nevertheless viewed as deserving of more emphasis.

Comparing the rank order of the factors the employees perceive that management employ during recruitment with the rank order of the factors they perceive ought to be used to suggest a sharp contrast between the two perceptions. What is noteworthy about the factors is that what the management base on for recruiting employees is different from what the employees thought should be considered. Family is the most important factor that management considers followed by social relations and friendship factors extrinsic to work, while intrinsic factors such as past work experience and educational experience feature at the bottom of the list.

The employees on the other hand, considered the level of educational as the most important factor and ranked it first. This is the kind of situation where employees in Cameroon find their selves, factors such as education and past work experience which they think should in normal circumstance be considered by management during recruitment; are not given priority by the management. The factors management considers indispensable for recruiting employees are extrinsic to work for the employees; these are family and social relations. The employees view this act as a kind of deviation from normal to abnormal and the worse of it is that the employees have no control over the situation and just have to accept it as it is or look for an alternative. Some employees said during the interview that because of scarcity of jobs, most of them are forced to continue working for the company despite the irregularity, ambiguity and inconsistencies in the recruitment process. As can be discerned from their comments, the decision to continue working for the company is not equivalent to satisfaction with work or the company.

There is a high degree of consistency on the factors perceived to have influence on recruitment and promotion. The factors perceived by employees as the influencing promotion are the same factors they identified as influencing recruitment.

Family is ranked as the first factor perceived by employees as considered by management during promotion of employees. A social relation is the second factor perceived to be given top priority by management during promotion of employees. In recruitment, social relation also occupied the second position as an influencing factor. The majority of the employees thought friendship and indigenous language should be the last two factors to be considered during employees' promotion. During recruitment, they ranked friendship as third to the last and indigenous language as second to the last. According to the employees, indigenous language should be the least factor influencing the management's decision to promote followed by friendship.

### 8.5 Summary

The impressions of the managers and employees confirm the assertion made in the study about the direct relationship between cultural values and employee motivation and the indirect relationship via leadership style. The fact that Cameroonian organisational leaders are molded by a culture that promotes respect for the elderly, and that objection to a superior's decision by a subordinate is considered as being disrespectful; means that employees are most often scared to contradict their boss. This affects their behaviour towards work as they can voice out their sentiments even when things are not going right. They feel rejected as they are not able to contribute to an extent towards the growth of their organisation. The data indicate that employees in Cameroon prefer a leader who will involve them in decision-making, as participation will motivate them to increase performance.

Employee motivation is directly affected by cultural values and indirectly by leadership style. The indirect effect of cultural values on employee motivation via leadership style is seen especially during the recruitment and promotion processes by organisation leaders. The divergence of the perceptions of managers and employees on what is considered and what ought to be considered during these processes breeds controversy in the organisation. It leads to a situation whereby employees find themselves trapped in dual work situations; the influential work situation by traditional values (promoted by collectivism) on the one hand and the suppressed work situation of conventional values on the other hand. Employees have to and have learned to live with the prevailing situation in the organisation, even though they say it is demotivating. Some of them made it very clear during the interview that they had had enough of the system and were frustrated by the uncertainty, imprecision, controversy and paradox that the recruitment and promotion patterns in their organisations have adopted.

The situation in promotion is similar to the one these employees encountered during recruitment, the situation is daunting; in their own view they have been tied to a system which they cannot understand, override or explain. These employees feel that in order to make the meaningful to them, they have to give their personal meaning to the unexplained work situation. They then decide to focus on the monetary advantage they derive from their work and forget about any other thing else. Money is the instrument or their motive for working.

Summarily, employee's perception of recruitment and promotion is that there are some fundamental generalisations about some realities of the values important for management during these processes. The empirical findings indicate that work processes are influenced by both intrinsic and extrinsic factors. Traditional values such as ethnicity, family, friendship, social relations and indigenous language are factors relevant to management during recruitment and promotion. These factors exert greater influence on these work processes than Western (intrinsic) factors.

The employees perceived that ethnicity is accorded priority in both processes and this is an extrinsic or traditional factor. Family is another extrinsic factor which the employees perceived management have accorded more importance during recruitment and promotion. These employees perceived that management has accorded some degree of importance to work experience, but they think it should be given more importance, hence these employees ranked it first in order of importance. Educational experience which is a conventional work factor is viewed by employees as being very important, is perceived to be the least recognised by management in their recruitment and promotion.

The conclusion that can be drawn from the study is that employees think that intrinsic work factors such as education and work experience should have more control over employee recruitment and promotion than extrinsic factors. The divergence in management ideology on recruitment and promotion and employees' perception of what ought to be done is causing controversy in organisations. Employees emphasise on intrinsic factors while management, stress on extrinsic as the most important factors of recruitment and promotion.

## Chapter Nine

### Discussion and Implications of the Research

#### 9.1 Introduction

The discussion in this chapter is based on the information in the literature and in relation to the research questions, aims and objectives. The study has looked at the gaps that exist in organisational leadership styles and their impact on employee motivation in Cameroon in relation to the existing cultural values. This study focused on the impact of cultural values on employee motivation via leadership styles in Cameroonian organisations. Also contained in the study are the perceptions of managers and employees on how consideration of traditional value factors over conventional value factors by leaders during recruitment and promotion affect employee motivation. The sections of paramount importance are those that dealt specifically with Hofstede's (1991) dimensions of culture, Likert (1967) leadership styles, Maslow (1954), Herzberg (1959) and Vroom (1964) theories of motivation.

A questionnaire designed based on the studies of respected researchers on the three main concepts of the study, was answered by managers and employees of 10 firms in two sectors of the Cameroon economy. Before the final administration of the questionnaire, it was piloted on 50 participants. As explained earlier, participants in the pilot included, Cameroonians in the UK (students and friends). Input from focus groups made up of experts in management and sub-Saharan Africans in London also contributed towards the refinement and amendments of the research tools. The in-depth interviews and the survey were based on questions on culture, leadership style and employee motivation. These data collection tools (questionnaire and interviews) contained sections on culture and work related values, types and characteristics of leadership styles and factors affecting employee motivation. Additionally, the questionnaire contained a set of questions, investigating the factors affecting recruitment and promotion of employees as well as the level of involvement and commitment of employees to their organisations.

**9.2 Discussion of Hypotheses**

A number of issues, questions, objectives and hypotheses were raised in Chapter One with the purpose of achieving the research aim and have been discussed in subsequent chapters. This chapter attempt to synthesize the research so that the reader can obtain an overall picture of the findings, reservations about them and suggestions about further research that might be carried out as a result.

It may be helpful for the reader to set out findings about the research hypotheses in a bald form. This is found in Table 54 and the detail discussion follow suit.

**Table 54: Summary of Hypotheses Results**

<b>Hypothesis</b>	<b>Status</b>	<b>Statement</b>
<b>H1</b>	Supported	Concordance between present study and Hofstede (1991).
<b>H2</b>	Rejected	Dominant leadership style is paternalistic, not autocratic.
<b>H3</b>	Rejected	Intrinsic motivation factors strongly correlate with cultural values than extrinsic motivation factors.
<b>H4</b>	Supported	Overall CV correlates positively with overall LS.
<b>H5</b>	Supported	Positive correlation between overall CV and overall EM.
<b>H6</b>	Supported	Overall LS correlates with overall EM.
<b>H7</b>	Supported	Positive correlation between CV and LS; CV and EM and LS and EM.

CV = cultural values; EM = employee motivation; LS = leadership styles

The field work resulted to findings in relation to the hypotheses. Feedback from focus groups on a preliminary draft prepared after the field work is included in the discussion below. The reader can observe that the first two hypotheses concern the concordance of the findings of this study and the research by other authors. Hypotheses H3 to H7 concern relationships between variables as measured by Likert scales in questionnaires and supplemented by individual interviews and later feedback from focus groups.

### 9.2.1 H1; Cultural Categories

One of the issues raised in the study was the extent of concordance or discordance between the results of this study on culture and Hofstede's (1991) study of the West African Region. Specifically on the dimensions of individualism, masculinity, uncertainty avoidance and power distance. The research findings here indicate that Hofstede's findings seem to be fairly robust in the new context investigated. However, as shown in Chapter Six, there are some slight differences in the scores of some of the dimensions in this study with that of Hofstede for the West Africans Region.

Some of the reasons for the differences in the results may be due to an accident of the sample or differences in the sampled population however, one important implication of this work is that ethnicity makes for subtle differences in culture, leadership style and employee motivation at a national level.

The masculinity index for this study is 64 while that of Hofstede was 46, making a difference of nearly 30%. Masculinity refers to the distribution of values between genders (Hofstede, 2011). An in-depth study needs to be carried out to assess the influence the 1995 Beijing Declaration has had on this dimension. The Beijing Declaration stressed on gender equality. Article 13 states that "*Women's empowerment and their full participation on the basis of equality in all spheres of society, including participation in the decision-making process and access to power, are fundamental for the achievement of equality, development and peace.*" The Beijing conference was a landmark event for women worldwide. Since that declaration, the perception of the feminine gender has greatly changed in Africa as a whole and in Cameroon in particular. In as much as the gender equality has not yet been achieved (CEED, 2010), research shows that there has been a massive shift in gender roles in Africa. The number of women in leadership positions both in politics and business in Africa as a whole has increased enormously. Tripp (2013) notes that "*one of the most fascinating developments in African politics has been the increase in women's political participation since the mid 1990s...Today; Africa is a leader in women's parliamentary representation globally.*" The male employees are not in accord with this shift in gender role and asserted vehemently that empowering women is unacceptable. Most of them claimed that they can work under a female boss, as such female organisation leaders encounter a lot of obstacles in the job. This opposition to role equality has led to the marginalisation of the female gender as was pointed

out by the majority of the respondents. Men believe that women are supposed to stay at home and look after the children while the men go to work (Kanu, 2010). Cameroon and Nigeria are similar in these respects. Cameroon, however, seems to have a greater predominance of men in authority than Nigeria, which perhaps explains the significantly stronger masculinity index for the Cameroon. Casual observation by the researcher suggests that Nigerian women are much more assertive in all walks of life than their Cameroonian counterparts.

The uncertainty avoidance dimension has witnessed approximately a 12% deficit, a score of 54 for Hofstede compared to 48 in this research. Cameroonians appear to be less risk averse than Hofstede's participants. Again, this may be an accident in sampling. But the in-depth interview indicated that employees and leaders are becoming more comfortable with ambiguity and chaos and rules are resisted. In so far as rules are designed to reduce uncertainty, active avoidance of them seems to indicate almost a taste of risk. Interviews indicated that Cameroonians feel at ease with uncertainty and take each day as it comes and the level of stress and anxiety are low. Interviewees expressed an easy going attitude to rules, authority and pressures at work. Family security seems to matter than the details of management of work.

In collectivist societies, in-groups are distinguished from out-groups, and this also holds true for managers. Though individualistic traits seem to have infiltrated into the Cameroon society, it has not yet reached to the level where kinship and ethnic descent have stopped playing a role in how subordinates are treated. Work, life and private life are still in close connection, they are not separated like in the Western countries, but this also means managers and subordinates alike will at times let private interest prevails over their obligation to the organisation.

### 9.2.2 H2; Leadership Styles

Another issue raised in the study was an investigation of the dominant leadership style in Cameroon based on the sample. The results suggest that H2, which indicates that the dominant leadership style in Cameroon is autocratic, has been rejected. The questionnaire results in this research show that the Cameroonian leadership style is dominantly paternalistic (see Table 25, p. 166, Chapter Six). Also, in depth interviews suggested that bosses in



Cameroon businesses act like concerned fathers; concern with what they as bosses consider to be in the best interest of the employees but allowing little say in the matter. Paternalism is dominated by 38.4% of the questionnaire. However, autocracy showed its face in a few cases (30.4%). Paternalists are concerned bosses, autocrats always know best whatever the employee says or thinks and whatever the situation may be. On close examination of the sample, it seems that autocracy is inversely related to the educational level and age of the boss. Older, less educated bosses are not secure enough to consider that employee personal concerns may be significant in motivation (Table 24).

With respect to H2, the study found out that employees prefer a paternalistic leadership style (41.3%, Table 24, p. 165). Illustrating the preference for paternalism, in interviews, many employees said they valued the boss' personal concern about their life. Bosses attendance at rituals, weddings and funerals was particularly valued. In some cases, a minority, employees noted their appreciations for occasions when bosses asked their advice; for example the boss taking pains to explain the nature of the organisation was appreciated. On the other hand, when the boss simply says do this, do that, regardless of the situation, employees resented this. Consultative leadership style ranked second in employee's preferences (40.6%, Table 24 p. 165). Autocratic style was strongly rejected leadership (87%, Table 26, p. 166).

### 9.2.3 H3; Motivation Factors

With respect to H3 it is not surprising that given the discussion above, extrinsic motivational factors have a stronger influence on employees than intrinsic factors. Extrinsic factors have to do with conditions external to the job which includes relationship, job security, working conditions, family life and pay. This fits neatly with the preference by employees and bosses for a collective culture with paternalistic leadership style. Employees respond positively to extrinsic factors in a collectivist culture. They respond positively to paternalism and paternalism promotes a positive response; a virtual circle. On the other hand, intrinsic factors include conditions related to the work itself; such as promotion, challenging job, job description, recognition and participation. Employees are not very much affected by the presence of these factors in their workplace.

The correlation coefficient between extrinsic motivational factors and cultural values revealed by the questionnaires was 0.388 whereas the correlation coefficient between intrinsic motivational factors and cultural values was 0.290, indicating the stronger influence of extrinsic factors. It is well known that correlation and causation are quite different concepts, so it was important to follow up correlation measures with more in depth discussion. The interviews turn to reinforce the questionnaire. For instance, a high proportion of the interviewees expressed the view that they were indifferent about the leadership style of their boss, the nature of the job; so long as their salaries were good.

### 9.2.4 H4-H7; Correlations

H4-H7 deals with the relationship between the variables underpinning the main constructs of the thesis. The study found some links between cultural values and leadership style, cultural values and employee motivation and leadership style and employee motivation but these links are of a weak intensity. Again, the research was aware and considered the distinction between correlation and causation. Correlation coefficients may wrongly suggest exactness between quantitative variables which is misleading.

With respect to H7 the recruitment and promotion practices of organisation leaders were investigated by means of in-depth interviews. The findings were surprising, as a majority respondents expressed the view that they perceived traditional factors such as family, friendship, ethnicity, indigenous language and social relations have stronger influence on employee recruitment and promotion than conventional factors such as: level of education and work experience. The employees, however, generally perceived that the intrinsic factors such as work and educational experience ought to have greater influence. Another pertinent point is that there exist more commonalities than variations in employees' perceptions of what ought to be done, and their perceptions of what actually is done in both recruitment and promotion. The manager's perception of what actually is done is very different from what they think ought to be done than the perception of the employees. A closer look at the employees' perception on recruitment and promotion indicate that their problem with management lie more on recruitment than on promotion.

### 9.2.5 A Cautionary Tale about the Hypotheses in the Research

The translation of qualitative to quantitative variables is widespread in research. However leading scholars in the fields of culture, leadership and motivation are careful to stress the illusive nature of qualitative variables. Qualitative variables are impressionistic and their quantification is necessarily arbitrary.

Likert scales and correlation coefficients are expressed as cardinal numbers; 1, 2, 3...N or in the case of correlation coefficients, fractions between -1 and +1. These ordinal numbers are arbitrary in the sense that they really indicate ordinal relationships; 1st, 2nd, 3rd...last; greater versus less; strong =5 weak =1, when strong =10 and weak =2, or strong =1 and weak=0.25.

These cautionary remarks explain the researcher's use of phrases like 'seem', 'indicate', 'suggest'. Focus groups and interviewees used similar words, for example 'I think that', 'I felt upset or pleased or happy or annoyed'. Such expressions seem on the face of it to be vague, but none the less it is the researcher's view that they express real judgements and impressions.

## 9.3 General Conclusions

In chapter two a review of literature indicated that culture can provide members of an organisation with meaning in their lives by imposing behavioural guidelines that reduce anxiety that can result from unpredictable or uncertain environment. Chapter Three discussed the various models of leadership and employee motivation and how both concepts have evolved over time.

Hofstede's model of culture has been used in the study because of its popularity and has been widely employed by many researchers in various fields of study. Also, the model is easy to replicate which facilitated the achievement of the objectives of the study. The Likert leadership model identifies four types of leadership styles: autocratic, paternalistic, consultative and democratic. There are more leadership styles other than these four, but these four styles are chosen and are useful because the majority of the respondents were acquainted

with and were able to express a preference for one of them. The motivation questions were based on Maslow's, Herzberg's and Vroom's theories which permitted the coverage of the two broad perspectives of motivation theories: content and process based theories. The first two theories are classified as content theories since they explain what motivates people to do work and the one of Vroom is a process based perspective as it explains the ways in which motivated behaviour occurs.

The general research questions have been answered in Chapter Six. The literature chapters reviewed the kind of links that exist between the three concepts. For example, Chapter Three indicates that employee motivation is directly linked to the styles of a leader and employee's perception of their leader. These links were established and shown in the study in Chapter Seven. That chapter clearly indicates the correlations between cultural values and leadership style, cultural values and employee motivation and leadership style and employee motivation. Talking about leadership styles Sandler & Hofstede (1980), state that "*in general, managers, who are seen as exhibiting a distinctive style of leadership, are also considered more effective in promoting confidence and satisfaction among employees than managers who are not seen as having a distinctive style*". The implication of this quote is that high motivation is linked to the perception of being led in the way one prefers to be led.

The findings of this research agree with Hofstede's (1991) data set for the West African Region. Unlike Hofstede and other cultural scholars, this research argues that traditional values such as ethnicity, family orientation, indigenous language, friendship and social relations have an enormous role to play in the way decisions are made by organisation leaders in Cameroon. These leaders place greater emphasis on these traditional extrinsic values than on conventional intrinsic values such as level of education and work experience. Management's emphasising on traditional values as opposed to Western or conventional values are frustrating to the employees as they are uncertain about their future in their organisation. This insecurity has push employees to device unorthodox means to cope with the threatening situation in their firms.

The study suggests that the perceived leadership style in Cameroon organisations is paternalistic. This describes a situation where the manager usually consults with subordinates before reaching a decision, listens to their advice, considers it, and then announces the decision, expects all to work loyally to implement it whether or not it is in accordance with the advice they gave. The second most common style is autocratic where the leader usually

makes decisions promptly and communicates them fully to subordinates, expects them to carry out decisions loyally and without raising difficulties. These different leadership styles manifested by the managers can be explained based on the cultural characteristics of the Cameroon society. The paternalistic style is due to the high respect for the elders and the collectivistic nature of the people. The autocratic leadership style is linked to the autocratic nature of the traditional leaders in the Cameroonian society. These styles have been imported into organisations and are affecting the decision-making process and consequently employee motivation.

Motivation has been shown by this research as one of the most important leadership attributes. The results from the sample indicate that organisational leaders, by allowing traditional values to influence their management decision; have failed to fulfil their role in motivating employees. The majority of the respondents are uncertain about their job security and this affects their attitudes toward their job and organisation.

Although globalisation is pressurising organisations to change, the relationship between managers and their subordinates are still of paramount importance. Employees are motivated when allow to have a say in the decision-making process of their organisation. Granting the employees some degree of autonomy and empowering them, will affect the work environment, safety and the opportunity for training and development. Another problem that often develops as a result of the relationships between superiors and subordinates is the conflicts over job control, by involving employees in the workplace can provide solutions in resolving such conflicts. A culture promoting employee involvement can be seen in this light as a control mechanism.

The predominant culture within organisations in Cameroon is a collectivism and high power distance type while in the West it is individualism and low power distance. In collectivist cultures, the employee-to-employee relationship is perceived in moral terms, like family, social relationship, friendship, and recruitment and promotion decisions take the employee's in-group into consideration (Hofstede, 1980). Interviewees perceived that the above mentioned moral terms took precedence in employee recruitment and promotion decisions than intrinsic factors.

The findings of this study of cultural values provide implications for management and organisational change in Cameroon. Whitley (1994) claims that every society is unique and

its trajectory is shaped by its unique historical events, cultural norms and values; it is therefore not an exaggeration to argue that because the Western management concept has a short history in Cameroon, the country should based on its unique cultural values blended with the Western values to develop unique management practices that will fit in the society. Due to the increasing pressure from globalisation of market economies, for African countries to compete successfully with the rest of the world, their management practices do not need to diverge from the Western management concepts. There should be convergence between the Western concepts and traditional African concepts. The trend of economic activities in the world reveals high and increased intensity of interaction between modern management practices and African traditional values, at this juncture; there should be an anticipation of a new form of management concepts and practices in various African countries that will encompass both modern/Western and traditional values, a synergistic model. The hybridised model suggested by this study is based on the concept of management heterogeneity that reflects this new finding (Iguisi, 2009).

The management heterogeneity concept supports the theory that managerial practices of leadership, motivation, recruitment and promotion are culturally bound and that their development vary with societies and organisations. But it adopts a practical position on the increasing social and economic confrontations now facing organisations in the whole of Africa. The concept postulates an amalgamation of management practices, "*that management tools, skills and behaviours practiced in different cultures and organisations can be brought together in a positive synergistic blend to address the needs of a given society and organisation and improve its ability to deliver superior and relevant values to its actors*" (Iguisi, 2009 p. 220).

Employees in Cameroon are driven by extrinsic motivational factors more than intrinsic factors. This preference of extrinsic factors, by the employees fit well with their collectivistic culture. This kind of culture promotes values that have to do with relationship. It is indicated by the findings that the intrinsic motivational factor that is linked with work values is involving employees in decision-making. Employees longed to be involved in the decision-making process in their organisation which, according to the results of the employee's perception of the dominant leadership style is not the case.

Organisational success and performance in Cameroon can be improved if the leaders promote cultures that emphasise cooperation and involvement of employees in decision-making also,

specification of targets and institution and implementation of performance measurement techniques.

Closely related to performance measure is a specification of targets or goals (Anderson et al., 1995). Such cultures according to the employees, motivate them extrinsically, especially if the styles of the leaders are those that are aimed at encouraging motivation and interaction among organisational members.

In this era of globalisation, it is a truism that the intensity of interaction between conventional or Western management practices and traditional African (Cameroonian) values is increasing. As a result of the interaction, we should be expecting new forms of management concepts and practices in developing countries that will be a hybrid of both Western and traditional concepts. These concepts should take into consideration African cultures. This study has found out that involving employees in decision-making motivates them. Organisations when designing their rules, policies and structures should give allowance for employees to work well and appreciate their task fulfilment and achievements.

Summarily, the seven hypotheses are developed and tested against their validity in Cameroon and in relation to the literature. The result generally confirms previous findings of Hofstede for the cultural dimensions of the West African Region. The dominant leadership style in Cameroon organisations appears to be paternalistic. There is also indication that employees in Cameroon's organisations will perform better in conditions where organisational values such as cooperation, participation, specification of targets and performance measure are of paramount importance especially if the leadership dimensions are those that encourage motivation and interaction. Direct and indirect links appear to exist. The three concepts are subjected to quantification, but qualification investigation was better at revealing the emotionality and subjectivity underlying them.

The general research questions raised in Chapter One have been answered in Chapter Six. The hypotheses generated for the study were tested in Chapter Seven, five out of seven of them have been confirmed and two rejected. The aim of the study, which was to investigate the direct relationship between cultural values and employee motivation and the indirect relationship via leadership style, has been achieved. The research objectives have been achieved as well.

Insights, useful to future scholars about facilitating research in countries where transparency is rare and corruption and tribal nepotism are wide spread are important aspects of the thesis.

### **9.4 The Generalisability of the Empirical Research Results**

The methodology chapter paid a lot of attention to the process of carrying out fieldwork and research in an environment that is notoriously non-transparent, perhaps corrupt and have the habit of misinformation. The later, misinformation is a real barrier to development.

There are two chapters that outline the results in a very detail and factual form. They are presented in this way so as to facilitate the reproduction of the research. The final chapter summarises, interprets and tries to explain the results.

Based on the empirical facts furnished in this research, it may not be an exaggeration to say that the findings can lead to the conclusion that the culture and management practices in Cameroon is exemplified by the organisations studied in the research. They furnished facts that could be generalised to other Cameroonian and sub-Saharan African organisations. This claim is because the two sectors; telecommunication and banking are very important to the country's economy in terms of employment. These sectors employ workers from diverse ethnic backgrounds as indicated by the research findings, the employees came from all the five ethnic groups in Cameroon. The credibility of the conclusion is justified as the finding reflects the opinion of predominant management and employees from the five main ethnic groups of Cameroon. Though the organisations were situated in just two of the ten regions of Cameroon, the sampled population came from all the ten regions of the country, meaning the whole country was represented, hence the culture of Cameroon. However, the limitation of this research finding is that it cannot be generalised to other African countries as it will be vital to study the countries individually.

The discourse of national cultures and leadership styles suggest a degree of homogeneity in the demographics, the traditions and the institutions of a country; the evolution of homogeneity is likely to be a gradual learning process, subject from time to time to shocks that disturb the various definitions of culture. There is a sort of similarity between this concept and that developed by Richard Dawkins (1976); the concept of memes. The idea of



meme originated in biology. It is associated with Darwinian evolution. Darwin and all his followers deny that the 'inheritance of acquired characteristics' does not happen; things learned in one's lifetime do not affect genetic structure. They don't affect genes, so they can't be passed on to future generations. Dawkins is a Darwinist. He agrees with Darwin, but maintains that some things learned during a person's lifetime can be passed on to future generations not via the genes, but it can be passed on via tradition, norms, habits, customs and so on; in other word memes are transmitted from one generation to another and from one person to another.

The idea that things learned in one's lifetime can be passed on through the genes (inheritance of acquired characteristics) was discredited by Lamarck, an 18<sup>th</sup> century philosopher. Genetic inheritance of acquired characteristics is discredited by modern biologists, but that they can be acquired through traditions. But the idea of culture being passed on from one generation to another via meme is quite a different thing. Meme and culture are no doubt partly acquired from past generations. We pass on traditional ways of doing and thinking about things.

National cultural habits, traditions, manners memes, evolve over time. But this takes time. This is particularly applicable to the Cameroon. Cameroon boundaries were drawn in the 19th century by imperialists concerned with dividing up the continent into packages defined by straight lines on a map. These artificial straight-line packages bore little relationship to cultural homogeneity. Ethnic and tribal groups were arbitrarily split between countries, and countries contained many different ethnic groups, each having their own ethnic culture. Perhaps the inheritance of ethnic culture outweighed the inheritance of national culture because ethnic cultures are more enduring and more homogeneous than national culture.

### **9.5 The Contributions of this Study**

The study has contributed in a variety of ways; it has used existing theories of culture, motivation and leadership in a new context; Cameroon. It has contributed to an extension of theory to encompass a tripartite relationship. The contribution of new data should not be underestimated. The study has employed mix research methods; both quantitative and qualitative research designs were employed. The qualitative aspect took the form of emotive expressions.

The study has applied existing models of Hofstede, Likert, Herzberg, Vroom and Maslow in a new context; Cameroon. In a single study, this research demonstrated the interaction between the concepts of cultural values, leadership style and employee motivation. Research of this nature is rare in Cameroon. A hybridised management model has been developed as a result of the synergy of the three concepts.

### 9.5.1 Contribution to Hofstede's Categorisation

The West African Regional scores on Hofstede's (1980, 1991) cultural map constituted the scores derived from the study of just three West African countries; Nigeria, Sierra Leone and Ghana. This study, using the same formula has been able to compute scores for the different cultural dimensions postulated by Hofstede for Cameroon based on the sample.

When the four work-values on the pattern of scores for individualism were analysed separately, it was discovered that the Cameroonian employees' high preference for the factor "work with people who cooperate with each other" was the single most important factor that significantly pushed the dimension towards high collectivism.

When the four work-values on the pattern of scores for masculinity/femininity were analysed separately, it was found that the Cameroonian employees' high preference for the factor "to have security of employment" was the single most important factor that significantly pushed the score towards masculinity.

When the three work-values on the pattern of scores for uncertainty avoidance were analysed separately, the study found that the Cameroonian employees' high preference for the factor "an organisation's rules should not be broken – not even when the employee thinks it is in the company's best interest" was the single most important factor that significantly pushed the dimension towards moderate uncertainty avoidance.

Hofstede's categorisation of countries along culture dimensions did not reveal the details as to why the cultures of countries are high or low in some dimensions.

### 9.5.2 Contribution to Knowledge of Cameroon

This study has provided information about cultural values, leadership style and employee motivational factors in Cameroon's organisations. This study has brought out the importance of ethnicity, family ties and social relationship as traditional extrinsic factors which are considered to be very important in the Cameroon society and impinges on management practices. It was shown in this study that ethnicity, family and social relations emerged as the most important perceived traditional factors influencing the employee recruitment and promotion in Cameroon.

The focus was primarily the influence of extended family members (political affiliations, schoolmates, classmates, traditional rulers, etc). The assumption, therefore, is that a person with good social network stands a better chance in getting a job, being promoted or appointed into leadership positions and forging ahead on the job than the one with higher educational qualifications or any other credentials. This finding suggests that educational qualification and work experience are not enough in recruitment and promotion and as motivators, unless the society's value in this respect changes as most employees had wished. Therefore, as the employees' perceived them, family and social relation are not only important. They are also necessary in their behaviour towards their leaders and in their motivation mindset and also in getting in and in getting along with their organisations.

### 9.5.3 Contribution to the Social aspects of Work

A major contribution of this study to the social aspects of work is that a study went beyond organisational boundaries to investigating societal behaviours. The study of employee behaviours did not end with the conventional practices that take place within organisational realm; it also encompasses societal influence on management practices. For example, the study has gone a long way to identify other extrinsic factors which are affecting leadership style, motivation, and employee recruitment and promotion from outside. The need to study these external traditional factors is because their influence on employees behaviour and actions at work could be staggering, as was demonstrated in this research.

#### 9.5.4 Contribution to Organisational Management

Many studies suggest that a leadership style which promotes employee involvement and motivation are most effective, as they believe this form of involvement provides a commonality of interests which is advantageous. In the organisations investigated there was a belief from employees that their organisational culture is heavily influenced by extrinsic traditional management values. The employees and some managers think that Western intrinsic values such as educational experience and work experience ought to be employed by leaders in recruiting and promoting employees. It is this researcher's hope that the investigations and the data collected from this research will be welcomed by the companies and seen as an insight into the employment relationship and the levels of commitment, and involvement created in the workplace. This information can then be used to assess the need for any further development or change in the traditional Cameroonian organisational culture, leadership style, employee motivation, involvement, commitment, recruitment and promotion.

#### 9.6 Implication of the study

For African countries, the conflict between Western and African values in management and the need for synergy seems a wise option for appropriate and effective management system. Tentatively, the current debate suggests that both Western and African traditional values need to be researched, analysed, understood and be strengthened in Cameroon. But the question that remains is: where should the line of appropriateness and effectiveness in management: leadership style and employee motivation in Cameroon be drawn? Should we go by the experiences of some Western developed models, theory and economies? Or should we go by the African traditional values? African empirical evidence has mostly suggested that we should focus more on the traditional African values. However, the empirical findings that have been presented from the Cameroonian data (this study) suggest a mixture of Western and African values for meaningful and effective management. For instance, the study found out that employees are motivated when involved in decision-making. This is a western concept and foreign to traditional Africa, where it is believed that subordinates are not

allowed to contradict their superiors as an indication of respect for them. This explains the high power distance common in the sub-Saharan African countries.

As shown in the theoretical chapters of this study, the debate on whether cultural values can become the foundation of effective management in Africa has largely focused on the major drivers (individualism and low power distance) for the Western and the perceived constraints that African values (ethnicity, social relations, family orientation, collectivism and friendship) impose on management in African in general and Cameroon in particular. The traditional value factors as reflected in this study are not reckoned with as constituting important stimuli for adoption in organisations in Cameroon.

For sub-Saharan Africa, making strategic management decisions focusing on traditional value factors without paying equal attention to the Western value factors may give a misleading impression that the traditional values are the major drivers for effective management. However, as would be necessary for policy decisions, consideration of both value factors for effective management reveals that, the Western value factors might constitute and reasonably contribute to effective management practice in Cameroon. Empirical evidence of the Western and traditional value factors provided in this study demonstrates that there is a good prospect for appropriate and effective management practice of: leadership and motivation in Cameroonian organisations. Policies on the synergy between Western and African management values could be formulated to encourage the adoption of the growth-positive factors for appropriate and effective management practice in the sub-Saharan Africa. This suggests a hybridised model of management encompassing a mixture of the preferred traditional and Western values.

### **9.7 Limitations and Scope of the Research**

The study has natural limitations.

The limitations were particularly evident in the following areas:

1. The size of the sampled companies and the size of the population sampled were limited.

2. The population sampled was limited only to two geographical regions in Cameroon. The respondents belonged to four out of the five ethnic groups in Cameroon meaning one group was completely left out of the study. Cameroon is made up of ten regions, two English speaking and eight French speaking. The two regions involved in this study were the two English speaking regions. It is unlikely for two regions out of ten to give an accurate representation of a multi-lingual and ethnic country's cultural disposition.
3. The study is generally limited to the cultural context of management practices in Cameroon. This alone is not enough to explain the poor economic performance of organisations in the country.
4. The organisations studied were only from the private sector, no public sector organisation was sampled.
5. The sample size of employees who responded to the survey is somewhat limited. The time employed to cover the research was also limited. More time and larger sample would have produced more reliable results.

As observed by Emory & Cooper (1991), because business research tends to deal with familiar issues such as human attitudes, behaviour and performance, there is often scepticism when research findings differ from the opinions of the majority of people. This is the case when the sample size is not proportionate to the total population of the country involved in the study. In a country with hundreds of organisations, the selection of a few does not offer solid ground for generalisation about management practices. However, the choice of organisations considered in this research offers the platform for in-depth examinations of managerial practice adaptation to local cultural values, also making generalisation possible.

Another limitation of the study lies in its consideration of cultural values. Explanation of certain cultural facts may arouse some partial suspicion and doubts among scholars and among some practitioners. Especially when the phenomena discussed seem obscure or are not clearly explained or are not empirically founded. Most often, such studies are considered as lacking core facts in reliability, validity, representation and statistical significance. The tendency of scholars to dismiss these explanations as biased is very high. But this is not the case with this research; the cultural values were empirically tested. Other researchers of some countries in the sub-Saharan Region have confirmed the existence of similar values in their studies (Oppong, 2013; Iguisi, 2009).

The variation of humans from one culture to the other means that what is acceptable in one society may be rejected in another this cultural diversity leads to different interpretation of different cultural phenomena with people from different cultures. Information globalisation in recent times and other acculturation processes means that there do not exist anymore a distinct or homogenous culture meaning that there are no defined cultural boundaries.

The paucity of information on culture and management practices in the sub-Saharan Africa in general and Cameroon in particular has to an extent handicapped this study. Most of the facts have to be a new discovery and which in most cases is prone to criticisms.

### 9.8 Suggestions for Further Study

A number of issues emerged from this study, which deserve closer examination in another study. In this section of the chapter, the areas for further studies are noted. At this juncture, this study wish to affirm that the findings reported here appear satisfactorily robust, and have appreciably answered the research questions and the tested the hypotheses set out in chapter one, then achieved the study's objectives laid out in that same chapter and the theory chapters. However, the outcome of the study calls for the need for more study that may further deepen the understanding between culture and management practice in Cameroon. A thorough consideration of the conventional and traditional value factors that influence management practices in both public and private sectors of Cameroonian organisations is necessary.

It was pointed out in Chapters One, Two and Three that culture is an important determinant of the effectiveness of managerial leadership and motivation. Though culture is an important factor in management, it is very difficult to quantify culture as a static and programmable phenomenon, and as such, the results from quantitative data should not be taken as absolute truth without resorting to other qualitative data. A study entirely devoted to unravelling the evolution of cultural values in modern management in Cameroonian organisations may be necessary to ascertain the strength and weakness of culture in management practices in public and private sector organisations in Cameroon, and to what extent they influence employees' perceptions, attitudes and behaviours towards the practice of managerial leadership and motivation.

## 9.9 Recommendations

The intention is to provide recommendations to a variety of entities including; organisations in transition, organisational owners and managers, employees, HR Practitioners, as well as academics and researchers.

### 9.9.1 Recommendations to Organisations in Transition

As globalisation and international competitive pressures are now demanding a new international competitiveness, the emerging economies, are using economic liberalisation as their primary engine of growth. An emerging economy can be defined as a country that satisfies two criteria: a rapid pace of economic development, and government policies favouring economic privatisation and the adoption of a free-market system. In Cameroon this phenomenon has been enhanced by the wave of economic liberalisation the encouragement of foreign investment, the deregulation of financial markets and the lowering of tariff and non tariff barriers to international trade. Over two decades after the institution of privatisation state own assets in Cameroon the movement has achieved very little success. The country is still considered as a Heavily Indebted Poor Country (HIPC) (World Bank Report on Development, 2014).

In addition to this phenomenon is the economic liberalisation and privatisation, which has opened the way for foreign investors to establish businesses in Cameroon. Most of these businesses are managed not by nationals, but foreigners and as this study has revealed about the kind of employment relationship that Cameroonian employees prefer; it will be wise for such organisations not to import management practices but to consider the local people's perceptions. The failure of some private organisations in Cameroon is due to the fact that they failed to consider the cultural values of the country their organisation operates in or the culture that exerts influence on the leadership style.

Economic policy regulations, even if modified in the frame of liberalisation, are still handled by governments as powerful tools of political control over economic agents and interactions to maintain the political and economic hegemony of the ruling elites and their clientele. The



process of globalisation provides opportunities for managers to overhaul their antiquated HRM practices and adopt modern ones that are capable of dealing with the threats and opportunities in the organisational environment, but it can also spell doom for employees as organisations react to competitive pressures by cutting jobs, restructuring and thus creating insecurity in the workplace.

### 9.9.2 Recommendations to Owners, Managers and Employees

The owners of the organisations in Cameroon in their reaction to global pressures for greater competitiveness, need to adopt a strategic HRM approach which seeks to balance employee well-being against the interest of the organisation. In other words, leaders should develop an environment where issues of trust, respect and organisational justice are taken seriously. Furthermore, the flexible work arrangements required by modern management practices; such as; high motivation, high performance and high involvement would provide workers' participation in improving production processes. Such employee participation practices would permit sharing the responsibility for productivity and quality as well as for production goals, though it might require greater work effort and stress by those workers whose labour conditions are changing.

In all of the firms surveyed and the others throughout Cameroon there must be a greater emphasis on allowing employees to participate fully in the operation of the organisation specifically in decision-making. Such a participative leadership style is the opposite of authoritarian (autocratic and paternalistic) leadership and can be defined as a system of engaging employees as willing co-producers of, valuable contributors to, as well as co-owners of a better future. It involves much more than sharing authority and decision-making, it entails actively seeking employee inputs, allowing them to contribute to the resolution of work-related issues. The basic idea of participation represents a shift toward sharing control and power, founded on the assumptions that providing employees with more control, information, and responsibility improve worker satisfaction and increases productivity. Succinctly, it has to do with empowering employees.

## References

- Aborisade, R., & Obioha, E. E. (2009). The Role of Motivation in Enhancing Job Commitment in Nigeria Industries: A Case Study of Energy Foods Company Limited, Ibadan. *Journal of Social Sciences, 19*, 149-154.
- Abu Bakar, R., Abdul, L., & Lee, C. (2008). How We Do Things Around Here: Implications of Corporate Culture On Job Performance. *Business Review, 9* (2).
- Adler, N. (1991). *International Dimensions of Organizational Behavior*. McGill University: The Kent International Dimensions of Business Series.
- Afful-Broni, A. (2012). Relationship between Motivation and Job Performance at the University of Mines and Technology, Tarkwa, Ghana: Leadership Lessons. *Scientific Research, 3*, 309-314.
- Alderfer, C. (1972). An Organisational Syndrome. *Administrative Science Quarterly, 12*, 440-460.
- Alghazo, A. M., & Al-Anazi, M. (2016). The Impact of Leadership Style on Employee motivation. *International Journal of Economics and Business Administration, 2* (5), 37-44.
- Ali, S., Akuahmoah-Boateng, R., Bowa, M., Carr, C., I., E., Griff, P., et al. (2001). Indigenising organisational change: Localisation in Tanzania and Malawi. *Journal of Managerial Psychology, 16* (1), 59-78.
- Almansour, Y. M. (2012). The relationship between Leadership styles and Motivation of managers Conceptual framework. *Journal of Arts, Science & Commerce, III* (I), 161-166.
- Almansour, Y. M. (2012). The Relationship Between Leadership Styles and Motivation of Managers Conceptual Framework. *Journal of Arts, Science & Commerce, III* (1), 161-163.
- Al-Tarawneh, H. A. (2012). The Main Factors Beyond Decision Making. *Journal of Management Research, 44*, 1-23.
- Alvesson, M., & Berg, P. (1992). *Corporate Culture and Organisational Symbolism*. Berlin: Walter de Gruyter.
- Al-Zawahreh, A., & Al-Madi, F. (2001). The Utility of Equity Theory in Enhancing Organizational Effectiveness. *European Journal of Economics, Finance and Administrative Sciences, 1*-30.
- Aninpah, K. S., & Menjo, B. (2008). China-Africa Economic Relations: The Case of Cameroon.

Anwar Ali, S., Anka, L., Jamali, M., & Shaikh, F. (2012). Motivation as a Tool for Effective Staff Productivity in the Public sector: A Case Study of Raw Materials Research and Development Council of Nigeria. *8* (11).

Arash, H. v. (2008). Nepotism, Favouritism and Cronyism: A study of their effects on job stress and job satisfaction in the banking industry of north Cyprus. *Social Behaviour and Personality*, *36* (9), 1237-1250.

Ardichvili, A., & Kchinke, K. (2002). Leadership Styles and Cultural Values Among Managers and Subordinates: A comparative study of Four Countries of former Soviet Union, Germany, and the US. *Human Resource Development International*, *5* (1), 99-117.

Argyris, C. (1976). *Increasing leadership Effectiveness*. New York: Wiley.

Armstrong, M. (2000). *Human Resource Management - Strategy and action* (2nd Edition). London: Kogan Page.

Arnold, H. (1976). Effects of performance feedback and extrinsic reward upon high intrinsic motivation. *Organisational Behaviour and Human Performance*, *17*, 275-288.

Arnold, W. E., McCroskey, J. C., & Prichard, S. V. (1967). The Likert type Scale. Retrieved April 2014 from <http://www.jamescmccroskey.com/publications/25.htm>.

Ashman, I., & Winstanley, D. (2006). The ethics of organizational commitment. *Business Ethics: A European Review*, *15* (2), 142-152.

Atang, C. (1997). *The pragmatics of Afrocentric communication patterns: some implications for African Americans*. Houston: University of Houston.

Atkinson, J. (1958). *Motives in Fantasy, action and society*. New York: Van Nostrand.

Avolio, B. (1999). *Full Leadership Development: Building the Vital Forces in Organization*. Thousand Oaks: Sage Publications.

Awoniyi, S. (2015). African cultural values: The past, present and future. *Journal of Sustainable Development in Africa (Volume 17, No.1, 2015)*, *17* (1).

Baldoni, J. (2005). *Motivation Secrets*. Retrieved from Great Motivation Secrets of Great Leaders: [http://govleaders.org/motivation\\_secrets.htm](http://govleaders.org/motivation_secrets.htm) [WWW page]. URL

Banaji, M. (2011). *Reinforcement theory*. Retrieved from <http://news.harvard.edu/gazette/story/multimedia/reinforcement-theory>. Harvard gazette.

Banerji, P., & Krishnan, V. (2000). Ethical Preferences of Transformational Leadership: An Empirical Investigation. *Journal of Leadership and Organisational development*, 21, 405-413.

Barbuto, J. E. (2005). Motivation and Transactional, Charismatic, and Transformational Leadership: A Test of Antecedents. *Journal of Leadership and Organizational Studies*, 11 (4), 27-40.

Bartol, K., & Martin, D. (1998). *Management*. McGraw Hill.

Bass, B. M. (1990). *Bass and Stogdill's Handbook of leadership Theory, research and managerial applications*. (3rd Ed.). New York: Fress Press.

Bekolo, C. (1995). *La relance des entreprises publiques au Cameroun : une approche par ia liberalisation*. Paris: Actuality Scientiflque.

Bendixen, M., & Burger, B. (1998). Cross-cultural management philosophies. *Journal of Business Research*, 42 (2), 107-14.

Benjamin, L., & Flynn, F. J. (2006). Leadership style and regulatory mode: Value from fit? *Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes*, 100, 216-230.

Bennis, W., & Nanus, B. (1985). *Leaders: The strategies for taking charge*. New York: Harper.

Bergiel, E. B., Bergiel, B. J., & Upson, J. W. (2012). Revisiting Hofstede's Dimensions: Examining the Cultural Convergence of the United States and Japan. *American Journal of Management*, 12 (1), 69-79.

Bhamani, M. (2012). The Difference between Leadership and Management school of thoughts. *A t h a b a s c a University, Centre for Innovative Management*, 1-55.

Biko, S. (1978). *I write what I like*. New York.

Bird, D. (2009). The use of questionnaires for acquiring information on public perception of natural hazards and risk mitigation –a review of current knowledge and practice. *Natural Hazards and Earth System Science* 1307-1325.

Bird, D., & Dominey-Howes, D. (2008). *Testing the use of a "questionnaire survey instrument" to investigate public perceptions of tsunami hazard and risk in Sydney, Australia*. Australia: Nat. Hazards.

- Blais, R. A., & Toulouse, J. M. (1990). Les motivations des entrepreneurs : une étude empirique de 2278 fondateurs d'entreprises dans 14 pays. *Revue Internationale PME*, 3 (3-4).
- Block, N. (2002). The Harder Problem of Consciousness. *The Journal of Philosophy XCIX* (8), 1-35.
- Boal, K., & Cummings, L. (1981). Cognitive Evaluation Theory: An Experimental Test of Processes and Outcomes. *Organisational Behaviour and Human Performance*, 28, 289-310.
- Bodley, J. H. (1994 ). *Cultural Anthropology: Tribes, states, and the global system*. Mountain View CA, Mayfield.
- Bolden, R., & Kirk, P. (2009). African Leadership: Surfacing New understandings through Leadership Development. *International Journal of Cross-Cultural Management*, 9 (1), 69-87.
- Bowen, P., Akintoye, A., Pearl, R., & Edwards, J. (2007). 25, 631- 648.
- Brown, A. (1998). *Organisational Culture* (2nd Ed.). Pitman Publishing.
- Bryman, A. (2012). *Social Research Methods* (4th Ed.). London: Sage.
- Bubaker, N. (2009). The Impact of Organisational Culture on Employees Motivation: Libyan case study. *Research Institute for the Built and Human Environment*.
- Buble, M., Juras, A., & Matic, I. (2014). The Relationship between managers' leadership Styles and Motivation. *Management*, 19 (1), 161-193.
- Budhwar, P., & Debrah, Y. (2005). *International HRM in developing countries*. In: Scullion, H. & Linehan, M. Eds. *International Human Resource Management: A Critical Text*. New York: Palgrave Macmillan.
- Burke, W. W. (1987). *Organizational Development*. Reading: MA: Addison-Wesley.
- Burns, J. M. (1978). *Leadership*. New York: Harper & Row.
- Byrne, G. J., & Bradley, F. (2007). Culture's influence on leadership efficiency: How personal and national cultures affect leadership style. *Journal of Business Research*, 60, 168-175.
- Calder, B., & Straw, B. (1975). The self-perception of Intrinsic and Extrinsic Motivation. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 35, 599-605.
- Cameroon, E. R. (2000). *Cameroon Research Group*. Cameroon.

- Carbaugh, D. (2007). Commentary From Cognitive Dichotomies to Cultural Discourses: Hofstede, Fougere and Moulettes in Conversation. *Journal of Multicultural Discourses*, 2 (1), 1-7.
- CEED. (2010). *Beijing + 15 The Reality of Cameroon and the Unfinished Business: Assessing the Implementation of the Beijing Platform of Action in Cameroon*. Gender Empowerment and Development.
- Chapman, M. (1997). Social Anthropology, Business studies, and Cultural issues. *International Studies in Management and Organization*, 26 (4), 3-29.
- Chaudhary, P. (2012). Effects of Employees Motivation on Organizational Performance- A Case Study. *International Journal of Research in Economics & Social Sciences*, 2 (9), 81-87.
- Chemers, M. M. (1997). *An Intergrated Theory of Leadership*. San Diego: Academic Press Inc.
- Chhokar, J. S., Brodbeck, F., & House, R. (2007). *Culture and leadership across the world: The GLOBE book of indepth studies of 25 societies*. Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.
- Chiku, M. (2006). Learning Leadership Development from African Cultures: A Personal Perspective. *Praxis Note* 25.
- Chong, L., & Thomas, D. C. (1997). Leadership perceptions in the cross-cultural context: Pakeha and Pacific Islanders in New Zealand. *Leadership Quarterly*, 8 (3), 275-293.
- Cole, G. A. (2004). *Management – Theory and Practice* (Sixth Ed.). London: South-Western Cengage Learning.
- Collis, J., & Hussey, R. (2009). *Business Research: a practical guide for undergraduate and postgraduate students* (3rd Ed.). Basingstoke: Palgrave Macmillan.
- Conton, W. (1966). *The African*. London.
- Cosway, N., & Anankum, S. (1996). 'Traditional leadership and community management in Northern Ghana', in Blunt, Peter and Warren, D.M. (eds.), *Indigenous Organisations and Development*. London: Intermediate Technology Publications.
- Crow, S. R., & Small, R. V. (2011). Developing the Motivation Within: Using Praise and Rewards Effectively. *School Library Monthly*, 27, 5-8.
- Cummings, T., & Worley, C. (2001). *Essentials of organisation development and changes*. Cincinnati: South-Western.

- D'Iribarne, P. (1990). Ce qui est universel et ce qui ne l'est pas . *Revue française de gestion*.
- Daft, L. R. (1997). *Management* (4th Ed.). Fort Worth: The Dryden Press: Harcourt Brace College Publishers.
- Daft, L. R. (2008). *New Era of Management* (Second Edition Ed.). Mason, OH: Thomson South-Western.
- Daft, R. (2007). *Organisational Theory and Design*. (N. Edition, Ed.) South-Western: Cengage Learning.
- Daghfous, N., Petrof, J. v., & Pons, F. (1999). Values and adoption of innovations: a cross-cultural study. *Journal of Consumer Marketing*, 16, 314-31.
- Dahie, A. M., Takow, M. A., Nur, A. H., & Osman, M. M. (2016). Organizational culture and employee performance at telecommunication firms in Mogadishu-Somalia. *International Journal in Commerce, IT & Social Sciences*, 3 (1), 30-41.
- Darou, W. G., Bernier, P., & Ruano, C. (2003). Sow's African Personality and Psychology Model. *Cross-Cultural Psychology Bulletin*, 37.
- Davidson, B. (1969). *The African Genius*. Boston.
- Davis, H. (1972). *Human behavior at work: Organizational behavior* (5th Ed.). New York, USA: McGraw-Hill.
- Davis-Blake, A., & Pfeffer, J. (1988). Just a Mirage: the search for dispositional effects in organizational research. *Academy of Management Review*, 14, 385-400.
- De Vaus, D. (2014). *Surveys in Social Research* (6th Ed.). London: Roulledge.
- Deal, T. E., & Kennedy, A. A. (1982). *Corporate Cultures: The rites and rituals of corporate life*. Reading, MA: Addison-Wesley.
- Debenedett, S. (1998). La convivialite de groupe dans les sorties cuitureiies. *XIV Congres International de Bordeaux organise par AFM*, 777-794.
- Deci, E. L., Cascio, W. F., & Kursell, J. (1975). Cognitive Evaluation Theory and Some Comments on the Calder and Staw Critique. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 31 (1), 81-85.
- Deci, E. L., Koestner, R., & Ryan, R. M. (2001). Extrinsic Rewards and Intrinsic Motivation in Education: Reconsidered Once Again. *Review of Educational Research*, 71 (1), 1-27.

Deci, E. (1975). Notes on the Theory and Metatheory of Intrinsic Motivation. *Organisational Behaviour and Human Performance*, 15, 130-145.

Deci, E. (1972). The effects of contingent and non-contingent rewards and controls on intrinsic motivation. *Organisational Behaviour and Human Performance*, 8, 130-145.

Deci, E., & Ryan, R. (2000). The “what” and “why” of goals pursuits: Human needs and the self-determination of behaviour. *Psychological Inquiry*, 11, 27-268.

Den Hartog, D. N., House, R. J., Hanges, P. J., & Ruiz-Quintanilla, S. A. (1999). Culture specific and cross-culturally generalizable implicit leadership theories: are attributes of charismatic/transformational leadership universally endorsed? *Leadership Quarterly*, 10 (2), 219-256.

DeNisi, A., Randolph, W., & Blencoe, A. (1982). Level and source of feedback as determinants of feedback effectiveness. *Proceedings, Academy of Management*, 175-179.

Denison, D. (1990). *Corporate Culture and Organisation Effectiveness*. New York: Wiley.

Denison, D., & Mishra, A. (1995). Toward a theory of organisational culture and effectiveness. *Journal of Organization Science*, 6 (2), 204-223.

Deshpande, R., & Farley, J. (1999). Executive Insights: Corporate Culture and Market Orientation: Comparing Indian and Japanese Firms. *Journal of International Marketing*, 7 (2), 111-127.

Detert, J., Schroeder, R., & Mauriel, J. (2000). A framework for linking culture and improvement initiatives in Organizations. *Academy of Management Review*, 25 (4), 850-863.

Devauge, R. (1977). dans « *L'oncle, le ndoki et l'entrepreneur, la petite entreprise congolaise à Brazzaville*. éd. de l'ORSTOM.

Dewarrat, G. (1984). La mesure d'efficience des organisations non-profit (ONG): aspects et problèmes. *Direction et Gestion* (4), 7-20.

Dia, M. (1994). *Indigenous management practices: lessons for Africa's management in the 90s' in Seragel Culture and Development in Africa*. Washington, DC: World Bank.

Diageo, p. (2011). Business Trade Capacity in Developing Countries: Private Sector Contribution to Aid for Trade. *Case for World Bank and World Trade Association*.

Dimandja, A. (2004). *The Role and Place of Women in Sub-Saharan African Societies*. New York: Global Action on Aging.



Dorfman, P. (2004). *International and cross-cultural leadership research* (In Punnett, B. and Shenkar, O. (Eds), Handbook for International Management Research, 2nd Ed.). Ann Arbor, MI.: The University of Michigan Press.

Dorfman, P. W., & House, R. J. (2004). *Cultural influences on organizational leadership: Literature review, theoretical rationale, and GLOBE project goals* (In R. J. House, P. J. Hanges, M. Javidan, P. W. Dorfman & V. Gupta (Eds.), Culture, leadership, and organizations: The GLOBE study of 62 societies Ed.). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

Dorfman, P. W., Hanges, P. J., & Brodbeck, F. C. (2004). *Leadership and cultural variation: Identification of culturally endorsed leadership profiles. In R. J.* (In R. J. House, P. J. Hanges, M. Javidan, P. W. Dorfman & V. Gupta (Eds.) Culture, leadership, and organizations: The GLOBE study of 62 societies Ed.). Thousand Oaks: Sage.

Downs, J. (1971). *Cultures in Crisis*. Beverly Hills, CA: Glencoe Press.

Drucker, P. F. (1986). *The Frontiers of Management: Where Tomorrow's Decisions Are Being Shaped Today*. New York, NY: Penguin Group.

Edersheim, E., & Drucker, P. (2007). *The Definitive Drucker*. New York: McGraw-Hill Professional.

Eloundou-Enyegue, M. P., & Shapiro, D. (2004). Buffering inequalities: The safety net of extended families in Cameroon. In A. P. Etoh-Anzah, *The role of bank spread in the efficient mobilization of domestic savings in the extreme western region of Cameroon*. Atlanta: SAGA Working Paper. Cornell and Clark Atlanta University.

Epstein, S. (1979). The Stability of behavior: 1. On predicting most of the people much of the time. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 37, 1097-1126.

Eric, F. (2005). Conceptualizing and measuring the economic value of human capital of the third kind: corporate culture. *Journal of Human Resource Costing and Accounting*, 9 (2), 78-93.

Etim, E. (2001). *Scientific and Technological Information use and Industrial Development in Nigeria*. Uyo: Heinemann.

Etzioni, A. (1964). *Modern Organizations*. Englewood Cliffs, N.J.: Prentice-Hall.

Evans, P. (1996). Using cross-country variances to evaluate growth theories. *Journal of Economic Dynamic and Control*, 20, 1027-1049.

Fafchamps. (2004). *Market Institutions in Sub Saharan Africa*. MIT Press.

- Faizan, M., Musarrat, M. N., Sarfraz, M. K., Shaukat, Z., & Aslam, N. (2004). Are Employee Motivation and Job Involvement Inter-related: Evidence from Banking Sector of Pakistan. *International Journal of Business and Social Science*, 2 (17).
- Fan, Y. (2000). A classification of Chinese culture. *Cross Cultural Management*, 7 (2), 3-10.
- Farr, J. (1976). Task Characteristics, Reward Contingency and Intrinsic Motivation. *Organisational Behaviour and Human Performance*, 16, 294-307.
- Fashola, J. O. (2014). Reawakening African Cultural Practices Towards Global Harmony: Role of Kinship. *Review of Arts and Humanities*, 3, 101-113.
- Fenelon, J., & Hall, T. (2008). Revitalization and indigenous resistance to globalization and neoliberalism. *American Behavioural Scientist*, 15 (12), 1867-1901.
- Fey, F. C. (2005). Opening the black box of motivation: A cross-cultural comparison of Sweden and Russia. *International Business Review*, 14, 345-367.
- Fielder, F. E. (1967). *A theory of leadership effectiveness*. New York, USA: McGraw-Hill.
- Finck, G., Timmers, J., & Mennes, M. (1998). Satisfaction vs. Motivation. Across The Board. *Across The Board*, 35 (9), 55-56.
- Firkola, P., & Lim, L. (2003-07). Cross-Cultural Management Research Issues. *Economic Journal of Hokkaido University*, 32, 45-68.
- Fleischer, A. (2007). Family, obligations and migration: the role of kinship in Cameroon. *Demographic Research*, 16 (13), 413-440.
- Fougère, M., & Moulettes, A. (2007). The Construction of the Modern West and the Backward Rest in Hofstede's Culture's Consequences. *Journal of Multicultural Discourses*, 2-26.
- Freeman, R. (1994). The politics of stakeholder theory. *Business Ethics Quarterly*, 4, 409 – 421.
- Friedman, M. (1970). *The social responsibility of business is to increase its profits*. New York: Times Magazine.
- Galiegue, X., & Madjimbaye, N. (2006). Le management Africain entre contraintes Economiques et Contingences Culturelles: Resultats d'une enquete a N'Djamena, Tchad. *Document de Recherche*, 1-23.

Gardiner, K. (1998). *Managing in different cultures: The case of Ghana*. In: Towers, B. Ed. *The Handbook of Human Resource Management* (2nd Ed.). Oxford: Blackwell Publishing Ltd.

Geletkanycz, M. (1997). The salience of 'culture's consequences': The effects of cultural values on top executive commitment to the status quo. *Strategic management Journal*, 18 (8), 615-634.

Ghanbarpour, Z., & Najmolhoda, F. S. (2013). Contemporary theories of Motivation in Organizational Leadership and Behavior. *International Research Journal of Applied and Basic Sciences*, 6 (1), 1-7.

Giacomino, D., Li, X., & Akers, M. (2013). An Examination Of Personal Values And Value Systems Of Chinese And U.S. Business Students. *American Journal of Business Education*, 6 (1), 119-128.

Giberson, T., Dickson, M., Randall, K., Resick, C., Mitchelson, J., & Clark, M. (2009). Leadership and Organisational Culture: Linking CEO Characteristics to Cultural Values. *Journal of Business and Psychology*, 123-137.

Golafshani, N. (2003). Understanding Reliability and Validity in Qualitative Research. *The Qualitative Report*, 8 (4), 597-606.

Goldthorpe, J. (1968). *The Affluent Worker: Industrial attitudes and behaviour*. London: Cambridge University Press.

Gonos, J., & Gallo, P. (2013). Model for Leadership Style Evaluation. *Management*, 18 (2), 157-168.

Goold, M., & Campbell, A. (1987). *Strategies and Styles*. Oxford: Blackwall.

Gopal, R., & Chowdhury, R. G. (2014). Leadership Styles and Employee Motivation: An Investigation in a Leading. *International Journal of Research in Business Management*, 2 (5), 1-10.

Gouws, A. (1995). *The Relationship between motivation and job satisfaction of a group of information specialists*. Johannesburg: Rand Afrikaans University.

Greller, M. M., & Herold, D. M. (1975). Sources of feedback: A preliminary investigation. *Organisational Behaviour and Human Performance*, 13, 244-256.

Guide, M. S. (2013, February 2nd). *Management Study Guide (2013) Reinforcement Theory of Motivation*. Retrieved on February 2nd, [reinforcement-theory-motivation.htm](http://managementstudyguide.com). Retrieved from Reinforcement Theory of Motivation. Retrieved on February 2nd, <http://managementstudyguide.com>.

- Gyekye, K. (1976). A measure of individual modernity. *Journal of Personality Assessment*, 40 (1), 3-9.
- Gyekye, K. (2002). *African Cultural Values: An Introduction*. Legon, Ghana: Sankofa Publishing Company.
- Gyekye, K. (1988). *The unexamined life: Philosophy and the African experience*. Ghana Accra: Universities Press.
- Hai, D. (1986). *Organizational Behaviour: Experiences and Cases*. . St. Paul, MN: West Publishing Co.
- Halpin, A. W., & Winer, B. J. (1957). A factorial study of the leader behavior descriptions. *Paper presented in the First International Conference on Bureau of Business Research*. Ohio State, USA: The Ohio State University.
- Hamner, W. C., & Organ, D. (1978). *Organizational Behavior An Applied Psychological Approach*. Dallas: Business Publications.
- Handy, C. (1985). *Understanding Organisations*. England: Penguin Books.
- Hannerz, U. (1992). *Cultural complexity. Studies in the social organisation of meaning*. New York: Columbia University Press.
- Harbison, F., & Myers, C. A. (1964). *Education, Manpower, and Economic Growth: Strategies of Human Resource Development*. New York: McGraw-Hill.
- Hellriegel, D., Jackson, S., Slocum, J., Staude, G., Amos, T., Klopper, H., et al. (2004). *Management* (2nd ed.). Cape Town: Oxford University Press South Africa.
- Henry, A. (1988). Peut-on redresser une entreprise africaine en respectant la parole des ancêtres? *Gérer et Comprendre*.
- Hernandez, E. (2007). Entre tradition et modernité, proposition d'un modèle de management Africain. *Gestion 2000*, 21-30.
- Hersey, P., & Blanchard, K. H. (1988). *Management of organizational behavior: Utilizing human resources* (5th Ed.). Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey, USA: Prentice Hall.
- Herzberg, F., Bernard, M., & Barbara, S. (1959). *The Motivation to Work*. New York: Wiley.

- Heydari, M., Saeidi, M., & Sadai, H. (2016). Examine the Relationship between Leadership Style (Based on Likert Theory) with Job Satisfaction of Teachers in Shahed High Schools' for Girls' in Tehran in the Academic Year 2014-2015. *Mediterranean Journal of Social Sciences*, 7 (2), 224-240.
- Hofmans, J. (2012). Individual differences in equity models. *Psicológica*, 33, 473-482.
- Hofstede, G. (2007). Asian Management in the 21st century. *Asia Pacific Journal Of Management*, 411-420.
- Hofstede, G. (1993). Cultural constraints in management theories. *Academy of Management Executive*, 7, 81.
- Hofstede, G. (2001b). *Culture's Consequences: Comparing Values, Behaviors, Institutions, and Organizations across Nations* (2nd Ed.). Thousand Oaks, CA.: Sage Publications.
- Hofstede, G. (1980). *Culture's Consequences: International Differences in Work-related Values*. Beverly Hills, CA: Sage Publications.
- Hofstede, G. (2011). Dimensionalising Culture: The Hofstede Model in Context. *International Association for Cross-Cultural Psychology*, 1-26.
- Hofstede, G. (1994). Management Scientists are Humans. *Management Science*, 40 (1), 4-13.
- Hofstede, G. (1980). Motivation, Leadership, and Organization: Do American Theories Apply Abroad? *Organizational Dynamics*, 48-63.
- Hofstede, G. (1983). National Cultures in Four Dimensions: A research-based Theory of Cultural Differences among Nations. *International Studies of Management and Organisation*, 13, 46-74.
- Hofstede, G. (1999). *Organisational Dynamics: The Universal and the specifics in 21st century global management*.
- Hofstede, G., Gert Jan, H., & Minkov, M. (2010). *Cultures and Organizations: Software of the Mind* (3rd Ed.). New York: McGraw-Hill.
- Holloway, K. (1996). Goal Setting for Self-Improvement. *Scholastic Coach*, 61.
- House, R. J. (1971). A Path-goal theory of leader effectiveness. *Administrative Science Quarterly*, 321-338.
- House, R. J., & Aditya, R. N. (2001). The Social Scientific Study of Leadership: Quo Vadis? *Journal of Management*, 23, 409-473.

House, R. J., & Aditya, R. N. (1997). The social scientific study of leadership: Quo vidas. *Journal of Management*, 23 (3), 409-473.

House, R. J., Hanges, P. J., Ruiz-Quintanilla, S. A., Dorfman, P. W., Javidan, M., & Dickson, M. (2004). *Culture, Leadership, and Organizations: The GLOBE study of 62 societies*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

House, R., Javidan, B., Hanges, P., & Dorfman, P. (2002). Understanding cultures and implicit leadership theories across the globe: an introduction to project GLOBE. *Journal of World Business*, 37, 3-10.

House, R., Javidan, M., Hanges, P., Dorfman, P., & Ruiz-Quintanilla, S. A. (1999). *Cultural influences on leadership and organizations. Advances in global leadership* (Vol. 1). Stanford, CT: JAI Press.

Huseman, R. C., Hatfield, J. D., & Miles, E. W. (1987). A New Perspective on Equity Theory: The Equity Sensitivity Construct. *Academy of Management Review*, 12 (2), 222-234.

Iguisi, O. (2014). African values for the Practice of Human Resource Management. *Beykent University Journal of Social Sciences*, 7 (1), 56-77.

Iguisi, O. (2012). *Cultural Dynamics in African Management Practice: Leadership, Motivation, Recruitment and Promotion*. LAP LAMBERT Academic Publishing.

Iguisi, O. (2009). Motivation-related values across cultures. *African Journal of Business Management*, 3, 141-150.

Ilgen, D., Fisher, C., & Taylor, M. (1979). Consequences of Individual feedback on behaviour in organisations. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 64, 349-371.

Ilgen, D., Peterson, R., Martin, B., & Boesch, D. (1981). Supervisor and subordinate reactions to performance appraisal sessions. *Organisational Behaviour and Human performance*, 28, 311-330.

Jariya, A. I. (2012). Western cultural values and its implications on management practices. *South East Asian Journal of Contemporary Business, Economics and Law*, 1, 61-70.

Javidan, M., & Carl, D. E. (2004). East meets west: A cross-cultural comparison of charismatic leadership among Canadian and Iranian executives. *Journal of Management Studies*, 41 (4), 665-691.

Javidan, M., & Carl, D. E. (2005). Leadership across cultures: A study of Canadian and Taiwanese Executives. *Management International Review*, 45 (1), 23-44.

Javidan, M., & Lynton, N. (2005). *The changing face of the Chinese executive*. Harvard Business Review.

Javidan, M., House, R., Dorfman, P., Hanges, P., & Luque, M. (2006). Conceptualizing and Measuring Cultures and Their Consequences: A Comparative Review of GLOBE's and Hofstede's Approaches. *Journal of International Business Studies*, 37 (6), 897-914.

Ji Li, Y. T. (2013). Regional differences in a national culture and their effects on leadership effectiveness: A tale of two neighbouring Chinese cities. *Journal of World Business*, 48, 13-19.

Jick, T. (1979). Mixing Qualitative and quantitative Methods: Triangulation in Action. *Administrative Science Quarterly*, 24, 602-6012.

Jogulu, U. D. (2010). Culturally-linked leadership styles. *Leadership & Organizational Development Journal*, 31, 705-719.

Johnson, H. (2005). When the future decides: uncertainty and intentional action in contemporary Cameroon. *Current Anthropology*, 46 (6).

Johnson, P., & Gill, J. (1993). *Management control and Organisational Behaviour*. London: Paul Chapman Publishing.

Kamalian, A. R., Yaghoubi, N., & Moloudi, J. (2010). Survey of Relationship between Organisational Justice and Empowerment (A Case Study). *European Journal of Economics, Finance and Administrative Sciences* (24), 165-171.

Kamdem, E. (2007). (2007). ÉthiqueMondialisation et pratique des affaires: enjeux et perspectives pour l'Afrique. *Management internationale*, 11 (2), 65-79.

Kamdem, E. (2002). *Management et interculturalité en Afrique : expérience camerounaise*. Quebec: Les Presses de l'Université Laval.

Kamdem, E. (2004). Mondialisation, changement social et compétitivité en Afrique : leçons du passé, interrogations du présent, défis du futur. *Revue Camerounaise de management*, 13, 1-13.

Kamdem, E. (2000). Itinéraire de recherche qualitative sur les temporalités en Afrique. *RECHERCHES QUALITATIVES / HORS SÉRIE*, 61-67.

Kamdem, E. (2002). *Le temps différencié* (Dans E. Kamdem (Éd.), *Management et interculturalité en Afrique : expérience camerounaise* ed.). Quebec: Les Presses de l'Université Laval.

- Kamoche, K. (1997). Competence-creation in the African public sector. *The International Journal of Public Sector Management*, 10 (4), 268-78.
- Kanu, M. A. (2010). The Indispensability of the Basic Social Values in African Tradition: A Philosophical Appraisal. Retrieved Online from [www.ajol.info/index.php/og/article/view](http://www.ajol.info/index.php/og/article/view) .
- Kanungu. (2014). *Organization and Management in Cross-Cultural Context*. Sage Publication.
- Kausar, S. (2014). Impact of Quality Culture on employees' Motivation: A study on Education Sector of Pakistan. *Middle-East Journal of Scientific Research*, 20 (4), 1082-1089.
- Keles, H. N., Ozkan, T. K., & Berzirci, M. (2011). A study of the effects of Nepotism, favouritism and cronyism on organisational trust in the Auditing Process in Family Businesses in Turkey. *International Business & Economic Research Journal*, 10.
- Kenny, G., & Steiger, J. (1981). The Participative Management Style: Does it Work? *Asia Pacific Journal of Human Resources*, 19, 45-49.
- Khanna, T. (2010). Focus on Mid Level-Managers. *Business World*.
- Kiggundu, M. (1993). The Challenge of Management Development in Sub-Saharan Africa. In P. e. Blunt, *Managing Organisations in Africa. Readings, Cases, and Exercises* (pp. 169-186). Berlin: de Gruyter.
- Kim, J., & Schuler, R. (1979). The nature of the task as a moderator of the relationship between extrinsic feedback and employee responses. *Academy of Management Journal*, 22, 157-162.
- Kindleberger, C. P. (1965). *Economic Development*. New York: McGraw-Hill.
- Kirkman, B., Lowe, K., & Gibson, C. (2006). KIRKMAN, B.L., LOWE, K.B. and GIBSON, C.B. A Quarter Century of "Culture's Consequences": A Review of Empirical Research Incorporating Hofstede's Cultural Values Framework. *Journal of International Business Studies*, 37 (3), 285-320.
- Kluckhohn, F., & Strodtbeck, F. (1961). *Variations in Value Orientations*. Row, Peterson: Evanston, IL.
- Kombou, L., & Feudjo, J. R. (2007). Les Determinants de la rentabilite: une etude appliquee aux valeurs culturelles ambiantes dans les industries manufacturieres au Cameroun. *La Revues des Sciences de Gestion, Direction et Gestion*, 45-56.



- Koopman, P., Den Hartog, D., & Konrad, E. (1999). National Culture and Leadership Profiles in Europe: Some Results From the GLOBE Study. *European Journal of Work and Organizational Psychology*, 8 (4), 503-520.
- Kotter, J. (1990). *A Force For Change: How Leadership Differs from Management*. New York: Simon and Schluster.
- Kotter, J. P. (1988). *The leadership factor*. New York: Free Press.
- Kotter, J., & Heskett, J. (1992). *Corporate Culture and Performance*. New York: The Free Press.
- Kruglanski, A., Alon, W., & Lewis, T. (1972). Retrospective Misattribution and Task Enjoyment. *Journal of Experimental Social Psychology*, 8, 493-501.
- Kuada, J. (2010). Culture and leadership in Africa: a conceptual model and research agenda. *African Journal of Economic and Management Studies*, 1 (1), 9 - 24.
- Kunnanatt, J. (2008). "Strategic question in Indian banking sector: are Indian bank managers achievement oriented?". *Journal of Management Development*, 27 (2), 169-186.
- Kurfi, A. K. (2011). Leadership Styles: The Managerial Challenges in Emerging Economies. *Journal of Business and Management*, 5, 01-09.
- Lassiter, J. (2000). African Culture and personality: Bad Social Science, Effective Social Activism, or a Call to Reinvent Ethnology? *African Studies Quarterly*, 3 (2), 1-21.
- Latham, G. P. (2003). Goal setting: A five-step approach to behavior change. *Organizational Dynamics*, 32 (3), 309-318.
- Lawler, E. E. (1973). *Motivation in work organizations*. Monterey, Calif: Books/Cole Publishing Co.
- Lawler, E. E., & Suttle, L. J. (1973). Expectancy Theory and Job Behavior. *Organizational Behavior and Human Performance* 9, 482-503 (1973), 9, 482-503.
- Leonard, D. (1987). The political realities of African management. *World Development*, 15, 899-910.
- Leslie, J. B., & Van Velsor, E. (1998). *A cross national comparison of effective leadership and teamwork toward a specific global workforce*. North Carolina: Center for creative leadership.
- Lessem, R. (1993). Four worlds: The Southern African businessphere. In P. Christie, R. Lessem, & L. Mbigi, *African Management: Philosophies, Concepts and Applications, Knowledge Resources*. Rarndburg, South Africa.

Leung, K. &. (2004). *Social axioms: A model of social beliefs in multi-cultural perspective:Advances in Experimental Social Psychology* (M. P. Zanna, Ed., Vol. 36). San Diego, CA: Elsevier Academic Press.

Leung, K., Bond, M. H., De Carrasquel, S. R., Muñoz, C., Hernández, M., Murakami, F., et al. (2002). Social axioms: The search for universal dimensions of general beliefs about how the world functions. *Journal of Cross-Cultural Psychology*, 33, 286-302.

Li, K., Graffin, D., Yue, H., & Zhou, L. (2013). How does Culture Influence Corporate Risk-Taking? *Journal of Corporate Finance*, 1-22.

Li, Y. (2004). Examining the Effect of Organization Culture and Leadership Behaviors on Organizational Commitment, Job Satisfaction, and Job Performance at Small and Middle-size Firms of Taiwan. *Journal of American Academy of Business*, 5 (1/2).

Likert, R. (1967). *New Ways of Managing Conflicts*. New York: McGraw-Hill.

Linquist, B., & Adolph, D. (1996). The drum speaks - are we listening? Experiences in development with a traditional Gabra institution - the Yaa Galbo', in Blunt, Peter, Warren, D.M. *Indigenous Organisations and Development, and Intermediate Technology*.

Linquist, B., & Adolph, D. (1996). *The drum speaks - are we listening? Experiences in development with a traditional Gabra institution - the Yaa Galbo'*, in Blunt, Peter, Warren, D.M. London: Indigenous Organisations and Development and Intermediate Technology Publications.

Litewka, S. G. (2011). The challenges of conducting research in developing countries. *Conversations with Sergio Litewka* (pp. 1-19). Washington: Human Research Protection Office.

Locke, E. A. (1996). Motivation through conscious goal setting. *Applied and Preventive Psychology*, 5, 117-124.

Lofland, J., & Lofland, L. (1995). *Analyzing Social Settings: a guide to qualitative observation and analysis*. Belmont, CA.: Wadsworth Publishing Company.

Lok, P., & Crawford, J. (2004). The effect of organisational culture and leadership style on job satisfaction and organisational commitment: A cross-cultural comparison. *Journal of Management Development*, 23 (4), 321-338.

Lubatkin, M. V. (1999). Managing work and management reform in Senegal: The influence of hierarchy and sector. *American Review of Public Administration*, 29 (3), 240-268.

- Lunenburg, F. C. (2011). Goal-setting Theory of Motivation. *International Journal of Management, Business, and Administration*, 15 (1), 1-6.
- Lussier, A. (2010). *Effective Leadership* (5th Ed.). South Western: Cengage learning.
- Lut, D. M. (2012). Connection between Job Motivation, Job Satisfaction and Work Performance in Romanian Trade Enterprises. *Annals of "Dunarea de Jos" University of Galati*, 45-50.
- Maccoby, M. (2000). Understanding the Difference Between Management and Leadership. *Research Technology Management*, 43 (1), 57-59.
- Malhorta, N. K. (2014). *Essentials of Marketing Research: A Hands-On Orientation* (1st Ed.). New Jersey: Prentice-Hall International, Inc.
- Manzoor, Q. A. (2011). Impact of Employee Motivation on Organizational Effectiveness. *European Journal of Business and Management*, 3, 36-45.
- Mapunda, G. (2007). Trials and Tribulations of Management and Leadership in (Sub-Saharan) Africa. *Leadership and Management Studies in Sub-Sahara Africa* (pp. 11-21). Stone Town, Zanzibar: University Readers.
- Marais, L., & Marais, L. (2007). Marais, L. Walking between worlds: An exploration of the interface between indigenous and first-world industrialized culture. *International Social Work*, 50 (6), 809-820.
- Markus, H., & Kitayama, S. (1991). Culture and the Self: Implications for Cognition, Emotion, and Motivation. *Psychological Review*, 98 (2), 224-253.
- Maslow, A. (1954). A Theory of Human Motivation. *Psychological Review*, 1, 370-396.
- Mbigi, L. (2005). *The Spirit of African Leadership*. Randburg, South Africa: Knowledge Resources.
- Mbiti, J. S. (1970). *African Religion and Philosophy*. New York: Doubleday Anchor.
- Mbiti, J. S. (1969). *African religions and philosophy*. New York: Praeger Publishers.
- Mbiti, J. S. (1992). *African religions and philosophy* (2nd Ed.). Nairobi: East African Educational Publishers, Ltd.
- McClelland, D. C., & Eric, W. J. (1984). *Learning to Achieve*. Glenview, Illinois: Scotti. Foresman & Co.

- McCort, D., & Malhotra, N. K. (1993). Culture and Consumer Behavior: toward an understanding of cross-cultural consumer behavior in international marketing. *Journal of international consumer marketing*, 6, 91-127.
- McGregor, D. (1960). *The Piman Side of Enterprise*. New York: McGraw-Hill.
- McGuirk, P. M., & O'Neill, P. (2005). *Using Questionnaires in Qualitative Human Geography*, in: *Qualitative Research Methods in Human Geography*. Australia: Oxford University Press.
- McSweeney, B. (2002). Hofstede's model of national cultural differences and their consequences: A triumph of faith – a failure of analysis. *Human Relations*, 55 (1), 89-119.
- Meglino, B. M., & Ravlin, E. C. (1998). Individual Values in Organizations: Concepts, Controversies, and Research. *Elizabeth C. Ravlin*, 24, 351-389.
- Mehra, P., & Krishnan, V. (2005). Impact of Svadharma-orientation on transformational leadership and followers' trust in leader. *Journal of Indian Psychology*, 23 (1), 1–11.
- Mehta, R., Dubinsky, A., & Anderson, R. (2003). Leadership style, motivation and performance in international marketing channels: An empirical investigation of the USA, Finland and Poland. *European Journal of Marketing*, 37 (1/2), 50-85.
- Melonaar, K., Brown, H., Caile, S., & Smith, R. (2002). Corporation Culture: A study of firms with outstanding construction safety. *Professional Safety; Proquest Business Collection*, 47 (7), 18.
- Messick, D. M., & Kramer, R. M. (2004). *The Psychology of Leadership: New Perspectives and Research*. New Jersey: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.
- Mgbere, O. (2009). Exploring the Relationship between organisational Culture, Leadership Styles and Corporate Performance: An Overview. *Journal of Strategic Management*, 5, 187-202.
- Millman, G. J. (2007). Corporate Culture: More Myth than Reality? *Proquest Business Collection*, 44.
- Montgomery, J. (1987). Probing managerial behaviour: image and reality in Southern Africa. *World Development*, 15 (7), 911-29.
- Moorhead, G., & Griffin, R. (1995). *Organisational Behaviour: Managing People and Organisations*. Boston: Houghton Mifflin.
- Moylan, W. (2005). Ethics in construction bidding: considering the “Friedman vs. Freeman view. *NAIT Selected Papers*.

Mthembu, D. (1996). *Mthembu Discovering the indigenous roots of management*. In: Lessem, R. & Nussbaum, B. Eds *Sawubona Africa: Embracing Four Worlds in South African Management*. Johannesburg: Struik Publishers.

Mulemfo, M. (2000). *Thabo Mbeki and the African Renaissance*. Pretoria: Actua Press.

Munene, J. C., Schwartz, S. H., & Smith, P. B. (2000). Development in Sub-Saharan Africa: Cultural Influences and Managers' Decision Behaviour. *Public Administration & Development*, 20 (4), 339-351.

Myers, M. D., & Tan, F. B. (2002). Beyond Models of National Culture in Information Systems Research. *Journal of Global Information Management*, 10, 1-19.

Nadeem, M., Ahmad, R., Ahmad, N., Batool, S., & Shafique, N. (2015). Favoritism, nepotism and cronyism as predictors of job satisfaction: Evidences from Pakistan. *Journal of Business and Management Research*, 4, 224-228.

Nahum-Shani, I., & Somech, A. (2011). Leadership, OCB and individual differences: Idiocentrism and allocentrism as moderators of the relationship between transformational and transactional leadership and OCB. *The Leadership Quarterly*, 22, 353-366.

Naile, I., & Selesho, J. (2014). The Role of Leadership in Employee Motivation. *Mediterranean Journal of Social Sciences*, 5 (3), 175-182.

Nayak, B., Padhi, M., Barik, A., Mohanty, A., & Prudhan, S. (2011). Organizational Culture as Related to Motivation: A Study on Steel Manufacturing Industries in India. *European Journal of Social Sciences*, 26, 323-334.

Nitin, N., Boris, G., & Linda-Eling, L. (2008). Employee Motivation A powerful New Model. *Harvard Business Review July-August*.

Ntibagirirwa, S. (2003). A wrong way: from being to having in the African value system. In P. Giddy, (Ed.) *Protest and Engagement: Philosophy after Apartheid at a Historically Black South African University*, Council for Research in Values and Philosophy.

Nwadukwe, U., & Timinepere, C. (2012). Management Styles and Organizational Effectiveness: An Appraisal of Private Enterprises in Eastern Nigeria. *American International Journal of Contemporary Research*, 2 (9), 198-204.

Nwankwo, S., & Richards, D. (2001). Privatization: the myth of free market orthodoxy in Sub-Saharan Africa. *The International Journal of Public Sector Management*, 14 (2), 165-79.

Nyamnjoh, F. (1999). Cameroon: A Country united by ethnic ambition and difference. *African Affairs*, 98, 101-118.

O'Reilly, C. (2001). Corporations, Culture, and Commitment: Motivation and Social Control in Organizations. *Californian Management Review* .

Obiwuru, T. C., Okwu, A. T., Akpa, A. T., & Nwankwere, V. O. (2011). Effects of leadership style on organizational performance: A survey of selected small scale enterprises in Ikosi-Ketu Council Development Area of Lagos state, Nigeria. *Australia Journal of Business and Management research*, 1, 100-111.

Ochola, S. (2007). *Leadership and Economic Crisis in Africa*, Kenya Literature Bureau, Nairobi. Nairobi: Kenya Literature Bureau.

Odubogun, P. (1992). Management Theory: Relevance for Management Practice in Nigeria. *The Netherlands International Institute of Management-Maastricht*.

OECD. (2007). *Annual Report*. Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development.

Ogedengbe, F., Rebman Jr., C., Ewanlen, O., & Atoe, M. (2012). Achieving Unity in Diversity Through Cross-Cultural Management of Resources. *Journal of US-China Public Administration*, 9 (9), 1048-1056.

Okpara, J., & Wynn, P. (2007). The effect of culture on job satisfaction and organizational commitment: a study of information system managers in Nigeria. *African Journal of Business and Economic Research*, 2 (2/3), 9-36.

Onyemelukwe, C. C. (1973). *Men and Management in Contemporary Africa*. London: Longman.

Oppong, C. (2006). Familial roles and social transformations: Older men and women in sub-Saharan Africa. *Research on Ageing*, 28 (6), 654-668.

Oppong, Y. (2013). Towards Africa Work Orientations: Guide from Hofstede's Cultural Dimensions. *European Journal of Business and Management*, 5, 203-212.

Ouchi, W. (1981). *Ouchi, W.G. (1981) Theory Z: How American Business Can Meet the Japanese Challenge*. Reading, MA: Addison-Wesley.

Ovidiu-Iliuta, D. (2013). Employee motivation and Organizational performance. *Review of Applied Socio-Economic Research*, 5 (1), 53-60.

- Oyewobi, L. O., D.I., A., Ganiyu, B., & Okwori, I. (2011). Impact of Organisational Culture on the Occurrence of Rework in Building Project. *Journal of Emerging Trends in Economics and Management Sciences(JETEMS)*, 2 (5), 426-435.
- Ozler, N. D., & Buyukarslan, B. A. (2011). The overall outlook of favouritism in organisations: A literature review. *International journal of business and management studies*, 3 (1).
- Pankaj, C. (2012). Effects of Employee Motivation on Organisational Performance - A Case Study. *International Journal of Research in Economics & Social Sciences*, 2 (9), 81-87.
- Pardee, R. L. (1990). Motivation Theories of Maslow, Herzberg, McGregor and McClelland. A literature Review of Selected Theories Dealing with Job Satisfaction and Motivation. *Educational Resources information centre*, 1-15.
- Parijat, P., & Bagga, S. (2014). Victor Vroom's Expectancy Theory of Motivation – An Evaluation. *International Research Journal of Business and Management*, VII (9), 1-8.
- Parker, S. (1972). *The Sociology of Industry*. London: Allen and Unwin.
- Parsons, H. (1974). What Happened at Hawthorne. *Science*, 183 (4128), 922-932.
- Parthasarathy, K., & Ramalingam, S. (2015). An empirical study on organizational culture and its impact on employee motivation with reference to industrial estate in Chennai. *I J A B E R*, 3 (1), 287-294.
- Peter, T. B., & Celeste, P. M. (2004). Defining, Measuring and Comparing Organisational Cultures. *Journal of Applied Psychology: an International Review*, 53 (4), 570-582.
- Peters, H., & Kabacoff, R. (1998). *Global or Local: The Impact of Country Culture on Leadership Style in Europe*. Management Research Group.
- Peters, T., & Waterman, R. (1982). *In search of excellence: Lessons from America's best-run companies*. New York: Harper and Row.
- Pfeffer, J. (2002). *Competitive advantage through people*. In: Henry J., Mayle D. Editors. *Managing Innovation & Change*. London: Sage Publications.
- Pinder, C. (1976). *Work Motivation: Theory, Issues, and Applications*. Glenview, IL: Scott, Foresman and Company.

Pinto da Silva, L., & Fadul, E. (2011). The Cultural Values of Public managers of Bahia: a comparative analysis between Bahia and Developed and Developing Countries. *1*, 107-121.

Pipaneau, D. (2002). *Thinking about Consciousness*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Practices, C. R. (2007). *Bureau of Democracy, Human Rights and Labor*. Cameroon: U.S. Department of State.

Cameroon Economic Profile, (2014).

Proulx, D. (2003). Le management par résultats: une perspective transculturelle. *International Management*, 7, 39-48.

Rahim, M., & Magner, N. (1996). Confirmatory factor analysis on the bases of leader power: First-order factor model and its invariance across groups. *Multivariate Behavioural Research*, 31, 495-516.

Raskin, P., Banuri, T., Gallopin, G., Gutman, P., Hammond, A., Kates, R., et al. (2002). *The Promise and Lure of the Times Ahead*. Boston: Global Scenario Group.

Reiman, T., & Oedewald, P. (2000). *The assessment of Organisational Culture: A methodological study*. . Research Notes.

Remenyi, D., & Griffiths, P. (2009). The socratic Dialogue in the workplace: Theory and Practice. *Electronic Journal of Knowledge Management*, 155-164.

Report. (2015). *World Development Report*. World Bank Group.

Report, I. R. (2010). *United States Commission on International Religious Freedom*. Cameroon: Bureau of Democracy, Human Rights, and Labor.

Report, T. W. (2010). *Tradition, Culture and Lack of Education Influence the Way Women Are Treated*. United Nations Statistics Division/Department of Economics and Social Affairs.

World Development Report, (2015). Washington: World Bank Group.

Review, C. C. (2011). Corruption Perceptions Index. 8 , 90-97.

Robbins, S., & Judge, T. (2013). *Organizational Behavior* (15th Ed.). Prentice Hall.

Rokeach, M. (1973). *The nature of human values*. New York: Fress Press.



Roos, W., & Eeden, R. V. (2005). The Relationship between Employee Motivation, Job Satisfaction and Corporate Culture. *South African Journal of Industrial Psychology*, 34, 53 - 63.

Rowe, A., Mason, R., Dickel, K., Mann, R., & Mockler, R. (1994). *Strategic Management: A Methodological Approach* (4th Ed.). New York: Addison-Wesley.

Rukhmani, K., Ramesh, M., & Jayakrishnan, J. (2010). Effect of Leadership Styles on Organizational Effectiveness. *European Journal of Social Sciences*, 15 (3), 365-369.

Russell, I. L. (1971). *Motivation*. Dubuque, IA: Wm. C. Brown Company.

Ryan, R. (2007). *Leadership Development: A Guide for HR and Training Professionals*. Burlington MA: Routledge.

Ryan, R. M., & Deci, E. L. (2000). Intrinsic and Extrinsic Motivations: Classic Definitions and New Directions. *Contemporary Educational Psychology*, 25, 54-67.

Ryan, R., & Deci, E. (2000). Self-determination theory and the facilitation of intrinsic motivation, social development, and well-being. *American Psychologist*, 55, 68-78.

Ryff, C., & Keyes, C. (1995). The structure of psychological well-being revisited. *Journal of Personality and Psychology*, 69, 719-727.

Sagiv, L., & Schwartz, S. (2007). Cultural values in organisations: insights for Europe. *European Journal of International Management*, 1 (3), 176-190.

Saunders, M., Lewis, P., & Thorn hill, A. (2012). *Research Methods for Business Students* (6th Ed.). England: Financial Times/Prentice Hall.

Schein, E. (. (1985). *Organisational Culture and Leadership: a Dynamic View*. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass Publishers.

Schein, E. (1992). *Organisational culture and Leadership* (2nd Ed.). San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

Schein, E. (1986). What you Need to Know about Organisational Culture. *Journal of Training and Development*, 144-156.

Schimmoeller, L. J. (2010). Leadership Styles in Competing Organizational Cultures. *Leadership review*, 10, 125-141.

Schleh, E. C. (1977). *A Matter of Management Styles*. Management Review.

Schwab, J. (1999). *Your corporate culture: Powerful ways to transform your company into a high performance organisation*. Houston Cashman Dudley: In Ashby, F.C. (Ed.).

Schwartz, S. (1999). Cultural value differences: some implications for work. *Applied Psychology: An International Review*, 48, 23-47.

Sehd. (2007). Theories of Motivation. In Sehd, *Working in Health Resource* (pp.1-5). NES Knowledge Services.

Sekaran, L. (2003). *Research methods for business a skill-building approach*. New York: John Wiley & Sons, Inc.

Shamba, P. B. (2007). Existe-t-il un modele spécifique du management en Afrique? Le « Management Africain» A l 'epreuve des evidences empiriques. *Doctorant REHU - Chercheur au CRECIS*, 1-20.

Shaw, J. B. (1990). A cognitive categorization model for the study of intercultural management. *Academy of Management Review*, 15 (4), 626-645.

Sinha, S., Singh, A. K., Gupta, N., & Dutt, R. (2010). Impact of work culture on Motivation and Performance level of employees in the private sector companies. *Acta Oeconomica Pragensia*, 49-67.

Smith, P. B., Peterson, M. F., & Schwartz, S. H. (2002). Cultural Values, Sources of Guidance, and Their Relevance to Managerial Behaviour. *Journal of Cross-Cultural Psychology*, 32 (2), 188.

Sokro, E. (2012). Analysis of the Relationship that Exists between Organisational Culture, Motivation and Performance. *Problems of Management in the 21st Century*, 3, 106-119.

Spralls III, S. A., Okonkwo, P., & Akan, H. O. (2011). A Traveler to Distant Places Should Make No Enemies: Toward Understanding Nigerian Negotiating Style. *Journal of Applied Business and Economics*, 12 (3), 11-25.

Stanton, E. S. (1983). A Critical Reevaluation of Motivation, Management, and Productivity. *Personnel Journal*, 208-214.

Stanworth, M. (1977). *Behavioural Sciences for Managers*. London: Edward Arnold.

National Institute of Statistics (2014). *Index of Industrial Production of Cameroon*. Cameroon.

Steers, M. R., Mowday, T. R., & Shapiro, L. D. (2004). The Future of Work Motivation Theory. *Academy of Management Review*, 29, 379-387.

Stogdill, R. M. (1963). *Manual for the leadership behavior description questionnaire-form XII*. Columbus, Ohio, USA: Ohio State University.

Stogdill, R. (1974). *Handbook of Leadership: A survey of Theory and Research*. California: Free Press.

Cameroon Economic Studies (2000). *Cultural and Demographic risks in Cameroon*. Cameroon: Executive Report on Strategies in Cameroon.

Swartz, E., & Davies, R. (1997). Ubuntu – the spirit of African transformation management – a review. *Leadership & Organisational Development Journal*, 18 (6), 290-294.

Swartz, M. (1980). To be Human – An Introduction to Cultural Anthropology. In A. Alland, *Culture* (p. 366). New York.

Takyi-Asiedu, S. (1993). Some socio-cultural factors retarding entrepreneurial activity in sub-Saharan Africa. *Journal of Business Venturing*, 8, 91-98.

Taylor, E. (1958). *The origins of Culture [1871]: With an Introduction by Paul Radin*. New York: Harper and Brother Publishers.

Tchankam, J. (2008). La gestion dans les secteurs public et privé: une analyse critique des similarités et des différences au Cameroun. *La Revue des Sciences de Gestion, Direction et Gestion*, 230.

Thomas, A., & Bendixen, M. (2000). Management implications of ethnicity in South Africa. *Journal of International Business Studies*, 31, 507-519.

Tkeshelashvili, N. (2009). The effects of Culture on the Leadership style in Georgia. *International Black Sea University Scientific Journal*, 3, 115-129.

Treven, S., Mulej, M., & Lynn, M. (2008). The impact of Culture on Organizational Behavior. *Management*, 13, 27-37.

Triandis, H. c. (1994). Cross-Cultural industrial and organizational psychology. In H. Triandis, D. M.D., & L. Hough, *Handbook of Industrial and Organizational psychology* (pp. 103-172). Palo Alto, CA: Consulting Psychologist Press.

Triandis, H. (1972). *The Analysis of Subjective Culture*. Wiley-Interscience: New York.

Tripp, A. M. (2013, December 9). Women and politics in Africa Today. *Democracy in Africa: A resource for the Study of Democracy in Africa*.

Trompenaars, F., & Hampden-Turner, C. (2000). *Riding the Waves of Culture: Understanding Cultural Diversity in Business*. London: Nicholas Breasley Publishing.

Trompenaars, F., & Hampden-Turner, C. (1998). *Riding the Waves of Culture: Understanding Cultural Diversity in Business* (2nd Ed.). London: Nicholas Breasley Publishing.

Tucker, R., & McCoy, W. (1988). Can questionnaires measure culture? Eight extended field studies. *Paper presented at the Annual Convention of the American Psychological Association*. Atlanta.

Tung, R., & Verbeke, A. (2010). Beyond Hofstede and GLOBE: Improving the quality of cross-cultural research. *Journal of International Business Studies*, 41 (8), 1259-1274.

Ugah, A. (2007). *Obstacle to Information Access and Use in Developing Countries*. Umuahia, Abia State: Library Philosophy and Practice.

Ugwuegbu, D., & Chima, E. (2001). *Ugwuegbu, Denis Chima E. (2001) The Psychology of Management in African Organizations*. Westport, CT: Quorum Books (Greenwood).

Uhegbu, A. (2002). *The Information User: Issues and Themes*. Enugu: John Jacobs Classics.

Van Eerde, W., & Thierry, h. (1996). Vroom's Expectancy Models and Work-Related Criteria: A Meta-Analysis. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 81 (5), 575-586.

Vroom, V. H., & Jago, A. G. (2007). The role of the Situation in Leadership. *American Psychologist*, 62, 17-24.

Waal, A., & Chipeta, K. (2013). Effects of culture on the perception of South African and Tanzanian business students on high performance organisations. *Maastricht School of Management*, 1-38.

Wallace, J., Hunt, J., & Richards, C. (1999). The relationship between organisational culture, organisational climate and managerial values. *The International Journal of Public Sector Management*, 12, 548-564.

Wallace, P., Goldstein, J., & Nathan, P. (1987). *Introduction to Psychology*. Dubuque, IA: Wm.c. Brown.

Walumbwa, O. F., Lawler, J. J., & Avolio, J. B. (2007). Leadership, Individual Differences, and Work-related Attitudes: A Cross-Culture Investigation. *Applied Psychology: An International Review*, 56, 212-230.

Watson, T. (1994). Watson, T. (19994). Linking employee motivation and satisfaction to the bottom line. *CMA Magazine*, 68 (3), p. 4.

West, B. (2004). *Cameroon: Bradt Travel Guide*. Guilford, Connecticut: The Globe Pequot Press.

Whitley, R. (1994). *European Business Systems: Firms and Markets in their National Contexts: London*. London: Sage.

Widyaningrum, M. E. (2011). Influence of motivation and culture on organizational commitment and performance of employee of medical services. *Journal of Academic Research Internationa*, 1 (3), 228 - 235.

William, C. (1966). *Conton William, The African, London, 1966, P.21*. London.

Williams, M. (2003). *Making Sense of Social Research*. London: SAGE Publications.

Wood, S. (1996). High commitment management and organization in the UK. *International Journal of human Resource Management*, 41-58.

Wu, T., Tsai, M., Fey, Y., & Wu, R. (2006). A Study of the Relationship between Manager's Leadership Style and Organisational Commitment in Taiwan's International Tourist Hotels. *Asian Journal of Management and Humanity Sciences*, 1 (3), 434-452.

Yang, C. L., Hwang, M., & Chen, Y. C. (2011). An empirical study of the existence, relatedness, and growth (ERG) theory in consumer's selection of mobile value-added services. *AfricanJournal of Business Management*, 5 (19), 7885-7898.

Yesufu, T. (1998). *Management in Nigerian Industry: A Pilot Study*. Lagos; *Publications of the Federal Nigerian Ministry of Economic Development, National Manpower Board*. New York: McGraw Hill.

Yukl, G. (2002). *Leadership in Organizations* (Fifth Edition). Upper Saddle River, New Jersey: Prentice-Hall International, Inc.

Zakariyah, M. (2013). Language and African Social Values: A Sociolinguistic Analysis of Selected Yoruba Proverbs. *Ilorin Journal of Linguistics, Literature & Culture*, 3.

Zeffane, R., & Rugimbana, R. (1995). Management in the less-developed countries: A review of pertinent issues, challenges and responses. *Leadership & Organisational Development Journal*, 16 (8), 26-36.

## Appendix A: Formulae

### 1. Power Distance Index

Power distance index (PDI) is computed based on the country scores on the following three questionnaire items:

(a) The percentage of employees who perceive that their boss makes his decisions in an autocratic or paternalistic way. In other words, it is the percentage of employees who chose "manager 1" plus percentage of those who chose "manager 2".

(b) Subordinates' perceptions that employees in general (their colleagues) are afraid to disagree with their superiors (mean score) multiplied by 25 to make it comparable with the percentage scores for questions (a) and (c).

(c) The percentage of employees who do **not** prefer a boss who makes his decisions in a consultative way, but prefer a boss who decides either autocratically or paternalistically. That is, the percentage of those who preferred "manager 1" plus percentage of those who preferred "manager 2".

The index is calculated based on the formula:  **$PDI = 135 + a - b + c$** .

Substituting the values into the formula gives:

$$135 + (38.4 + 30.4) - (25 * 2.26) + (38.4 + 30.4) = 78$$

The data for leadership style revealed that 41.3% preferred to work under a paternalistic manager, while 40.6% choose a consultative leader, 13% preferred participative manager while only 2.2% said they will want to work under an autocratic leader (Table 24). In the perception of their managers, most of respondents indicated that their manager is paternalistic (38.4%), followed by 30.4% for autocratic managers (Table 24). The mean score of 2.26 of the respondents perceived (question 17) that in their work environment that subordinates are always afraid to express disagreement with their superiors.

## 2. Individualism Index

The formula for calculating individualism index uses the mean score of following questions:

**IDV = 76\*8 – 43\*1 + 30\*5 – 27\*9 – 29.** Where:

8= mean score of question 27. 8 (work in a comfortable environment)

1= mean score of question 27. 1 (have enough time for personal and family life)

5= mean score of question 27.5 (work with people who cooperate with each other)

9= mean score of question 27.9 (get recognition for a job well done)

## 3. Masculinity Index

Formula for calculating the masculinity index uses the mean score of responses to the following four item questions: **MAS = 60m5 – 66m3 + 30m4 – 39m10 + 76.**

Where:

4 = mean scores of question 27.4 (have security of employment).

5 = mean score of question 27.5 (work with people who cooperate well with each other).

3= mean scores of question 27.3 (have a good job description).

10 = mean scores of question 27.10 (have an opportunity for advancement or promotion).

## 4. Uncertainty Avoidance Index

The formula for calculating the uncertainty avoidance index uses the mean scores and percentages of responses to the following three items: **UAI = 300 – 40d – 30e – f.** Where:

d = mean score for question 14 (how often do you feel nervous at work?)

e = mean score for question 10 (an organisation's rules should not be broken, not even when the employee thinks it is in the company's best interest).

f = percentage for question 42: 'how long do you think you will continue working for the organisation you presently work for'? The percent of those answering two years at the most and from two to five years are considered for calculating UAI.

The values for UAI range from 8 to 112. The theoretical range is from -150 (no uncertainty avoidance) to +230 (extreme uncertainty avoidance) (Hofstede, 1980; 1983).

## Appendix B: Correlation Tables

**Table 55: Cultural values and Leadership style dimensions**

Pearson Correlation Sig. (2-tailed) N=135	Motivation as an aspect of leadership style		Communication as an aspect of leadership style		Interaction as an aspect of leadership style		Decision-making as an aspect of leadership style	
	Cor.	Sig.	Cor.	Sig.	Cor.	Sig.	Cor.	Sig.
Cooperation	-.020	.823	.114	.192	<b>.178*</b>	<b>.040</b>	-.121	.169
Interpersonal relation with boss	-.057	.509	-.068	.435	.022	.804	.099	.256
Specification of targets	<b>.576**</b>	<b>.000</b>	-.089	.302	-.146	.090	.020	.815
Performance measurement	<b>.484**</b>	<b>.000</b>	-.117	.178	-	<b>.007</b>	.014	.872
Participation	-.033	.703	.126	.150	.161	.065	-	<b>.001</b>
<b>Overall Cultural values</b>	<b>.602**</b>	<b>.000</b>	-.050	.571	.050	.569	-.032	.714
Pearson Correlation Sig. (2-tailed) N=135	Goals as an aspect of leadership style		Controlling as an aspect of leadership style		Relationship as an aspect of leadership style		Overall leadership style	
	Cor.	Sig.	Cor.	Sig.	Cor.	Sig.	Cor.	Sig.
Cooperation	.035	.694	.049	.576	-.025	.779	.095	.283
Interpersonal relation with boss	-.010	.912	-.009	.920	<b>.605**</b>	<b>.000</b>	.062	.478
Specification of targets	.056	.518	.012	.893	-.070	.420	<b>.193*</b>	<b>.026</b>
Performance measurement	-.034	.696	.111	.2000	-.052	.549	.151	.082
Participation	.024	.788	-.036	.682	.111	.204	.016	.856
<b>Overall Cultural values</b>	<b>.059</b>	<b>.502</b>	<b>.041</b>	<b>.640</b>	<b>.098</b>	<b>.264</b>	<b>.305**</b>	<b>.000</b>

**\*\* Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (1-tailed).**

**\* Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (1-tailed).**



**Table 56: Cultural values and Employee Motivation (Extrinsic and Intrinsic motivation factors)**

Pearson Correlation Sig. (2-tailed) N=135	Cooperation		Interpersonal relation with boss		Specification of targets		Performance measurement		Participation		Overall cultural values	
	Cor.	Sig.	Cor.	Sig.	Cor.	Sig.	Cor.	Sig.	Cor.	Sig.	Cor.	Sig.
Sufficient time for personal life	.373**	.000	.068	.433	.074	.397	.037	.669	.356**	.000	.250**	.004
Respected and trusted boss	.243**	.005	-.017	.846	-.046	.597	.034	.694	.216*	.012	.209*	.016
Employment Security	.333**	.000	.039	.653	-.054	.536	-.030	.734	.128	.141	.130	.138
Cooperation among employees	.333**	.000	-.090	.305	-.006	.942	.018	.833	.270**	.002	.421**	.000
Comfortable environment	.003	.970	.140	.108	.152	.080	.053	.542	.009	.919	.209*	.016
<b>Overall extrinsic motivation</b>	<b>.595**</b>	<b>.000</b>	<b>.073</b>	<b>.404</b>	<b>.035</b>	<b>.691</b>	<b>.140</b>	<b>.878</b>	<b>.300**</b>	<b>.000</b>	<b>.388**</b>	<b>.000</b>
Pearson Correlation Sig. (2-tailed) N=135	Cooperation		Interpersonal relation with boss		Specification of targets		Performance measurement		Participation		Overall cultural values	
	Cor.	Sig.	Cor.	Sig.	Cor.	Sig.	Cor.	Sig.	Cor.	Sig.	Cor.	Sig.
Good job description	.074	.399	.125	.152	.169	.051	.040	.643	.011	.900	.233**	.007
Challenging jobs	.046	.600	-.027	.757	.060	.491	.008	.923	.94	.283	.063	.473
Involvement in decision-making	.270**	.002	.025	.772	-.152	.081	.120	.169	----	----	.343**	.000
Competence	.133	.126	.154	.075	-.029	.736	.167	.053	.064	.462	.137	.117
Achievement	-.020	.815	.095	.272	.094	.281	.055	.525	-.108	.218	.183*	.035
<b>Overall intrinsic motivation</b>	<b>.142</b>	<b>.105</b>	<b>.141</b>	<b>.107</b>	<b>.080</b>	<b>.364</b>	<b>.125</b>	<b>.152</b>	<b>.234**</b>	<b>.007</b>	<b>.290**</b>	<b>.001</b>
<b>Overall motivation</b>	<b>.403**</b>	<b>.000</b>	<b>.101</b>	<b>.255</b>	<b>.068</b>	<b>.444</b>	<b>.092</b>	<b>.300</b>	<b>.314**</b>	<b>.000</b>	<b>.390**</b>	<b>.000</b>

\*\* Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (1-tailed).

\* Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (1-tailed).

**Table 57: Leadership style and extrinsic motivational factors**

Pearson Correlation Sig. (2-tailed) N=135	Motivation as an aspect of leadership style		Communication as an aspect of leadership style		Interaction as an aspect of leadership style		Decision-making as an aspect of leadership style	
	Cor.	Sig.	Cor.	Sig.	Cor.	Sig.	Cor.	Sig.
Sufficient time for personal life	.066	.445	-.083	.338	<b>.203*</b>	<b>.018</b>	-.050	.561
Well respected and trusted boss	<b>.382**</b>	<b>.000</b>	.046	.597	.035	.687	-.028	.744
Employment Security	-.032	.709	-.015	.860	<b>.184*</b>	<b>.033</b>	-.044	.612
Cooperation among employees	-.020	.823	.114	.192	<b>.178*</b>	<b>.040</b>	.049	.576
Comfortable environment.	<b>.271**</b>	<b>.002</b>	.053	.544	-.135	.120	.157	.071
<b>Overall extrinsic motivation</b>	.140	.109	.066	.454	.113	.196	.054	.535
Pearson Correlation Sig. (2-tailed) N=135	Goals as an aspect of leadership style		Controlling as an aspect of leadership style		Relationship as an aspect of leadership style		Overall leadership style	
	Cor.	Sig.	Cor.	Sig.	Cor.	Sig.	Cor.	Sig.
Sufficient time for personal life	.007	.936	<b>-.277**</b>	<b>.001</b>	.119	.169	-.015	.865
Well respected and trusted boss	-.057	.512	<b>-.185*</b>	<b>.032</b>	.066	.450	-.031	.724
Employment Security	.118	.176	-.022	.802	-.078	.371	.034	.695
Cooperation among employees	.035	.694	-.121	.169	-.025	.779	.095	.283
Comfortable environment.	<b>.302**</b>	<b>.000</b>	.077	.382	.091	.299	<b>.359**</b>	<b>.000</b>
<b>Overall extrinsic motivation</b>	<b>.177*</b>	<b>.043</b>	<b>-.175*</b>	<b>.046</b>	.087	.323	<b>.199*</b>	<b>.023</b>

**\*\* Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (1-tailed).**

**\* Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (1-tailed).**

**Table 58: Leadership style characteristics and Intrinsic Motivation factors**

Pearson Correlation Sig. (2-tailed) N=135	Motivation as an aspect of leadership style		Communication as an aspect of leadership style		Interaction as an aspect of leadership style		Decision-making as an aspect of leadership style	
	Cor.	Sig.	Cor.	Sig.	Cor.	Sig.	Cor.	Sig.
Good job description	<b>.181*</b>	<b>.036</b>	-.030	.731	.038	.659	.026	.762
Challenging job	-.022	.799	.052	.546	-.011	.897	.050	.564
Involvement in decision making	-.033	.703	.126	.150	.161	.065	-.036	.682
Competence	.085	.326	.020	.815	-.114	.188	-.002	.981
Achievement	<b>.197*</b>	<b>.022</b>	-.024	.779	-.015	.862	<b>.185*</b>	<b>.032</b>
<b>Overall intrinsic motivation</b>	.152	.082	.034	.702	-.003	.975	.089	.308
<b>Overall motivation</b>	<b>.174*</b>	<b>.048</b>	.067	.450	.056	.524	.090	.306
Pearson Correlation Sig. (2-tailed) N=135	Goals as an aspect of leadership style		Controlling as an aspect of leadership style		Relationship as an aspect of leadership style		Overall leadership styles	
	Cor.	Sig.	Cor.	Sig.	Cor.	Sig.	Cor.	Sig.
Good job description	<b>.335**</b>	<b>.000</b>	.035	.693	-.046	.595	<b>.243**</b>	<b>.005</b>
Challenging job	<b>.209*</b>	<b>.015</b>	-.084	.334	.065	.457	.133	.127
Involvement in decision making	.024	.788	<b>-.299**</b>	<b>.001</b>	.111	.204	.016	.856
Competence	<b>.282**</b>	<b>.001</b>	-.103	.237	.148	.086	.145	.097
Achievement	<b>.332**</b>	<b>.000</b>	.115	.187	.068	.435	<b>.361**</b>	<b>.000</b>
<b>Overall intrinsic motivation</b>	<b>.427**</b>	<b>.000</b>	-.082	.350	.121	.167	<b>.325**</b>	<b>.000</b>
<b>Overall motivation</b>	<b>.370**</b>	<b>.000</b>	-.143	.105	.092	.297	<b>.316**</b>	<b>.000</b>

**\*\* Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (1-tailed).**

**\* Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (1-tailed).**

## Appendix C: Questionnaire

### **Cultural Implications on management practices in Cameroon.**

Mirabell Pendati

PhD Student by Research

University of Wales, Trinity Saint David

Tel: 00447427095437

15/04/2014

Dear Sir/madam,

I am a PhD student carrying out a research on the Impact of Cultural Values and Leadership Styles on Employee Motivation in Cameroon. The purpose of the study is to identify cultural values that are important to promote appropriate management practices of leadership and motivation. Also, to determine how these factors influence the overall performance of an organisation.

This process should not take longer than 15 minutes. Your deciding to answer these questions is purely voluntary and you are free to withdraw at any moment.

However, I would be grateful if you will participate. The subject matter is of great importance, not only for research, but also, since it relates to the development of my country, Cameroon.

Your individual response is confidential and will be anonymous.

The findings of the research will be available to you in summary or complete form.

May I thank you in advance for your participation.

Yours faithfully,

Mirabell Pendati

**1. To which age group do you belong?**

- Less than 20,  21-30,  31-40,  41-50,  51-60,  Over 60

**2. What is your gender?**

- Male,  Female

**3. What is your highest level of formal education?**

- Primary level,  Ordinary level or equivalent,  Advanced level or equivalent
- Degree or equivalent

**4. How long have you worked for your organisation?**

- Less than one year,  1 - 3 years,  4 - 6 years,  Above 6 years

**5. How will you classify your position in your organisation?**

- General staff,  Junior manager,  Middle manager,  Senior manager,
- Executive

- 6. Please in a few words describe your role chosen in question 5 above [e.g. Secretary, security, marketing manager, CEO]**

- 

**7. To which ethnic group do you belong?**

- Grass Fielders/Western Highlanders: Northwest and West (Bamileke, Bamoun, Bantu)
- Coastal Tropical Forest Peoples: Southwest and Littoral (Bassa, Douala, etc.)
- Southern Tropical Forest Peoples: South, Centre and East [Ewondo, Beti (Bulu and Fang subgroups), Maka and Pygmies/Bakas]
- Fulani: Sahel/North Desert (Islamic Northerners)
- Kirdi: North Desert/Central Highlands (non-Islamic Northerners)

**8. Are you comfortable working with people from different ethnic origin?**

(1) Always, (2) Sometimes, (3) Don't know, (4) Seldom, (5) Never

	1	2	3	4	5	
Always	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	Never

**9. How important is religion in your life?**

(1) Utmost importance (2) important (3) don't know (4) little importance (5) no importance

1 2 3 4 5

Utmost importance      No importance

**10. An organisation's rule should not be broken, not even when the employee thinks breaking the rule would be in the organisation's best interest?**

1 2 3 4 5  
Strongly agree      Strongly disagree

**11. There is more social than professional interaction between employees and their managers in your organisation.**

1 2 3 4 5  
Strongly agree      Strongly disagree

**12. Managers frequently seek ideas and consent from subordinates in your organisation.**

1 2 3 4 5  
Strongly agree      Strongly disagree

**13. There exist teamwork and cooperation in your organisation.**

1 2 3 4 5  
Strongly agree      Strongly disagree

**14. How often do you feel tense or nervous at work?**

1= Yes, always; 2= sometimes; 3= don't know; 4= seldom; 5= no, never

1 2 3 4 5  
Yes, always      No, never

**15. Are you a happy person?**

1= Always; 2= Sometimes; 3= Don't know; 4=Seldom; 5=Never

1 2 3 4 5  
Always      Never

**16. Are you the same person at work and at home?**

1=quite the same; 2=mostly the same; 3=don't know; 4=mostly different; 5=quite different

1 2 3 4 5  
Quite the same      Quite different

**17. How often, in your experience are subordinates afraid to contradict their boss?**

1= Always; 2= Sometimes; 3= Don't know; 4=Seldom; 5=Never

1 2 3 4 5  
Always      Never

**18. Management consults employees before setting goals in your organisation.**

1=Strongly agree; 2=Agree; 3=Neither agree or disagree; 4=Disagree; 5=Strongly disagree

---

	1	2	3	4	5	
Strongly agree	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	Strongly disagree

---

**19. The analysis of the goals set by your organisation is conducted frequently.**

1=Strongly agree; 2=Agree; 3=Neither agree or disagree; 4=Disagree; 5=Strongly disagree

---

	1	2	3	4	5	
Strongly agree	<input checked="" type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	Strongly disagree

---

**20. There is a high level of resistance from employees towards achievement of organisational goals.**

1=Strongly agree; 2=Agree; 3=Neither agree or disagree; 4=Disagree; 5=Strongly disagree

---

	1	2	3	4	5	
Strongly agree	<input checked="" type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	Strongly disagree

---

**21. All managers in your organisation are responsible for controlling.**

1=Strongly agree; 2=Agree; 3=Neither agree or disagree; 4=Disagree; 5=Strongly disagree

---

	1	2	3	4	5	
Strongly agree	<input checked="" type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	Strongly disagree

---

**22. Employees of your organisation are resistant to rules.**

1=Strongly agree; 2=Agree; 3=Neither agree or disagree; 4=Disagree; 5=Strongly disagree

---

	1	2	3	4	5	
Strongly agree	<input checked="" type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	Strongly disagree

---

**23. The common direction of communication flow is from manager to employees.**

1=Strongly agree; 2=Agree; 3=Neither agree or disagree; 4=Disagree; 5=Strongly disagree

---

	1	2	3	4	5	
Strongly agree	<input checked="" type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	Strongly disagree

---

**24. Managers in your organisation accept information given to them by their subordinates.**

1=Strongly agree; 2=Agree; 3=Neither agree or disagree; 4=Disagree; 5=Strongly disagree

---

	1	2	3	4	5	
Strongly agree	<input checked="" type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	Strongly disagree

---

**25. Managers in your organisation are aware of their subordinates' problems.**

1=Strongly agree; 2=Agree; 3=Neither agree or disagree; 4=Disagree; 5=Strongly disagree

---

	1	2	3	4	5	
Strongly agree	<input checked="" type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	Strongly disagree

---

**26. Employees are involved in decision-making in your organisation.**

1=Strongly agree; 2=Agree; 3=Neither agree or disagree; 4=Disagree; 5=Strongly disagree

	1	2	3	4	5	
Strongly agree	<input checked="" type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	Strongly disagree

**27. Please think of an ideal job, disregarding your present job, if you have one. In choosing an ideal job, how important would it be for you?** 1= very important, 2= important, 3 = neutral, 4= little importance, 5= no importance

**27.1 Have sufficient time for your personal and family life.**

	1	2	3	4	5	
Very important	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	No importance

**27.2 Have a boss you can respect and trust.**

	1	2	3	4	5	
Very important	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	No importance

**27.3 Have good job description.**

	1	2	3	4	5	
Very important	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	No importance

**27.4 Have security of employment.**

	1	2	3	4	5	
Very important	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input checked="" type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	No importance

**27.5 Work with people who cooperate with each other.**

	1	2	3	4	5	
Very important	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	No importance

**27.6 Do a job that is challenging.**

	1	2	3	4	5	
Very important	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	No importance

**27.7 Be consulted by your boss in decisions involving your work.**

	1	2	3	4	5	
Very important	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	No importance

**27.8 Work in a comfortable environment.**

	1	2	3	4	5	
Very important	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	No importance

**27.9 Get recognition for a job well done.**

	1	2	3	4	5	
--	---	---	---	---	---	--



Very important      No importance

**27.10 Have chances of promotion.**

1 2 3 4 5

Very important      No importance

**28. The descriptions below apply to four types of managers/leaders. Please kindly read the descriptions and answer questions 28.1, 28.2 and 28.3 below.**

**Manager/Leader Style 1:** Usually makes his/her decisions promptly and communicates them to his subordinates clearly and firmly. He/she expects them to carry out the decisions loyally and without raising questions.

**Manager/Leader Style 2:** Usually consults with his/her subordinates before he/she reaches his/her decisions. He/she listens to their opinion, considers it and then announces his/her decisions. He/she then expects all to work loyally to implement them whether or not they are in accordance with the advice they gave.

**Manager/Leader Style 3:** Usually makes his/her decisions promptly, but, before going ahead, tries to explain them fully to his/her subordinates. He/she gives them the reasons for the decisions and whatever questions they may have. Acts as a father figure and shows complete concern for his workers.

**Manager/Leader Style 4:** Usually calls a meeting of his/her subordinates when there is an important decision to be made. He/she puts the problem before the group and invites discussion. He/she accepts the majority viewpoint as the decision. Please do not tick two in each case.

**28.1 Which of the above managers would you like to work under?**

- Manager 1,  Manager 2,  Manager 3,  Manager 4

**28.2 Which one of the above four types of managers would you say your present boss most closely correspond to?**

- Manager 1,  Manager 2,  Manager 3,  Manager 4

**28.3 Which one of the above four types of managers would you prefer not to work under?**

- Manager 1,  Manager 2,  Manager 3,  Manager 4

**29. Did you earn your present position through?**

- Promotion on job experience,  Academic or professional performance,  Job seniority
- Others

**30. In rank order, how important are the following factors to management when recruiting employees in your organisation?**

- 1 = of utmost importance, 2= very important, 3= of moderate importance, 4= of little importance and 5= of no importance

1 2 3 4 5

Utmost important      No importance

**30.1 How important is age?**

	1	2	3	4	5	
Of utmost importance	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	Of no importance

• **30.2 How important is Job seniority?**

	1	2	3	4	5	
Of utmost importance	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	Of no importance

• **30.3 How important is Job experience?**

	1	2	3	4	5	
Of utmost importance	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	Of no importance

• **30.4 How important is Job accomplishment?**

	1	2	3	4	5	
Of utmost importance	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	Of no importance

• **30.5 How important is Educational accomplishment?**

	1	2	3	4	5	
Of utmost importance	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	Of no importance

• **30.6 How important are other factors?**

	1	2	3	4	5	
Of utmost importance	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	Of no importance

**31. In rank order, how important are the following factors to management when promoting people to leadership positions in your organisation?**

1 = of utmost importance, 2= very important, 3= of moderate importance, 4= of little importance and 5= of no importance

	1	2	3	4	5	
Utmost important	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	No importance

**31.1 How important is age?**

	1	2	3	4	5	
Of utmost importance	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	Of no importance

**31.2 How important is Job seniority?**

	1	2	3	4	5	
Of utmost importance	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	Of no importance

**31.3 How important is Job experience?**

	1	2	3	4	5	
Of utmost importance	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	Of no importance

**31.4 How important is Job accomplishment?**

	1	2	3	4	5	
--	---	---	---	---	---	--

Of utmost importance      Of no importance

**31.5 How important is Educational accomplishment?**

1 2 3 4 5

Of utmost importance      Of no importance

**31.6 How important are other factors?**

1 2 3 4 5

Of utmost importance      Of no importance

**32. Employees are told how their job performances have been in your organisation.**

1=Strongly agree; 2=Agree; 3=Neither agree or disagree; 4=Disagree; 5=Strongly disagree

1 2 3 4 5

Strongly agree      Strongly disagree

**33. Management stimulate employees in your organisation to improve their performances.**

1=Strongly agree; 2=Agree; 3=Neither agree or disagree; 4=Disagree; 5=Strongly disagree

1 2 3 4 5

Strongly agree      Strongly disagree

**34. How often are there hard criteria against which performance is measured?**

1=Very often; 2=Often; 3= Don't know; 4=Seldom; 5= Never

1 2 3 4 5

Very often      Never

**35. How often does management specify targets to be attained?**

1=Very often; 2=Often; 3= Don't know; 4=Seldom; 5= Never

1 2 3 4 5

Very often      Never

**36. How satisfied are you with the amount of involvement you have in decision-making in your organisation?**

1=Strongly satisfied; 2=Satisfied; 3=Neither satisfied nor dissatisfied; 4=Dissatisfied; 5=Strongly dissatisfied

1 2 3 4 5

Strongly satisfied      Strongly dissatisfied

**37. You feel loyal to your organisation?**

1=Strongly agree; 2=Agree; 3=Neither agree or disagree; 4=Disagree; 5=Strongly disagree

1 2 3 4 5

Strongly agree      Strongly disagree

**38. You are proud to tell people who you work for?**

1=Strongly agree; 2=Agree; 3=Neither agree or disagree; 4=Disagree; 5=Strongly disagree

1 2 3 4 5  
Strongly agree      Strongly disagree

**39. To what extent is your commitment to organisational objective of increase performance?**

1=Very committed; 2=Committed; 3=Neutral; 4=Somewhat committed; 5=Not at all committed

1 2 3 4 5  
Very committed      Not at all committed

**40. To what extent is your involvement in the achievement of greater performance for the company?**

1=Very involved; 2=Involved; 3=Neutral; 4=Somewhat involved; 5=Not at all involved

1 2 3 4 5  
Very involved      Not at all involved

**41. Apart from the work activities, do you think it is necessary for a boss also to be interested in knowing about his employee's social and psychological well-being within and outside the work environment?**

Very necessary =1, Necessary =2, Makes no difference =3, Not very necessary = 4, Not at all necessary= 5

1 2 3 4 5  
Very necessary      Not at all necessary

**42. How long do you think you will continue working for this organisation?**

- Less than two years
- Two years at the most
- From two to five years
- More than five years (I probably will leave before I retire)
- Until I retire.

**43. Can you say the way things are done in your organisation (the culture) and the management style of your boss have affected your attitude towards your work?**

- Yes  No

**44. In what way has it affected you? Answer this question if you answered "yes" for question 34.**

- Positive  Negative

**45. Please give reason(s) for the answer chosen for questions 34 and 35 above.**

THANK YOU FOR PARTICIPATING

## Appendix D: Interview Questions

### Part I

#### Leadership Style 1: Autocratic

The leader exhibiting this style has no confidence and trust in his/her subordinates. The style relies on centralized decision making from the top of the organisation. Subordinates are not involved in any important decision-making, but are expected to carry out the decisions loyally and without raising questions.

#### Leadership Style 2: Paternalistic

The relationship between superior and subordinate in this style resembles that of father-child. Leaders express a condescending confidence and trust towards subordinates. They usually consult with subordinates before reaching a decision, Listens to their advice, considers it, and then announces the decision, Expects all to work loyally to implement it whether or not it is in accordance with the advice they gave.

#### Leadership Style 3: Consultative

While leaders have substantial but not absolute amount of confidence in subordinates, they still prefer to maintain control over most decisions. They usually make decisions promptly, but before going ahead, try to explain them fully to subordinates, and then give them the reasons for the decision and answers whatever questions they may have.

#### Leadership Style 4: Participative

The participative leadership style is characterised by complete confidence and trust in subordinates. Decentralized decision-making differentiates this style from the other three styles. The leader usually calls a meeting of subordinates when there is a decision to be made Puts the problem before the group and invites discussion, Accepts the majority viewpoint as the decision.

- There are four different styles of leadership as illustrated above. From these styles, which one would you likely prefer to work under, which one most likely described your immediate boss and to which style you would most likely prefer not to work under? Please explain your reasons.

- In some organisations, subordinates are frequently afraid to express disagreement with their bosses. Some of these bosses are autocratic, paternalistic, consultative and participative. Now imagine that your boss corresponds to one of these types of bosses. My question to you would be how often are you frequently afraid to express disagreement with your boss? What are your reasons for being afraid to express disagreement with your boss?
- Do you feel nervous or stressful at work? How often do you feel so and could you explain the reasons for your nervousness or stressfulness?
- What effect, if any, do you think the work values of your organisation have on the leadership style of management?
- What type of culture matches your leadership style?
- What effects, if any, do you feel your organisational culture has on employee motivation?
- To what extent do you think there is a relationship between culture and employee motivation?
- What leadership style do you think motivates employees in your organisation?
- Do you consider family, ethnicity, friendship, indigenous language, social relation, level of education and past work experience as a source of influence in recruiting and promoting employees in this organisation? Did any of these factors influence your recruitment into this organisation? Which of these factors does management consider most in recruiting people into this organisation? Please explain with examples.
- Could you think of other factors that would enhance recruiting employees into this organisation?