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UNIVERSITY *of*
TECHNOLOGY

**THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN QUALITY OF WORK LIFE FACTORS AND
ORGANIZATIONAL COMMITMENT WITHIN THE PULP AND PAPER INDUSTRY IN
THE DURBAN METROPOLITAN AREA**

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Promoter

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DECLARATION

I, Nkosinathi Cedrick Ngcobo, declare that

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ABSTRACT

It has become imperative for organisations to create family-friendly work-environments, where employees can effectively balance work and family life, in order to ensure employee satisfaction and increased productivity. A critical review of the quality of work life factors and organizational commitment literature was therefore conducted, in order to ascertain their psychometric applicability to knowledge workers within the Pulp and Paper industry in the greater eThekweni Metropolitan Area.

A total of 450 questionnaires were distributed to employees in the pulp and paper industry within the eThekweni metropolitan area. The employees were randomly selected, while the organisations were stratified selected. A questionnaire was used to measure the different dimensions of quality of work life factors as well as the different dimensions of organisational commitment. The gathered data was processed through an SPSS program. A number of statistical tests were then performed on the collected data, where biographical variables were compared with the independent variables. The questionnaire was considered moderately reliable because the overall coefficient alpha was 0.525.

The Pearson's value indicated that there was a positive relationship at 0.01 level of significance between the majority of the quality of work factors (organizational climate, task characteristics, job satisfaction, role behaviour, utilization and future orientation) and the organisational commitment. No relationship was found between remuneration and organizational commitment. There was no significant difference in organizational commitment across the biographical variables of marital status, age, length of service and span of control. There was, however, a significant difference in organizational commitment across different levels of education. The Analysis of variance indicated that there was no significant difference in organizational commitment across marital status group. There was however a significant difference in organizational commitment across length of service. There was a significant difference in organizational commitment across supervisory span of control. The results from the hierarchical multiple regression

indicated that with the exception of age, education and experience, all other demographics variables do not have an impact on affective commitment.

The results also indicated that age, education and experience had an impact on continuance commitment. Similarly, age and education contribute significantly to normative commitment.

The structural equation model comparative technique was performed to all constructed models and indicated that all models had a good fit in relation to the data based on the GFI. The best-fitting model for consequences demonstrated that organisational citizenship behaviour and procedural justice were important variables. Apart from that, affective, continuance and normative commitment were also found to be part of the model.

CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

1.1 Background

Shahnawaz and Juyal (2006) point out that the world economic order is changing rapidly and evolutionary changes are taking place at revolutionary speed, pushed strongly by external forces arising out of a desire for increasing competitiveness and efficiency. A full appreciation of the extent to which a society is effective cannot be obtained by merely examining the extent to which it has achieved certain material goals. Society can only be functionally effective if it also satisfies the psychological needs of its members (Kinicki and Kreitner, 2006). While it is possible to assess material success in terms of a number of quantifiable indications, the psychological quality of a society is less easily measured.

In recent years, organisations and individuals have encountered constantly changing conditions which have to be taken into consideration in order to achieve both material and psychological goals (Kinicki and Kreitner, 2006:240). Both internally and externally, organisations have been compelled to make people their main consideration. Internally, the organisation must ensure that the quality of work life is main consideration, along with the correct productivity levels and enhanced commitment. Externally, an enterprise may benefit people in the environment where they work, thus demonstrating a sense of social responsibility.

In order to make the quality of work life a reality for each employee, an organisation has to take into account each employee's needs and values and the extent to which these needs are being satisfied, the values should conform to the employee's work experience. Organisations need to become involved in activities that are aimed at satisfying those needs which are regarded by employees as being important. At the same time the goals of both the organisation and the employee should be synchronised (Worrall and Cooper, 2006). Herzberg's Two Factor Theory forms the basis for studying quality of work life. In the South African context, interest in researching and

studying the quality of work life was generated in the 1980s, and, as a result, a series of Parliamentary Acts were promulgated in the areas of health, safety and training.

After the first democratic elections in 1994 in South Africa the labour scene changed dramatically and the Labour Relations Act No. 66 of 1995 was promulgated. This was followed by the Basic Conditions of Employment Act No.77 of 1997, and then the Employment Equity Act No.55 of 1998 (Erasmus and Nel, 2004). The latter Act came into operation in phases, which commenced on 9 August 1999. Various other amendments to the major Acts have been carried out; these have signalled the refinement of the tripartite relationship between organized labour, organised business and the state at the end of the first decade of the democratically elected government of South Africa. These refinements have led to the improvement in quality of work life in general. Quality of work life programmes are designed to improve workers' experiences in their jobs in a way that motivation, satisfaction and commitment are increased, thereby increasing organisational effectiveness and performance (Hellriegel, Slocium and Woodman, 2002).

The second important factor in this study is organisational commitment. Organisational commitment expresses an individual's orientation towards the company by tapping into his or her loyalty to, identification with, and involvement in an organisation. Miller (2008) states that organisational commitment is a state in which an employee identifies with a particular organisation and its goal and wishes to maintain membership in the organisation. Research into organisational commitment has been approached from a variety of conceptual and operational perspectives. Previous research has linked organisational commitment to important organisational outcomes such as turnover, job performance, absenteeism, job satisfaction, organisational effectiveness and tardiness (Hellriegel *et al.*, 2002).

Hellriegel *et al.*, (2002) argue that the antecedents of organisational commitment include personal characteristics, job characteristics, group

leaders' relations and organisational characteristics. Three major organisational commitment dimensions exist, namely:

- a) affective commitment which refers to the employee's emotional attachment to, identification with, and involvement in the organisation,
- b) normative commitment which refers to the employee's feelings of obligation to remain in the organisation
- c) Continuance commitment which refers to commitment based on the costs that the employee associates with leaving the organisation. Continuance commitment has two sub-dimensions, namely, personal sacrifice and lack of alternatives.

Miller and Lee (2001) list three reasons why they feel that organisational commitment is so important:

- Theory related to commitment suggests that organisational commitment should be a fairly reliable predictor of certain behaviour displayed by employees, especially in the realm of staff turnover.
- The concept of organisational commitment is intuitively appealing to both managers and employees.
- An increased understanding of commitment may help to understand the nature of more general psychological processes by which people choose to identify with objects in their environment.

1.2 Problem statement

A high quality of work life (QWL) is essential for organisations to continue to attract and retain employees who are committed to serving the organisation. Interest in studying the quality of work life has increased in recent years as a result of changes in the environmental and humanistic values that had been neglected by industrialized societies in favour of technological advancement, productivity and economic growth. Evidence of this wide interest, especially since 1975, is the publication of more than 450 articles and books on the subject to date (Rowden, 2003). Despite wide-scale applications and interest abroad, South African developments in this area have been slow.

Interest in studying the quality of work life was originally generated because workers were often frustrated in their jobs and experienced very little job satisfaction (Jones and George, 2006:128). They began to feel the pressures of work and their health was affected. Various researchers have found that job satisfaction is essential for employees to be happy, both at work and in their lives in general. On the other hand, lack of recognition, uninteresting work, poor relations with colleagues and poor working conditions are the main causes of job dissatisfaction.

The concept of employee commitment to an organisation has received increased attention recently as both managers and organisational analysts try to find ways to increase employee retention and performance. It has been suggested by Steers (1975) that commitment may represent one useful indicator of the effectiveness of an organisation. These findings have important implications for both organisational theory and the practice of management. This study will therefore determine ways of increasing retention among employees in industry.

Most people identify so strongly with their jobs that their self-esteem derives from the position they hold. "You are your position and nothing more." This seems a dangerous self-assessment. That is why, according to Mullins (2002), the failure to properly manage the quality of work life is so far-reaching and likely to trigger Post Traumatic Stress Disorder. Despite the recent surge of interest in the study of the quality of work life factors and organisational commitment, there is still a lack of understanding and recognition of what it really is and how it affects individuals and organisations (Mullins, 2002).

A strong bond between an individual and an organisation is mutually beneficial (Sirota, Mischkind and Meltzer, 2005). For the individual, staying with a company provides a continuing source of current economic rewards as well as ensuring financial stability for their future retirement. The benefits for an organisation include building strong linkages which help in reducing excessive absenteeism and turnover. An examination of these variables develops possible feelings of psychological attachment.

1.3 Aims

The specific aims of the study are as follows:

- To establish why, despite the Pulp and Paper industry being the major contributor to economic development in South Africa, it has not yet been able to build a committed workforce that plans long tenure with the industry.
- To find out what role is played by the quality of work life factors in enhancing commitment in the Pulp and Paper industry.
- To ascertain what problems are caused by lack of commitment
- To develop a model that companies in the Pulp and Paper industry could utilize in their efforts to enhance employee commitment

1.4 Rationale for the study

The Pulp and Paper industry employs about 15 000 personnel on a permanent basis and a further 5 000 on a contract basis within the eThekweni Metro (Askew, 2009). The industry is known to have high employee turnover rates, high attrition, and absenteeism rates, all of which impact negatively on the overall performance of the industry. High costs are thus incurred through recruitment and selection, training, and the development of new employees. Jones (2010) points out that the high staff turnover in many organisations is largely due to the fact that employees are unhappy and dissatisfied with their jobs. As a result, they look for jobs in other industries where psychological comfort can be solicited. This research will attempt to identify the underlying causes of the dissatisfaction with the quality of work life factors experienced in the industry; suggestions and recommendations will be made in an effort to improve the levels of job satisfaction, especially among the employees and managers.

Worrall and Cooper (2006) report that a low level of well-being at work in South Africa is estimated to cost about 5 - 10% of its Gross National Product per annum, yet Quality of Working Life as a theoretical construct remains relatively unexplored and unexplained within the Organisational Psychology research literature.

The above-mentioned lack of information encouraged the researcher to examine the relationship between organisational commitment and the quality of work life factors within the Pulp and Paper Industry. Employees' quality of work life factors and their commitment to their organisations is critically important, not only to the industry but to the KwaZulu-Natal Province and to the country as well.

1.5 Scope of the study

The following section outlines the limitations inherent in this research:

- The study will be limited to the Pulp and Paper industry within the eThekweni Metropolitan area in lieu of the costs and time constraints
- Further research will be required to clarify whether the results obtained are consistent across geographic regions.
- The findings of this study will have to be tested around the country to ascertain if there are similarities in the behaviour of employees.

CHAPTER 2

LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Introduction

The term Quality of Work Life (QWL) originated from the concept of an open socio-technical system designed in the 1970s that helps to ensure autonomy in work, interdependence and self-involvement with the idea of 'best fit' between technology and social organisations. Although the open socio-technical system is a traditional concept for practice, it assumes that optimal system performance and the 'right' technical organisation co-incide with those job conditions under which the social and psychological needs of the workers are satisfied (Ehlers and Lazenby, 2004).

2.2 Conceptual clarification

Dargahi and Yazdi (2007) argue that the QWL is a comprehensive programme aimed at improving employees' satisfaction, strengthening workplace learning and helping employees to better manage change and transitions. They further point out that the QWL is a dynamic multidimensional construct that currently includes such concepts as job security, reward systems, training and career advancement opportunities and, most importantly, participation in decision-making processes. That is why Robbins (2003) looks at the QWL as a process by which an organisation responds to employee needs by developing mechanisms to allow employees to share fully in making the decisions that design their lives at work. Greenberg and Baron (2003) argue that introduction issues about the QWL and their importance in organisations have been debated and experimented with, for decades. According to Dargahi and Yazdi (2007) most organisations today view QWL as important but they do not formally link it to any of their strategic or business plans. They further argue that QWL incentives may be the most powerful type of reward an organisation can offer. Managers who help their employees to improve their quality of life at home as well as at work can reap rewards in loyalty, productivity and retention and it is not uncommon for employees to believe that upper management should be responsible for their career development and continuing education.

The QWL is a sociological and psychological phenomenon, but sociologists are not channelling their interest into the industrial sector where the workers are the core potential resource for organisational performance. In the workplace, the term 'QWL' is 'work in excellence' and 'working conditions' such as standards of living and life styles. Recently the term has developed with the introduction of social compliance (SC) in the workplace. In the past decade, there was a trend to introduce ISO 9001, and ISO 14000, with the emphasis on product quality. Nieman and Bennett (2002) have shown that there are two kinds of indicators for defining quality of life. One is an objective indicator, for example, money; and the other is a subjective indicator, such as financial status, living standard, job etc. In a nutshell, objective indicators define quality of life in terms of goods while subjective indicators are defined as quality of life as perceived by individuals. Torr (2008) states that 'quality of life' is not a sum of its component units. Quality of life is more than interaction, attitude, aspiration, fears, satisfaction or dissatisfaction thus it creates cross-cultural similarities and dissimilarities (Sirota, Mischkind and Meltzer, 2005:158).

Different authors view QWL differently. According to Hackman and Suttle (2004), the concept and practice of QWL has broad and diverse connotations and many use this phrase in their own way, for example:

To some, quality of work life refers to industrial democracy, increased worker participation in corporate decision-making, or a culmination of the goals of the human relations movement of two decades ago. To others, especially those in management, the term suggests any of a variety of efforts to improve productivity through improvements in the human rather than the capital or technological inputs of production. Unions and worker representatives often view changes in the quality of work life as leading to a more equitable sharing of the income and the resources of the working organisation and to more humane and healthier working conditions. Alternatively, some union leaders suspect that management's efforts to improve quality of work life are nothing but an attempt to elicit higher productivity from workers without payment of higher wages. Finally, many view the quality of work life as

closely related to, if not merely a broader and more up-to-date term for, such concepts as job satisfaction, humanizing work, or individualizing organisations. Thus, efforts to improve quality of work life are seen as closely akin to organisational development programs (p.174).

Sirgy, Efraty, Siegel and Lee (2001) point out that in recent years individuals and organisations have encountered a number of changing conditions which have to be taken into consideration in order to achieve their goals; as a result of these changes, organisations must make people their main consideration both within (internally) and outside (externally) in relation to the organisation. Internally, making sure that there is a good quality of work life ensures the correct levels of productivity and enhances staff commitment. Externally, an enterprise may give recognition to people in the environment where they work, thus demonstrating a sense of social responsibility (Elizur and Shye, 1990).

2.3 Motivator – hygiene theory

Quality of work life could be looked at from two angles. One way equates quality of work life with a set of objective organisational conditions and practices (job enrichment, democratic supervision and employee involvement). The second way equates quality of work life with employees' perceptions that they are safe, relatively well satisfied and able to grow and develop as human beings. These two angles form the basis of the motivator-hygiene theory.

The basic premise of the motivator hygiene theory is that lower level needs (safety) have in most cases been satisfied in our society. If these have not been met, then job dissatisfaction results (Kinicki and Kreitner, 2001). The reverse is, however, not true: the fulfilment of basic needs does not produce job satisfaction. Thus there are two sets of needs: those that produce job satisfaction and those that produce job dissatisfaction. The factors that produce job satisfaction are called **motivator needs** – they motivate the worker to the highest level of performance. On the other hand, the factors that produce job dissatisfaction are the **hygiene (or maintenance) needs**.

Hygiene factors are related to the job and are known as job context factors; they have little influence on producing satisfaction (Kinicki and Kreitner, 2006). The hygiene factors involve features of the work environment, such as company policy and administrative practices, types of supervision, interpersonal relations, company benefits and working conditions. Just as Maslow's needs hierarchy theory postulates that lower level needs have to be met before someone is affected by higher order needs, likewise in Herzberg's theory, hygiene needs, for example, remuneration, must be satisfied before attention is paid to motivator needs (Hodgetts and Hegar, 2008). One of the most important hygiene factors is health and safety.

2.3.1 Health and safety

Conditions physical or temporal under which individuals work can affect the level of both the quality and quantity of production. Irrespective of how effective employees are in the execution of their tasks, dissatisfaction results if the conditions of their work are not conducive. A hygiene factor affecting satisfaction is safety. Physical, temporal and psychological factors affect the safety of the individual in the work situation (Cascio, 2003). In South Africa, the Machinery Occupational and Safety Act stipulates very stringent clauses related to safety both within and outside of the factory (Hunter, 2010). Health and safety are the concern not only of the organisation but also of the trade unions and society at large.

2.3.1.1 Contemporary bases for concern

A) Social responsibility

Social responsibility is an ideology that assumes that organisations have an obligation to act in a manner that will benefit society at large (Carpenter, Bauer and Erdogan, 2009:101). Organisations need to be aware of their social responsibility to society; these include, among other aspects issues of health and safety, even though efforts are made by some individuals to label organisations as being devoid of conscience. Some organisations even go beyond the minimum legal standards. This indicates that they are concerned not only about profits but also about the human being.

b) Humanitarian concerns

Humanitarian concerns are concerns expressed by employees for the safety and health of each employee. The need for such concern may be seen when an accident occurs. Not only is there physical suffering but there are also psychological effects on the victims and their colleagues (Pilbeam and Carbridge, 2002).

This is further explained by Kirton and Greece (2000) when they established four specific effects of accidents on workers. The **first** is the immediate suffering of the injured person. The **second** is the possibility of permanent impairment which takes place, on average, in one in twenty lost time accidents requiring time off the day after the accidents. The **third** effect refers to the consequences of the lost earnings to people and their families if they are unable to work for a few days after the accident. The individual is paid after a certain time period by the company's workmen's compensation fund. **Fourthly**, there is the loss or reduction of long term earning power when the injury results in a disability that requires a substantial career or occupational change. **Lastly**, employees who are not injured or killed may suffer psychological ill effects which may influence their productivity in the future (Pilbeam and Carbridge, 2002); therefore, in order to prevent these ill effects, unions have become active in health and safety.

c) Employee and union views

Managers have been made aware of the concern expressed by employees and their unions on the subject of safety in the work place. Workers, individually and collectively, are becoming increasingly aware of, and actively involved in safety issues in the work place (Pilbeam and Carbridge, 2002).

The labour force has been proactive in matters related to safety and health. The proactive stance of unions is seen in the increasing number of industrial hygienists being employed by labour unions to monitor the working conditions, particularly in the chemical, rubber, oil and automotive sectors. This emerged due to pressure exercised by members and union leadership where the focus is on identifying health hazards and thereby improving the conditions of work

(Business week, 2009). It was only after the promulgation of the Machinery and Occupational Safety Act that employers have become safety conscious. This is especially in the case of domestic workers. The main objective of the Machinery and Occupational Safety Act is to improve the conditions of work.

2.3.1.2 Conditions of work

Due to the effectiveness of the reform movements of the 1920s and 1930s, it has been accepted that workers should not be exposed to working conditions that are dangerous or detrimental to their health (Boxall, Purcell and Wright, 2007). As a result of pressure being exerted by trade unions and because of prevalent changes in societal norms and values, management has to ensure that working conditions promote the psychological well-being of their employees (Betts, 2000). This is further explained by Mosley, Megginson and Pietri, (2005) who feel that because of union action, legislation and employer concern, there have been marked improvements over the past few decades in aspects of the work environment related to working hours, safety regulations, noise, illumination, work space and accident prevention. The emphasis has shifted from preventing physical injury and illness to one of promoting comfort and care in the work place (Ulrich, Brockbank, Johnson, Sandholtz and Younger, 2008). The physical conditions of work are the prime areas of concern to the organisation.

a) Physical conditions of work

The physical work environment ranges from pairing facilities and location and design of buildings to the intensity of lighting and noise impinging on an individual's desk or workspace (Fitz-enz and Davidson, 2002).

A company could employ the best workers, train them thoroughly and provide them with top supervisors, but if the physical working conditions are inadequate, production will suffer (Seane and Sluiter, 2003).

Extensive research has been carried out on many aspects of the physical environment ranging from temperature, humidity, lighting, noise-level to hours of work and effects of music. As these are important conditions of work and

could have a bearing on accidents taking place, they will be discussed separately.

- **Illumination**

The quality of work can suffer if there is insufficient light in the work area and, furthermore, the eye sight of the individual could be harmed. Factors such as intensity, distribution, glare and the nature of the light source are pertinent aspects of illumination (Brief, 2008).

- **Noise**

Noise is a common cause for complaints in industry. There is, however, contradictory evidence on the effects of noise on productive efficiency (Kearns, 2010). The type of work and related noise, together with the characteristics of the employee, determines the ultimate effects. A loudness of 85 decibels could cause hearing loss, and exposure to levels of over 120 decibels could bring about temporary deafness. Brief exposure to noise above 130 decibels can lead to permanent deafness (Brief, 2008).

- **Music**

Since the mid-1940s there has been a tendency for organisations to provide music in the workplace. Workers indicated that they were in favour of music and felt that it would make them happier and more productive (Seane and Sluiter, 2003). Music may increase production on jobs that are simple, repetitive and monotonous and it might provide a focus (something to occupy the mind) and this may cause the day to pass more quickly (Seane and Sluiter, 2003); However, in the case of complex and demanding jobs that require full concentration, there is no evidence available that music will increase production (Campbell, 2009).

- **Temperature and humidity**

Individuals have experienced the effects of varying temperatures and levels of humidity on morals, the ability to work effectively and their physical and emotional well-being (Campbell, 2009).

Uncomfortable climatic conditions can have an effect on the quality and quantity of work. Production can fall under extremely hot and humid conditions, but even when production remains the same, employees have to expend more energy to maintain the same output (Analoui, 2007). This is illustrated in research conducted by the American military who found that highly-motivated persons are able to maintain constant work rates under extremes of both heat and cold (Seane and Sluiter, 2003).

Besides being affected by the physical conditions at work, an employee's work can also be influenced by the temporal conditions.

b) Temporal conditions of work

An important part of the overall environment is the amount of time spent on the job. The number of hours worked and the amount of rest allowed during working hours affects the morale and productivity of workers.

- **Hours of work**

There is evidence that unnecessary production time is lost in an ordinary workday (Hope, 2003). According to Seane and Sluiter (2003) a relationship exists when nominal hours of work are increased, and actual hours decreased. The longer the work day or work week, the lower the actual hourly production. When nominal working hours are lengthened there is an increase in accidents, illness and absenteeism.

- **Shift work**

Another temporal condition of work that affects employees is the time of the day or night during which the work takes place. Conditions imposed by shift work affect people in various ways (sleep-wake patterns and emotional effects). The same workers are less productive on the night shift than on the day shift and are more prone to making errors and have more serious accidents (Winfield, Bishop and Porter, 2004).

Apart from affecting production and absenteeism, shift work has social and emotional effects on individuals and their immediate families. Hodgetts and Hegar (2008) found that employees who work at night on rotating shifts may have a higher incidence of stomach disorders, sleep disorders, marital problems and feeling of isolation and irritability.

Problems associated with shift work can, however, be alleviated by more effective recruitment and selection, or longer interim resting periods between shifts (Pilbeam and Carbridge, 2002). Furthermore, in order to do away with the disadvantages of shift work, the compressed work week is advocated.

Although Seane and Sluiter (2003) have listed various advantages of shift work, it cannot therefore be deduced that all companies can resort to shift work. The need for shift work has to be carefully considered before any decision is made.

- **Compressed work week**

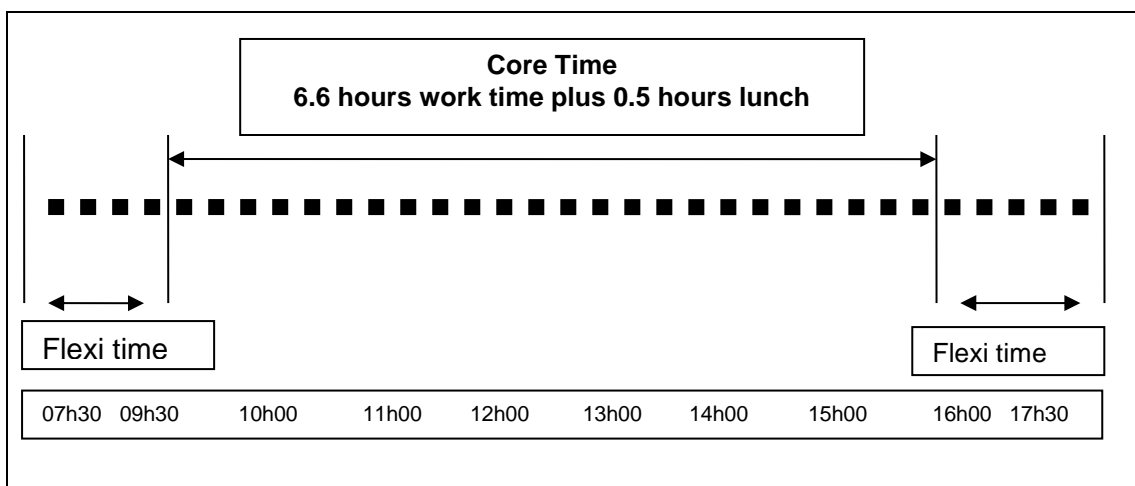
Compressed work week involves either four days at ten hours per day or a 36-hour week with no reduction in pay. This system has been accepted by union leaders, management consultants and firms (Hunter, 2010).

In most cases the initiative to shorten the work week came from management because of the possibility of increased productivity and worker efficiency as an incentive for recruiting and retaining employees with the hope of reducing absenteeism (Budhwar and Debrah, 2001). Although the initiative for shortening the work week came from management, employee acceptance of the four-day work week is still questionable (Cronin, 2006). The acceptance of the shorter work week is represented by individuals who are young, with a lower level job and lower income, and who have relatively low general job satisfaction, low satisfaction with their pay and the type of work they do and low organisational commitment. They perceive both their work group and total organisational climate as negative (Harzing and Van Ruysseveldt, 2005). A suitable alternative to the stringent compressed work week would be flexible working hours.

- **Flexible working hours**

Flexible working time is an arrangement in which employees are granted a degree of choice in setting work hours as long as the standard number of work hours is worked (Jackson, Schuler and Werner, 2009). With flexitime, the workday is divided into four parts: two are optional and two are mandatory.

Figure 2.1- A typical flexitime work schedule



Source: Seane, N. and Sluiter, J.K. 2003:386

According to the Figure 2.1 above, employees can work any time between 7:30 and 9:00 in the morning and leave from 16h00 to 17h30 in the afternoon. The two compulsory periods during which everyone must be on the job are during the morning from 09h00 until the half-hour lunch break, and afternoon from lunch to 16h00 (Erasmus and Nel, 2004).

Flexitime schedules can be divided into flexi tour, gliding time, and maxi flex which have revealed the following advantages (Seane and Sluiter, 2003):

- Productivity was increased in almost half of the organisations
- Absenteeism was reduced in more than 75% of the organisations
- Lateness was reduced in 84% of the organisations
- Turnover was reduced in more than 50% of the organisations.
- Employee morale increased in almost all of the organisations

Although there was a reduction in absenteeism and an increase in morale when flexitime was present in an organisation there was, however, no confirmation of increases in productivity (Reddington, Williamson and Withers, 2005).

Besides the temporal conditions, there are other related factors that affect the working environment.

- **Related factors that influence working conditions**

The internal environment that is made up of the design of a function and job enrichment can influence morale and motivation (Brief, 2008). In contrast, uncomplicated jobs do not tax the worker's intelligence, nor do they pose a challenge to satisfy the underlying need for achievement. The ultimate effect is boredom, monotony, fatigue and less efficient production (Brief, 2008).

Repetition on the job has an effect on the mental and physical health of workers. People who perform repetitive jobs on a rigid work schedule report a higher level of anxiety, depression and irritability than workers doing the same type of job under a more flexible schedule (Hunter, 2010). The effect of these types of job is boredom and monotony, boredom and monotony; the major consequences of job fragmentation, are important components of the psychological work environment (Seane and Sluiter, 2003).

Boredom is referred to as mental or psychological fatigue resulting from performing jobs that are repetitive, monotonous and uninteresting and that do not lead to psychological growth (Seane and Sluiter, 2003). It is, however, the duty of each industry to create a climate that leads to psychological growth.

Industry is faced with the problem of finding a way to reduce or eliminate boredom and monotony which in order to improve conditions at work. Seane and Sluiter (2003) have suggested effective selection and placement procedures, enlargement of the job through enrichment programmes, job rotation and education of workers to appreciate the value and meanings of their jobs.

There is no quick-fix solution to the problems associated with the temporal conditions at work. The hours of work that are applied in a company are dependent upon the nature of work activities; for example, if machinery has to be in operation for 24 hours then there is no alternative to shift work, however, the onus of selecting the best type of shift (2 x 12 hour, or 3 x 8 hour) rests with the company. Furthermore, it is the duty of the Human Resource Department to choose employees that are able to work shifts as unsuitable employees can be the cause of industrial accidents.

2.3.1.3 Causes of accidents

Accidents emanate from the involvement in the work place of either machines or human beings. Accidents arising from deficiencies in the plant, equipment, tools, material and the general work environment may be eliminated through engineering (Cascio, 2003). Improper attitudes, errors in judgement, carelessness, inability to perform a job and defective co-ordination are caused by deficiencies in man (Gratton, 2000).

An unpleasant or an unfavourable environment may also be responsible for diminishing productivity and lowering of job satisfaction. Furthermore, there are environmental conditions that are either directly or indirectly responsible for accidents (Knight and Willmott, 2007). Inadequate illumination or inappropriate temperature levels may either act directly or indirectly on the performance of the individual. Environmental factors that contribute to accident causation include work methods, industrial climate and design of equipment (Blass, 2009).

- **Work methods**

The man-machine system is related to work methods and can be defined as “an organisation of machines and men plus the processes by which they interact within an environment to produce some desired system output” (Gratton, 2000).

The ultimate goal of this system is mainly to organize equipment, establish a complimentary environment, design tasks and select suitable workers (Brief,

2008). In order to design the system effectively, all the factors which might influence the ultimate performance of the system must be considered. As the man-machine system is a closed-loop system an adjustment in one element produces a change in another. If the task accuracy requirement is increased then personnel elements will be affected. An increase in motor capability consequently leads to intensified training for all the workers involved, especially in the work methods (Gratton, 2000).

Work methods are related to safety in three ways (Harzing and van Ruyseveldt, 2005). In the first instance, there is the link through the manner of how the work is prescribed. Individuals can be injured when they deviate from the prescribed procedure and perform an unsafe act. In the second instance incorrect choice of work methods (where several methods are available) may result in an unsafe act. In some situations a given result can be accomplished by using different methods. Finally, some operations require that precautions be taken before an operation is activated in order to prevent deviation, breakage or malfunctioning.

Deviation from any prescribed method of work can be minimised through intensive training programmes and, where necessary, the redesigning of tools and equipment. Although intensive programmes can reduce the probability of accidents, it is also essential that there be a conducive climate within the organisation.

- **Industrial climate**

Accidents occur more frequently in those departments where promotion probabilities and intra-company transfers are low, and where the noise levels are high. Greater severity of accidents was found in departments with a predominance of male workers, low promotion probability and with no suggestion records, being in a higher age bracket employees and a high average tenure of workers (Harzing and Ruyseveldt, 2005). In the light of findings by Harzing and Ruyseveldt (2005) it is therefore necessary for organisations to have a proper mix (male-female, young-old) in order to prevent the possibility of accidents. Having a proper mix is not sufficient in

itself as it is essential for machinery to be designed to correct individual specification.

- **Design of equipment**

According to Armstrong (2006), once the human being has been allocated a particular role in the system, it is necessary to determine how the equipment should be designed. The design of equipment should be related to physiological and psychological characteristics of the operator (Armstrong, 2006). Individuals that are not suited to a machine, either physiologically or psychologically are bound to have accidents.

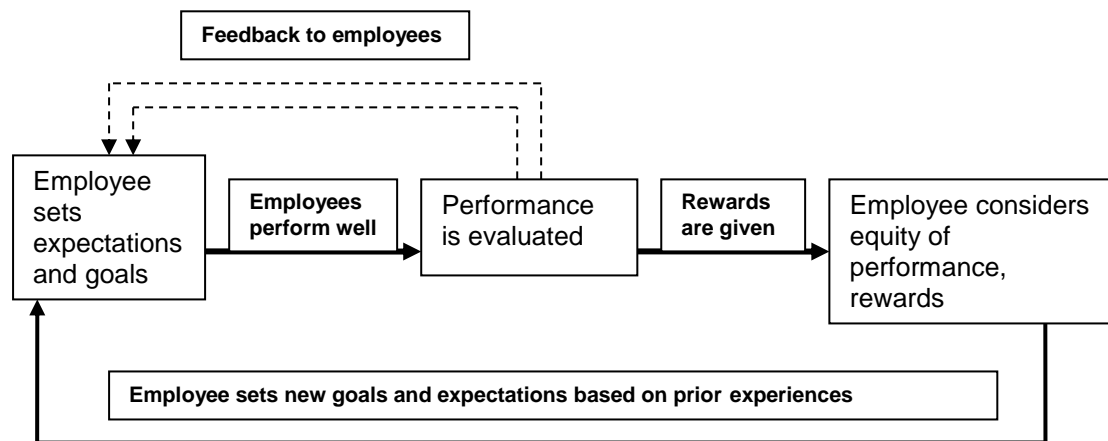
In order to improve the accident rate, it is important that employees are not only motivated but also provided with the necessary training (Hunter, 2010).

The ultimate aim of any organisation is to reduce the number of accidents to the absolute minimum. Although they try to achieve this, their efforts are in most cases unrewarded due to the poor and careless attitudes of the employees. Besides health and safety, remuneration is another important hygiene factor that affects the quality of work life.

- **Remuneration**

Fairness and sufficiency of remuneration systems are essential determinants of the quality of work life and they could have an effect on the organisational commitment. Individuals cannot experience psychological well-being without being adequately compensated (Boxall, Purcell and Wright, 2007). There are various standards against which adequacy of compensation can be judged and one of the main goals of an organisation when designing a system is to attract, retain and motivate employees (Analoui, 2007). Employees expect their performance to have a positive relationship with the rewards received from the organisation. This relationship is explained in Figure 2.2

Figure 2.2 Motivation and Performance Model



Source: Analoui, F. 2007:311

According to Figure 2.2, employees set expectations concerning rewards and compensation to be received if certain levels of performance are achieved. These expectations determine goals or levels of performance for the future. Workers who achieve the desired level of performance expect a certain level of compensation. At some point management evaluates and rewards the employees with merit increases, promotions or recognition. Employees consider the relationship between their performance and the rewards and then the fairness of that relationship. Finally, the employees set new goals and expectations based on his/her experiences within the organisation.

An organisation providing an accurate evaluation of an employee's performance ensures a positive relationship between performance and motivation (Pilbeam and Carbridge, 2004). Management-related performance levels and pay, increased benefits or working conditions will be directly related to high performance (Johari, Rashid and Murali, 2003). Job performance can be increased when individuals are given specific goals rather than simply being evaluated on performance. If individuals are given difficult but specific goals they will be more successful in attaining them (Kearns, 2010). Furthermore, these goals can be achieved if workers' achievements are reinforced by employers in an appropriate manner.

The principle theory of reinforcement indicates that positive behaviour that is rewarded by the organisation is repeated more often than unrewarded or punished behaviours (Jackson, Schuler and Werner, 2009). Rewards will be meaningful and desired by employees when reinforcement has a meaningful effect on their future behaviour and when the rewards are seen to be fair equitable (Whalen, 2007).

Equity fairness forms the building block and foundation on which pay systems are designed. An employee can be affected by external, internal or employee equity (Farrell and Lynch, 2003).

External equity refers to comparisons made between organisations with regard to employees' remuneration. There are three pure alternatives in setting pay levels to set average pay so that it will lead to, and match, competition as well as follow what the market is paying (Farrell and Lynch, 2003). Different pay levels have a potential effect on compensation objectives.

When organisations pay higher wages than their competitors they maximise their ability to attract and retain good employees and minimise dissatisfaction associated with pay (Thomas, 2002). Higher wages attract a larger number of applicants and allow the selection process, if properly designed, to obtain the cream of the applicants. These higher quality employees should exhibit greater productivity, thereby offsetting the greater wages (Whalen, 2007).

Paying wages below the level of competitors can hinder an employer's ability to attract or retain employees; however, the opportunity to work overtime, to secure promotions and avoid layoffs, or secure a friendly work environment may offset lower pay rates for many potential employees (Treasurer, 2008).

Lew and Williams (2004), Whalen (2007) and Treasurer (2008) all agree that in order to attract and retain employees, companies have to pay wages that are higher than their competitors. Achieving external equity is a necessary criterion for obtaining internal equity.

Internal equity is concerned with the relative similarities and differences in the work content of jobs. Internal equity is translated into practice through pay structure and job evaluation (Whalen, 2007). Pay structure refers to pay rates for different jobs within an organisation. These structures are designed with the assistance of job analysis and job evaluation (Reddington *et al.*, 2005).

Job evaluation involves the systematic evaluation of job descriptions. It helps to develop and maintain pay structure by comparing the relative similarities and differences in the content and value of jobs. Emphasis is placed on a systematic, rational assessment of jobs that serve as a basis for deciding pay (Ulrich *et al.*, 2008). Job evaluation also assists in bringing about equity among employees.

Employee equity refers to comparisons among individuals doing the same job in their organisation. Employee equity is pertinent to the design and administration of pay systems since it may have an effect on the employees' attitude and work behaviour (Armstrong, 2006). Employee equity is translated into practice through a series of policies and techniques based on pay ranges, increase guidelines, individual incentives and group gain-sharing programmes (Jackson *et al.*, 2008).

With regard to employee's equity, however, it is clear that employees can be paid different rates although they could be doing the same work. This is due to the variations in the values and standards of their skills, abilities and experience (Reddington *et al.*, 2005). These differences in rates, which are paid to employees in performance of the same job, also take place in response to policies related to experience, skills and performance and the expectations that seniority together with higher performance deserves greater pay (Blass, 2009).

Financial rewards do not have an effect only on performance but also on the attitude of employees toward work, as Hodgetts and Hegar (2008) explain:

“Satisfaction with pay is a function of how much is received, how much others are perceived to receive, and perceptions of what should have been received. Satisfaction with pay can influence overall job satisfaction as well as absenteeism, recruitment and turnover. Literature supports the view that pay dissatisfaction is related to turnover. It clearly indicates that the two are not always highly related. This relationship is influenced by the importance the employee attaches to pay”.

Hodgetts and Hegar (2008) believe that pay dissatisfaction can be costly to an organisation because it erodes commitment to work and may lead to absenteeism, turnover and lower productivity.

Pay may be one of the most common sources of dissatisfaction. Irrespective of the level of pay, an employee is bound to make comparisons and if there is the slightest hint of a discrepancy, it could lead to dissatisfaction and ultimately to industrial action as employees feel it is their right to be paid the same as their colleagues.

2.3.2 Rights in the work place

Members of an organisation are affected directly or indirectly by decisions that are made on their behalf (Fitz-enz and Davidson, 2002). Trade unions have introduced constitutionalism to the work place to protect individuals from arbitrary or capricious actions by employers (Erasmus and Nel, 2004).

When the work organisation ensures that the rights of individuals in the form of privacy, equity, free speech and due process are officially respected, only then can one expect the quality of work life to be high (Thompson, Strickland and Gamble, 2008).

2.3.2.1 Reasons for increasing rights

There are various reasons for employees to have rights in the work place. Managers are faced with increasing challenges from workers who feel their rights have in some way been violated at work. Harzing and van Ruysseveldt (2005) conclude that in the United States of America employees directing

challenges to management in the form of petitions, whistle blowing or lawsuits had at the time of writing, increased during the last ten years (1995 – 2005).

The reasons for employees becoming more aware of their rights can be found in the technological advances, a more educated labour force, varying values shared by workers, and greater participation in work decisions (Brief, 2008). It is only when employees are aware of their rights that they can take action to settle any problems.

2.3.2.2 Corrective justice

Before employees can integrate their personal goals with those of the organisation they have to receive the assurance that justice prevails and that their rights will not be violated (Rose, 2001). Furthermore, employees must be given the opportunity to improve their performance before disciplinary measures are taken. The main purpose of worker discipline is essential to encourage individual behaviour that contributes to organisational effectiveness. The traditional approach to discipline corrects the behaviour of workers through applying punishment for poor performance.

a) The traditional approach: progressive discipline

The traditional approach to discipline is based on rules and procedures for punishing violations (Cascio, 2003). In this type of discipline punishments increase in severity as the number of previous violations increases (Jackson *et al.*, 2008): however, this approach does have pitfalls.

A major pitfall of traditional discipline is that it relies entirely on negative reinforcement and feedback (Hope, 2003). It focuses on the employees' undesirable behaviour and it places the burden on the employee, thus neglecting the supervisor's potential role in facilitating change. Supervisors regard the discipline process as a campaign to get rid of undesirable employees. In order to overcome the pitfalls of the traditional approach, a newer approach was introduced.

b) New approach: discipline without punishment

The traditional approach to discipline has served many organisations in the past; however, the new approach's main aim is to discipline workers for their behaviour without applying punishment (Jackson *et al.*, 2008).

The advantages inherent to this method are the elimination of embarrassment for the worker and a feeling that they need to save face or engage in sabotage to get back at management. There is also a reduction in grievances in unionised organisations (Mullins, 2008).

The main disadvantage, however, lies in securing management commitment for the programmes. Although management may find it difficult to change, faith in the new approach could be nurtured until it is ingrained in the new organisational culture (Peng, 2006).

The traditional approach served its purpose but with the changing face of industrial relations, it no longer has a place in organisations.

The main element that distinguishes the new from the traditional approach is its premise that employees are responsible for their own behaviour and that any substantial improvement in discipline depends on their acceptance of that responsibility.

Whether the traditional or new approach to discipline is followed, it is important for employees to know that there are certain basic rights and that the employer, during the course of employment, cannot violate them.

2.3.2.3 Structural elements of the industrial relations system

The Wiehahn Commission into labour legislation can be regarded as the cornerstone of industrial relations in South Africa. As a result of this Commission the worker in South Africa was given certain rights:

A) The right to work

The premise underlying the right to work is that a human being is by nature an active and working creature whose fulfilment and self-realisation must be obtained by honest work (White Paper on Labour Legislation, 1978).

The corollary of a right to work on the part of a citizen is an obligation on the part of the State to provide work whenever it is needed. This right can be interpreted and applied differently under a centrally-controlled and free enterprise economic system. Under this system, the acceptance of the obligation by the State is a logical consequence of its founding philosophy, whereas in a decentralised economy, some of the implications of admitting such an obligation in the absolute sense are in conflict with the free enterprise philosophy. Due to these conflicts or problems the International Labour Organisation has not accommodated the right to work in a convention or even as a recommendation (Cheese, Thomas and Craig, 2008).

The right to work cannot be interpreted as a guarantee of employment in countries where the means of production are not under paternalistic, centralised control. Although this right has been incorporated in a labour code it does not imply a compulsion on the citizen to work or on the State to provide work (Manuel, 2007).

From the South African viewpoint, the right to work assumes relevance notably in regard to work reservation, access to training and labour mobility (White Paper on Labour Legislation, 1978). The right of a person to work is restricted in terms of agreements between employers and trade unions. This is especially applicable in the case of a closed-shop agreement whereby employers may not employ workers who are not members of a specific trade union (Wiehahn, 1989).

b) The right to associate

Although there is a clear distinction between the right to associate and the right to organize, these two concepts are often seen as being synonymous. The freedom to associate is an individualistic concept implying that the worker

is free to associate with his or her fellow worker. The concept of the “right to organize” is a collective right. To organize a trade union, workers must be free to associate (Mantashe, 2009).

The right has been entrenched in the laws of various countries including South Africa. The incorporation of this concept in international law implies that all workers in the country shall have the right to associate freely in trade unions without previous authorisation. Further, the State is committed to ensure that the worker’s freedom to join a trade union is safeguarded in its correlative sense; that is, the worker’s freedom not to join a trade union if he so chooses (Mdladlana, 2006). When a country endorses the principle of freedom of association it confers on the workers a right, not an obligation, to establish or to join a union. Compulsion on any worker to join a union is a clear violation of his right not to associate (White Paper on Labour Legislation, 1978).

c) The right to collective bargaining

Collective bargaining occupies an important place in the International Labour Organisation’s (ILO) activities; the ILO assumes the solemn obligation to recognise and promote among member states the important right of employers and employees to bargain collectively.

Systems and styles of collective bargaining differ from country to country. The spectrum ranges from essentially centralised to essentially decentralised processes, from tightly state controlled to almost totally free systems. In most countries this leads to legally binding agreements between the negotiating parties (Erasmus and Nel, 2005).

Recourse to collective bargaining as a means of determining conditions of employment in the public service and in public enterprise is a recent phenomenon (White Paper on Labour Legislation, 1987). The general trend is for workers in the public service to be given the right to bargain with the State. The heads of departments, however, are unable to make any decisions on their own (Challenor, 2008).

Collective bargaining has, in many societies, become an indispensable institution, demonstrating at all times, and under varying circumstances, remarkable qualities of resilience, adaptability and strength. Collective bargaining is well entrenched in all industrial relations systems and when bargaining fails the parties should have the right to withhold their labour (Vavi, 2008).

d) The right to withhold labour

The withholding of labour is an age-old remedy when conflict arises between employer and employee. This right has a two-sided character, being available to both **employers** (in the form of lock-out) and **employees** (in the form of a strike) according to Erasmus and Nel (2004).

The right to strike or lock-out is not categorically guaranteed in any international declaration or labour convention. It is viewed as being implicit in the rights to freedom of association and collective bargaining. If workers are free to associate and to bargain, it follows that when the bargaining fails to establish acceptable conditions of employment there should be a means of dissociation between the parties (White Paper on Labour Legislation, 1978).

This right in the form of a strike is entrenched in the constitutions' and labour codes of most countries. South Africa's labour legislation accommodates the internationally accepted right of employers and employees to withhold labour (Noe, Hollenbeck, Gerhart and Wright, 2006).

e) The right to protection

The worker's right to protection implies an obligation on the part of both the State and the employer to provide adequate, healthy and safe working conditions (Rose, 2001). This obligation gradually began to cover the workers' family and his/her sphere of life outside his/her place of work. This is due to the technological explosion of recent decades and the fact that all aspects of work, as well as societal life, are becoming increasingly interlinked (White Paper on Labour Legislation, 1978).

The right to protection is embodied in a variety of legislative measures providing for matters such as limitation of the number of hours a worker may work, minimum wages, age limits, workmen's compensation, insurance against industrial disease and injury, health protection and a host of other measures maintained by either the employer or the State or both. In the majority of cases the obligation on the employer to protect the worker is enforced by Law (Pilbeam and Carbridge, 2002).

As far as the workers' mental and physical well-being and safety are concerned, they are protected by a few laws such as the Machinery and Occupational Safety Act, Workmen's Compensation Act and the Hazardous Safety Act (Brief, 2008). In protecting the worker it is accepted that the State, employer and trade unions have joint responsibility (Cheese *et al.*, 2005).

f) The right to development

The development of knowledge and skills and the creation of employment opportunities have become top priorities for the international labour community (Noe *et al.*, 2006).

Convention 142 of the International Labour Organisation adopted in 1975 requires each member country to adopt and develop comprehensive and co-ordinated policies and programmes of training and development with a view to improving the ability of the individual worker. In order that this objective is achieved, countries are called upon to establish and develop open, flexible and complementary systems of general, technical and vocational education and training (White Paper on Labour Legislation, 1978).

The constitutions and labour codes of most countries provide for the right of citizens to be trained. South Africa's labour laws, though not conferring on persons a right to development, contain many regulatory measures for training and development of workers. The Wiehahn Commission (2007) changed the face of industrial relations in South Africa and gave the workers certain basic rights which were otherwise denied to them. Trade Unions, by introducing constitutionalism and fair play into industry, enabled the worker to

question any arbitrary and capricious decisions made by management. This is especially true in the case of promotion where managers readily promoted their favourites. This can have a demoralising effect and can reduce the organisational commitment.

2.3.3 Present promotion policies

Programmes focusing on promotion are developed for employees to progress in an organisation in a planned and systematic way. Successful career management leads to improved quality of working life and maximum utilization of employee skills which are influenced by the creation of new jobs, the re-organisation of a company, the prevailing business climate and attrition (Analoui, 2007), however, if a company needs to develop career paths, then promotion from within seems to become the only viable alternative.

2.3.3.1 Promotion

A promotion involves the reassignment of an employee to a higher level job. With promotions employees receive an increase in pay and, in exceptional cases, benefits related to authority and status (Analoui, 2007). Furthermore, promotion provides benefits to both the organisation and workers. They enable companies to utilize their employee's abilities more fully. Promotions, if based on merit, encourage performance (Kirton and Greene, 2000). There is a correlation between opportunities for promotion and high levels of job satisfaction (Analoui, 2007). An effective system of promotion results in greater organisational efficiency and high levels of employee morale (Analoui, 2007). Before an organisation decides to promote an employee, certain factors (reasons for promotion, promotion criteria) are considered.

a) Recruiting for promotion

In a closed promotion system the responsibility for identifying potential employees lies with the supervisor. Besides reviewing the past performance and assessing the potential of subordinates, the supervisor can enquire from other departments about employees who can fill the vacancy (Mullins, 2008). A drawback of this system is that individuals with appropriate qualifications may be overlooked if they are unknown to the officers (Kleynhans, Markham,

Meyer and van Aswegen, 2007). The open promotion system is therefore recommended.

The open promotion system overcomes the problem through a job posting system where vacancies are published on bulletin boards and other company communication systems (Pilbeam and Carbridge, 2002). This system enhances participation and equal opportunities; however, it is time-consuming and there is an increase in administrative expenses. When a promotion is considered, time and administrative expenses need not be considered, as a “rushed” promotion could end up being more expensive. Whichever criterion the company uses, it is important that it be made official.

c) Official promotion criteria

There are criteria that organisations examine when deciding which candidates to consider for promotion. These criteria vary from company to company.

Many companies place extra emphasis on a person’s seniority when making a promotion decision. Although some schools of management are of the opinion that seniority should be given little or no weight in promotional decisions, there are others that support the idea (Cascio, 2003). Seniority avoids the problems of managers who may promote those that are seen to be their favourites. It is a quick, easy and painless way to make a promotion decision because managers avoid the search process (Budhwar and Debrah, 2001). There is a correlation between seniority and performance as employees become more competent as they gain experience on their jobs. Promoting senior employees is a way of acknowledging their loyalty to the company. This view is shared by unions.

Unions that strive to treat their members fairly have found that fairness is best achieved by allocating rewards on the basis of seniority (Analoui, 2007). Kirton and Greene, (2000) as well as Analoui (2007) present conflicting arguments regarding the use of length of service as a criterion for promotion. They believe that loyalty cannot be bought at the expense of efficiency. Further, the company stands to lose young better qualified employees once

they are overlooked for promotion, however, seniority cannot be used in isolation.

There are disadvantages when seniority is used in isolation as criteria for promotion. It can result in demotivation and career-oriented employees may become impatient waiting for promotion and may seek employment in organisations that base promotion on performance. The strongest argument against using seniority as a criterion for promotion is that the senior employee may not be qualified for the job (Analoui, 2007).

As the drawbacks of seniority outweigh the advantages as a promotion criterion, organisations use current performance when decisions are made. Management will therefore take an effective promotion decision when both the candidate's present job and the higher job require similar skills and abilities (Brief, 2008).

In these instances past work performance is a fairly good predictor of future success; however, past performance is not a valid indicator of future success if the employee is promoted to a job that requires skills and abilities vastly different than those used in the previous job. A mismatch between the abilities of the person and requirements of the job could result in frustration and demoralisation and lead to resignation unless the organisation uses formal selection procedures (Analoui, 2007).

To improve the opportunities for making successful promotional decisions, from non-management positions to those of management, reports from assessment centres could be consulted. An aim of the assessment centre is to improve the organisation's selection mechanism, particularly at the first level of management (Clark, 2005). A further aim is to increase the pool of employees from which managers are selected. Seijts (2006) and Clegg (2008) have shown that the assessment approach improves the odds for a correct management promotion decision to be made. In comparing the assessment centre method to traditional methods, Campbell (2009) concludes that the average validity of the assessment centre is about as high as the maximum

validity attained by using the traditional methods of selection. There seems to be more merit in what Seijts (2006) and Clegg (2008) say, they agree with the sentiment shared by Hope (2003) because the assessment centre method is more formalised and is less subject to unfair practices such as favouritism; however, there are instances when organisations select individuals on the basis of unofficial criteria. This can have the effect of demoralising the individual and reducing the organisational commitment.

d) Unofficial promotion criteria

Official promotion policies are sacrificed at times at the expense of unofficial guide rules (Kirton and Greece, 2000). Rational criteria such as seniority, performance and assessment centre rating may be pushed aside for political reasons. When this approach is followed lower morale and higher labour turnover are some of the results of promotions made for political reasons (Analoui, 2007).

Unofficial criteria used to make promotions effective are based on personal characteristics, nepotism, social factors related to membership of clubs, political parties and alma mater, and then also the development of friendships (Gratton, 2000). Unofficial promotion criteria works against individual organisational integration which can lower commitment.

2.3.3.2 Career development and individual organisational integration

When individuals set their own long-term career goals they focus their efforts on personal and work-related development that will enable them to satisfy the identified needs. Organisations have a vested interest in their employees and should ensure, through appropriate training, that they can enjoy a return on investment in the long term (Reddington, Williamson, and Withers (2005). Integration between the aspirations of the employee and the target set by an organisation can bring about satisfaction of needs for both players (Mullins, 2008).

There is, however, a number of factors that can lead to a low degree of convergence between the individual's career goals and the development

plans of the organisation. There are often fewer positions available than there are people who desire them. From the organisation's point of view this leads to turnover and low motivation and for the individual this can result in the experience of psychological failure. This problem can be solved by improving lower level jobs so as to be more rewarding or to control the situation through the selection process regarding the number of people in the organisation who aspire to those higher level jobs (Pilbeam and Carbridge, 2002).

In the second instance, organisations view their development activities as a one-way process where individuals are developed for jobs that are not congruent with their career goals (Analoui, 2007).

Finally, poor assessment of the person's potential is responsible for a low convergence between the individual's career goals and the organisation's development plans (Analoui, 2007). The views that are shared by Analoui (2007) appear to be acceptable, as it is common and expected for organisations to assume that is their prerogative to train employees for the company's specific purpose without considering the individual's own needs.

The aims of a promotion policy should therefore enable management to obtain the best talent available within the company to fill senior positions, and to enable employees to advance their careers within the company in accordance with opportunities available.

The above aspects of promotion have always been controversial as there are often more people than jobs available. This, at times creates animosity between the organisation and individuals. No company can afford to have a hard and fast policy regarding the person to be promoted (that is, long service employees must be given preference). Irrespective of who is promoted, it is important that the organisation's policy be consistent and justifiable. This will depend to a certain extent on the quality of managers present in the company.

2.3.4 Management style

The quality of work life in a company is determined to a large extent by the prevailing management style. A dominant management style may require the solution of conflict which may occur between fulfilling the production goals of the organisation or satisfying the socio-psychological needs of the subordinates. A successful management style has to strike a balance between the two demands. Research findings support a positive relationship between leader behaviour and subordinate productivity and satisfaction (Price, 1997; Hagen and Nelson, 2001). The productivity and satisfaction prevalent in the workplace is dependant to an extent on the leadership style of the manager.

2.3.4.1 Leadership style

There is no best set of traits or behaviour that can describe an ideal or most effective leader. An effective leader will therefore be someone who can adapt the style of leadership according to the changing circumstances or needs of the organisation. This will depend upon, among other things, on the size of the organisation, whether the company is unionised or not and the leader's position in the organisational hierarchy (Certo, 2006).

There is, however, a difference between management and leadership, although there are times when the terms are used interchangeably. According to Mosley, Megginson and Pietri (2005) management relies on a formal position of power to influence people, whereas leadership stems from a social influence process. A leader can be appointed to head a group, or one who emerges from the ranks of the group according to consensus of the members (Peng, 2006).

Leadership is formally defined as an attempt at influencing the activities of followers to willingly co-operate through the communication process towards the attainment of some goal or goals (Betts, 2000). An analysis of this definition brings out three important aspects namely: leadership, communication and goals.

The first element involves **leadership** which uses influence to change the behaviour of subordinates. The second element involves the importance of the **communication process**, the accuracy and clarity of which affects the behaviour and performance of followers.

The third element focuses on the **accomplishment of goals**. The effective leader may have to achieve individual, group and/or organisational goals. The effectiveness of a leader is measured by the accomplishment of one or a combination of these goals. Individuals may therefore view the leader as effective or ineffective according to the satisfaction they derive from the total work experience (Betts, 2000). Depending on the leadership style, organisational and individual goals can either be achieved or not. The different leadership styles that can prevail in an organisation are:

a) Headship versus leadership

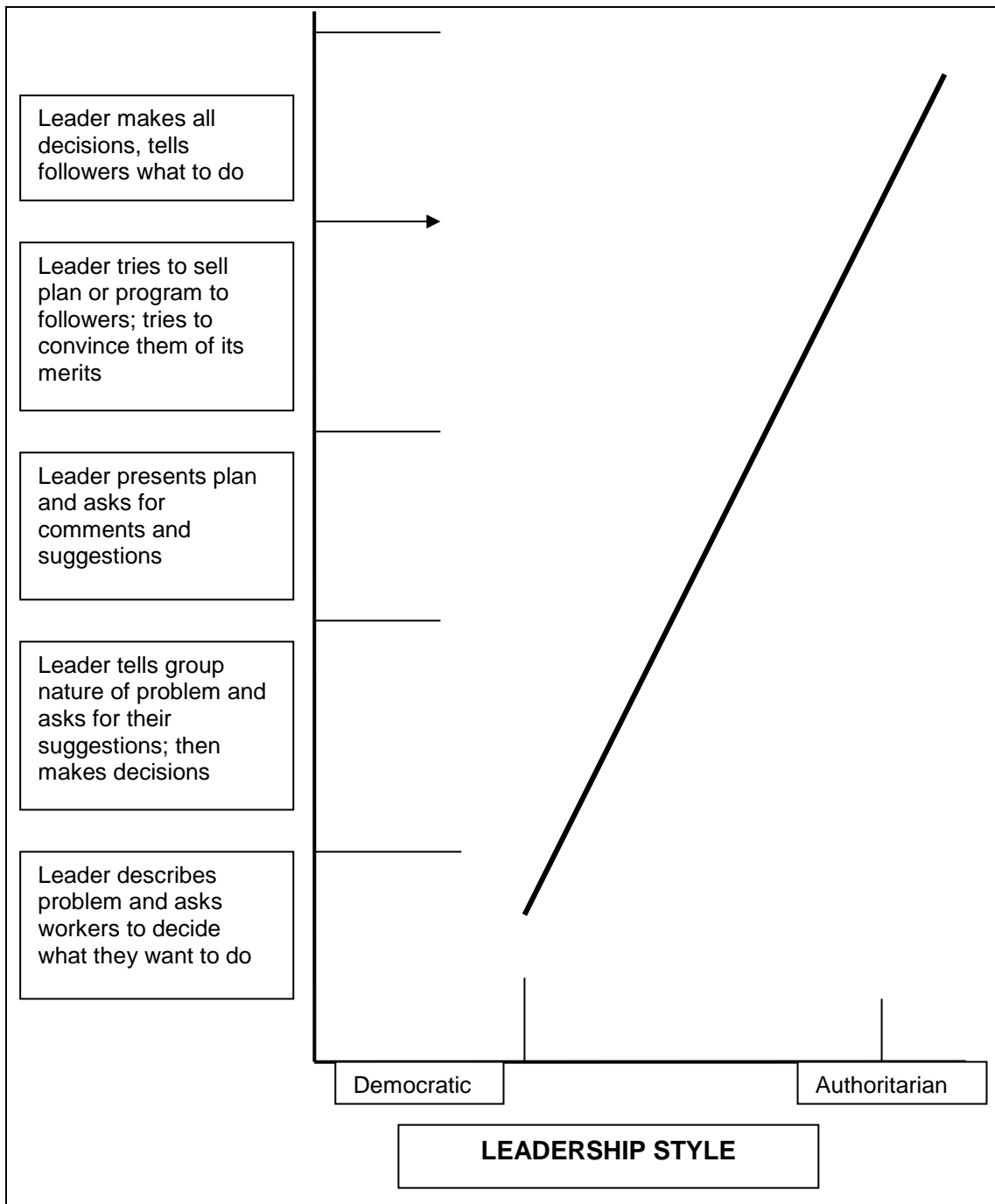
A distinction between different leadership styles derives from the source of a decision about who will be the leader. Headship or nominal leadership is imposed on the group by external sources while situation or effective leadership is selected by members of a group (Whalen, 2007).

Headship guarantees that leaders can direct or dominate the action of subordinates while leaders have the power to exercise punishment where necessary (Mosley *et al.*, 2005). Subordinates are not willing followers and group members may only perfunctorily carry out commands for imposed heads (Hope, 2003). This is in contrast to true leadership where members willingly work with the leaders. There are, however, limitations and difficulties to contend with in the form of conflicting sets of obligations and responsibilities. Appointed leaders are placed in a position where it is expected of them to satisfy, wherever possible, the needs and aspirations of their subordinates. Elected leaders are only responsible to those who put them into positions of authority (Parker, McAdams and Zielinski, 2000)

b) Authoritarian versus democratic leadership

Authoritarian and democratic leadership are present in organisations but between these two extremes are various leadership styles, that is, a consideration of both characteristics. According to Parker *et al.*, (2000) leadership situations involve some modifications or combination of these extremes. Think of a continuum ranging from a totally autocratic situation to one of participatory democracy in which the group as a whole must agree on any decision that affects them. There is room on this continuum then for considerable variations in leadership style.

Figure 2.3 shows the authoritarian – democratic continuum with representative leader behaviours. There is latitude in leader behaviour, with power and responsibility between the two extremes.



Source: Seane, N. and Sluiter, J.K. 2003:260

It is obvious that the headship and authoritarian styles of leadership are ineffective in the long term as they are unable to maintain the individual organisational linkage. Leaders can, however, maintain this linkage with the discreet use of power.

2.3.4.2 The role of power in leadership

Leaders exert varying degrees of power depending on the different situations they find themselves in, the type of subordinates and their own personal characteristics (Newstrom, 2007).

Leaders recognise the contributions their subordinates make through either intrinsic or extrinsic rewards. When leaders reward subordinates financially or with promotion opportunities they have a certain degree of power over the behaviour of their followers (Parker *et al.*, 2000). Power can be in the form of terminating a subordinate's employment, refusing promotion or salary increases (Parker *et al.*, 2000). In this respect four kinds of power have been identified:

- **Legitimate power** refers to the formulation of a power structure laid down by the organisation. It is derived from and defined by the formal organisation to which the leader and subordinates belong (Brief, 2008).
- **Referent power** relates to the extent to which followers identify with the goals of their leaders. Followers accept the leaders' goals as their own rather than the leaders striving towards achieving goals themselves (Cassidy and Kreitner, 2010).
- The extent to which the superior is perceived to be knowledgeable in areas that are essential for the attainment of group goals refer to **expert power**. Subordinates recognise the benefit when their superior is considered an expert and consequently become more willing and supportive (Cassidy and Kreitner, 2010).
- When effective leaders use referent and expert power to influence and motivate their subordinates there is a correlation between job performance and satisfaction (Parker *et al.*, 2000). The use of coercive and legitimate power reduces performance and satisfaction while **reward power** has shown no consistent influence (Campbell, 2009).

Effective managers do not seek power for personal gain but their need for power is directed toward the organisation for which they work and the achievement of organisational goals. This makes them successful in establishing and maintaining a conducive work climate, high morale and team spirit among their subordinates. Managers can achieve these objectives either through their concern for people or concern for production or a little of both.

2.3.4.3 Functions of leaders

The different functions of leaders are determined by the level of management and type of organisation. Leadership functions can be divided into two dimensions, namely, consideration and initiating structure (Cassidy and Kreitner, 2010). Farrell and Lynch (2003), however, conclude that “very little is known as to how these variables may predict work group performance and the conditions which affect such predictions”. Nevertheless, consideration and initiating structure are important determinants of successful leadership.

a) Consideration

The functions of consideration involve the awareness of, and sensitivity to, the personal feelings of subordinates (Cassidy and Kreitner, 2010). Leaders should understand and accept that subordinates have a unique set of motivations, feelings and needs. By relating to subordinates and considering their personal characteristics does not only place a demand on sharing sympathy, warmth and understanding but also on the production levels that must be maintained (Morne and London, 2004).

Managers operating under consideration display a characteristic capable of enhancing the quality of working life and organisational commitments. Effective managers create a feeling of approval, develop personal relations, exercise fair treatment and enforce rules related to discipline and punitive, action. There are, however, some managers who ignore the employees personal feelings and place greater emphasis on achieving organisational goals through initiating structure (Byars and Rue, 2006).

b) Initiating structure

The functions of leaders are related to the work performed within the framework of organising, defining and directing the work activities of their subordinates. There are situations where the responsibilities of a manager run counter to the demands associated with consideration. When initiating structure managers allocate tasks to subordinates, direct the manner and speed of performance and monitor the work in progress (Heracleous, 2006).

These activities may demand authoritarian behaviour and managers may ignore the subordinates' personal feelings (Carroll, 2010). Whether managers are able to achieve organisational goals or not depends on the environment in which they operate.

2.3.4.4 Environment for effective performance

Managers are expected to attract, maintain and motivate employees, however, the most effective way of doing so has raised important questions. Christensen (2001:37) believes that "much of the answer lies in creating an environment in which individuals may satisfy their own particular goals, while at the same time contributing in a responsible manner to the attainment of organisational objectives. While the modern manager cannot make the employee perform in a desired manner, he or she can certainly influence subordinates' performance by virtue of managerial skills and the style of leadership he or she exercises. There is support for Christensen's (2001) opinion: that a manager can enhance subordinate performance through participative management and by setting realistic objectives.

Managers can accomplish the desired effects by determining realistic objectives for their own units. By providing essential resources that are readily available and in an operable condition, subordinates are in a position to perform (Hope, 2003). Through formal and informal communication channels, subordinates are informed of what is precisely expected of them to satisfy organisational goals (Heracleous, 2006). Reward, in its various forms, is a major key in attracting, holding and motivating good employees irrespective of the type of job. According to Christensen (2001:136), "These rewards are

powerful motivators and can lead to even greater performance, higher morale and cohesion among employees, once their expectations of adequate wages, reasonable hours and a fair supervisor are relatively satisfied. Rewards can be powerful motivators as long as the expectations are known beforehand and when employees are working in an environment where the manager successfully removes barriers to effective performance.

After the initial period of recruitment, selection and training, it becomes the additional responsibility of a manager to either remove or reduce barriers which may impede performance. It is essential for managers to objectively examine the work situation and identify actual problems and their causes and to invite solutions through participation from their subordinates (Bacon, 2006). This can be achieved through management by objectives.

An evaluation and appraisal system identifying the level of a worker's performance provides an ideal channel for communication with a manager (Campbell, 2006). Many organisations involve their employees in development programmes whereby goals are set and evaluated on a periodic basis (Carroll, 2010).

Effective managers are classified as being excellent performers when they achieve high scores in terms of high-producing units, minimal turnover, low reject rate, fewer grievances and high employee morale (Christensen, 2001). Managers of this calibre build mutual trust and respect through open two-way communication, attentive listening and resultant actions.

The success or failure of an organisation depends to a large extent on the prevailing management style. The effective manager is one who creates a supportive environment in which individuals can satisfy their various needs, and they together contribute to the attainment of organisational objectives. Besides the management style prevalent in an organisation, the fringe benefits that are offered by a company are also a contributory factor to organisational commitment.

2.3.5 Fringe benefits

Fringe benefits are not awarded to employees as a means of only attracting, retaining and motivating them. Benefits are used to gain employee compliance and commitment and make individuals aware of the opportunity to satisfy their basic needs (Mullins, 2008). Benefits, if equitable and properly administered, have an effect on an individual's need fulfilment.

2.3.5.1 Effects of fringe benefits on need fulfilment

Fringe benefit plans are often designed to satisfy certain basic needs relating to philosophy and safety (Reddington *et al.*, 2005). Depending on their extent, these benefits may range from a minimum level of need fulfilment to maintaining essentially normal living standards of employees in case of illness, injury or death (Pilbeam and Carbridge, 2002). Some of these benefits may help meet self-actualisation needs in the form of vacations and benefits at retirement. These benefits allow the worker to be away from the work situation and to participate in life experiences whilst at the same time enjoying continued wages. They also contribute to the need for esteem by indicating personal worth (Treasurer, 2008). Pilbeam and Carbridge (2002), and Seijts (2006) concur with each other in stating the importance of fringe benefits on need fulfilment.

Although these benefits contribute to need fulfilment, they rank low in importance in terms of an employee's job satisfaction. The reason may be that the basic needs are taken care of in society while the higher order unfulfilled needs rank higher in importance (Buitendach, 2004). To enhance the potentiality of fringe benefits to meet underlying needs and serve as motivators, the flexible benefit plan or cafeteria compensation plan could be the answer. In this plan employees can choose some benefits in trade for a smaller salary (Beck and Wilson, 2000). Providing fringe benefits may help individuals to fulfil certain basic needs and allow the company to obtain some degree of loyalty.

2.3.5.2 Employee services

Employee services have been developed to increase employee loyalty to organisations and decrease absenteeism and turnover (Analoui, 2007), however, there are instances when employees with academic qualifications have to be terminated due to poor performance.

In this case, outplacement programmes terminate the employment of marginal performance with a minimum of disruption to their morale. The outgoing employee is helped to draw up a resume, develop interviewing techniques and is given a list of potential employers. The outplacement counsellor plays a role in developing a positive attitude in an employee leaving the organisation (Analoui, 2007). Besides outplacement programmes, profit sharing has also become popular among organisations.

Profit sharing has become popular as managers realise that it relates to the goals of the organisation and the employee. There is a problem, however, related to profit sharing in that during inflationary times the company's profits may drop and employees may increase their productivity and yet receive less in terms of profit sharing (Wilson, 2000).

Although the provision of fringe benefits may be costly to the company, the advantages in the long term outweigh the costs.

2.3.5.3 Validity of employee benefits

The validity of fringe benefits is found in their contribution to organisational goals. Problems are encountered when efforts are made to relate benefits to productivity or profits. One view is that the prime reason for giving benefits is to attract and retain staff (Pilbeam and Carbridge, 2002).

There is speculation that using fringe benefits as a manipulative instrument, tends to freeze apathetic or marginal employees in their jobs (Pilbeam and Carbridge, 2002). There is also a feeling that higher labour mobility may be of benefit to the economy and that a pension should be portable, that is, one that the worker can transfer between jobs (Pilbeam and Carbridge, 2002).

Fringe benefits contribute proportionately less to productivity and profits than wages and this is not always comprehended by employees. In most situations employees do not perceive the benefit as being related to job worth or performance (Clegg, 2008). Fringe benefits provided by organisations assist employees in meeting some of life's contingencies, contribute to meeting the social obligations of employers, and, as already stated, assist in helping to attract and retain employees.

The worker does not always see the financial advantages of fringe benefits and its effect on morale and motivation has not been determined (Saari and Judge, 2010).

Although the provision of fringe benefits began as a means of gaining employee compliance and commitment, they may not exist for solely those purposes for very much longer. This is due to the fact that fringe benefits have now become part of nearly every employment contract and as such are taken as a right. Employees feel that the provision of fringe benefits is part of the organisation's social responsibility.

2.3.6 Social responsibility programmes

The complexity of social responsibility was accentuated by Aristotle as quoted by Wilson (2001:102) when he said "to give away money is an easy matter and in any man's power. But to decide to whom to give it to and how large and when, and for what purpose and how, is neither in every man's power nor an easy matter."

Traditionally, managers were expected to concentrate on using the resources at their disposal to produce goods and services wanted by consumers (Meyer and Lynne, 2001). By emphasising this philosophy, management has neglected its social responsibility which has now become very complex.

The complexity of social responsibility and the unique situation that South African businesses find themselves in is illustrated by Savage (2007:79) who says, "It can be correctly pointed out that several business organisations have

taken decisive steps to eradicate racist practices in their midst and to address the cumulative disadvantages faced by their employees in the wider society. Such steps by socially responsible businesses are commendable but there are few indications that they constitute anything but a deviant minority. Further, for many, the entry into the area of social responsibility has been more of a forced march, in response to prodding by unions and overseas pressure groups, than self-initiated leadership". This deviant minority has, however, now increased to an appreciable number providing much-needed impetus to the programme.

2.3.6.1 Definition and explanation

Originally, according to Sparrow and Cooper (2007), a company was acting in a socially-responsible manner if it maximised profits; however, this meaning has been broadened by accepting that social responsibility means that business should oversee the operation of an economic system that fulfils the expectations of the public (Sparrow and Cooper, 2007). This means in turn that the economy's methods of production should be employed in such a way that production and distribution should enhance total socio-economic welfare. Lew and Williams (2004) define social responsibility as a social norm. This norm holds that any social institution, including the smallest family unit and the largest corporation, is responsible for the behaviour of its members and may be held accountable for their misdeeds. This implies that an employer's responsibility goes far beyond the internal maintenance of its human resources and it has an almost equal responsibility towards its employees outside the work environment; however, not all economists and practitioners are in agreement with the philosophy of social responsibility.

2.3.6.2 Argument against social responsibility

Although social responsibility has been a topic for discussion among entrepreneurs, there are those that believe it is not part of their classical function that is, making a profit. The chief advocate of this line of argument is Wilson (2000:133) who says, there is one, and only one, social responsibility of business – "to use its resources and engage in activities designed to increase its profits so long as it stays within the rules of the game, which is to

say engages in open and free competition, without deception or fraud". Few trends can so thoroughly undermine the very foundation of our new society as the acceptance by corporate officials of social responsibility other than to make as much money for their shareholders as possible. This is a fundamentally-subversive doctrine. According to Wilson the function of a business is solely economic and it does not have to take responsibility for solving all society's problems. Managers must act on behalf of shareholders and take decisions that will increase profits, while business serves the interests of society by concentrating on its basic function. If a business gets socially involved then the shareholders bear the cost in the form of lower returns on their investments (Wilson, 2000). There are, however, other entrepreneurs who are in agreement with the philosophy of social responsibility.

2.3.6.3 Argument for assumption of social responsibility

There are managers who do not only talk about social responsibility but are taking action (Sparrow and Cooper, 2007). There is a new thinking among business: to take notice of the expectations of society and provide assistance in dealing with social problems.

The quality of life can be improved if management assumes responsibility by providing more and better jobs for disadvantaged people, raising the quality of life in underdeveloped areas and improving race relations (Wilson, 2001). In some instances, management is not motivated by immediate self-interest, but rather may be energised by the realisation that the future welfare of their companies may be jeopardised by further deterioration of such conditions (Price, 1997). This could have a reciprocal effect on both the organisation and society at large.

There is an expressed or intuitive understanding that business must assume social responsibility to survive. It is accepted that if organisations do not help to solve society's major problems then the government will be requested to react (Hope, 2003). It is fortunate that the young professionals who are entering the higher echelon are in favour of social responsibility.

Professional managerial groups who think in terms of the long-range growth and welfare of their companies are emerging. This fosters policies and actions to discharge social responsibilities. Younger men with different views on issues related to social responsibility and who have the means to exercise corporate power are now entering the ranks of top management. They accept a greater assumption of social responsibilities than would their counterparts of a few years ago (Sparrow and Cooper, 2007). It is important that organisations carefully consider the pros and cons of social responsibility before arriving at the final decision.

In assessing the argument for or against social responsibility it has been found that business decisions made today are a mixture of altruism, self-interest and good citizenship (Vilakazi, 2010). Managers do take actions which are in the social interest even though there is a cost involved and the connection with long range profits is quite remote. In this respect businesses in South Africa have accepted their social responsibility, even though they are aware of the drop in profits.

2.3.6.4 Social responsibility of business in South Africa

The importance and urgency of implementation of social responsibility in South Africa is acknowledged by the heads of major companies. This is reflected in the following statement: “profits are very, very important. But a businessman must realise his role is a much broader one, and I want to show you that the fabric of social responsibility is woven completely through a businessman’s whole existence” (Ackerman, 2003:45).

Mncube (2009), Managing Director of Sappi Southern Africa pleaded for a value system “Other than mere bottom-line profit maximisation. It will have to adapt to inevitable new realities – social and political awareness, holism, and ecological awareness, and empathy, co-operation to leaven the excessive competition, justice and fair shares for the poor.... Social responsibility is a way of travelling. It is an integral part of our lives and the way we conduct our businesses. We are as much the object as the subject”.

De Bruyn (2010) Managing Director of Buckman Laboratories South Africa, believes that social responsibility is as important to business as the achieving of bottom line profits. Apart from satisfying a social conscience, the acceptance of such responsibility is in itself sound business.”

Buckman Laboratories South Africa believe that, “our commitments to society are essentially to contribute to economic and social development, to respect the social and cultural traditions and so identify ourselves with those aspirations common to the whole community. For this purpose we subscribe beyond its basic economic role. It must, however, be borne in mind that the first, overriding task is to ensure the viability of our business. This in itself, constitutes social responsibility” (Buckman Laboratories News, 2010:89).

It is obvious from the statements made by Ackerman, Mncube, De Bruyn and Buckman Laboratories, that they all concur with the principle of social responsibility. They are, nevertheless, still conscious of the profit motive of the company.

It would be naïve to expect the government to solve the prevailing social problems and therefore it becomes the duty of individual companies to get involved in social responsibility programmes. The attitudes of organisations towards social responsibility are therefore encouraging and augur well for the future. Although the type of social responsibility programmes and the amount spent varies between companies, acceptance of the philosophy is more important.

For the mutual benefit of both the individual and society it is important that organisations, besides supporting social responsibility programmes, also provide jobs that are intrinsically motivating; it is hypothesised in this study that intrinsically-motivating jobs increase organisational commitment.

2.4. MOTIVATING FACTORS

Managers still consider pay to be the most important incentive and they ignore the significance of the job as a factor in motivation. In the past managers

concerned themselves mainly with the organisational goals of efficiency and less with the psychological needs of their workers, however, today job design has become part of a larger effort to improve the quality of the work environment. Jobs are redesigned to increase diversity and autonomy and to give workers more opportunities to grow and be innovative. This is done by reducing supervision and increasing self-management. Herzberg (2006) is given the credit for developing the conceptual and theoretical base for job enrichment.

Herzberg (2006) believes that it is only through wise job design that managers and organisations can tap an employee's inner motivation. Employees can be motivated either intrinsically or extrinsically. Extrinsic motivation (wages) refers to factors outside the job that push the employee to perform at a certain level (Mullins, 2008). In contrast, intrinsic motivators are aspects of the job that make it motivating (Arnold, 2005). Individuals are motivated intrinsically when they derive satisfaction from the work itself. These rewards (intrinsic motivation) satisfy higher order needs such as self-esteem and self-actualisation. They involve such outcomes as feelings of accomplishment, feelings of achievement and feelings of using and developing one's skills and abilities (De Cieri, Donoghue and Pettit, 2004). These outcomes could be easily achieved through a well-thought-out job content.

Job content is an important determinant of what employees believe that good performance on the job leads to feelings of accomplishment, growth and self-esteem, that is, whether individuals will find jobs to be intrinsically motivating (Boswell and Boudreau, 2002). Job function where higher-order needs are concerned, and because it influences what rewards are seen to stem from good performance (Peng, 2006).

There are three characteristics which jobs must possess if they are to arouse higher order needs and create conditions such that people who perform them will come to expect that good performance will lead to intrinsic rewards.

Firstly, individuals must receive meaningful feedback about their performance. Individuals may have to evaluate their own performance and define the kind of feedback that they are to receive. It may also mean that the person may have to work on a whole product or a meaningful part of it (Boswell and Boudreau, 2002).

Secondly, individuals must perceive the job as requiring them to use abilities that they value in order for them to perform the job effectively. Only if individuals feel that their important abilities are being used on the job can feelings of accomplishment and growth be expected to result from good performance (Torr, 2008).

Finally, individuals must feel that they have a high degree of self-control over setting their own goals and over defining the parts of these goals (Boswell and Boudreau, 2002).

It seems that Torr (2008), Boswell and Boudreau (2002) concur on the importance of intrinsic motivation to satisfy higher order needs.

An important method that is used to encourage intrinsic motivation is job enrichment whereby the job itself is used to enrich the quality of working life (Thomas, 2002). The job characteristics model which encompasses job enrichment consists of four classes of variables, namely, core job dimension, critical psychological states, work outcomes and growth need strength. Each of these variables has an influence on the quality of work life.

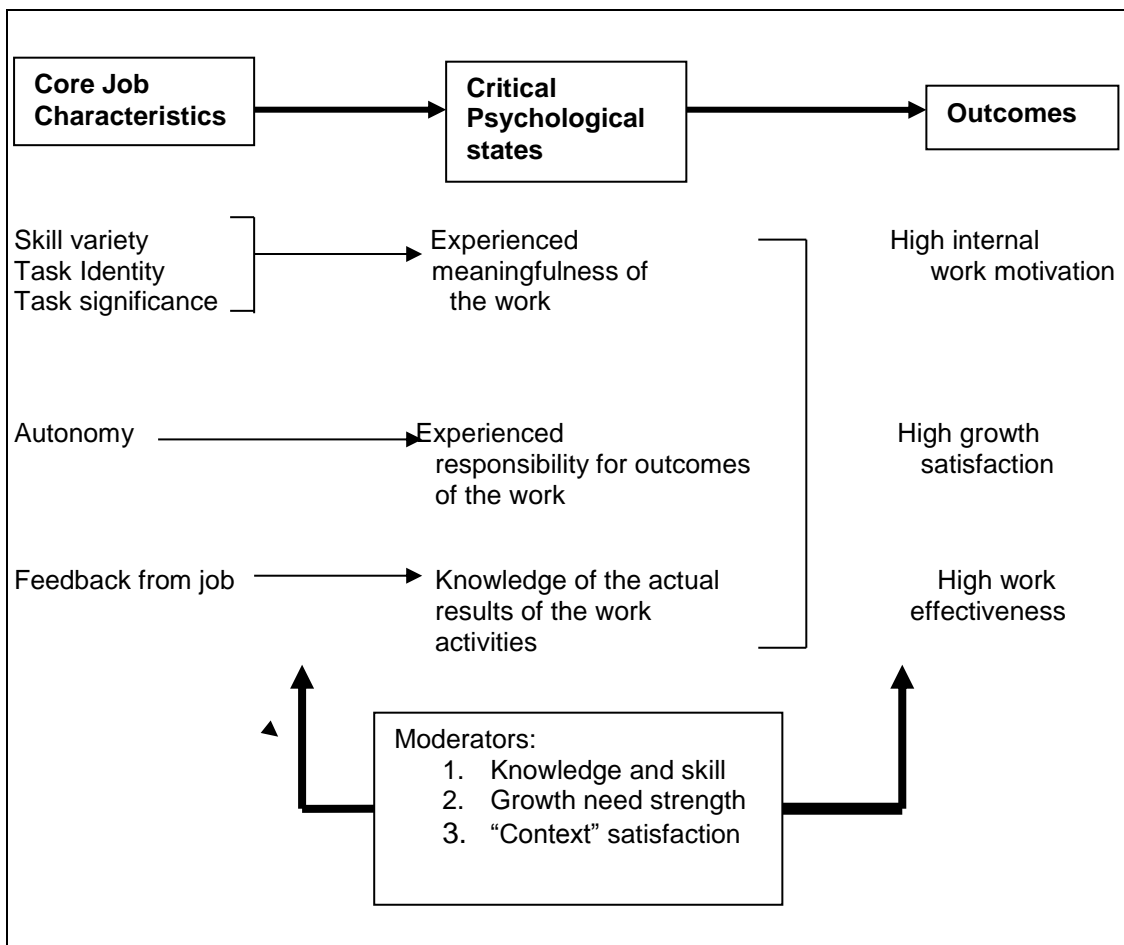
2.4.1 Job Characteristics model

The main architects of this model were Armstrong and Stephens (2005), who believe that if specific job characteristics are present, employees will experience a positive, self-generated response when they perform well and that this internal 'kick' will provide an incentive for continued efforts towards good performance. Furthermore, Hooff *et al.*, (2006:110) believe that "a person who had stronger needs for growth and advancement would be more responsive when his or her work had variety, autonomy, task identity,

feedback and friendship opportunities”. This is well illustrated in the Job Characteristics Model which includes four general classes of variable, namely

- Critical psychological states
- Core job dimension
- Work outcomes
- Growth need strength

Figure 2.4 Job Characteristic model



Source: Hooff, A.E.J., Flier, H. and Minne, R.M. 2006:67-81.

2.4.1.1 Critical psychological states

The work outcomes are affected by three critical psychological states that exist when a person is performing well in a job. This gives the individual an internal incentive to perform the job (Hooff *et al.*, 2006). The critical states are:

a) Experienced meaningfulness of the work

This occurs when individuals perceive their work as worthwhile or important by some system of values they accept. If employees do not consider their efforts to make much difference to anybody, themselves included, it is unlikely that they will feel especially good if they work effectively. It is difficult to indicate for people in general what kinds of job characteristics will be likely to provide outcomes seen as meaningful and worthwhile (Torr, 2008). If the job being done is seen as trivial, then internal work motivation is unlikely to develop, even though the person may have sole responsibility for the work and receives adequate information about how well he or she is performing (Morne and London, 2004).

b) Experienced responsibility

Experienced responsibility for outcomes of work refers to a situation when people believe that they are personally accountable for the results of work, both the successes and failures (Tayyeb and Riaz, 2004). This does not mean that feelings of personal responsibility for the work outcomes cannot occur in team projects - all that is required is for the team members to feel that their own efforts are important in accomplishing the task at hand (Krishnan and Singh, 2009).

c) Knowledge of results

Knowledge of results is when an individual is in a position to make an assessment about the adequacy or inadequacy of work performance. Obtaining knowledge of results acts as a motivator (Hansen and Mowen, 2005). Obtaining adequate knowledge of results is not always possible in the immediate or short term. Any feedback can come from either the job itself or from some other person such as an esteemed co-worker, or a supervisor. The important thing is that it be present in a form that is believable to the worker

(Morne and London, 2004). Hansen and Mowen (2005) concur with Morne and London (2004) on the importance of obtaining knowledge of results. It is necessary for all these three factors to be present for strong internal work motivation to develop and persist. Besides the three factors it is also important that a job possesses five core job dimensions which are considered important for intrinsic motivation.

2.4.1.2 Core job dimensions

The key to the Hansen and Mowen (2005) model is a set of five core job dimensions that are used to describe jobs in terms of design characteristics that have implications for workers' behaviour (Torr, 2008).

Three of these job characteristics (skill variety, task identity and task significance) are important contributory factors to the "experienced meaningfulness of the work"; one of them (autonomy), and the other (job feedback), contributes to knowledge of results (Hansen and Mowen, 2005).

a) Toward experienced meaningfulness of the work

There are a number of different ways that work can take on a personal meaning for the person who performs it. Three characteristics of jobs that are powerful in influencing the experienced meaningfulness are:

1) skill variety

Skill variety refers to the number of different abilities and capacities that workers are required to perform (Cheese, Thomas and Craig, 2005). These different abilities and capacities challenge the worker's skills and make the job more meaningful.

When a task requires workers to engage in activities that challenge or stretch their skills, they experience that task as meaningful and the more skills that are involved; the more meaningful the work is for an individual if that activity taps and stretches the person's skills and talents (Campbell, 2009). Besides having variety in a job it is also important for employees to complete a task from beginning to end.

2) Task identity

Task identity refers to the degree to which a job requires completion of a whole and identifiable piece of work that is, doing a job from beginning to end with a visible outcome (Hansen and Mowen, 2005). This is important because it is common for people to care about their work more when they are doing a whole job. When individuals have an intact task, such as providing a complete unit of service, they tend to see that task as more meaningful than is the case when they are responsible for only a small part of the job (Hunter, 2010).

Jobs high on task identity are characterised by:

- a) A very clear cycle of perceived closure – the job provides a distinct sense of beginning and ending of a transformation (doing something) process.
- b) High visibility of the transformation to the worker
- c) High visibility of the transformation in the finished product; and
- d) A transformation of considerable magnitude (Lew and Williams, 2004).

Workers who have a string of needs for developing and using their competence in a job with such characteristics generally would be expected to experience it as highly meaningful and significant.

3) Task significance

“Task significance refers to the degree to which the job has a substantial impact on the lives of other people, whether those people are in the immediate organisation or in the world at large” (Hansen and Mowen, 2005:79). Experienced meaningfulness of the work is enhanced when workers understand that the work being done will have a great impact on the physical or psychological well-being of other people. When workers know that their contribution will affect someone else’s happiness, health or safety, they care about that work more than if the work is largely irrelevant to the lives and well-being of other people (Clark, 2005). This increases the meaningfulness of the work.

All three of the above job characteristics contribute to the overall experienced meaningfulness of the work. If a job is high on all three of the characteristics, an employee is likely to experience the work as meaningful. Since three different task characteristics contribute to experienced meaningfulness, a person can experience the work as meaningful even if one or two of these characteristics are low (Seijts, 2006). This situation could arise when the employee has increased responsibility for the work.

b) Toward increased responsibility for outcomes of the work

“The characteristics of a job that increase feelings of personal responsibility for the work outcomes is autonomy. Autonomy refers to the degree to which the job allows the individual substantial freedom, independence, discretion to schedule the work, and to determine the procedures for carrying it out” (Smither and London, 2009:257).

When the job provides substantial autonomy to the persons performing it, work outcomes will be seen by employees as depending substantially on their own efforts, initiative and decisions, rather than the adequacy of instructions from superiors or on a manual of job procedures. As the autonomy of a job increases, there is a tendency to accept more personal responsibility for successes and failures that occur on the job, and employees are more willing to accept personal accountability for the outcomes of their work (Hansen and Mowen, 2005). Workers can only accept responsibility for their successes and failures if they are given feedback on the work that is performed.

c) Toward knowledge of results

Knowledge of the results of one’s work is affected directly by the amount of feedback one receives from doing the first job (Peng, 2006). Hansen and Mowen (2005) refer to job feedback as the degree to which carrying out the work activities required by the job provides the individual with direct and clear information about the effectiveness of his/her or their performance. The focus here is on obtaining feedback directly from the job.

Feedback serves two functions for those who receive it, one is instructional and the other motivational. It is instructional when it clarifies roles or teaches new behaviours. Feedback motivates when it serves as a reward or promises a reward.

The question that arises is: what can be done to improve the core job dimensions in order to increase the motivation of an individual? Hansen and Mowen (2005), Monks and Minow (2009) have suggested five implementation concepts as possible means to achieve this:-

1) Combining tasks

Combining tasks involves reversing the process of specialisation and division of labour by bringing together a number of specific tasks into more complex, multidimensional jobs, similar to job enlargement. According to Hansen and Mowen (2005) combining tasks will increase both task variety and task identity. By combining tasks, organisations form natural work units which can help to motivate individuals.

2) Forming natural work units

It is possible that workers will not be able to see how their work 'fits in' with the job of others, or with the overall company goals and plans. By giving workers responsibility for complete, identifiable units of work, this strategy attempts to increase both task identity and task significance.

3) Establishing client relationship

Each employee has a number of clients both within and outside of the organisation. By having employees develop personal relationships with each of their clients, the model predicts that variety, autonomy and feedback will be increased (Whalen, 2007).

4) Vertical loading

A vertically-loaded job provides workers with more freedom and independence in making decisions about how and when their work will be

done. This is expected to have a positive effect on task variety, task identity, task significance and autonomy.

5) Opening feedback channels

This concept is intended to have a direct effect on the core job dimension of feedback. The channels of feedback include the job itself, as well as information provided by supervisors and co-workers. In the core job dimension the company is responsible for motivating the individual, however, there are instances when the outcome of a job is equally motivating.

2.4.1.3 Work outcome

There are four outcomes in the job characteristics model, namely:

1) Internal work motivation

This is the extent to which the person doing a job is motivated by the work itself – how the job rather than external factors such as pay and supervision affect the person's willingness to put forth more work effort.

2) Quality of work performance

Quality of work performance refers to both the quality and the quantity of the goods and services produced. These two components of overall effectiveness relate to the motivational structure of jobs somewhat differently.

Hansen and Mowen (2005) find the reasoning regarding work quality as straight forward. They feel that when a job is highly motivating, people who work on that job tend to experience a positive effect when they perform well. Performing well means producing high-quality work of which one can be proud. Thus on jobs that are meaningful, workers produce fewer errors, there are a lower number of rejected parts and lower scrap rates. Producing good quality work also increases an employee's job satisfaction.

3) Job satisfaction

Job satisfaction is the third of the outcomes that are affected by the characteristic of work. According to Smither and London (2009), the causes of job satisfaction can be grouped into three categories: organisational factors, group factors and personal factors.

- **Organisational factors**

Attitudes of the employees are influenced by five major organisation factors, namely, pay, opportunities for promotion, the nature of the work itself, policies and procedures of the organisation and working conditions (Smither and London, 2009). It is hypothesised that the organisational factors which also form aspects of the equality of work life will enhance organisational commitment.

- **Group factors**

The job satisfaction of an employee within a work group may be influenced by their co-workers and their superiors. It is often the characteristic of a supervisor that determines an employee's attitude.

- **Personal factors**

An individual's needs and aspirations also have an effect on the level of satisfaction. If people want to be in high-status positions such positions will probably enhance their level of satisfaction. The same individual will be less satisfied with jobs of lesser status (Smither and London, 2009).

The general level of satisfaction of an employee has an effect not only on the level of production but also on labour turnover and absenteeism.

4) Absenteeism and Turnover

Both absenteeism and turnover could be the result of poor working conditions. Once they reach a high level, employees can be very costly to the company, however, one would expect that when jobs are motivationally improved, employees would find the workplace more attractive and would want to come

to work regularly (Carpenter *et al.*, 2009). The fact that satisfaction (the lack of which is normally associated with absenteeism) usually improves when jobs are enriched further strengthens the expectation that attendance should improve when the design of work is improved. Researcher results on the question are, however, inconclusive (Hansen and Mowen, 2005).

The view of Hansen and Mowen (2005) is that whether attendance improves or deteriorates as a consequence of work redesign depends heavily on the competence of the employees whose jobs have been changed. Jobs that are highly motivating lead to increased occasions for self-reinforcement among people who are competent in the work; they also provide more frequent occasions for a self-generated negative affect for those who are not. This could mean also that changes in jobs that increase internal motivation might simultaneously prompt decreased absenteeism for more competent employees and increased absenteeism for their less-competent co-worker.

The extent to which employees are able to obtain satisfaction from their work will influence the degree to which they develop growth needs and desires to advance.

2.4.1.4 Growth needs strength

The job characteristic model stresses the importance of individual differences as moderators of the effects of task characteristics on workers. In this case the growth need strength is the extent to which a person desires to advance (Torr, 2008).

Some people have strong needs for personal accomplishment, for learning and for developing themselves beyond where they are at present. These workers are said to have strong “growth needs” and are employed on a complex, challenging job, whereas other individuals have less-strong needs for growth and will be less eager to exploit the opportunities for personal accomplishment provided by a job high in motivating potential (Hansen and Mowen, 2005). According to Clegg (2008), people with high growth needs are more likely to experience high internal motivation; there is lower turnover and

absenteeism. Only for high-growth-need-strength workers will the core job dimensions affect the critical psychological states, and only for the same workers will those critical states result in favourable personal and work outcomes. For workers who are low in growth need strength, the effects of changing jobs according to this model can be expected to be negative, because the emphasis will be placed on needs that are, for them, irrelevant (Torr, 2008).

It is apparent that Hansen and Mowen (2005), Clegg (2008) and Torr (2008) all agree that a person's desire to grow is a strong motivating factor.

Although the job characteristic model is widely used, Cascio (2003) maintains that research support for the job characteristics model is mixed, with some studies supportive and others not. It does seem to be useful as a means of investigating the nature and structure of jobs, and reports indicate that such attempts have been successful. Despite mixed support, however, the job characteristics model is still extensively used as a motivational tool. In order to assess the effects of the hygiene and motivational factors on the quality of work life, the Job Description Index and the Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire are generally used.

2.5 Measurement of quality of work life

One of the main reasons organisations undertake quality of work life assessment is to diagnose existing and potential problems in the organisation. A predicament that the company is faced with is that sometimes isolated problems can be exaggerated. Winter, Taylor and Sarros (2000:94) cite the following examples: "the comments of a couple of people can suggest that the issue over which they have praises or complaints is representative of a wider range of employees when concern about the issue is, in fact, much more contained". Therefore, in order to control this predicament, it is important to ensure that information is obtained from as large a sample as possible. Traditionally, psychologists used a job satisfaction pencil and paper questionnaire to measure quality of work life.

The pencil and paper questionnaire produces a score based on the individual's responses to a series of questions dealing with different facets of a job. In these tests individuals are asked to indicate whether they are satisfied or dissatisfied with the various aspects of the job description in the specific job described in the questionnaire. The questionnaires most commonly used to measure job satisfaction are the Job Description Index (JDI) and the Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire (Orpen, 1995).

In the Job Description Index developed by Smith, Kendall and Hulin (1969) respondents indicate their satisfaction with each item by simply responding 'Yes' 'No' or '?' (Uncertain). The more 'Yes' responses to positive items such as 'good chances for promotion' and 'adequate pay' and the more 'No' responses to negative items such as 'dead-end jobs' and 'poor pay', the greater the satisfaction. In order to obtain an overall measure of how satisfied an employee is with the job, responses to various questions are summed in order to produce a total score (Orpen, 1995).

The second commonly-used questionnaire is the Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire (MSQ). This was developed by Weiss, Dawis, England and Lofquist (1967). Employees indicate their feelings toward a series of items on five point scales, ranging from 'very dissatisfied' (1) to 'very satisfied' (5). Each item describes an aspect of the individual's job such as 'being able to keep busy all the time', the chance to do different things from time to time and the way company policies are put into practice. As in the case of the JDI, to obtain the individual's score, the responses to all items are summed (Orpen, 1995).

Although both the questionnaires effectively measure job satisfaction, per se, their ability to measure quality of work life is limited; as Orpen (1995:42) points out "quality of work life stands for more than just job satisfaction, at least in three important ways".

First, the notion of job satisfaction makes specific reference to performance. Although there is no agreement over details, job satisfaction is normally

defined as the difference between what individuals feel they should receive from the work situation and what they actually receive.

Secondly, the notion of job satisfaction is found to be restrictive in that its emphasis is largely a negative one. Studies of job satisfaction have generally been concerned with the removal of unpleasant features of the environment. According to Sekaran (2000:117) "job satisfaction studies have indicated what should be done to get rid of those features of the work situation that have been shown to be responsible for negative feelings about one's job, with the desirable state being seen as a reduction of dissatisfaction".

Thirdly, the notion of job satisfaction that exists among industrial psychologists does not capture the element of positive mental health. This is a central aspect of any conception of quality of work life. Furthermore, quality of work life or psychological well-being at work, in its widest sense, is concerned with job satisfaction plus something else - the nature of which can be made clear by considering what is involved in being healthy.

In order to overcome the limitations of the Job Description Index and the Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire, the present study uses a questionnaire that was developed specifically to measure quality of work life and not job satisfaction in its restrictive sense.

Quality of work life: employee health and well-being

The apparent trend involving increasing levels of stress, ill health, and absenteeism that is prevalent in today's workplace may seem discouraging. However, evidence suggests the workplace is well positioned to create an environment that can support employees in ways that promote, rather than compromise, their health and wellbeing. Shain and Suurvali (2001), for example, have acknowledged that the workplace is a major determinant of health. They have identified four elements of the workplace that can influence the health of employees. The first element, the physical environment, refers to

a well-designed workplace that promotes employee safety. The second element, the psychological environment, describes a workplace culture that is supportive and flexible. The third element is personal resources, referring to employees who have control over their work and the resources to do their job. The final element influencing employee health is identified as personal health practices. This element is described as the opportunities to make healthy lifestyle choices that contribute to overall health and well-being. For workplace health promotion to be effective, Shain and Suurvali (2001) argue that it should be comprehensive and aim at improving each of these elements in ways that maximize employee wellness.

In recent years the most common approach for promoting workplace health has been the promotion of individual employee wellness through the establishment of health and fitness programs (McGillivray, 2005). Wellness programs have been a popular health promotion strategy because research has found they can result in an increase in productivity and a decrease in time loss due to illness (Ellis & Richardson, 1991; Smith, Everly, & Haight, 1990). In their review of the literature on organizational wellness, Ellis and Richardson (1991) describe studies that highlight the benefits of organizational wellness programs for both employers and employees. For example, the benefits for employers include decreased health care costs and absenteeism, higher employee morale, and an increased ability to retain talented employees. The benefits for employees include improved health and quality of life and reduced stress related indicators. They are quick to point out that wellness programs primarily consist of fitness and exercise programs and usually have no other element of recreation and leisure. Since participating in an activity for enjoyment has not been shown to provide companies with similar benefits to those mentioned above, the emphasis of employee wellness programs continues to be on physical exercise and behaviour modification.

Watson and Gauthier (2003) demonstrate that successful wellness programs, measured in program attendance, can not only improve employee health, but can also have a positive impact on work attendance and the overall mood

state of employees. They also demonstrate that programs that have low levels of support from top management will have low employee participation rates and will have a limited impact on the health of employees. A key finding of their study is that for wellness programs to be successful and have an impact on employee health they require support from the organization's leadership. Another finding of their research is that the majority of participants in the programs they studied were comprised of the employees who were most fit. This finding is supported by Fielding (1990) who cautions organizations investing in workplace health and fitness initiatives about the real possibility of resistance from the non-health oriented portion of the workforce. In fact, he produces evidence indicating that only a minority of the employee population will be willing to participate in such programs and these are the employees who already invest time and effort in body maintenance.

McGillivray's research (2005) shows that employees will often challenge and even reject the role their employer plays as a guardian for their wellness. Using information gathered from three case study organizations, McGillivray's data reveal that organizations will often discount more passive and collective leisure forms in favor of active leisure, especially in the form of health and fitness. His research also indicates that those employees most at risk for major health problems will often resist participation in health and fitness programs. These results put into question the effectiveness of workplace leisure initiatives in affecting both employee health and the organization's bottom line.

There is clear support in the literature for the argument that individual wellness initiatives are only part of a health promotion strategy. Lowe (2004), for example, argues that this strategy alone overlooks the job characteristics and work environment as determinants of employee health and wellness. In other words, an individual wellness promotion strategy fails to incorporate the necessary components of organizational wellness. Mitchell (1998) supports this view by asserting that workplace wellness involves much more than providing a wellness program. He argues such programs treat only the

symptoms of unhealthy employees and fail to examine the underlying causes of an unhealthy workplace.

Quality of work life: organizational health

Research conducted by the Canadian Council on Integrated Healthcare (2002) suggests that in order to fully invest in the health of employees, organizations must have supportive policies and an enabling culture. Also suggested is that employee health initiatives should be nurtured by organizational leaders as part of their strategic plan.

Based on this research, several characteristics were developed that serve as a guide for organizational wellness. One characteristic is the presence of a supportive environment or culture, referring to safe work practices, a culture that encourages social cohesion and the balance of work and personal time, and supportive management policies, programs, and practices. Another characteristic, program planning and evaluation, includes the capacity to recognize the needs and priorities of a dysfunctional environment and having plans or policies in place to avoid or respond to problems and their root causes. A reward system that ensures employees are recognized for the good work that they do is another important characteristic of workplace health. Finally, the leadership within the organization must make organizational wellness a priority because without demonstrated leadership and commitment, it is argued that workplace health initiatives simply will not move forward.

A study by Lowe, Schellenburg, and Shannon (2003) determined that workers are more likely to perceive their workplace as healthy if certain working conditions exist. The conditions identified in their study include having reasonable demands, high intrinsic and extrinsic rewards, good social supports, influence over workplace decisions, and available resources to do the job. Based on their research, Lowe et al. argue that organizations should not only pay attention to individual health initiatives, they should also focus on employment conditions and the way in which work is organized. Both sets of

factors are believed to be key correlates of the extent to which workers perceive their work environment to be healthy.

Kane (2003) advocates for changing the way work is organized within health care settings. She suggests that a transformation in the relationships and structure that has prevailed in nursing homes will positively affect both residents and staff. Specifically, Kane supports a culture change that will empower front line workers and break down the hierarchical management. Such a change may alleviate the imbalance between high job demand and low job control described by Shain (2000), thereby potentially reducing some of the stress that is impacting many healthcare workers.

2.6 SUMMARY

In this chapter Herzberg's hygiene and motivational factors were discussed in detail. These factors form the basis of quality of work life and it is hypothesised that they influence organisational commitment.

The first hygiene factor discussed was health and safety. Health and safety are generally the concern of the organisation, trade union and society. The effect of health and safety on organisational commitment was examined. Another important hygiene factor that was discussed was remuneration. Pay has always been controversial and a source of much conflict. It is now becoming increasingly important for organisations to provide fringe benefits. Fringe benefits are considered an essential element for need fulfilment. Furthermore, providing fringe benefits enhances an employee's feeling toward the company.

In any society, a company has a responsibility towards its shareholders and to the community in which it operates. Practising social responsibility is a visible sign of an organisation's interest in the lives of its people. This will invariably have an effect on the employee's attitude (commitment) towards the organisation.

The Job Characteristic Model of Hackman and Oldham (2003) was discussed. This model emphasises intrinsic motivation. Therefore, it is important for employers to create conditions that enhance intrinsic motivation.

The Job Description Index and the Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire, which are used in the measurement of quality of work life, were discussed.

Motivating workers is, however, the joint responsibility of both the company and the individual managers. At the lower level, the supervisor has an extremely important role to play and this becomes even more pertinent in the sensitive South African situation.

CHAPTER 3

ORGANISATIONAL COMMITMENT

3.1 Introduction

The study of organisational commitment is now both prolific and popular judging by the literature of industrial/organisational psychology and organisational behaviour. For over a decade now organisational researchers have been studying organisational commitment and its relationship to situational characteristics, attitudes and behaviour of employees. The reason for this growing interest is due to the positive organisational outcomes which research has shown is linked to organisational commitment.

Research has also linked organisational commitment to important organisational outcomes such as turnover, job performance, absenteeism, job satisfaction, organisational effectiveness and tardiness (Hope, 2003). According to research, interest in studying organisational commitment has continued for a number of reasons. It has consistently been shown to be related to the following:

- Employee behaviours such as job search activities, turnover, absenteeism, and, to a lesser extent, performance effectiveness
- Attitudinal, effective and cognitive constructs such as job satisfaction, job involvement and job tension
- Characteristics of an employees' job and role, including autonomy and responsibility, job variety, task identity, role conflict and ambiguity, and
- Personal characteristics of the employee, such as age, gender, need for achievement and job tenure. This range of relationships, coupled with the belief that organisational commitment is a relatively stable attitude over time when relating to job satisfaction (Morne and London, 2004).

The desirable consequences of organisational commitment have encouraged organisations to actively seek out ways to enhance commitment among their employees (Meyer *et al.*, 2002).

According to Hackett, Bycio and Hausdorf (2004), organisational commitment is a rather broad concept that refers to the employees' long-term involvement with, and the influence in, an organisation. Employees who are committed to their organisation are happy to be members of it, believe in and feel good about, the organisation and what it stands for, and moreover they intend to do what is good for the organisation (Maume, 2006).

Saunders, Lewis and Thornhill (2003) maintain that organisations will always value commitment amongst their employees because it tends to reduce withdrawal behaviours such as lateness and turnover. Sammons and Flynn (2008) cited in Saunders *et al.*, (2003) maintain further that committed employees are more likely to engage in extra-role behaviours such as creativeness and innovativeness, which often keeps an organisation highly competitive. From a wider perspective, society as a whole tends to benefit from employees' organisational commitment in terms of lower rates of job involvement and perhaps higher national productivity or work quality or both.

Maume (2006) has suggested that gaining a greater understanding of the process related to organisational commitment has implications for employees, organisations, and society as a whole. Employees' level of commitment to an organisation may make them more eligible to receive both extrinsic (e.g. wages and benefits) and psychological (e.g. intrinsic job satisfaction and relationships with co-workers) rewards associated with membership (Herscovitch and Meyer, 2002).

Individuals that are committed to their organisation place demands on management to be recognised in the process of career advancement in the medium and long term. In any company there are two important sets of objectives: these are personal and organisational, which the individual and the organisation attempt to satisfy. When unionism underpins these two objectives, a psychological contract results. For these objectives to be effective they have to be stipulated, clarified and communicated to each level in the organisation, however, there is no "ready-made" way of communicating objectives to the different levels. Every method will depend on, inter alia, the

needs of the individuals, biographical factors (age, education level) and the ability of the organisation to meet these needs.

Furthermore, for individuals to be committed, the company has to provide sufficient motivation in the form of a good working environment (hygiene factors), skill variety, task identity and autonomy (motivational factors). Two theories (relating to hygiene and motivation), which form the basis of this study, will be discussed in detail. Several other theories of motivation provide guidelines to management for improved productivity and commitment. As these theories are important they will be presented and discussed in detail to indicate their relationship to organisational commitment.

Besides motivation, there are other factors, namely, personal, role-related and structural characteristics, and work experiences that are important determinants of employee commitment. Each of these factors is considered important for this study and they too are discussed separately.

3.2 Employee commitment to organisational goals

Organisational commitment has become a major outcome variable of interest to both theorists and researchers in the field of micro-organisational behaviour. It is considered by management to be an important aspect of a linkage between employees and the organisation.

While organisational commitment is pertinent to the well-being of the future success of individuals in organisations, their own continued and dedicated service to the organisation contributes to completing the equation. The prosperity and future existence of the company therefore also depends on a composition of committed employees. Various definitions and topologies have been proposed to place organisational commitment in perspective. This is due mainly to the various cultures and climates present in different environments.

In view of the potential contribution of commitment to the causes of organisational behaviour, efforts have been directed toward identifying

variables that influence the level of commitment and to find ways and means of strengthening employee organisational linkage.

3.2.1 Employee-organisational linkage

The linkage between employees and the organisation is represented in the form of, inter alia, attendance or absenteeism, retention or turnover, loyalty or commitment. Although the connection between the employee and the organisation are important and has far reaching consequences for the future existence for both parties, there is, however, a reciprocal effect on the immediate society (Nasurdin and Ramayah, 2003).

3.2.1.1 Joint importance to the employee and the organisation

From the perspective of individuals joining and staying within an organisation, they are continuously provided with economic rewards and financial security in terms of retirement benefits for their future. Furthermore, being part of an organisation provides the basis for psychological rewards in factors represented by job satisfaction and the support of a congenial support group (Clegg, 2008). The more the employee invests in an organisation, the greater will be the potential meaningful rewards in both economic and psychological forms (Lehto and Sutela, 2005).

Such investments are, however, not without costs. Employees may remain with the organisation for a considerable time and exhibit loyal and committed behaviour and yet not receive appropriate rewards in return. An individual with long service may not necessarily receive many promotions and one with a high level of organisational attachment may not in turn receive sincere expressions of friendship from peer groups or supervisors (Armstrong, 2006).

The consequences of behaviour exhibited by an individual who has strong linkages with an organisation may find expression in positive, neutral or negative rewards from an organisation (Cheese *et al.*, 2008). Irrespective of the type of rewards, the main objective of the organisation is to maintain the linkage between the individual and itself.

From the organisation's point of view, building strong linkages is crucial as every institution needs to avoid excessive absenteeism and turnover. Organisations that endeavour to maintain strong membership links induce their employees to maintain members of their establishments (Monks and Minow, 2009). The advantages of having mentally-healthy employee results in lower recruitment and training expenditure.

The contrary is also true where individuals are too strongly linked to the organisation and the consequences may bring about additional costs. Marginal performers may persist by staying with the organisation and thereby reducing its effectiveness (Clark, 2005). Although membership links can be strengthened for the group, such bonds can prevent the organisation from bringing in better performers (Beatty and Schachtner, 2002). Having mediocre employees affects the long-term viability of the organisation (such as a factory shut down) which in turn affects society at large.

3.2.1.2 Importance to society

The quality of membership linkages affects not only the individual and organisation but also society at large. Society is concerned with whether its members have sufficient commitment to the institutions they serve (Seane and Sluiter, 2003). If the membership attachment is low it has a number of implications for society. An obvious one is that without some form of commitment organisations simply cannot operate. Additional problems are created when the commitment of the individual is so strong that these organisations are defended and protected when they are in fact clearly and grossly acting against the broad public interest (Seijts, 2006). Society will, consequently, encounter problems where either extreme in the quality of membership linkages are pervasive across a large number of individuals and organisational situations (Herscovitch and Meyer, 2002).

When the quality of membership is low throughout a large number of organisations, the level of productivity including quality of services can be affected. It is clear that society is best served by organisations where employee commitment is neither too strong nor too weak. It is the duty of the

organisation to provide good working conditions (quality of work life) so as to ensure an adequate level of commitment. In order to determine the adequate level, there firstly has to be agreement between researchers with regard to the nature and determinants of organisational commitment.

3.2.2 Nature of organisational commitment

Organisational commitment provides a basis for understanding the behaviour exhibited by employees towards their work (Seane and Sluiter, 2003). The theory underlying this variable suggests that employee commitment should be a good predictor of employee behaviour; for instance, in the field of staff turnover. Committed people are more likely to remain with the organisation and work toward organisational goals. Interest in increasing commitment dates back from early studies of employee loyalty in which loyalty was seen by many as desirable behaviour to be exhibited by an employee (Gerson and Gerson, 2006). According to Mowday *et al.*, (1982:19), “an increased understanding of commitment may help one comprehend the nature of more general psychological processes in which people choose to identify with objects in their environment and to make sense out of this environment”. It helps one to some degree, to explain how people find purpose in life. Due to its complex nature, an understanding of organisational commitment will demand careful analysis and interpretation. This is clear if an evaluation is made of the definitions proposed by various writers.

Empirical efforts to determine the antecedents and outcomes of organisational commitment were conducted by various researchers (Price, 1997). These studies have repeatedly shown that commitment is an important factor in understanding the work behaviour of employees.

3.2.2.1 Determinants of commitments

a) Definitions

Research related to commitment in work organisations has viewed the subjects from a number of different angles leading to a plethora of definitions of the phenomenon (Clegg, 2008). Within all these definitions there are those that explain the common aspects of organisational commitment.

Price (2002) defines organisational commitment as a state of being in which an individual becomes bound by his actions, and through these actions to beliefs that sustain the activities and his own involvement.

Organisational commitment includes the notion of membership and reflects the current position of the individual. It has a special predictive potential, providing certain aspects of performance, motivation to work, spontaneous contributions and other related outcomes and it suggests the differential relevance of motivational factors (Seijts, 2006).

Miller (2008) states that organisational commitment is a state in which an employee identifies with a particular organisation and its goal and wishes to maintain membership in the organisation.

b) Typologies of organisational commitment

The division of commitment into attitudinal and behavioural types reflects a distinct approach to the phenomenon (Nasurdin and Ramayah, 2003). Although several conceptualisations have been presented, each of them reflects three common themes:

- The most common approach indicated is where commitment is considered as an affective or emotional attachment to the organisation and where the individual identifies with it, is then involved and enjoys membership (Nasurdin and Ramayah, 2003).
- Perceived costs is an approach based on the individual's recognition of the expenses that will be incurred when the individual leaves the organisation (Rowden, 2003)
- Commitment is viewed as a belief about the responsibility of the employee to the organisation and attachment to the norms of the organisation. Control commitment exists when an individual believes that the organisation's norms and values are important guides to suitable behaviour (Beatty and Schachtner, 2002).

The attitude theorists view commitment as a black box, the content of which are determined by a range of organisational and individual factors. Factors such as personal, role-related, structural characteristics and work experiences determine the level of commitment which, in turn, affects turnover and job effort towards the organisation (Armstrong, 2006).

In contrast, the behaviour theorists are concerned with the process by which individuals develop commitment, not towards an organisation but to their own actions (Parker, McAdams and Zielinski, 2000). Individuals become locked into their behaviour because of past investments which will be lost if they leave the company. Beatty and Schachtner (2002) describe the process whereby the individual develops a sense of psychological ownership of his or her actions and hence a commitment to follow them through. Although there are various definitions, there is an inherent central theme, that is, attachment and willingness to exert effort for the company.

Originally there were two types of organisational commitments identified; however, the modern approach is to merge the two courses of action (Armstrong, 2006).

Two possible actions can be pursued to identify organisational commitment. The first action is to abandon organisational commitment as a global construct and identify a more specific set of commitment foci as suggested by Hagen and Nelson (2001). The second approach is to retain the general concept of organisational commitment elements from both approaches, namely, the attitudinal and behavioural (Armstrong, 2006). The present study follows the second approach and the antecedents of attitudinal commitment as discussed.

c) Antecedents of attitudinal commitment

The major influences on organisational commitment can be grouped into personal, role-related, structural and work experience.

The reasons for studying these factors are two-fold. Firstly, research in South Africa related to organisational commitment is practically non-existent. Secondly, although research has been carried out in other countries, their findings are not always consistent. Each of the antecedents of attitudinal commitment, namely, personal, role-related, structural and work experience factors is discussed:

- **Personal factors**

Numerous studies concentrating on biographical data of employees and various personality factors have been conducted to isolate what the influence of personal characteristics have on organisational commitment (Angle and Perry, 2001). The biographical data that are discussed include tenure, education, age and marital status.

According to Saros and Santona (2001), in line with the structural noting of commitment, tenure or seniority should be positively related to the growth of side bets in the organisation. With increasing length of service an individual accumulates organisational resources and this leads to the development of an organisational career (Herscovitch and Meyer, 2002). Similarly, it binds a person to the organisation in the form of being a member of a pension fund or non-profit-sharing plans (Sammons and Flynn, 2008). Length of service of an employee leads to a strengthening of organisational commitment (Seijts, 2006). Time invested becomes a valued resource in itself while the privileges that go with increasing length of service make it easier to derive additional organisational rewards (Lee, 1971). In a similar view, Seane *et al.*, (2003) found inter-organisational mobility decreases with seniority, thus implying the development of organisational investments.

In contrast to age and tenure, education was found to be inversely related to organisational commitment (Rowden, 2003). This inverse relationship may be due to the fact that more highly-educated individuals have higher expectations than the organisation is able to meet. Highly-educated individuals may be more committed to a profession or trade; hence, it can be very difficult for the

organisation to compete successfully for the psychological involvement of such individuals (Rowden, 2003).

Research based on variables relating to men, women and marital status found common ground in occupational commitment and career patterns (Herscovitch and Meyer, 2002). The commitment of professional employees can be affected by these two variables. In exchange terms, married or separated women indicate there is a higher cost attached to leaving an organisation than for single unattached individuals (Smith, 2001).

Various studies were conducted to find the effect of personality factors on commitment. Commitment was found to be related to achievement motivation, sense of competence and related higher-order needs (Schmidt, 2004). An exchange relationship develops between the individual and the organisation whereby commitment attitudes are exchanged for desirable outcomes for the employees. Values held by employees are determining factors in their level of commitment (Seijts, 2006). This aspect of personality has received moderate support which suggests that individuals with a strong personal work ethic tend to be highly committed (Beatty and Schachtner, 2002).

Common ground can be found with the findings of previous researchers relating to commitment; linked to the growth of side-bets is material in nature and can change if the employee receives a higher-paying job, however, the situation can change in the case of role-related correlates where aspects of jobs can provide intrinsic motivation.

- **Role-related correlates**

The main concern in role-related correlates is the extent to which variations in task requirements of jobs (job scope and conflict) influence employee commitment.

The hypothesis related to job scope is that expanded jobs enhance the challenge employees experience and this in turn increases commitment. Employees are thought to respond positively when provided with greater

challenges in their jobs where there is little or no conflict and ambiguity (Herscovitch and Meyer, 2002).

The concepts of role conflict and role ambiguity, as related to commitment, indicate that a lack of tension and ambiguity in the performance of organisational roles can be considered an organisational asset (Wilson, 2001). In contrast, the existence of role tension and uncertainty means increased attractiveness of extra-organisational alternatives and this leads to decreased commitment (Sekaran, 2000). Finally, an employee's perception of the desirability of leaving the organisation is a function of the level of satisfaction experienced with the work role (Armstrong, 2006).

The views of Sekaran (2009) and Wilson (2001) are acceptable as it seems obvious that employees seek jobs that are challenging and free from conflict and ambiguity. Jobs that are characterised by ambiguity give employees no direction and therefore cannot be expected to positively influence organisational commitment. An employee's level of commitment is affected not only by the amount of conflict and ambiguity but also by certain structural factors such as organisational size, union presence and span of control.

- **Structural correlates**

The effects of organisational size, union presence, span control and centralization of authority are not related to commitment (Martocchio, 2002). Sandberg and Targama (2007), in their study, found that formalization, functional dependence and decentralization were related to commitment. Employees experiencing greater decentralisation, dependence on the work of others and formality of written rules and procedures felt more committed to the organisation than employees experiencing these factors to a lesser extent (Lussier, 2005).

Schmidt (2004) studied the effects of worker ownership on commitment and found that when employees have a vested interest in a company they are significantly more committed than when they are not. Further, increased participation in decision making is related to commitment.

Increased worker participation in decision making has an impact on organisational effectiveness and contributes towards satisfaction, trust, and involvement (Meyer *et al.*, 2002). Increased participation was positively related to satisfaction and achievement motivation (Kessler, 2008). Companies can benefit if they view individuals as adults, desirous of autonomy and who have some degree of self-control or self-determination (Nguyen, Taylor and Bradley, 2003). He found that the participation of the task group and related structural dimensions are more important than individual, supervisory and technological characteristics in explaining job satisfaction and the level of interpersonal trust among subordinates. This desire on the part of individuals for increased participation was met with opposition. Although a participative role would benefit the individual and the company, this role is sometimes denied.

A number of factors may account for this resistance to participation in decision making (Rose, 2001). One reason is the perceived redistribution of control or influence that is believed to result from greater individual participation and involvement in decision making. This means that the person in authority sees a change of the control structure as a threat to his own. This belief is underpinned by two underlying assumptions (Testa, 2001).

- The first is the all-or-one law of power whereby the individual assumes to be either in control or is controlled.
- The second is the fixed-pie notion of power where the total amount of control present in an organisation is a constant quantity increasing the influence of some individuals through greater participation and thereby decreasing the influence of others. Supervisors feel that a larger decisional enfranchisement of subordinates will lessen their own ability to control group outcomes (Testa, 2001).

The contribution of organisational structure to the opposition of superiors to increased participation of subordinates may account for the resistance to participation in decision making (Jenks, 1999). Differences in hierarchical

position indicate varying degrees of status and formal authority. The impression that advancement up the ladder denotes career success, especially when reinforced by certain symbols which mark movement through positions of increasing influence, emphasises the importance of structure (Peng, 2006). This contributes to the tendency of higher level personnel to guard zealously the control and decision making which they have worked to attain (Luthans, 2006).

Although feelings of inadequacy are common, it is possible to eliminate this negative attitude through proper training whereby the supervisor is made to feel confident and is shown the advantages of participation.

There are also informal factors that affect participation and work-related attitudes (Thompson *et al.*, 2008). Social distinction tends to reduce mutual interaction and support for lower status individuals. Differences in informal status can influence opinions or ideas that carry the greatest weight (Luthans, 2006). In problem-solving situations, differences in prestige can have an effect on the level of participation by distorting the problem-solving process in favour of higher-status individuals (Gerber, Nel and van Dyk, 1992). This suggests that individuals with lower status find little or no support for their positions and that their inability to affect group processes could produce feelings of frustration, deprivation and dissatisfaction. These feelings can further affect the individual's work experiences such as feelings of personal importance.

- **Work experience correlate**

Antecedents of organisational commitment are those work experiences that occur during an employee's term of employment (Herscovitch and Meyer (2002). Work experience is considered a major socialising force and as such represents an influence to the extent that psychological attachments are formed with the organisation (Peng, 2006).

Several work experience variables have been found to be related to organisational commitment. Studies by Saros and Santona (2001) and Hope (2003) found that organisational dependency or the extent to which

employees felt the organisation could be counted upon to look after employee interests, was related to commitment. Moreover, feelings of personal importance to the organisation are also related to commitment. This is, when individuals feel that they are an important part of and are needed for, the organisation's mission, their commitment attitudes consequently increase (Herscovitch and Meyer, 2002). It is up to the company to develop these feelings of personal importance.

The extent to which employees sense that their co-workers maintain positive attitudes towards the company, may rub off on other employees, leading to increased commitment (Mabey, 1986). This is made possible in situations where there is close interaction between employees.

A factor facilitating commitment relates to the degree of an employee's social involvement in the organisation. According to Peng (2006) the greater the social interaction and the greater social ties the individual develops with the organisation resulting in the former becoming further linked to his or her employer.

There are various factors that have been found to be related to organisational commitment, but what is lacking is the process by which identified variables interact to influence employees' affective response to the organisation.

As various researchers have found work experience to have an influence on commitment, it is the onus of the organisation to create situations whereby adequate socialisation takes place. This may furthermore assist in developing organisational commitment.

3.2.3 Development of organisational commitment

While job satisfaction is viewed as a less stable attitude that may reflect contemporaneous job conditions, commitment is viewed as a more stable attachment to the organisation that develops slowly over time (Herscovitch and Meyer (2002). The process begins before the individual enters the

organisation and usually develops in three stages, namely, anticipation, initiation and entrenchment (Pearce and Robinson, 2009).

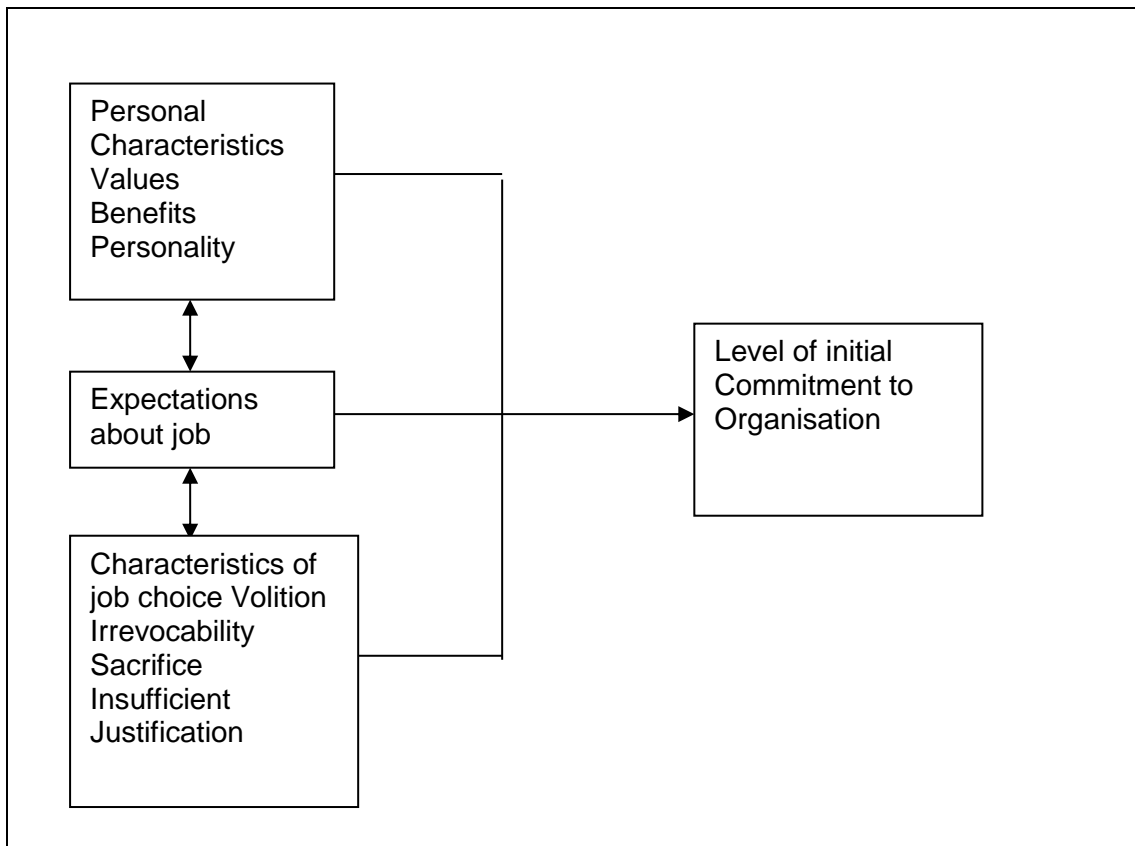
3.2.3.1 Anticipation: pre-employment and job choice influences on commitment

Although the varying goals, values and expectations that new employees bring to organisations have been extensively investigated (Price, 1987), not many of these studies have questioned whether new employees enter organisations with different propensities to become committed. Some studies have found reliable differences in the level of commitment new employees report on their first day at work (Herscovitch and Meyer, 2002). One study even found that the level of commitment expressed by employees on their first day in the company predicted turnover of up to several months on the job (Rose, 2005). This result, however, could not be replicated in another study (Testa, 2001). Although the level of commitment among new employees has been found to vary before any work in the company has commenced, it is unlikely that this early commitment reflects a stable attachment (Meyer and Allen, 1988).

Herscovitch and Meyer (2002) feel that 'differences in commitment that new employees bring to the job may reflect different propensities to become committed to the organisation. This type of propensity may provide a foundation for commitment that can be either strengthened or weakened by subsequent job experiences. Furthermore, initial levels of commitment may influence how the new employee experiences his or her job during the first few months at work. Employees who enter the organisation with high levels of commitment, for example, may be more likely, than uncommitted employees, to selectively perceive positive features of the job and the work environment'.

The strength of the initial level of commitment is determined by the impression created by the organisation at the pre-employment interviews. Furthermore, personal characteristics, employee expectations and job choice factors influence the level of commitment of new employees as they enter the organisation (Figure 3.1).

Figure 3.1 – Major determinants of the Initial Commitment to the Organisation.



Source: Herscovitch, L. and Meyer, J. P. 2002:474 - 487.

a) Personal characteristics

The development of initial commitment is influenced by a variety of personal characteristics (McKenzie and Lee, 1998). New employees enter organisations with goals and values which they hope to satisfy in the work place. Initial levels of employee commitment are related to employee perceptions of congruencies between the organisation's goals and the extent to which their personal goals will be attained. Peng (2006) found that need for achievement was related to commitment on the first day at work. New employees with a high need for achievement expressed higher initial commitment which is influenced by early job experiences.

In addition to direct influences on initial commitment, employee needs can also be viewed as interacting with early job experiences to influence commitment during the first several months at work (Meyer and Allen, 1988). The new employee's needs may interact with his or her experiences once at

work; this can influence commitment. The highest levels of commitment may be found among employees who brought a high need for achievement to the job and who subsequently perceive their work as challenging (Seane and Sluiter, 2003).

The manner, in which individuals socialise, both in the family and through their various educational experiences and the resultant values and beliefs, influences the propensity of employees to become committed to organisations (Peng, 2006). Besides personal characteristics, the information the individual received during the recruitment process, also affects commitment.

b) Employee expectations

Employees who receive more realistic expectations during recruitment are less likely to leave voluntarily than employees who were given an unrealistic picture (Hope, 2001). Limited research has been conducted to support a positive relationship between commitment and the extent to which employees, who have been on the job for a period, believed their expectations had been realised (Peng, 2006).

It is therefore important to give prospective employees realistic job previews. The employee's needs and values together with the information presented at the recruitment stage influence the employee in early commitment.

3.2.3.2 Initiation: Early employment influences on organisational commitment

The first few months of employment are thought to be particularly crucial in the development of lasting attitudes and expectations of employees (Plunkett, Attner and Allen, 2005). During this period new employees have the first direct experience with the organisation, job, supervisor and co-workers. The type of experiences provided to new employees on their first job can influence success in the organisation up to several years later (Kessler, 2008).

There is an impact on organisational commitment through factors related to personal, organisational and non-organisational influences (Seane and Sluiter, 2003).

a) Personal influences

The characteristics that individual employees bring to the organisation represent important influences on commitment (Campbell *et al.*, 2004). One characteristic is the level of commitment of new employees on their first day at work. First day commitment was interpreted as a propensity to develop a more stable attachment (Mabey, 1986). The importance of this characteristic may be understood in terms of behaviour new employees are likely to engage in. Employees who come into the company with high levels of commitment may be more likely to put forth extra effort, volunteer for tasks and take on added responsibilities. The new entrant who works beyond the normal hours, while learning the job or who completes a task ahead of schedule, may justify these committing behaviours by even more positive attitudes in the future (Seane and Sluiter, 2003). For any individual to be committed from the beginning means that realistic information must be presented at the recruitment stage, that is, the information is congruent with situations as they apply in the company. Beside the individual, the organisation also has an influence on organisational commitment.

b) Organisational influences

Clark (2005) proposes that any characteristic of a person's job situation which reduces his felt responsibility will reduce his commitment, therefore, the key determinants of commitment are found in characteristics of the job environment that increase the employee's felt responsibility. From a behavioural point of view, felt responsibility induces employees to become more behaviourally involved in the job (Seane and Sluiter, 2003). Greater behavioural involvement should lead to greater attitudinal input as these are developed in line with employees behaviour.

There are job and work environment factors that serve to increase felt responsibility. These include job characteristics, supervision, work group, remuneration and organisational characteristics.

- **Job characteristics**

Job scope is positively related to organisational commitment when variety, autonomy, challenge, significance and feedback are present (Robbins, 2003). Another task characteristic that increases commitment is task interdependence (Clark, 2005). Felt responsibility increases among employees who depend upon each other in the performance of their jobs (Rose, 2001). Interdependence creates a feeling of oneness which makes the goals more achievable.

- **Supervision**

High levels of employee commitment are found in departments where supervision is not overly tight or loose. Felt responsibility is increased when supervisors allow their employees greater discretion over how the job is performed (Armstrong, 2006), however, this appears to be in conflict with the positive relationship that has been found between leader-initiating structure and commitment (Sandberg and Targama, 2007). This conflict is very real. In the leader initiating structure the supervisor clarifies job expectations and sets clear task goals, both of which may increase the employee's felt responsibility (Peng, 2006). Felt responsibility and commitment increase when supervisors allow employees to participate actively in decision making on the job (Parker *et al.*, 2000). By allowing the subordinates to participate in decision making, the supervisor also creates a climate for group cohesiveness.

- **Work Group**

Group cohesiveness is associated with a high degree of interaction and felt responsibility. Constant interaction between members in a department leads to greater social involvement in the organisation (Rynes and Gerhart, 2000). The degree of social involvement of employees has been found to be positively related to commitment (Rose, 2001). Organisational commitment is positively related to group attitudes towards the organisation and group norms about hard work (Wilson, 2000). This relationship is stronger in cohesive groups because they are able to ensure member compliance with their beliefs and norms (Wilson, 2000).

- **Remuneration**

As pay provides an important inducement for an individual to remain in an organisation, it can be predicted that level of pay is positively related to commitment. Besides the level of pay, a more crucial determinant is the perceived equity of pay (Monks and Minow, 2009). Also, a reward system in which employees share in the success of the firm increases their felt responsibility and, thus, their commitment to the organisation (Syptak, Marsland and Ulmer, 1990).

Beside job characteristics, type of supervision, work group and perceived equity of pay, organisational characteristics such as employee ownership also influence commitment.

- **Organisational characteristics**

While Rhodes and Steers (1981) found that employee ownership was positively related to commitment it was felt that responsibility on the part of employee's leads to increased commitment (Clark, 2005). Commitment is greater in organisations that are viewed as looking after the interests of their employees (Seijts, 2006). The paternalistic management practices that are common in Japanese firms have often been cited as one of the reasons for the high levels of commitment among those employees (Wilson, 2001).

The implementation of a sound socialisation programme provides the stimulus for the creation of employee attachment to the organisation (Peng, 2006). The unquestioning acceptance by newcomers of their new role is likely if certain socialisation practices are followed (Meyer and Lynne, 2001).

According to Herscovitch and Meyer (2002), the conditions which stimulate a custodial orientation derive from processes which involve the recruit in a definite series of cumulative stages (sequential), without set timetables for matriculation from one stage to the next.

According to Seane and Sluiter (2003), “the propositions set forth by Herscovitch and Meyer (2002) suggest several interesting areas of inquiry concerning the development of commitment during the early employment period. Additional research will be required, however, before firm conclusions can be drawn about the influence of socialisation, practices on employee commitment.

It is important that the correct attitudes and habits are inculcated from the beginning (Seane and Sluiter, 2003). If organisations are unable to develop a committed employee from the beginning, then the chances of them being influenced by non-organisational factors (such as an alternate job) will be greater.

c) Non-organisational factors

Although attitudinal commitment is strongly influenced by organisational characteristics, those of other organisations also have an effect on the individual. Hagen and Nelson (2001) suggest that satisfaction with a group is dependent on the individual’s evaluation of that particular one (comparison level) and also their evaluation of alternative groups that they might join (comparison level for alternatives). The availability of attractive alternate job opportunities should result in less positive attitudes toward the job and the organisation (Cacioppe, 2000). The availability of alternative employment appears to influence the employee’s need to justify original job choice and make relevant any extrinsic rewards provided by the organisation. Where organisations operate in competitive job markets, high levels of commitment are most likely to be maintained by providing employees with high levels of extrinsic rewards (Peng, 2006).

Non-organisation factors are of little concern if the organisation can provide conditions of work that are equal to, or better than, those provided by other companies. The decision of an employee to continue working in an organisation depends on the satisfaction that is received. The level of satisfaction and commitment are dependent on, inter alia, autonomy, extrinsic rewards and a challenging job.

3.2.3.3 Entrenchment: Continuing commitment to organisation

Length of service is one of the strongest predictors of commitment and various reasons can be offered to explain why continued employment is a strong influence on the development of commitment (Seane and Sluiter, 2003).

In the first instance, the longer employees stay with the organisation the greater the likelihood that they will receive more challenging job assignments, be given greater autonomy and discretion at work, and receive higher levels of extrinsic rewards. Employees with longer length of service hold more desirable positions than lower tenure employees (Seane and Sluiter, 2003).

Furthermore, investments related to employment increase with length of service. Having increased investments in the form of time and energy makes it difficult for an employee to leave the company on a voluntary basis (Clark, 2005).

In the third case, increasing tenure brings social involvement in the organisation and community. For many people, work provides the basis upon which social relationships are formed (Mabey, 1986).

Lastly, increasing length of service serves to decrease the employee's job mobility (Clark, 2005). There may be some individuals who develop specialised roles in organisations with job skills that would be difficult to transfer (Salancik, 1977). The availability of alternate jobs may decrease with age and also has the possibility of increased commitment.

Commitment is of importance to both the organisation and the individual and its success depends on joint responsibility (Price, 1997). As the company tends to lose more due to having uncommitted employees, the onus is on the employer to provide the appropriate climate for the employee-employer linkage to take place, however, this does not mean having mediocre

employees working for a company that does not provide a conducive working climate.

Commitment is an attitude and as such develops over a longer period of time, unlike job satisfaction which can take shape in a shorter period and reflects more immediate reactions to specific tangible aspects of the work environment. It is therefore important that commitment is assessed periodically.

3.3 Organisational goals

Organisations in the market place competes with each other to survive in a hostile environment (Drury, 2005). Due to the competitive nature of organisations in a society, two schools of thought have developed to ensure survival and growth of assets. Economic theory emphasizes the maximisation of profits, while the behavioural theory advocates satisfaction of employees' needs.

3.3.1 Economic theory of the firm

The organisation resembles a living organism that has the power to adapt to a changing environment. The economists' view of the firm is primarily a theory of markets and it purports to explain, at a general level, the way resources are allocated by a price system. The firm can further be described in terms of activities that are rationally assigned and co-ordinated to make the achievement of economic objectives possible.

3.3.1.1 The theory of the firm

According to the theory of the firm, the operation takes place within a perfect competitive market where maximisation of net revenue at given prices is the main objective and the rate of production is technologically determined. Net revenue in this context is the difference between receipts and the sum of fixed and variable costs. The production function is a relation between the factors of production and their outputs determined by physical conditions within the firm. Maximisation of profit is ultimately obtained by determining the optimal mix of output products and input factors (Hilton, Maher and Selto, 2006).

The assumptions underlying the rationality in the theory of the firm can be questioned: Is profit the only objective of the firm and to what extent does it contribute towards committing to individuals?

Entrepreneurs have a range of higher-order needs they endeavour to satisfy in the work place and one of these motives that elicit attention is the outcome of efforts that have been applied to acquire and utilise profits. Profit is not necessarily always the focal point that is translated into a need to receive preferential treatment (Drury, 2005). Profit earned in an organisation is seen as a surplus of income over expenditure and since most organisations have the objective of ensuring that they enjoy long-term survival, profit making should be contemplated in the same light. When shareholders invest capital in a venture they expect a meaningful return on investment to either satisfy underlying needs or diversity or to remain and review their present situation.

A second question that can be posed is: Does maximisation describe what the business firms do with the profits?

The second concern expressed above does not render invalid the importance of profits but emphasis is placed on the process of maximisation. Thompson *et al.*, (2008) feel that entrepreneurs should place emphasis on making satisfactory profits instead of highlighting maximisation. Satisfactory means a level of aspiration that the firm uses to evaluate appropriate policies. The policies are directed at the profit objectives of the organisation.

3.3.1.2 The profit objective in business

It is a truism that the majority of organisations in a capitalistic society have an overriding objective, that is, to make a profit. This goal is often obscured by the statements that are made concerning the involvement of services provided to the public and opportunities that are available to favour employees. These objectives place the organisation in a situation where social responsibility is one of the qualifying factors for acceptance by society and which ensure economic and emotional survival.

Organisations seeking profits will justify their existence by producing useful and desirable goods and offer services to an identified market segment at competitive prices. A well-managed organisation will have the infra-structure to offer competitive wages provide adequate security and create a platform where employees can enjoy status that is compatible with their value systems. Regardless of the other important elements contained in the mission statement of an organisation, the pursuit and continual achievement of making a profit is paramount.

On occasions the motive of profit maximisation gives way to that of enterprise value maximisation, that is, organisations operate mainly to increase their value in the long run and during this period they pass profits on and pursue policies to increase their capital value. Campbell *et al.*, (2004:97) maintain that the principal reason for this kind of motivation is the tax structure, which places lesser taxes on capital gains than on profits or normal income. There are entrepreneurs that receive satisfaction from observing how their organisation in a particular market grows in magnitude; however, it is at the expense of sacrificing profits in the process.

Although an organisation may either manufacture products or provide a particular service to satisfy the needs of people, its main concern is, however, aimed at the maximisation of profits. These profits may be reduced when the organisation pursues a secondary objective directed at meeting socially-responsible needs.

When an organisation makes a profit and continues to operate effectively in an identified market, there is possible evidence that customer needs are met by costs determined at a reasonable level under competitive conditions. Furthermore, in their effort to maximise profits, organisations engage in the process of decision making where various options are considered.

In contrast to the approaches followed by the supporters of the economic theory where profit maximisation is the ultimate outcome, the behavioural theory focuses on the satisfaction of needs of all the players.

3.3.2 Behavioural theory of the firm

The behavioural theory of the firm emphasizes the process of decision making in a multi-goal organisation coalition. Decisions made in an organisation by management on prices, output and budgets are related to the outcome of problems experienced by the economic environment. It is, furthermore, the results of the way various groups and individuals interpret these problems and the attempts that are made to influence the processes of decision making.

In an organisation there are many actors playing a particular role with the aim of deriving satisfaction from related activities in which they are involved. The experience of fulfilment is translated into unique sets of needs.

An organisation that is orientated towards making a profit will ensure that workers receive competitive salaries and enjoy working conditions that are conducive to their daily mental health and in return for this effort their customers will receive value for their money. The effectiveness of the firm engaged in delivering products and providing services to its client, is finally determined by the internal harmony in the form of worker commitment.

3.3.2.1 The firm as a coalition of groups with conflicting goals

The behavioural theory of the firm, as proposed by Hilton *et al.*, (2006), focuses on the decision-making process of the “large multi-product firms under uncertainty in an imperfect market” (Feinstein and Vondrasek, 2001:77). The large corporate organisation in which ownership is divorced from its management is characteristic in the analysis of this model. The theory of Hilton *et al* is based on a sociologist’s model, where the division of labour required by technology and the scale of operations give rise to sub-units specialised by task and function, and in which the power to influence events is differentially distributed.

In the behavioural theory, the firm is not viewed as a single goal or decision unit as in the case of the traditional theory, rather the emphasis is placed upon a multi-goal and decision organisational coalition. The firm is thought of as a coalition of defiant groups representing, *inter alia*, managers,

shareholders, customers, suppliers and bankers, who are connected with its activities in numerous ways. Each group engaged in the interaction process develops and executes its own demands or sets of goals they wish to achieve. The pressure exercised on the organisation can be in the form of demands by workers for improved working conditions, rewarding fringe benefits and equitable salaries.

Managers do not only demand compensation congruent with their responsibilities but also the opportunities to create environments where they can exercise power and enjoy prestige and benefits that are tax effective. The shareholders are interested in return on investment in the form of increased profits, growth in capital and increased market share. Customers patronising a particular segment of the market direct their attention towards low prices, quality merchandise and friendly, efficient service. For the continuation of suppliers to remain in the equation, steady contracts for the delivery of materials and services are required together with prompt payment in return. Basically, the most important groups are those who are directly or indirectly connected with the firm. Workers committed to organisations have to contend with the aspiration level of their institutions. The extent to which the organisations allow participation will determine the outcome of commitment.

3.3.2.2 The process of goal formation: the concept of the aspiration level

The behavioural theory recognises the fact that there exists a basic dichotomy in the firm. On the one side the individual members of the coalition (firm), and on the other side the organisation– coalition (firm). Because of this dichotomy there is a conflict of goals emanating from individuals and those established by the organisation. The conflict that is latent in organisations will persist depending upon the operation of certain social and administrative mechanisms. Amongst these are the delegation of problem solving and any inconsistency with solutions offered by other parties that are not clearly perceived. Decentralisation of authority to make the rules governing decision taking is also conflict avoiding, provided that the rules are generally acceptable. The organisation also tends to take in sequence, and not in parallel, the consideration of goals or policies which are likely to be in conflict.

The behavioural theory is concerned with the variables involved in the decision-making process in the firm and concerns itself with the origin of the goals and the decision process that leads to their formation. Hilton *et al.*, (2006) believe that the objectives of the firm depend on the demands of the members of the group that are determined by various factors such as long-term goals, their past success rate in pursuing their demands, their expectations, the achievements of other groups in the same or other firms (social-comparison) and the information available to them (Hope, 2003).

Whenever a group of people work together in one organisation there is bound to be conflict when individuals endeavour to satisfy their needs. Individual members or groups of people within the organisation place different sets of demands on the organisation. This can result in a situation where conflict prevails between the demands of members and the overall goals of the firm. Due to the extent of the demands of each group, overall satisfaction is not always possible because the firm is restrained by the resources that are available. When conflict becomes unavoidable, and where different groups compete for the same available resources of the firm, the outcome results in continuous bargaining to meet their demands.

There is a relationship between the demands of individuals or groups and past achievement of objectives. In this instance demands are translated into aspiration levels, where they are characterised by continuous changes based on past achievement in the firm and its environment. In any one period the frequency of demands that are directed towards top management will depend on how successful the group was in negotiating previous demands, the achievement of similar demands made by groups in other firms and on the aspirations and expectations of individuals. Furthermore, the extent to which the workers' demands are met will also depend on the ability of the firm to meet its own goals.

3.3.2.3 Goals of the firm: satisfying behaviour

The main goals of an organisation which are ultimately set by top management are:

The **production goal** emanates from the production department where the smooth functioning of the process is ensured. Goal-directed planning will prevent excess capacity and laying-off of employees during periods of recession and it will not be necessary to resort to overtime and recruiting of additional workers during excessive growth stages.

The **inventory goal** originates from the inventory or from the sales or production departments where they are responsible for satisfying the needs of various departments.

The **sales goal** and possibly the share of the market goal originate from the sales department where the strategy is formulated to ultimately ensure erosion in the share of competitors.

The **profit goal** is formulated by top management with the aim of satisfying the demands of company shareholders and the expectations of bankers and other finance institutions that might be involved. A further objective is to create funds that will enable management to satisfy their own goals as well as other relevant goals of the firm (Hope, 2003).

The **primary goals** of a firm that contribute directly to the mission statement are formulated by top management in consultation with various parties that are directly involved, inter alia, workers trade unions and shareholders. Members of the coalition can accept objectives that pertain to their different sections and ensure that they maintain their rightful position in the market place. The goals set towards making a profit are basically the concern of the shareholders and top management, with the possible exception where profit-sharing is involved.

When the different goals of a company have been formulated and cascaded down to all relevant levels, management is faced with the conflict situations that have to be resolved with the aim of ensuring continuation and growth of assets and creating an environment where workers will become committed. The functional operation and success achieved by the organisation will be dependent on how well the conflicts are resolved.

3.3.2.4 Means for the resolution of the conflict

The demands of groups and the goals of the company are translated into aspiration levels where continuous adjustments take place due to past achievement, expectations and changes within the firm. Conflict develops when demands from various parties cannot be satisfied with the limited resources available to the firm. The functioning of the firm is secured by various means which top management use to resolve conflict from within. The following actions are available to assist the firm in minimising, and to a certain extent, resolving conflict:

Making money payments is one of the major and most common methods used to satisfy demands made upon the firm. In the traditional theory, conflict is managed and minimised between the owner and the firm through the use of money payments. In contrast, the behavioural theory of the firm does not accommodate labour disputes by utilising monetary compensation with the view to resolving underlying conflict situations.

Policy commitments absorb part of the resources of the firm and are, in a way, payment to labour. Hilton *et al.*, (2006:95) refer to those payments as slack where they are made “members of the coalition in excess of what is required to maintain the organisation”.

Organisational slack absorbs a substantial share of the potential variability in the firm’s environment by having both a stabilising and adaptive effect. It allows the firm to pursue its goals and ensure steady performance in a changing environment.

Management will pay attention and prioritise those demands placed on it from either inside or outside the organisation that require urgent attention.

In order to minimise conflict, the decision areas of each member or group should be well-defined and management should maintain line of command when tasks are delegated. There will, however, always be areas in the organisation where problems will arise regardless of all the precautions that have been taken to minimise conflict.

3.3.2.5 The process of decision making

The objectives of an organisation are formulated by management and in some instances approved by the board of directors. These goals are implemented by decisions which are taken at various levels of hierarchy. Hilton et al., (2006) distinguish between decisions taken by top management and those that involve lower levels of administration:

- **Decisions made by top management**

The allocation of resources to the various units in the organisation is undertaken by top management.

Management follow two criteria in evaluating the feasibility of a particular project, namely, the financial budget and potential success of a new product in a new market. In the preparation of realistic budgets management needs to assimilate complete information that will assist in evaluating the proposed actions objectively.

- **Decisions made at administrative levels**

Once the budget has been approved by top management, departmental heads will, at their discretion, allocate funds for application; however, in order to simplify work activities, policies are formulated to assist in making routine decisions (Hope, 2003). The firm is a multi-goal, multi-decision organisational unit characterised by a coalition of numerous groups and sub-groups each with their own needs and values.

In consultation with the participants in the coalition, objectives must be met so as to obtain consensus and commitment. Each unit expects to be treated in a way where preference should be given to their own goals. In order to compromise and appease the demands of the groups it is imperative that management prioritise the demands of the groups within the overall goals of the firm. To further minimise conflict within the groups, management should eliminate ambiguity by having clear-cut boundaries regarding the duties and functions of all units and players. These objectives can be determined through active negotiation by all the actors.

3.3.3 Dynamic negotiated network of objectives

Noe *et al.*, (2004) define an organisational goal as a desired state of affairs which the organisation attempts to realise, whereas a goal can be viewed as an end result which a company wants to achieve. Both definitions indicate the organisation may not reach the goals or desired state, but at least has direction and purpose through the planning function.

Managing a business effectively requires the creation of an environment where employees can blend and balance a variety of goals and different needs of the organisation. The search for the ideal objective to assist in achieving the desired end result requires essentially a search for a magic formula that will make judgement unnecessary. Erasmus and Nel (2004) support the notion that the judgement to be exercised by management cannot be replaced or eliminated by depending on a possible formula. Erasmus and Nel (2004) as cited by Campbell *et al.*, (2004:87) offer the following possible solution: “all that can be done is to make judgement possible by narrowing its range and the available alternatives giving it clear focus, a sound foundation in facts and reliable measurements of the effects and validity of actions and decisions”.

Companies distinguish themselves from each other by having different levels of objectives. Objectives are needed in every area where performance and results directly affect the decision-making process that ensures the survival and prosperity of the organisation. Seijts (2006) believes that management

should be pro-active by exerting their efforts in setting objectives together with describing the means that are needed to achieve the desired results. The objective of an organisation, no matter how well constructed, will be of little use unless it is transmitted in an unambiguous manner to all levels of management.

3.3.3.1 Clarity of formal objectives

Clarity of formal objectives means the crystallising of the company's objectives in a manner that leaves no doubt in the minds of the people who work there as to how to satisfy their needs.

In the work situation the organisation and the employees have certain goals which demand attention and ultimate satisfaction. The bases of objectives are initiated at the top of the hierarchy and transmitted down to the lower level in the organisation in a distinct manner. Any distortion of information transferred from one level to the next can result in objectives not being met (Warren and Reeve, 2005). Goals of the organisation can be communicated through a formal system developed through an approach of management by objectives (Plunkett *et al.*, 2005).

3.3.3.2 Goals for the performance of the organisation

As each organisation has a set of unique objectives to achieve, there are certain prerequisites that have to be met:

a) The clarification of organisational objectives

Without the framework for action provided by clear-cut organisational objectives, the activities of individual employees and units may lack the necessary focus and involve wasted or non-productive effort (Commerias and Fournier, 2002).

The clarification of organisational objectives involves paying attention to the formulation and dissemination of information throughout the organisation. Participation in the development of objectives by a number of constituencies of the organisation will allow for emotional ownership, commitment and effective communication.

In organisations where the communication system is not effective, feedback of these perceptions to the leaders and employees will be greatly diminished and a fair amount of self-deception will be present regarding the situation (Mullins, 2008). This will result in misinformation or no information being provided thereby reducing the commitment of individuals in achieving organisational objectives.

b) Commitment to organisational objectives

The clear specification of objectives does not only lead to high levels of organisational performance but also a degree of commitment by the members of the different teams. The objectives should be “owned by the entire work force” (Hansen and Mowen, 2005:95). A sense of emotional ownership of, and commitment to objectives can ensure that members become motivated and exercise self-direction and self-control at their work stations.

If one tends to achieve these objectives and to enlarge and enrich the jobs of employees then it requires that changes in the basic nature of work tasks and the level of participation be considered. These enlarged and enriched jobs can affect the employee’s level of commitment.

The development goal of increasing members’ commitment to organisational objectives cannot be considered in isolation; therefore, it is necessary to have a global picture so that employees do not lose sight of the main objective. This requires the creation of a problem-solving climate.

c) Creation of a problem-solving climate

The creation of a problem-solving climate within an organisation calls for the initiation of an open communication policy accompanied by a level of trust.

Openness of communication involves the provision of accurate information that will assist in creating a climate for problem solving (Porter, Steers, Mowday and Boulian, 1981). This serves as a guide for members of the workforce to participate in problem solving and thereby contribute to the overall achievement of objectives.

When the objectives of the organisation have been clarified they must be communicated to the employees in the most appropriate manner.

3.3.4 Communication of formal objectives

Through the process of communication, understanding is created among people to enable them to act effectively in the workplace. When creating understanding it is implied that the content of the information is perceived in the same way by all the members involved in the communication process. A major portion of a manager's time is spent communicating with other people (Cheese *et al.*, 2008). Effective communication is a cornerstone of managerial and organisational success as Levering, Moskowitz and Katz (2002:9) point out:

“Each communication is unique, but there were certain themes we hear over and over again, and the urge to draw a kind of composite picture of the ideal company is irresistible. Beyond good pay and strong benefits, such a company would encourage open communication, informing its people of new developments and encouraging them to offer suggestions and complaints”. When objectives are to be attained then messages should be conveyed in a clear manner.

3.3.4.1 The role of communication in organisations

Communication is the pathway to understanding the content of information conveyed between different points in the organisation. Different processes are used to ensure that the effective flow of messages and managers are invariably used as 'communication centres' to co-ordinate the activities of their employees (Mullins, 2008).

Problems relating to long-range planning, organisation development and possible crises that may break out during the course of daily activities may be resolved by the communication efforts made by relevant groups (Clegg, 2008). In situations where individuals and groups are involved in assisting to resolve emerging problems, innovative solutions are encouraged by the communication of relevant information amongst the different players. This type of communication ranges from a complex and formal system, to an

informal and interpersonal one (Bard, 2002). Employees will readily communicate relevant information only when there is openness and sincerity on the part of management; this is relevant for appraising individual performance (Clegg, 2008). The development of a formal communication system assists management and employees to clarify and confirm the content of the messages.

3.3.4.2 Development of formal communication systems

A formal communication system in an organisation may take the form of a top down (delegating, instructing), bottom up (seeking help or advise), and/or a lateral process. The communication form that an organisation employs would depend on the objectives of the message, as well as the population towards which it is directed (Bard, 2002):

Orientation programmes encourage the employee to have a positive and long-lasting relationship with the organisation (Clegg, 2008). The objectives of employee handbooks are to promote commitment between the employer and employee through information relating to the company's operations, mission statement, policies and procedures (Robbins, 2003).

Employees are kept informed through various in-house information systems, inter alia, the use of bulletins, official reports, newsletters, policies and procedure manuals, communication audits, briefing sessions, and the results of attitude surveys (Clegg, 2008).

Although there are many channels of communication available there is, however, not a "ready-made" one for individual companies. Companies have to adapt particular channels to suit their own unique needs.

3.3.4.3 Organisational communication systems

The formal communication systems of an organisation relate to the establishment of procedures, policies, information processing and scheduled reports (Whalen, 2007). The informal communication systems consist of non-

formalised, unplanned, written or interpersonal communication (Campbell, 2009). Communication patterns encompass the directions that communication takes in groups and organisations as well as the channels through which communication flows (Clompit, 2009). Information can flow upward, downward and laterally.

Downward communication is often used by group leaders and managers to assign goals, provide job instruction and performance feedback and to inform the employee about possible problems that need attention (Campbell, 2009).

Upward communication flows to a higher level in the group, usually along the chain of command, and provides feedback to higher management about activities, decisions and performance of lower level employees (Verwey, du Plooy and Cilliers, 2003).

Lateral communication takes place among members of the same work group, managers at the same level, or among any horizontally-equivalent employees to co-ordinate and solve problems (Heracleous, 2006).

Informal communication is referred to as the “grapevine” where early warning signs are issued for possible organisational changes that might take place. It is possible for the “grapevine” to be a mechanism for fostering group cohesiveness (Carroll, 2010). One of the functions of this informal system is the maintenance of social relationships in the form of personal friendships, informal groups and the distribution of personal information (Clompit, 2009).

Although the grapevine serves as a supplement to the formal communication system, there is the possibility that malicious gossip and disruptive rumours may spread (Goodall, Goodall and Schiefelbein, 2010).

3.3.4.4 Objectives of manager-subordinate communication

A manager’s role in an organisation is to create an environment where the employees can be committed to the achievement of an organisation’s objectives (Campbell, 2009).

The objectives, together with the policies and procedures operating in an organisation and the work assigned to the particular positions, are communicated to all incumbents (Whalen, 2007).

To achieve the highest standards of performance, employees receive feedback from their immediate managers on the evaluation of work they perform (Cornelissen, 2008). In the event where standards are not met managers may take disciplinary action, by either demoting or terminating the services of their employees (Storey, 2004). Communication between a manager and a worker may be in the form of counselling sessions where work-related and personal problems are discussed (Campbell, 2009).

3.3.4.5 Communication problems and solutions

Clompit (2009) identified different types of communication problems and found that the wrong interpretation of a message could lead to inappropriate behaviour by a worker. The structure and language of the objectives and the medium through which it is transmitted should be congruent with those of the employee's (Storey, 2004).

The comprehension of a message is measured when managers create understanding and acceptance between themselves and employees (Goodall *et al.*, 2010). Unrestricted opportunities for feedback in a two-way communication situation may result in greater satisfaction for the person together with a better comprehension of the message (Verwey *et al.*, 2003).

Problems encountered with communication can arise as a result of either providing too much or too little information. Individuals have a certain capacity for receiving and processing information and when this is exceeded, overload results. Misselhorn (2006) suggests several ways of responding to the problem of overloading. These include filtering the information received, postponing the processing of low-priority messages through queuing, and attending special training courses to reduce the time to read and comprehend relevant information.

Insufficient upward communication takes place when managers engage in stereotype thinking on behalf of the needs of their employees (Carroll, 2010). Upward communication is least likely to be effective, especially when subordinates are seen to be ambitious for advancement in their careers and their managers have substantial control over desired outcomes (Cornelissen, 2010).

Another problem is when subordinates distort the information they are supposed to pass on, managers have a choice either to obtain the information from an independent source or to develop a relationship of trust and openness between workers at all levels (Campbell, 2009). Upward communication can be improved when employees are provided with a channel to inform management of their complaints. This may also be facilitated by discussions between management and workers in open meetings (Whalen, 2007).

Downward communication of relevant messages fails when managers withhold information from workers. This can have a negative effect on the overall performance and commitment of individuals (Campbell, 2009). Managers may withhold information due to feelings of insecurity and the fear of losing control over their subordinates (Heracleous, 2006).

The communication process is only completed when the message has been received and comprehended by the recipient. The problem of stereotype thinking can be overcome if an open-door policy is practiced by management. Clarifying and communicating objectives to all employees may assist in meeting organisational goals. The satisfaction of personal needs together with the achievement of organisational goals should be placed in context to ensure harmony and commitment.

Clarifying and communicating objectives may meet organisational goals of a company but personal goals of employees must also be considered if a company is to be truly effective.

3.4 Personal goals of employees

Primarily, employees enter organisations to secure positions that provide both intrinsic and extrinsic job satisfaction, and allow them to pursue a stimulating career. Secondly, they have a complex set of needs and expect the company to satisfy those needs (Boswell and Boudreau, 2002). The main goals of employees, therefore, are career advancement and job satisfaction. Although the employee has other goals (challenging job, well-paid job, job enrichment) these are invariably linked to the two main ones.

It has been hypothesised that the chosen career and the degree of satisfaction enjoyed by an employee are contributory factors to organisational commitment.

3.4.1 Careers

Hall (1986) as cited by Byars and Rue (2006:104) defines career as “the individually-perceived sequences of attitudes and behaviours associated with work-related experiences and activities over the span of the person’s life”. This definition stresses that a career consists of both attitudes and behaviour and is an on-going sequence of work-related activities. Peng (2006) emphasises the point that even though the career is distinctly work-related, an individual’s non-work life and roles play a significant part in the formation of value systems and attitudes. From an individual’s point of view, a career is a series of choices that can be made from among different opportunities whereas from the organisation’s standpoint, careers are processes that the organisation utilises to renew itself (Christensen, 2001).

Employees move through jobs along career paths which are invariably prescribed by the organisation. The success rate in a career depends on the extent to which employees adapt to the organisation’s demands. When career paths are planned certain assumptions have to be made:

3.4.1.1 Typical value assumptions

Objectives are statements of desired end results where individuals have given their understanding and acceptance of the standards against which they will be measured. The values related to organisational development have an

influence on the career possibilities for an individual (Rose, 2001). For individuals to progress they must have the potential and will power to improve themselves on the technical and managerial levels. This will enable the manager to allocate tasks that are congruent with their abilities without lowering the quality of work life.

a) Individuals have a capacity for growth

Individuals involved with human resources development assume that employees have a capacity for growth and given the right opportunities they will utilise their talents (Clegg, 2008). According to Hooff *et al.*, (2006:105), “the value to which we hold is that people can constantly be in flux, groping, questing, testing, experimenting and growing”. We are struck by the tremendous untapped potential in most individuals yearning for discovery and release. Individuals may rarely change in core attributes, but the range of alternatives for choices can be widened and the ability to learn how to learn more about self can be enhanced. Du Buisson-Narsai (2005) maintains that career growth need not necessarily involve upward mobility but to move laterally in different fields and between organisations without moving upward. Besides having the capacity to grow, individuals must have the desire to grow and utilise their untapped potential.

b) Individuals’ desire to grow, achieve and utilise their capabilities

Although few would argue that individuals have the capacity for personal growth, many might challenge the assumption that most people have a desire to develop themselves (Porter *et al.*, 1975). Social scientists believe that factors such as absence of recognition for achievement or tasks that provide little or no job satisfaction in the work situation mitigate against employees (Meyer and Lynne, 2001). A situation should be created where there is congruency between the individual and organisational goals.

c) Compatibility of individual and organisational goals

Compatibility refers to the congruency of the individual and organisational goals. The basis of McGregor’s theory Y rests on the assumptions that the objectives of individuals and those of the organisations are compatible.

Conditions can be created for the members of the organisation to achieve their own goals best by directing their efforts toward the success of the enterprise (De Cieri, Donoghue and Pettit, 2004). This indicates that individuals can be motivated to the extent that they will satisfy their own needs and in turn those of the organisation. Both these needs can be achieved if there is collaboration within the organisation.

d) Collaboration is preferable to competition within an organisation.

Conflict arising in the workplace due to certain work-related circumstances and human-related issues are natural phenomena in any organisation. It is, however, preferable to resolve conflict through collaboration rather than by engaging in competition (Meyer and Lynne, 2001). According to Hooff *et al.*, (2006:85), "A pervasive value in the organisation milieu is competition. Competition is based on the assumption that desirable resources are limited in quantity and that individual or groups can be effectively motivated through competing against one another for the possession of these resources. Collaboration, on the other hand, is based on the assumption that the desirable limited resources can be shared among the participants in a mutually-satisfactory manner and, even more important, that it is possible to increase the quantity of the resources themselves."

As career advancement implies, allowing for growth and in considering individual differences, the organisation should examine each employee with respect to the following before making any decision:

- The employee's potential to grow within the organisation
- The employee's desire to grow (advance) or not. There are individuals that prefer to remain in one job and thereby do not have to accept extra responsibility
- The compatibility between the individual's goals and those of the organisation
- The competition, if any, between the individual and the organisation

If each of the above factors is carefully considered, then the task of the individual, in respect of developing a career, will be less complicated.

3.4.1.2 Individuals developing careers

Individuals who are goal-orientated develop a perception of skills and abilities through their attempts to perform certain tasks. The career and the organisation that individuals choose depend to a great extent on their personal needs (personal growth, job satisfaction, salary increases) and the image they develop of themselves (Mullins, 2006). These factors (personal growth and job satisfaction) are also responsible for determining how individuals pursue their careers in the organisation they have joined. Individuals wanting to progress in an organisation have to move, whether vertically, radically or circumferentially. This career movement is well illustrated by Lew and Williams (2004) in Fig 3.2.

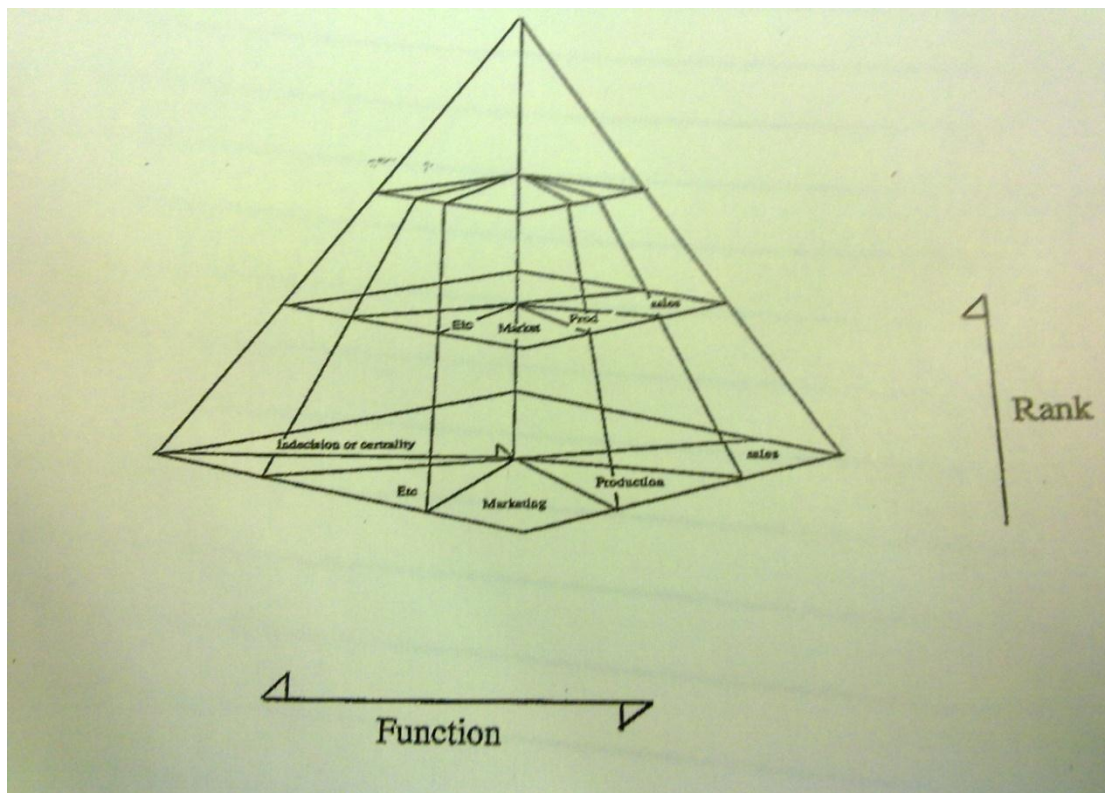


Figure 3.2 Career movement

The notion that most people who work move along a hierarchical dimension during the course of their careers is well-supported by this model. It is evident

that a number of promotions and pay increases have to be achieved in order to advance to different levels in the hierarchy. Some people tend to rise continually in the hierarchy while others tend to level off fairly early in their careers.

Furthermore, the hierarchy in some occupations and organisations is fairly tall whilst others are flat. Movement up the hierarchical structure is termed vertical growth, whilst movement along the functional dimension is referred to as lateral growth. Movement along this dimension refers to that which is concomitant with an acquisition of greater technical expertise and skill and includes movement towards the inner circle. Schein (2005) refers to this as the inclusion or membership dimension. People moving along the inclusion dimension experience greater access to personal privileges and confidential information about the organisation. This information may concern organisational policies and plans.

Besides career advancement, job satisfaction is a further primary goal of an individual.

3.4.2 Job satisfaction

When an organisation can provide a good working environment it invariably lead to job satisfaction and it is hypothesised that this can increase organisational commitment. Job satisfaction can be defined as “a feeling of emotional response to the work we do and the environment in which we do that work” (Morne and London, 2004:117). The feeling that is experienced can be positive, in which case job satisfaction is experienced, or the possibility might be such that there is job dissatisfaction (Oberholzer, 2001).

Job satisfaction is considered an important variable for this study. Firstly, managers believe that job satisfaction influences attendance and job tenure. It is a commonly-held belief that positive satisfaction leads to positive behaviours (long tenure, more committed employees and better attendance) (Waal, 2003:96). Secondly, managers seek favourable satisfaction in their own right, that is, managers view workers as a group to satisfy, much in the same way they do for other groups such as customers and clients. Positive

job satisfaction provides evidence that management is providing the necessary quality of work life (Van den Berghe, Bentein and Stinglamber, 2004).

Various theories have been postulated to illustrate the importance of job satisfaction both for the individual and the organisation.

3.4.2.1 Theories relating to job satisfaction

Numerous writers have proposed theories to explain why people are satisfied with their jobs. Few of these theories have obtained empirical confirmation suggesting that “job satisfaction is a complex phenomenon with many casual bases and that no one theory to date has been successful in incorporating all of the bases into a single theory (Mullins, 2008:153).

a) Discrepancy theory

Locke (1976) believed that satisfaction or dissatisfaction with a job depended on the discrepancy between what individuals desired and what they perceived they were receiving. A satisfied person would be one who perceived no difference between the desired and the actual consideration. The greater the deficiency between these two factors the more important the aspect desired, the greater would be dissatisfaction.

To further explain this theory, Buitendach (2004) concludes that, “if there is more than the minimally-acceptable amount of some job factor and the excess is beneficial (extra pay), a person will be even more satisfied than when there is no discrepancy between the desired and actual amount, however, if the excess is perceived to be detrimental (extra work load, longer hours), the person will be just as dissatisfied as when there is less than the desired amount.

In the final analysis, the discrepancy theory focuses on perception. Farrell and Lynch (2003) found that employees responded differently depending on how the discrepancy was defined. They concluded that individuals had varying

feelings about their jobs and as such no 'one best way' exists to measure job satisfaction. The appropriate way of defining and measuring job satisfaction depends on the purpose of the measurement.

It appears that it is natural for individuals to behave indifferently when their perceptions of what they desire and what they receive is distorted.

b) Equity theory

The equity theory was developed by Adams (1963) and is based on fairness and reasonableness with the main aspects to be considered being inputs, outcomes, comparison person, and equity-inequity. An input is seen as an object of value that employees perceive as contributions to the work place in the form of education, experience, and skills. An outcome relates to what employees get out of the company in the form of remuneration, fringe benefits, recognition and opportunities for advancements (Torr, 2008). Employees judge the fairness of outcomes by comparing their outcome or input ratio to that of a significant other person (Clegg, 2008). This comparison need not be with a person in the same department. It could, however, be with someone in the same organisation but different department, someone outside the organisation or even an employee in a previous job. If the ratio of the outcome to input is not equal to that of the significant other, a state of inequity exists. This is possible when one individual with a similar qualification and experience as another receives less in salary and benefits. The amount of inequity will depend on the magnitude of the difference between outcomes: input ratios (Hooff *et al.*, 2006). Any inequity will have implications for an individual's performance.

There are implications to contend with in the equity theory for an employee's performance and job satisfaction. An employee who is under-compensated will restore equity by reducing effort, thereby decreasing the quality or quantity of performance (Buitendach, 2004).

According to Buitendach (2004), the occurrence of social comparison processes among employees and the phenomenon of perceived inequity are

well-validated. However, the implications of inequity for performance have not been conclusively demonstrated. Most of the studies have had various methodological problems of one sort or another and have been too short in duration to evaluate anything but the immediate short-term effects of inequity on performance. Equity theory appears to be less useful for predicting effort and performance than for predicting whether an employee will be dissatisfied with certain aspects of the job for which social comparisons are likely to occur, such as pay, advancement, recognition and status symbol”.

Due to individual differences that exist between employees and the inability of any company to satisfy all the needs of every individual, the theory poses problems that are complex.

c) Social Influence Theory

Du Buisson-Narsai (2005) disagrees in principle with the premises of the equity theory and formulated the Social Influence Theory. This theory postulates that people decide how satisfied they are by making observations about other employee’s satisfaction levels. This implies that “an employee infers a level of his or her own satisfaction by merely seeing how co-workers behave and by listening to what they are saying about their jobs. That is, satisfaction may be more of a result of how one’s co-workers react to the job rather than of the job itself” (Buitendach, 2004).

This theory recognises the social factors that influence the affective reactions of employees in the workplace. The satisfaction levels of individuals are influenced to a great extent through the interaction of co-workers (Thomas, 2002).

The equity theory, even with its pitfalls, is more practical and acceptable than the social comparison theory as it is not always possible for employees to determine the level of satisfaction of others, except if there is close interaction between their respective work groups or if they belong to cohesive workgroups.

Although all three theories have positive practical implications for industry, circumstances will dictate, in the final analysis, which one can be utilised by the practitioner. Furthermore, these theories can assist in determining the causes and effects of job satisfaction.

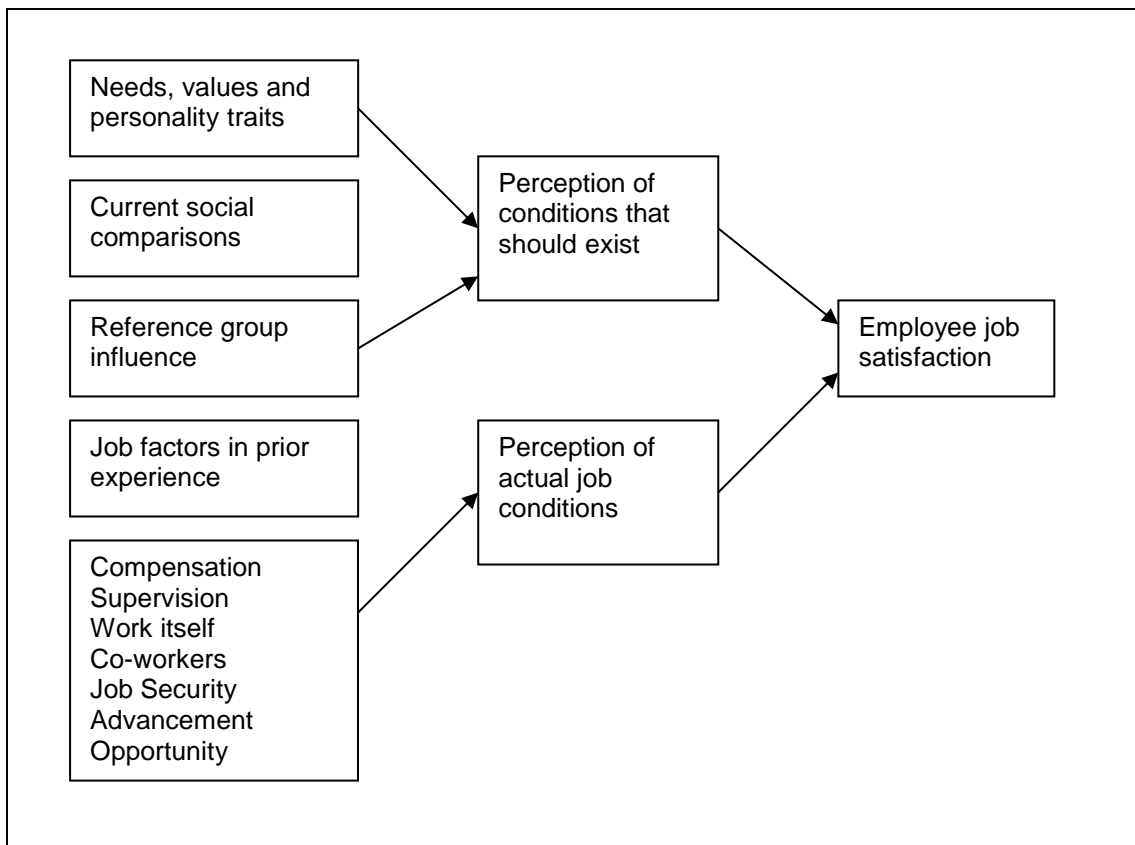
3.4.2.2 Determinants of job satisfaction

a) Some determinants of job attitudes

Since job attitudes contribute to the satisfaction or dissatisfaction of employees it is advisable for employers to make attempts to identify the factors that may determine job attitudes.

One way to explain how job attitudes are determined is to use an interaction model. This means a person's job satisfaction depends jointly on the characteristics of the job situation and the person (Buitendach, 2004). Of all the satisfaction theories the discrepancy one is the most compatible with the interaction model. An employee's characteristics and the situational variables determine a person's perception of what should be in a job, and perception of what is now in a job, will be determined mostly by actual job conditions. An example of how the discrepancy theory can be extended to include these satisfaction determinants is shown in Figure 3.3.

Figure 3.3 - A hypothetical Model of Job Satisfaction Determinants



Source: Buitendach, J.H. 2004:231

Needs, values and personality traits are three types of employee characteristics that affect “should be perceptions” (Lew and Williams, 2004). Needs are essential because the employee wants more of any job factor that is instrumental in fulfilling currently-activated needs. Only a certain given amount is needed to satisfy a job; anything above that will increase job satisfaction. Values are relatively stable beliefs about what is right and what is wrong and what are desirable and undesirable life goals. (Morne and London, 2004). Values influence a person’s preference for certain jobs. Personality traits modify a person’s job aspirations and preferences. A person with a personality trait, namely, high self-esteem will go for a job that is important or one that provides the opportunity for advancement and personal success (Farrell and Lynch, 2003). In order to increase the level of job satisfaction employers should determine the needs of their employees’ personality traits. This will assist to some degree in increasing organisational commitment.

Besides these factors the similarity of individuals' attitudes is also a salient determinant of job satisfaction.

Similarity of attitudes

Interaction between two individuals is rewarding when it results in the development of similar attitudes (Hyman, Scholarios and Baldry, 2005). A way to achieve this is by effective communication which may result in the perception of increased similarity of attitudes toward important and relevant objects; consequently, this may be followed by an increase in positive attitudes. When two individuals have the same positive attitudes toward an object or person, it is satisfying to the extent that it permits the ready predictability of the other's behaviour (Hooff *et al.*, 2006). It also justifies the individual's decisions towards the object or person. The interaction between members of work groups will be satisfying as long as the members have similar attitudes toward objects, events, or people or when people are on the same job level and there is equity in pay (Morne and London, 2004).

Job level

A positive relationship between job level and satisfaction is due to the fact that positions at higher levels provide more rewards than those at lower levels. Factors that are associated with high-level jobs are higher pay, less repetitive activities, more freedom and, moreover, they require less physical effort (Johari, Rashid and Murali, 2003). Intrinsic aspects of the job are more important for employee satisfaction at higher occupational levels, whereas security appears to be less important to these same employees (Lew and Williams, 2004). Employees in the lower echelon are closer to the lower needs whereas those in the higher echelon have satisfied these needs and now want to satisfy the higher-order needs. The role of the supervisor in understanding the needs of the subordinates can assist in creating the environment where the relevant needs can be satisfied.

Satisfaction with supervision

Satisfaction with supervision refers to the degree of fulfilment the subordinates receive as a result of the behaviour of the supervisor. The

behaviour of the employees towards their supervisor will depend on the characteristics of both the employee and the supervisor. Supervisors who exercise consideration in their relationship with employees have a predictable effect on satisfaction (Arnold, 2005). Clegg (2008) found that individuals who were warm and considerate were more liked by others, irrespective of whether they were leaders or not. Considerate and supportive leaders are deemed important for employees who have low self-esteem or very unpleasant and frustrating jobs (Beck and Wilson, 2000).

The effect on employees by a supervisor who displays task-orientated behaviour is less predictable. In some instances employees are more satisfied under a task-orientated supervisor whereas the reverse is also true (Bacon, 2006). In a job situation where the work roles of subordinates are ambiguous, they would prefer a leader who clarifies their roles and provides appropriate guidance and instruction. But, where the work roles are clear, close supervision is not preferred because the employees are capable of performing their jobs without regular instruction (Buitendach, 2004). The level of satisfaction that an employee enjoys with respect to, inter alia, job level, compensation and the type of supervision received can have far-reaching consequences for the company. Dissatisfaction amongst employees may lead to lower commitment, higher labour turnover and absenteeism (Jenks, 1999).

b) Consequences of job satisfaction and job dissatisfaction

One of the important reasons for studying job satisfaction is that it may have direct or indirect consequences for organisational effectiveness (Krishnan and Singh, 2009). Research on job attitudes seems to be more concerned with organisational effectiveness than employee welfare (Mount and Johnson, 2009). Studies have been carried out to determine the effect of job satisfaction on productivity, absenteeism, turnover and other aspects of employee behaviour relevant to organisational effectiveness (Michael and Spector, 2000; Organ and Konovsky, 2002).

Satisfaction and performance

According to Saari and Judge (2010) one of the most strongly-held beliefs among managers, supervisors and industrial/organisational psychologists has been that there is a relationship between a worker's job satisfaction and his or her performance. Unfortunately this belief has not proved to be valid. Although some research projects have produced positive correlations they were insignificant; Morne and London (2004) believe good performance causes satisfaction and not vice versa. The relationship occurs when employees become aware that intrinsic and extrinsic rewards are associated with superior performance. Intrinsic rewards emanate from superior performance in those situations where an employee is credited for successfully accomplishing a challenging task (Saari and Judge, 2010).

Extrinsic rewards are provided by the organisation and include pay, promotion, status symbols and formal recognition (Krishnan and Singh, 2009). Employees providing superior work will receive more recognition when the company makes extrinsic rewards contingent on performance. As long as the extrinsic rewards are perceived to be equitable, superior performance will enjoy satisfaction (Morne and London, 2004). When performance leads to intrinsic and extrinsic rewards, and these in turn lead to higher job satisfaction, performance and satisfaction will be positively related to each other. This is depicted in the Morne and London (2004) study. Fig 3.4 illustrates the casual relationship between satisfaction and performance.

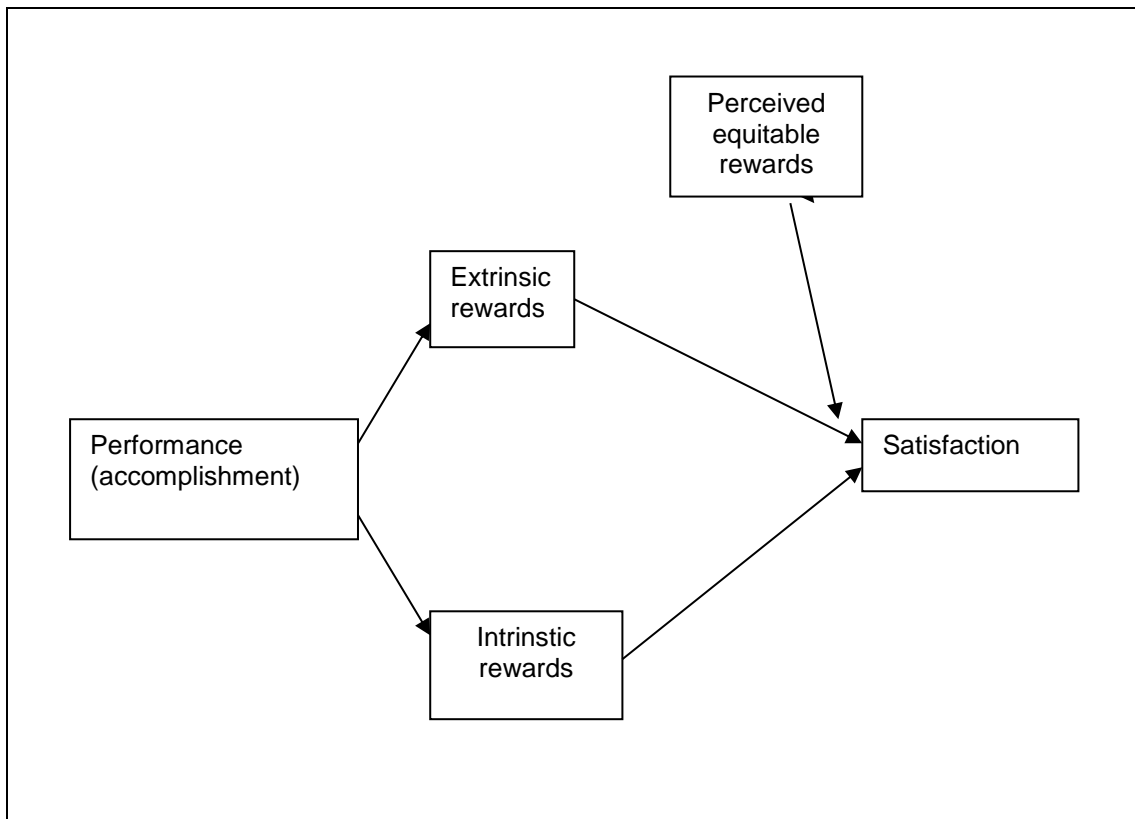


Figure 3.4 Morne and London Model of the relation between satisfaction and performance.

According to the Morne and London model, if an individual has been deprived of either intrinsic or extrinsic rewards, the resulting effect will be job dissatisfaction and subsequently withdrawal.

Dissatisfaction and withdrawal

Dissatisfied employees are more likely to be absent from work or to terminate their services with an organisation (Peng, 2006). Labour withdrawal could be as a result of poor quality of work life and this could lower the individual's commitment.

When individuals display withdrawal behaviour it may hold adverse consequences for the company. Absenteeism affects normal operations, causes delays, and involves the company in unnecessary expenditure when extra staff has to be employed to serve as substitutes. Labour turnover involves additional expenditure for recruitment and selection of staff (Mount and Johnson (2009). High labour withdrawals are symptomatic of poor working conditions and as a result the organisation will find it difficult to attract

good employees. The process of providing satisfaction of needs, either in a financial or psychological form, cannot be based on a simplistic formula due to individual differences.

Individuals enter a company with a variety of needs they wish to satisfy. Financial needs involve compensation in the broadest sense and psychological needs involve career growth within the company. The degree of satisfaction of these two sets of needs will depend on the relationship that exists between the employee and the employer. In order to prevent animosity and conflict in this relationship a formal contract of employment needs to be concluded.

3.5 The psychological contract

Although the necessity of the formal contract is recognised, organisations place greater emphasis on the psychological contract which they view as a catalyst for the development of organisational commitment. In addition to the formal contract, the individual enters into a psychological contract that represents a set of unwritten mutual expectations at the time of employment.

According to Bacon (2006), the components of the psychological contract are shared expectations which can be viewed from different perspectives. In the first instance, reference is made to the organisation's expectations of the employee and the efforts necessary to meet those expectations. In the second instance, attention is given to the employee's expectations of a new employer together with the employers' ability to meet those expectations.

The psychological contract can therefore be defined as the mutual exchange and organisation (Torr, 2008). This definition includes the influence process for solving conflicts between the goals of the company and those of the worker. This contract stipulates that wages and psychological income are given to individuals for their commitment to work toward the organisational goals. A similar definition is provided by Sparrow and Cooper (1998) who see the psychological contract as the link between the individual and the organisation represented by expectations of each party. The important aspect

of both definitions is reciprocation which lies at the heart of the psychological contract.

The psychological contract is an on-going process of negotiating between the employer and employees and much depends on the degree of credibility created between the two parties, which rely on the power exercised by the organisation and the expectation of the employee (Bacon, 2006).

Furthermore, for the psychological contract to be truly effective, both the individual and the company must be mutually accepted. Mutual acceptance is achieved through different kinds of symbolic and actual events whereby individuals will make their efforts available in exchange for challenging or rewarding work, acceptable working conditions and organisational rewards in the form of pay and benefits.

3.5.1 Mutual acceptance by individual and company

Mutual acceptance is a transitional period during which the relationship between the employee and the company become more clearly defined and as a result the psychological contract is formed (Krishnan and Singh, 2009). During this period the individual moves towards the centre of the organisation, which symbolises trust and acceptance. (This differs from the career movement embodied in promotion which involves the crossing of a hierarchical boundary). There are various events that indicate the mutual acceptance between the organisation and the individual.

3.5.1.1 Events symbolising organisational acceptance

The process of mutual acceptance is dependent on the nature of work, the type of department, style of management and company culture (Thomas, 2002). Although individuals may have positive attitudes towards a company, they could feel rejected unless their feelings are shared by their superiors or colleagues (Treasurer, 2008). The initiative for mutual acceptance lies primarily with the organisation and the events which symbolises organisational acceptance, as expressed by various researchers. These are:

- Organisational acceptance may be in the form of positive feedback the individual receives in the first formal or informal performance appraisal (Armstrong and Stephens, 2005).
- Salary increase is another symbolic event which can signify acceptance by the company. The size of the increase is linked to a great extent to the performance of the individual (Saari and Judge, 2010).
- In work situations that most rewarding event symbolising organisational acceptance is the movement of individuals from their initial job to a more permanent and challenging one (Steger and Amann, 2008).
- A general and meaningful way of accepting new employees is to give them privileged information which is available only to people who can be trusted and who don't take advantage of it (Reece and Brandt, 2008).
- Acceptance of a new employee could be symbolised by being involved in an organisation ritual in the form of a party or club membership. These rites are overt investments on the part of the company and it changes the emotional relationship between the new employee and other members of the organisation (Krishnan and Singh, 2009).
- Promotion, inter alia, provides the evidence and reward of being accepted into the organisation (Goudge, 2006). This is, however, a dysfunctional aspect of many organisational norms to conceive of career growth, progress or success only in hierarchical terms (Beatty and Schachtner, 2002). It is possible for individuals to grow and make progress laterally across different functions through progressively more challenging work assignment in different areas without change in rank (Tayyeb and Riaz, 2004).

Individuals through their initiative and determination (self-development, acceptance of promotion) can also contribute towards being accepted by the

organisation. For the psychological contract to have any effect it must be concluded by the employee as well, therefore, the individuals can either accept or reject the organisation through various strategies.

3.5.1.2 Employee acceptance of the organisation

The employee's acceptance of the company, although more visible, is not in any way less important than the organisation's acceptance of the employee (Martocchio, 2008). Employees accept their companies by

- Deciding to remain in the organisation , which signifies acceptance of the company and its conditions of employment (Lew and Williams, 2004)
- Accepting the work situation and the organisation by displaying a high level of motivation and commitment, by mobilising energy, engaging in long working hours, willingness to do extras and show overt enthusiasm for the work (Lawler, 2000).
- Displaying their willingness to accept various kinds of constraints, delays or undesirable work as a temporary condition. It may happen that the company may promise the individual a challenging job, salary increases, promotions and better working conditions but requires them to accept less-favourable conditions for a short period. An employee who accepts the organisation will be prepared and willing to put up with the constraints and delays (Deeprise, 2006).

The views expressed by different researchers (Fahy *et al.*, 2004) can be accepted but in the final analysis the creation of the psychological contract primarily depends on expectations of the employer and employee and the ability of both to satisfy their respective needs. When the needs of individuals are not met their ultimate action is the termination of their relationship (Brown and Armstrong, 2000). This further complicates the relationship between the employer and employee. The demands placed on the business environment are becoming increasingly complex and it is therefore essential for organisations to move toward a psychological contract that emphasises

intrinsic motivation. By establishing a congruency between the needs of the individual and those of the organisation, managers can influence a psychological transaction that is beneficial to both parties.

3.6 Summary

This Chapter centred on organisational and personal goals. These goals are essential for the development and maintenance of organisational commitment.

Due to its importance, organisational commitment has become a major concern to both theorists and practitioners. Four factors influence organisational commitment, namely, personal, role-related, structural and work experience. Commitment begins before an individual enters the organisation and develops in three stages, namely, anticipation, pre-employment influence, initiation (early employment influence) and entrenchment (continuing commitment). The major determinants of anticipation are personal characteristics and employee expectations. While the anticipation stage is affected by personal, organisational and non-organisational factors, entrenchment is influenced by length of service and investment related to employment.

As organisational commitment develops over time and its effects can be either costly or beneficial. It is important that commitment be assessed regularly. An important organisational goal that ensures survival in a competitive world is profitability. In order to achieve profits, management has to carefully consider the functions of planning, organising, leading and controlling.

The objectives that are set to ensure continual attainment of results have been clarified so as to prevent ambiguity. For these objectives to be meaningful they must be communicated to each level of the organisation. Information relevant for the continual success of an organisation is communicated upward, downward and laterally. Upward communication involves seeking advice and help, downward is concerned with giving

instruction and lateral communication involves co-ordinating and solving problems.

Individuals enter organisations with a set of expected needs and expect the organisation to satisfy these needs. Two of the important expectations are career advancement and job satisfaction. Whether these needs are satisfied depends on a variety of factors, among them, capability of the individual and sincerity of the company to promote the needs of its employees. Numerous theories of job satisfaction (discrepancy, equity, social influence and the two factors) have been postulated. These theories are bound by conditions prevailing in the organisation and cannot be expected to apply in isolation. The consequences of job dissatisfaction may be costly to the company and results in poor performance, labour turnover and absenteeism.

Furthermore, in the organisation there are formal or legal contracts and the informal or psychological contract. The psychological contract is concluded once there is congruency between the needs of the organisation and those of the individual. This congruency is made simpler when the individual is socialised and accommodated into the mainstream of the organisation.

CHAPTER 4

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

4.1 Introduction

An individual is influenced in varying degrees by factors such as age, gender, length of service, hierarchal advancement and perception of being paid fairly.

A better understanding of the issues related to organisational commitment requires an empirical probe which will systematically test each of the suggested relationship. The objectives of this study were as follows:

- To establish why, despite the Pulp and Paper industry being the major contributor to economic development in South Africa, it has not yet been able to build a committed workforce that plan long tenure with the industry.
- What role is played by the quality of work life factors in enhancing commitment in the Pulp and Paper industry?
- What are the problems that are caused by lack of commitment?
- To develop a model that companies in the Pulp and Paper industry could utilize in their efforts to enhance employee commitment

In order to obtain these objectives, certain procedures were used. This chapter records how such a probe was constructed to suit South African conditions drawing on the theoretical framework.

Three clearly defined phases in the planning process can be distinguished as follows:

- the sampling procedure used is described and justified,
- the measuring instruments used to carry out statistical testing of the various variables are described in some detail and reasons for their selection recorded.
- the relationships to be tested empirically are formulated and statistical tests employed in each instance are specified.

The sampling procedure used in this study will be discussed next. In order to ensure that the data collected and analyzed is reliable and accurate, the research must be conducted based on the appropriate research methods available. This chapter will present the manner and means in which this research will be conducted.

4.2 Research Design

A research design is the overall plan for obtaining answers to the questions being studied and for handling some of the difficulties encountered during the research process (Polit and Beck, 2004). Research designs are developed to meet the unique requirements of a study. According to De Vos (1998) a research design is a blueprint or a detailed plan for how a research study is conducted. Polit and Beck (2004) indicated that selecting a good research design should be guided by an over-arching consideration, namely whether the design does the best possible job of providing trustworthy answers to the research question.

To achieve the objectives and to address the research problems, the researcher conducted a qualitative and quantitative study. Both qualitative and quantitative studies have their individual strengths, but a combination of these research techniques provides more meaningful data than either method on its own (Bryman and Bell, 2007). Qualitative researchers aim to gather an in-depth understanding of human behavior and the reasons that govern such behavior. It also examined, analysed and interpreted the observations with the purpose of discovering underlying meanings and patterns of relationships, including classifications of types of phenomena and entities (Silverman, 2006). This method was used to interpret the observations that were made in the study.

Quantitative research refers to the systematic empirical investigation of social phenomena via statistical, mathematical or computational techniques (Lisa, 2008). The objective of quantitative research is to develop and employ mathematical models, theories and/or hypotheses pertaining to phenomena (Kumara, 2004). This method therefore was used to identify, evaluate and

develop a Model that described the relationship between the quality of work life factors and organisational commitment, because it provided the fundamental connection between empirical observation and mathematical expression of quantitative relationships.

4.3 Research Methods

a) Population

Davies (2007) defines target population as the category of people about whom the researcher intends to write in his or her report and from which the researcher plans to draw his or her sample. The target population for this study was the employees from three main companies (Mondi paper, Sappi paper and Nampak Riverview) within the Pulp and Paper industry in the greater eThekweni Metropolitan area. Also, the population included the employees from Buckman laboratories and South African paper Chemicals (SAPCO). These two companies were the contractors that were found to be operating on all pulp and paper companies in the eThekweni Metropolitan area, supplying paper additives. Other companies that were approached refused to participate in the study, citing confidentiality issues though there were given assurance of anonymous.

A purposive sampling technique was used in selecting companies. A purposive sample is a sample selected in a deliberative and non-random fashion to achieve a certain goal. A purposive sampling invites the researcher to identify and target individuals who are believed to be typical of the population being studied.

b) Sample

The study was undertaken with a sample of 450 employees (100 employees from each of the main companies), and 75 employees from both Buckman Laboratories and SAPCO. The employees were randomly selected from their respective companies. A random sample ensures that all members of the population have an equal chance to participate in the research study (Mouton and Marias, 2001).

c) Challenges encountered during the study

During the exercise of data collection the researcher was encountered with the following problems:

- (i) **lack of transparent:** Some of the respondents were not open and ready to provide data, especially, on sensitive issues like gender, marital status and their level of education. People regard the above as personal information and hence their reluctance to offer responses on the questions. This challenge was minimised by assuring the participants that the questionnaire was anonymous.
- (ii) **Lack of response:** there was a general fear about how the data will be used after being analysed. The participants had to be assured that it will not be used for any other purpose other than to understand the relationship. The Human Resources Departments from various Mills played a crucial role in assuring the participants that the information will not be used against them.
- (iii) **Limited time:** A period of 8 weeks was reserved for data collection. This period proved to be insufficient due to the location of the pulp and paper mills in the province. This could be also on the reasons for the response rate of 52%. Though this rate was still statistically accepted, it was still low. Obviously, the time taken to collect data impact on the report completion time and hence the researcher did not extend it. It could have been minimised by taking a relatively smaller sample size.
- (iv) **Limited Funds:** the limited fund was a big problem especially due to travelling cost. The challenge was minimised by the assistance from National Research Fund (NRF).

4.3.1 Sample characteristics

The present study was undertaken with a sample size of 450 subjects randomly drawn from the eThekweni metropolitan areas. This area was chosen as it has the heaviest concentration of commercial and industrial organisations in KwaZulu Natal. The following details were obtained from the biographical data: age, gender, marital status, education level, number of subordinates and the level of education.

Ethnicity was not classified in the questionnaire due to the sensitivity of the subject in South Africa. The Human Resources Managers in the companies that questionnaires were distributed has a problem with the ethnic and race classification as they felt it might be discriminatory and lead to some of the participants being reluctant to take part in the study.

4.3.2 Reasons for choosing the sample

- a) The sample, because of its representativeness, established a sound base for further related longitudinal study.
- b) The sample was accessible for testing purposes.
- c) Every member of the sample was literate (could read and write) and the questionnaires were self-explanatory, there was no additional explaining required.
- d) Within the financial constraints the sample was most acceptable.
- e) the sample covered an acceptable mix as far as age, education, salary and length of service are concerned.

Once the sample was drawn, stringent procedures were followed in order to achieve the objectives of the study.

4.4 Data Collection Methods

Several methods can be used to collect data (Kumar, 2004). Data collection methods include interviews, questionnaires (personally administered, sent through the mail or electronically administered), observation of individuals and events with or without videotaping or audio recording, and a variety of other motivational techniques such as projective tests (Sekaran, 2000). The research instruments used for data collection in this research were a questionnaire and unstructured interviews.

A questionnaire is a pre-formulated written set of questions to which respondents record their answers, usually within rather closely defined alternatives (Sekaran, 2000). A questionnaire is an instrument that is used for observing data beyond the physical reach of the observer (Leedy, 2006). He further maintains that the questionnaire is used as a tool to probe deep within

the minds or the attitudes, feelings or reactions of respondents. A copy of the questionnaire is presented as Appendix A.

Unstructured interviews are interviews where the interviewer enters the interview setting without a planned sequence of questions. The interviewer allows the interview to develop naturally and not according to a pre-set plan. Unstructured interviews are undertaken to uncover preliminary issues so that the researcher can formulate a good idea of what variables need further investigation (Sekaran, 2000).

4.5 Procedure for administration of questionnaire

After receiving confirmation of their intention to participate in the study (the authorisation letters are attached), some of the questionnaires were handed over to the Human Resources Department for distribution. However, some of the questionnaires were handed to respondents directly after obtaining permission to do so.

Although the questionnaires were self-explanatory, each aspect was explained in detail in a covering letter. All queries from the human resources department were answered.

A letter was enclosed which included the following information:

- Participation was voluntary
- All information would be treated confidentially
- The reason for the study was to determine the relationship between organisational commitment and quality of work life.

There were 450 questionnaires that were distributed to companies and of those 237 were returned giving a return rate of 52%. This response rate was due to the fact that anonymity was maintained and as such managers were unable to trace the supervisors who had not returned the questionnaires.

The questionnaire consisted of biographical information, organisational commitment and the quality of work life questionnaires.

4.6 Measuring instrument

The measuring instrument consisted of the following: biographical information form, organisational commitment questionnaire (OCQ) and the quality of work life questionnaire.

4.6.1 Biographical information form

The following details were obtained from the biographical information form: age, marital status, gender, education, salary, length of service in the company, and the number of subordinates. These variables were considered important for determining the commitment of the supervisors.

4.6.2 Organisational Commitment Questionnaire (OCQ)

According to Meyer and Allen (1987) the OCQ is the most widely-used measure of organisational commitment and has been shown to have acceptable psychometric properties.

The OCQ was developed by Mowday, Steers and Porter (1982) and administered to 2563 employees in a variety of jobs in nine different public and private work organisations. This questionnaire measures employee commitment to work organisations.

When the OCQ was developed, Mowday *et al.*, (1982) used the following definition of organisational commitment:

The relative strength of an individual's identification with, and involvement in, a particular organisation, characterised by at least three related factors:

- The strong belief and acceptance of the organisation's goals and values;
- A willingness to exert considerable effort on behalf of the organisation ;
and
- A strong desire to maintain membership in the organisation

The OCQ consists of 15 items that tap the above three aspects of the definition. The questionnaire has a 7-point Likert scale with anchors of: Strongly agree, moderately agree, slightly agree, neither agree nor disagree, slightly disagree, moderately disagree and strongly disagree. The results are added up and the average is calculated to arrive at a summary indicator of employee commitment.

A variety of analyses were carried out by Mowday, Steers and Porter (1982) using the OCQ given to the 2563 employees. In particular, interest focused on providing information pertinent to the following psychometric properties:

- means and standard deviations
- internal consistency reliability
- test-retest reliability (Mowday, Porter and Dublin, 1998)

4.6.3 Mean and standard deviations

Originally attention was focused on the distribution properties of the OCQ across the nine samples. The mean level of commitment ranged from 4.0 to 6.1 across the nine samples. Mean scores were slightly above the midpoint on the Likert scale. Standard deviations ranged from 0.64 to 1.3 and indicate an acceptable distribution of response within samples.

4.6.4 Internal consistency reliability

Internal consistency was calculated in three different ways: coefficient alpha, item analysis and factor analysis.

Coefficient alpha is consistently high, ranging from 0.82 to 0.93 with a median of 0.9. These results compared favourably with most attitude measures.

Results related to item analyses indicated that each item had a positive correlation with the total score for the OCQ, with the range of average correlations being from 0.36 to 0.72 and a median correlation of 0.64. Generally, the negatively-worded items correlate less with the total score than do the positively-worded items, although the difference is small. These results

indicate that the 15 items of the OCQ are relatively homogenous with respect to the underlying construct they measure.

Factor analyses were performed to determine the homogeneity of the OCQ items. These analyses generally resulted in a single-factor solution and support the conclusion that the items are measuring a single common underlying construct. Mowday *et al.*, (1998) found that, “where the factors emerged from an analysis, the value associated with the second factor never exceeded 1.0. Further, the percentage of common variance explained by the second factors ranged from 2.4 to 15.5 while the percentage of variance associated with the first factor ranged from 83.2 to 92.6.

4.6.5 Test-retest reliability

In order to determine the stability of the OCQ over time, Mowday *et al.*, (1998) computed test-retest reliabilities for two samples for which multiple data points were available. For the sample of administration staff, test-retest reliabilities were $r = 0.53$; 0.63 and 0.75 over 2-, 3- and 4 month periods respectively. In the case of the engineering department, test-retest reliability was $r = 0.72$ over a 2-month period and $r = 0.62$ for months.

Mowday *et al* (1998) conclude that these data compare favourable to other attitude measures (job satisfaction).

4.7 Quality of Work Life questionnaire

Adhikan (2005) maintains that any method of measuring the psychological quality of work life should, ideally, include the following four characteristics. First, the measure should be valid, in that it should measure accurately all the important aspects of the psychological quality of working life. Second, it should have enough face validity so that it will be seen as a legitimate measure by all involved. Third, it should be objective and verifiable and not subject to manipulation. Fourth, it should recognise the difference in how individuals respond to the same work environment.

Adhikan (2005) states that no measure possesses all four of these characteristics, therefore, if the psychological quality of work life is to be measured, one has to settle for sub-optimal measures. The problem is further explained by Morris (2001).

“one of the limitations of quality of work life studies is their reliance upon self-report inventories. Gautam and Davis (2007) warn against some dangers of these, which include the assumption of perfect self-insight (i.e. the capacity and willingness to introspect) and the assumption of a common meaning across individuals interpreting questionnaire items. These inherent problems are always a limitation in quality of work life studies due to the nature of these types of investigations”.

In the absence of the perfect questionnaire, the one developed by Duvenage (1998) was therefore used. The research methodology used by Duvenage (1998) in the development of the Quality of Work Life questionnaire entailed the compilation, application and analyses of experimental psychometric instrument.

In developing his questionnaire, Duvenage (1998) used Coster, Coetsee and Van Niekerk's (1993) quality of work life questionnaire and Coetzee's (1991) organisational diagnosis questionnaire. Duvenage (1998) sample consisted of 555 workers from seven large organisations. The sample was drawn from state, semi-state, municipal and private organisations from the following sectors: mining (gold and coal), manufacturing (heavy and light), and service sector (local and national).

Duvenage's (1998) questionnaire has a five point Likert Scale with anchors of Yes, to a great extent, to some extent, to a small extent, No.

Duvenage (1998) processed the data using the following methods: explorative principle component and principle factor analyses. He also used qualities item analyses on an iterative basis. By means of these analyses three factors were identified as affecting the quality of work life.

4.7.1. Quality of Work Life factors

The factors used in the Quality of Work life questionnaire can be operationally defined as follows:

1) Organisational climate

Organisational climate refers to the conditions under which an individual operates. It is the individual's positive or negative experience in the organisation. Organisational climate results from the practice, policies and philosophy of senior groups or managers in the organisation.

2) Task characteristics

This factor refers to the interaction of the individual and the meaningfulness and significance of the task, as experienced by him or her. Task characteristics also refer to work that is well planned and has clearly-defined goals.

3) Role behaviour

This factor is representative of an individual's behaviour in the work situation. That is, the effects of unreasonable demands, feedback, communication, role conflict and role ambiguity on the behaviour of employees.

4) Remuneration

Remuneration relates to fairness and sufficiency. Questions that are normally asked are, "Does the income meet socially-determined standards of sufficiency or the subjective standard of the recipient?" "Does the pay received for certain work bear an appropriate relationship for pay received for other work?"

5) Job satisfaction

This factor refers to the effects of the interaction between the individual and the organisation, work groups and the formal leadership. It also indicates the individual's satisfaction with the work as a whole.

6) Utilisation

Utilisation focuses on the ability of the organisation to use individual's potential to the fullest. This factor also concerns itself with the necessity and

provision of further training in order that employees could use any special skills that they may possess.

7) Future orientation

The focus here is on career and advancement opportunities and personal development. Future orientation is concerned with questions such as: Does your work offer opportunities for advancement? Does your work offer you a good future?" "If you work very well, will you be promoted?"

The Organisational Commitment Questionnaire and the Quality of Work Life Questionnaire were analysed with the aid of various statistical techniques.

4.8 Statistical analysis of data

4.8.1 Introduction

The data from the completed questionnaire was coded as per variables and captured in SPSS (Statistical Package for Social Science) 11.5 versions which is international standard statistical software. Data was analyzed using both descriptive and inferential statistics with SPSS 11.5

4.8.2 Description of data

Data is a convenient summary for the documented results of conducting research (Sekaran and Bougie, 2009). The methodology selected is very much a product of finding the most effective ways of achieving good quality responses within a very tight timescale and budget. As Maree (2010:121) recognizes, "provided that people reply to the questionnaire, the problem of access is solved". Buchanan, Lester and Grahn, (1998), Easterby-Smith, Thorpe and Lowe (2002) and Johnson (2001) all agree that the use of existing contacts is more likely to allow the researcher to gain access. The use of existing networks and contacts were employed to gain access to the organisations and the use of opportunistic sampling such as purposeful random sampling and snowball or chain sampling, which takes advantage of whatever unfolds as it unfolds were employed.

By using a questionnaire to collect data, it is perceived as authorities, the data can be standardized, comparison can easily be made and its validity can be tested (Saunders et al, 2003).

4.8.3 Descriptive statistics

Descriptive statistics is a term which refers to the collection of methods for classifying and summarising numerical data. The objective of descriptive statistics is to provide summary measures of the data contained in all the elements of a sample” (Kinner and Taylor, 1991), therefore, an analysis of the data incorporates the use of frequencies, measures of central tendency (mean) and measures of dispersion (standard deviation).

4.8.3.1 Frequencies

According to Sekaran (2000), frequencies refer to the number of times various sub categories of a certain phenomenon occur. From this measurement, the percentage and cumulative frequency of their occurrence can be easily calculated. Frequencies are used in the current study to obtain a profile of the sample.

Data in this study were systematically summarised by constructing frequency distribution. Bobbie (2010) defines frequency distribution as an ordered array of observed variables, values and the frequency with which they occur in the data base. Numbers are represented in ascending or descending order.

Although frequency gives an overview of observed variables, values, more information can be obtained by computing the measure of central tendency.

4.8.3.2 Measures of central tendency

An important means of describing a group of measurements is by the use of averages. The mean is the arithmetic average of a distribution of scores taking into account the actual size of the scores. The mean is obtained by dividing the sum of scores by the number of items (Bobbie, 2010).

4.8.3.3 Measures of Dispersion

As the measures of central tendency are not a sufficient descriptor, additional information is sometimes needed to understand the distribution. According to Bobbie (2010) of all the measures of variability, the standard deviation is by far the most ideal one encountered, mainly because it is used in so many other statistical operations, therefore, in this study the standard deviation was used.

According to Akdere (2006), the standard deviation is derived by subtracting each individual value from the arithmetic mean. The standard deviation is the positive square root of the variance (Cooper & Emory, 1995). Cooper & Emory (1995) state that standard deviation is the most frequently-used measure of spread because it improves interpretability by removing the variance's square and expressing deviations in their original units. Like the mean, the standard deviation is also affected by extreme scores (Cooper & Emory, 1995)

4.8.4 Inferential statistics

McCall (1994) refers to inferential statistics as the methods used to make inferences about a larger group of individuals on the basis of data collected from a smaller group. The objective of the inferential statistics is to enable the researcher to determine "whether or not a difference between two treatment conditions occurred by chance or is a 'true difference'" (Sekaran and Bougie, 2009:117). The differential statistical techniques used to test the various hypotheses include the t-test, analysis of variance, Cronbach's co-efficient alpha and factor analysis.

The different inferential statistical procedure that is used in this study to test the various hypotheses include factor analysis, regression analysis, analysis of variance, correlation and item analysis (Cronbach's coefficient alpha).

4.8.4.1 Regression analysis

Regression analysis is used to study the effects and the magnitude of the effects of more than one independent variable on one dependant variable

using the principles of correlation and regression (Maree, 2010). The ordinary product moment correlate coefficient (r) between variables shows the strength of the relationship, however, this does not indicate how much of the variance in the dependent variable will be explained when several independent variables are theorised to simultaneously influence it (Sekaran, 2000). The index of the magnitude of the relation between a composite of independent variables and a dependent variable is called the multiple correlation coefficients R .

The interpretation of multiple correlation coefficient R is identical to the ordinary correlation coefficient (r) except that it ranges from 0 to 1. The square of multiple R (R^2) is the amount of variance explained in the dependent variable by the predictors (Sekaran, 2000). This is known as the coefficient of determination. The analysis is known as **multiple regression analysis** as more than one independent variable (predictor) is regressed against a dependent variable (criterion). Multiple regression is a powerful set of methods for examining specific scientific hypotheses and relationships among experimental and non-experimental data. It is used as a data-analytic strategy to explain or predict a criterion (dependent) variable with a set of predictor (independent) variables.

Hierarchical regression analysis (also called sequential regression), the independent variables are entered into the equation in the order specified by the researcher based on theoretical grounds. Variables or sets of variables are entered in steps (or blocks), with each independent variable being assessed in terms of what it adds to the prediction of the dependent variable after the previous variables have been controlled for.

Multiple regression measures the relationship between a dependent variable and two or more independent variables (Malhotra and Birks, 2006). In hierarchical regression, variables are entered cumulatively to the model based on some specified hierarchy according to the purpose and logic of the research (Cohen, Cohen, West and Aiken, 2003). In this thesis the logic was similar to that of Covin, Green and Slevin (2006), where the control variables

of firm size, age and industry were entered first, after which the independent variable was entered. Thus there were two hierarchical steps in the process. Such a hierarchical approach makes it easier to spot the real influence of the independent variables that are in the centre of interest (Covin, Green and Slevin, 2006).

The results can be interpreted when the R-value, the F-statistic and the significant level are known.

4.8.4.2 Analysis of variance

“The statistical methods for testing the null hypothesis that the means of several populations are equal are known as the analysis of variance” (Cooper & Emory, 1995). They further suggest that the one-way analysis of variance uses a single factor, fixed-effects model to compare the effects of one factor on a continuous dependent variable. When the ANOVA is used all the data are treated as one and a general null hypothesis of no difference between the means is tested, although the F-test and t-test are appropriate, the F-test was chosen. Keppel and Saufley (2001) offered the reason as follows: In the early years researchers used the t-test as a special case of the F-test to be more specific, if one were to conduct a t-test and an F-test on the data from the same to group experiments, one would obtain exactly the same information. The reason why the results would be identical is that the two statistical tests are algebraically equivalent, that is, $F = t$ and $t = F$.

According to Downie and Heath (1997), “if the groups are random samples from the same population, the two variances, within and between, are unbiased estimates of the same population variance. We can test for the significance of the difference of the two types by the use of the F-test.”

When the ANOVA is used, the results will be accurate even if the homogeneity assumption is violated, as long as the sizes of the samples are the same or very similar in number. Likewise, the assumption of normality of distribution may be violated provided the departure from normal is not too big.

4.8.4.3 Correlation

Downie and Heath (1997) defined correlation as a measure of relationship between two variables. The two variables could be anything and are normally labelled X and Y.

Although a curvilinear relationship between variables does exist, many relationships are linear. The most common index of linear relationship is the Pearson product moment correlation coefficient (r). This coefficient is a summary index of the extent to which two variables are linearly related (Glasnapp and Poggio, 2001).

When describing the size of the linear relationship between two variables the Pearson r ranges in value from $-1, 00$ to $+1, 00$. A correlation coefficient of $0,000$ is an anchor point which indicates that there is no linear relationship. Any change from $r = 0,00$ in either directions (positive or negative) shows that a relationship exists. The larger the absolute value of a coefficient the bigger the relationship between the variables. A correlation coefficient of either $- 1, 00$ or $+1, 00$ indicates a perfect linear relationship between variables (Downie and Heath: 1997).

As Pearson (r) is a measure of the linear relationship between two variables, a low value means that little, if any, of the relationship can be described by linear or straight line (Glasnapp and Poggio, 2001). The sign of a correlation does not indicate the size of the relationship, but it does give information about the direction of the relationship. A positive correlations coefficient identifies a direct relationship between the two variables. An inverse relationship will produce a correlation with a negative sign.

4.8.5 Factor analysis

A factor analysis was conducted to assess the validity of the hypothesised structure. Factor analysis is “a multivariate statistical technique used to study relationships within a set of independent or dependent variables” (Sekaran and Bougie, 2009:201).It’s importance in research is succinctly put by Kerlinger (2002:110), “Because of its power, elegance and closeness to the

core of scientific purpose, factor analysis can be called the queen of analytical methods”.

The specific objectives of factor analysis are set out by Peterson (1999):

- Deriving a set of uncorrelated variants
- Grouping variables according to their relationships with one another
- Describing the underlying structure of a data set
- Classifying variables with respect to other known variables

The researcher begins with a raw data matrix of variables and then computes correlation coefficients between all pairs of variables. The correlation coefficient is subjected to an initial factor analysis. One method for extracting initial factors is the principal factors method. The factor extraction is carried out to find a set of factors that is formed as a linear combination of the variables in the correlation matrix (Alan and Rao, 2000). Variables with high correlations are combined to form one factor. This combination is called a principal factor. Communality is the proportion of a variables total variation that is involved in the factors. The percentage of the total variance in the data is called the common variance. The value for the amount of variation in the data accounted by one factor is called an eigenvalue (Alan and Rao, 2000). In the principal factors method the extracted factors are not correlated with each other. The factors are said to be orthogonal. This initial factor analysis results “in an unrotated matrix of factor loadings – structural correlations between individual variables and factors (Peterson, 1999).

This initial factor loading matrix is then rotated according to a pre-specified criterion and becomes a rotated factor loading matrix.

In order to obtain an interpretation of the results, the rotated factors are examined. Often, factors are placed “with high-loading variables and each given a creative name by the researchers” (Kinneer and Taylor, 2001:177).

4.8.6 Cronbach's coefficient alpha

The reliability of the measure, according to Sekaran (2000) indicates the extent to which the measure is without bias (error free), and hence, offers consistent measurement across time and across various items in the instrument. It indicates the stability and consistency with which the instrument measures the concept and helps to assess the goodness of a measure.

Cronbach's alpha is a reliability coefficient that indicates how well the items in a set are positively correlated to one another. Cronbach's alpha is computed in terms of the average inter-correlations among items measuring the concept. The closer Cronbach's alpha is to 1, the higher the internal consistency reliability (Sekaran, 2000). The reliability coefficient is scale-free in its value cannot be less than zero or greater than 1.

4.9 Summary

A carefully-planned sampling programme which provided for randomness was selected. The sample size ($n = 237$) was adequate for the employment of the statistical instruments. The population parameters indicating the frequencies and percentages were tabulated and significant information was highlighted.

The reasons for choosing the sample, together with the procedure for administering the questionnaire, were discussed in detail. The measuring instruments used in the study were then discussed. The data obtained from the biographical information were considered important for determining the commitment of the supervisors.

The organisational commitment questionnaire which is widely used for determining the organisational commitment was discussed. This questionnaire has been shown to have acceptable psychometric properties. It was first developed by Duvenage in 1998, and was used to determine the quality of work life among the supervisors. Despite its limitations the questionnaire was found to have acceptable properties for the assessment of quality of work life. Various statistical techniques were used to analyse the data.

Analysis of variance was used to determine whether there was a significant difference in organisational commitment across the biographical variables. Factor analysis which is considered a data reduction technique was carried out. Factor analysis indicates what measures belong together. Cronbach's coefficient alpha was used to estimate the internal consistency of the quality of work life questionnaire. Regression analysis was utilised to study the effects and magnitude of the independent variable on the dependent variable. Correlation was utilised to determine the relationship between the quality of work life factors and organisational commitment.

The presentation of the results of this study will be outlined in the next Chapter.

CHAPTER 5

PRESENTATION OF RESULTS

5.1 Introduction

This Chapter will present the results of the data that was collected and analysed through the SPSS programme.

The means and standard deviations of organisational commitment, together with the means, standard deviations and inter-correlations of the quality of work life factors were also determined.

Correlation was calculated to determine the relationship between the quality of work life factors and organisational commitment.

The analysis of variance (ANOVA) values of the difference between biographical variables and both the organisational commitment and quality of work life factors were determined.

A multiple regression analysis to explain the variance between quality of work life factors and organisational commitment was carried out.

A principal component method of factor analysis was done. Factor analysis isolates factors amongst a large collection of variables. Using the factor analysis, Cronbach's coefficient alpha was determined to obtain the mean split-half reliability. The research findings are presented:

5.2 Sample characteristics

The present study was comprised of 237 subjects randomly drawn from the Durban metropolitan areas. This area was chosen as it has the heaviest concentration of commercial and industrial organisations in KwaZulu Natal. The following details were obtained from the biographical data: age, gender, marital status, education level, number of subordinates and the level of education.

A tabular representation of the biographical data is reflected in Table 5.1 to 5.6 below.

Table 5.1 Frequency and percentage of the Age group

Variable	Frequency	Percentage (%)
16 - 25	37	15.6
26 – 35	106	44.7
36 - 45	54	22.8
Above 46	36	15.1
Not available	4	1.69
TOTAL	237	100,00

Figure 5.1 Sample Composition by Age

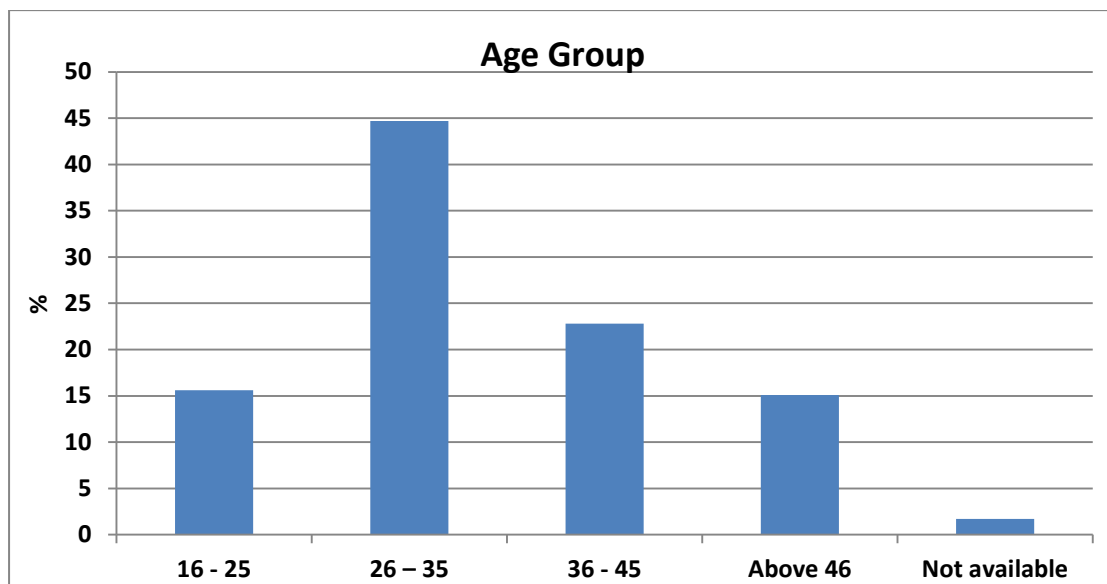


Table 5.1 and Figure 5.1 indicate that the highest percentage of respondents (44.7%) fell in the age group of 26 – 35, followed by 36 – 45 years at (22.8%), followed very closely by the 16 – 25 years (15.6%) and then followed by the 46 and above age group (15.1%) and not available (1.69%) respectively.

Table 5.2 Frequency and Percentages of the Marital Status Group

Variable	Frequency	Percentage (%)
Married	133	56.1
Single	64	27.0
Divorced	33	13.9
Widowed	2	0.84
Not available	5	2.11
TOTAL	237	100,00

Figure 5.2 Sample Compositions by Marital Status

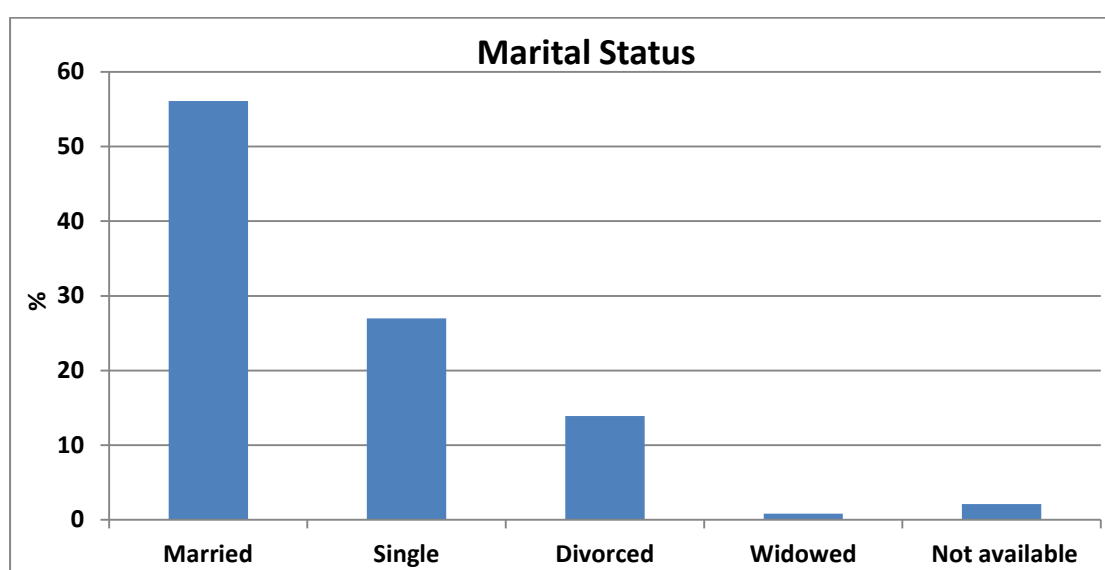


Table 5.2 and Figure 5.2 indicate that 56.1% of the respondents were married people, followed by 27.0% of single people while 13.9% and 0.84% were divorced and widowed respectively.

Table 5.3 Frequency and Percentage of the Gender Group

Variable	Frequency	Percentage (%)
Female	78	32.9
Male	159	67.1
TOTAL	237	100,00

Figure 5.3 Sample Compositions by Gender

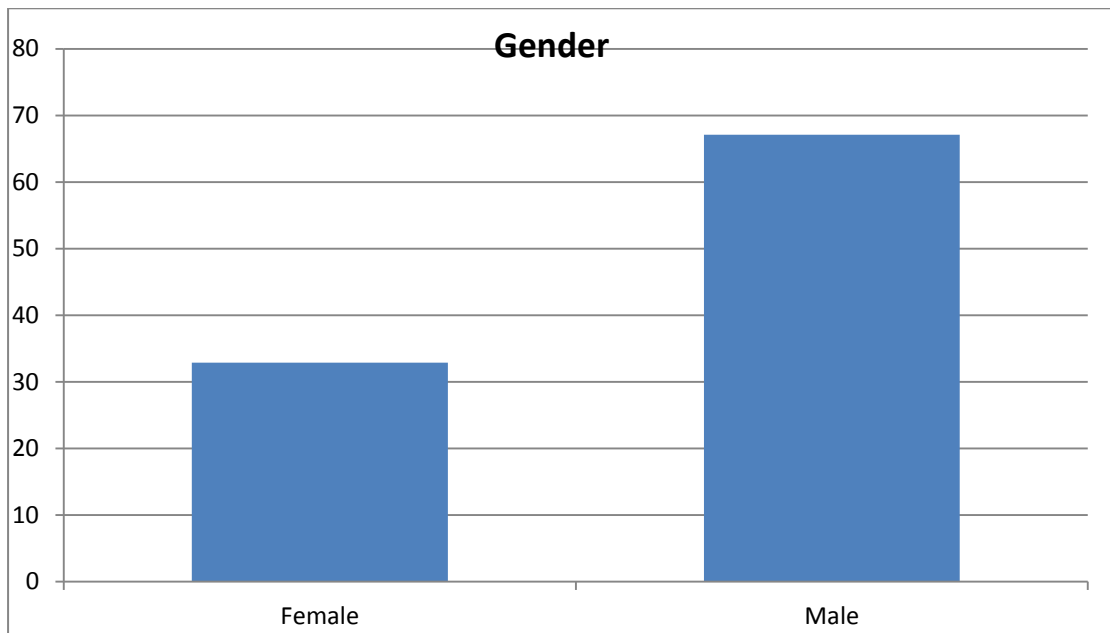


Table 5.3 and Figure 5.3 indicate that the 67.1% of the sample comprised of males, whilst 32.9% were female. There is an imbalance in gender because the sample population comprised predominantly of males.

Table 5.4 Frequency and Distribution of the Respondents' Department

Variable	Frequency	Distribution (%)
Administration	51	21.5
Engineering	88	37.1
Technical	73	30.8
Process	25	10.5
TOTAL	237	100,00

Figure 5.4 Sample Compositions by Departments

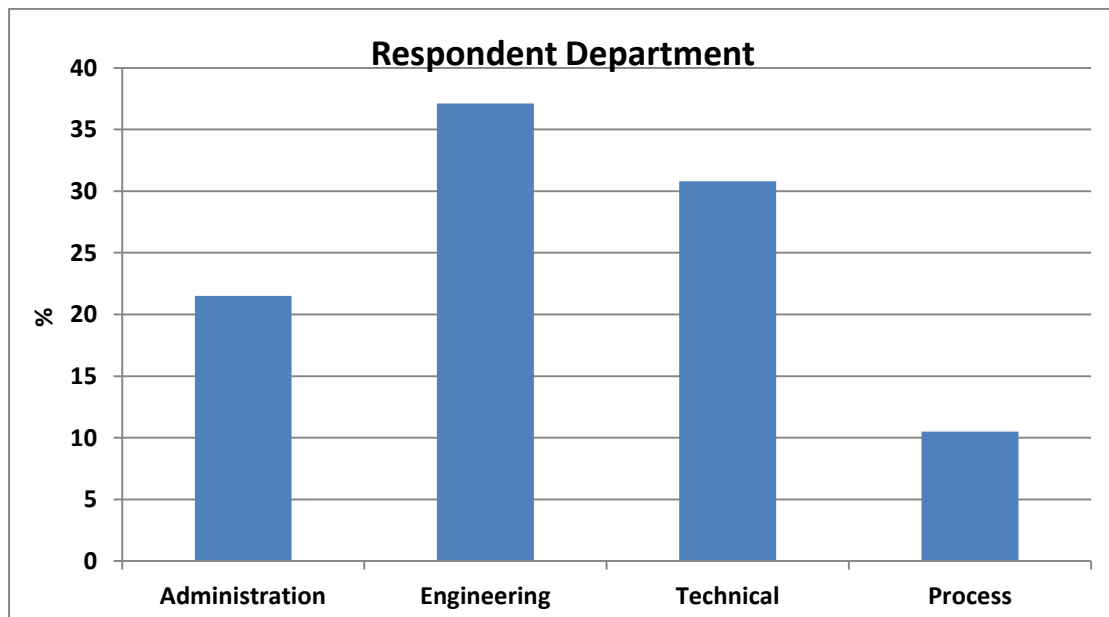


Table 5.4 and Figure 5.4 indicate that the majority of the respondents were from the Engineering Department (37.1%), followed by Technical Department with (30.8%) and followed by Process and Administration Departments with 10.3% and 21.5% respectively.

Table 5.5: Frequency and Distribution of the Education levels Groups

Variable	Frequency	Distribution (%)
Below grade 12	28	11.8
Grade 12 / Matric	93	39.2
Diploma	67	28.3
Degree	39	16.4
Other	8	3.38
Not available	2	0.84
TOTAL	237	100,00

Figure 5.5 Sample Compositions of Educational Levels

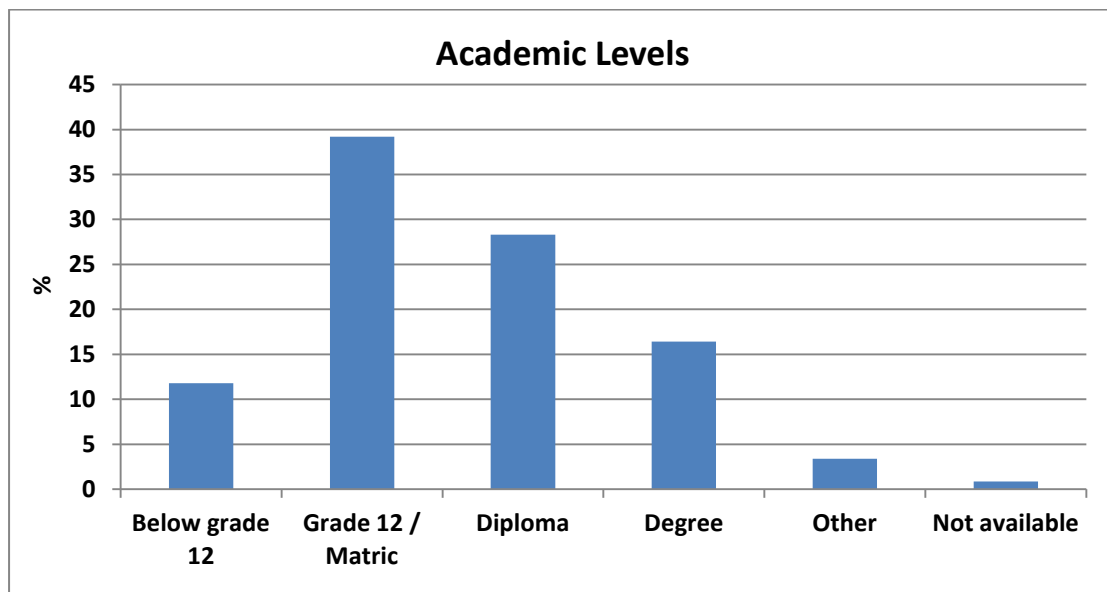


Table 5.5 and Figure 5.5 indicate that the majority of the respondents had completed a Matric/Grade 12 qualification (39.2%), followed by a Diploma qualification (28.3%) and 16.4% respondents had a Degree qualification; and 11.8% had below Matric/Grade 12 qualification while 3.38% had other qualifications.

Table 5.6 Frequency and Distribution of Length of Service

Variable	Frequency	Distribution (%)
Less than 2	13	5.48
Between 3 and 5	61	25.7
Between 6 and 10	46	19.4
More than 11	77	32.4
Not available	40	16.9
TOTAL	237	100,00

Figure 5.6 Sample Composition of the Length of Service

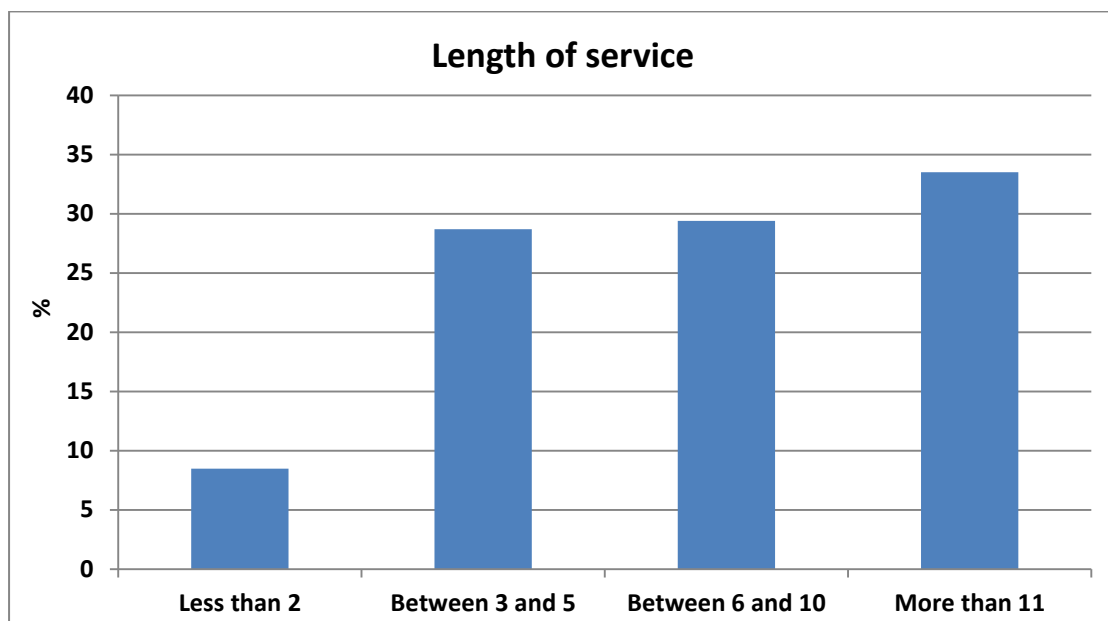


Table 5.6 and Figure 5.6 indicate that 32.4% of the respondents had more than 11 years of service in the industry, followed by respondents who had between 3 and 5 years (25.7%), while both those who have between 6 and 10 years as well as less than two years represented 19.4% and 5.48% respectively.

Table 5.7 Frequency and Distribution of Number of Subordinates

Variable	Frequency	Distribution (%)
Less than 2	15	6.33
Between 3 and 5	44	18.56
Between 6 and 10	97	40.9
More than 11	78	32.9
Not available	3	1.28
TOTAL	237	100,00

Figure 5.7 Sample Composition by Number of Subordinates

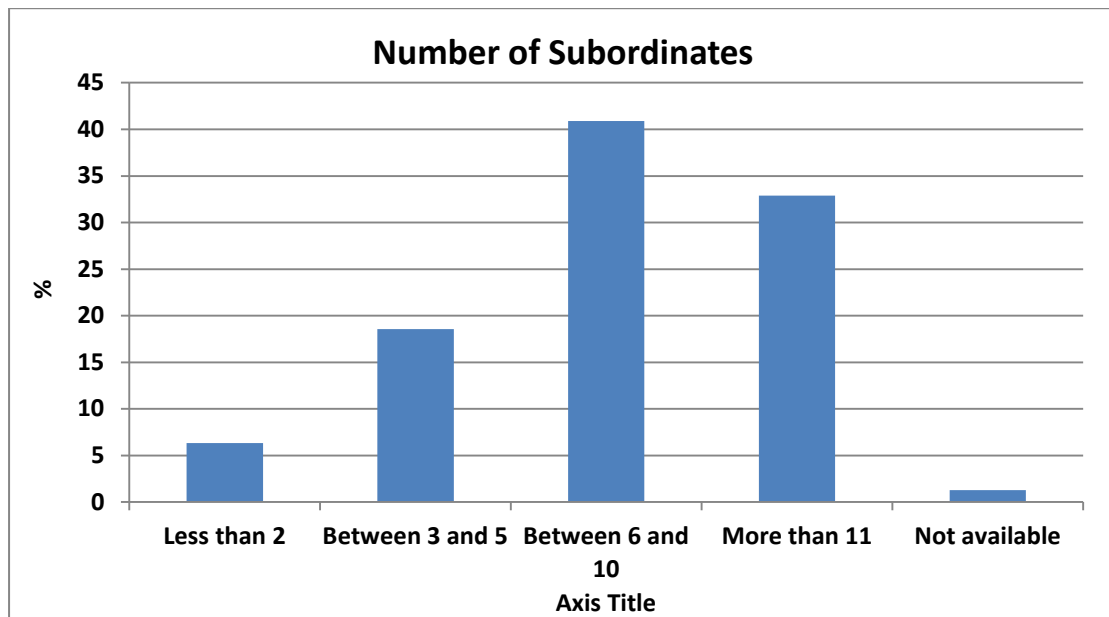


Table 5.7 and Figure 5.7 indicates that the respondents were mostly managers who had between 6 and 10 (40.9%) people reporting to them, followed by managers who had more than 11 people reporting to them (32.9%); 18.56% of the respondents had between 3 and 5 people reporting to them, and 6.33% of respondents had less than 2 people reporting to them.

5.3 Presentation

The table below indicates the means and standard deviations of quality of work life factors and organisational commitment.

TABLE 5.8 – Mean and standard deviation of quality of work life factors and organisational commitment

Variables	X	Standard Deviation
Job Satisfaction	38.750	6.588
Task characteristics	37.714	6.528
Organisational climate	36.461	8.843
Role behaviour	35.566	4.572
Future orientation	32.924	7.388
Utilisation	32.444	5.814
Remuneration	30.326	7.278
Organisational commitment	4.355	0.647

Table 5.8 indicates that the sample showed a preference for job satisfaction, task characteristics, organisational climate, role behaviour, future orientation and utilization and remuneration.

Table 5.9 – The correlation between quality of work life factors and organisational commitment

	ORGC	OCLIM	TC	JS	RB	REMUN	UTIL
Organisational climate (OCLI)	** 0.563						
Task Characteristics (TC)	** 0.679	** 0.496					
Job Satisfaction (JS)	** 0.650	** 0.709	** 0.493				
Role Behaviour (RB)	** 0.422	** 0.346	** 0.395	** 0.417			
Remuneration (REMUN)	** 0.394	** 0.400	** 0.390	** 0.159	** 0.155		
Utilisation (UTIL)	** 0.530	** 0.432	** 0.501	** 0.349	** 0.213	*** 0.161	
Future Orientation (FO)	** 0.796	** 0.576	** 0.657	** 0.385	** 0.385	** 0.205	** 0.513

** p < 0.01

The correlation between the quality of work life factors is indicated in Table 5.8. The significant correlations ($P < 0.01$) are described.

- 1) There was a positive correlation between the quality of work life (QWL) factor of work group processes and organisational climate ($r = 0.563$).
- 2) A positive correlation was found between task characteristics and work group processes ($r = 0.679$) and organisational climate ($r = 0.496$).
- 3) A positive correlation existed between the factor job satisfaction and work group processes ($r = 0.650$), organisational climate ($r = 0.709$) and task characteristic ($r = 0.493$).
- 4) There was a positive correlation between role behaviour and work group processes ($r = 0.422$), organisational climate ($r = 0.346$), task characteristic ($r = 0.395$), and general satisfaction output ($r = 0.417$).
- 5) The factor remuneration correlated positively with work group processes ($r = 0.394$), organisational climate ($r = 0.400$), task characteristic ($r = 0.390$), job satisfaction ($r = 0.159$) and role behaviour ($r = 0.155$).
- 6) A positive correlation was found between utilisation and work group processes ($r = 0.530$), organisational climate ($r = 0.453$), task characteristics ($r = 0.501$), job satisfaction ($r = 0.349$), role behaviour ($r = 0.213$) and remuneration ($r = 0.161$).
- 7) Future orientation correlated positively with work group processes ($r = 0.796$), organisational climate ($r = 0.576$), task characteristics ($r = 0.657$), job satisfaction ($r = 0.385$), role behaviour ($r = 0.385$), remuneration ($r = 0.205$) and utilisation ($r = 0.513$).

5.4 Testing the goodness of data

Table 5.10 - Cronbach's coefficient alpha

Factor	Name	Cronbach's alpha
1	Organisational climate	0.851
2	Job Satisfaction	0.751
3	Future orientation	0.720
4	Task characteristics	0.668
5	Remuneration	0.659
6	Utilization	0.486
7	Role behaviour	0.414

When performing Cronbach's coefficient alpha on the 7 factors in the questionnaire the internal consistency came under consideration.

Five factors, namely, organisational climate (0.851), job satisfaction (0.751), future orientation (0.720), task characteristics (0.668) and remuneration (0.659), met the internal consistency guideline of 0.6 established by Sekaran (1992).

However, the other two factors namely utilization (0.486) and role behaviour (0.414) did not meet the standard.'

The overall coefficient alpha of 0.525 was achieved, and this value approaches Sakaran's guideline of 0.6, therefore, this questionnaire can be considered to have a moderate reliability.

5.5 PEARSON'S (r) values

Table 5.11 – Pearson's values between quality of work life factors and organisational commitment

Quality of work life factors	r
Organisational climate	0.340**
Task characteristics	0.151**
Job Satisfaction output	0.254**
Role behaviour	0.274**
Utilisation	0.263**
Future orientation	0.378**
Remuneration	0.097

** p < 0.01

Table 5.11 indicates that there is a positive relationship at the 0.01 level of significance between the majority of the quality of work life factors (organisational climate, work group processes, supervisory leadership, task characteristics, general satisfaction output, role behaviour, utilization and future orientation) and organisational commitment.

There was no relationship between three quality of work life factors (psychosomatic welfare, hygiene and remuneration) and organisational commitment.

There was a negative relationship between general satisfaction with life and organisational commitment.

5.6 Analysis of variance (ANOVA)

Table 5.12 ANOVA – Biographical data and Organisational Commitment

Variable	F - value	P - value
Gender	4.682	0.001**
Age group	1.490	0.205*
Marital Status	1.027	0.393
Categories of Staff	0.087	0.617*
Level of Education	6.772	0.000*
Length of service	1.297	0.265
Span of control	0.961	0.442

The results above indicate that there is no significant difference in organisational commitment across different marital status groups. There is a significant difference in organisational commitment across length of service. Also, the results indicate there is no significant difference in organisational commitment across length of service. There is a significant difference in organisational commitment across supervisory span of control. On examining the scores in Table 5.9 it was found that there was no significant difference in organisational commitment across the supervisory span of control. There was a significant difference in organisational commitment across different levels of education. In addition, the results indicate that there was a significant difference in organisational commitment across different levels of education.

Table 5.13 – Biographical data and Quality of Work Life Factors

Variable	F - value	P - value
Gender	2.390	0.143**
Age group	0.976	0.429*
Marital Status	2.897	0.130
Categories of Staff	0.101	0.482*
Level of Education	5.932	0.000*
Length of service	1.065	0.387
Span of control	0.729	0.310

5.7 Multiple Regression Analysis

Hierarchical Multiple regression of Affective Commitment on the Independent Variable

Table 5.14 – Hierarchical Multiple Regression of Affective Commitment on the Independent Variable (N = 237)

Independent Variable	Dependent Variable Affective Commitment	
	β	t
Block 1 - Demographics		
$R^2 = 0.08$ ($F = 7.65, p < 0.000$)		
$R^2 = 0.08$		
Gender	0.06	0.94
Age	0.11	2.59
Education	0.21	5.12***
Marital Status	0.03	0.56
Experience	0.14	2.67*
Job position	0.02	0.23
Block 2		
$R^2 = 0.45$ ($F = 105.49, p < 0.000$)		
$R^2 = 0.43$ ($p < 0.01$)		
Organisation Climate	-0.13	3.47***
Task Characteristics	0.27	5.84***
Job Satisfaction	0.26	5.12***
Role behaviour	0.1	0.27
Utilization	0.04	0.36
Future orientation	0.23	4.78***
Remuneration	0.29	5.96***

Table 5.15 – Hierarchical Multiple Regression of Continuance Commitment on the Independent Variable (N = 237)

Independent Variable	Dependent Variable Continuance Commitment	
	β	t
Block 1 - Demographics		
<i>R² = 0.12 (F = 12.32, p<0.000)</i>		
<i>R² = 0.13 (p<0.05)</i>		
Gender	0.05	0.78
Age	0.13	2.58*
Education	0.27	6.60***
Marital Status	0.04	0.64
Experience	0.13	2.69*
Job position	0.04	0.81
Block 2		
<i>R² = 0.42 (F = 86.10, p<0.000)</i>		
<i>R² = 0.42 (p<0.000)</i>		
Organisation Climate	-0.15	-4.27***
Task Characteristics	0.29	6.48***
Job Satisfaction	0.05	1.08
Role behaviour	0.08	0.34
Utilization	0.02	0.21
Future orientation	0.22	5.12***
Remuneration	0.28	7.68***

Table 5.16 – Hierarchical Multiple Regression of Normative Commitment on the Independent Variable (N = 237)

Independent Variable	Dependent Variable	
	Normative Commitment	
	β eta	t
Block 1 - Demographics		
<i>R² = 0.02 (F = 1.51)</i>		
<i>R² = 0.02</i>		
Gender	0.00	0.06
Age	0.14	2.71**
Education	0.14	2.83**
Marital Status	0.02	0.41
Experience	0.08	0.91
Job position	0.00	0.20
Block 2		
<i>R² = 0.17 (F = 105.49, p<0.000)</i>		
<i>R² = 0.17(p<0.01)</i>		
Organisation Climate	-0.13	3.47***
Task Characteristics	0.27	5.84***
Job Satisfaction	0.05	1.08
Role behaviour	0.08	0.34
Utilization	0.02	0.21
Future orientation	0.23	4.78***
Remuneration	0.29	5.96***

The results from the hierarchical multiple regression (Table 5.15) indicate that, except for age ($\beta = 0.11$, $p < 0.05$), education ($\beta = 0.23$, $p < 0.000$) and experience ($\beta = 0.14$) demographics variables do not have an impact on affective commitment.

The results also indicate that age ($\beta = 0.11$, $p < 0.05$) and education ($\beta = 0.27$, $p < 0.000$) experience ($\beta = 0.13$, $p < 0.05$) had an impact on continuance commitment. Similarly, age ($\beta = 0.14$, $p < 0.001$), education ($\beta = 0.14$, $p < 0.05$) appeared to contribute significantly to normative commitment.

With regards to consequences of the organisational commitment are concerned, the results indicated that all the three dimension of organisational commitment were negatively related to organisational climate. Beta value for the organisational climate was -0.13 for affective commitment, 0.015 for continuance commitment, and -0.13 for normative commitment. Affective commitment was significantly predicted by task characteristics ($\beta = 0.27$, $p < 0.000$), job satisfaction ($\beta = 0.17$, $p < 0.000$), role behaviour ($\beta = 0.37$, $p < 0.000$), and procedural justice ($\beta = 0.18$, $p < 0.001$).

Results in Table 5.16 indicate that continuance commitment was also positively related to job satisfaction ($\beta = 30$, $p < 0.000$), OCB-O ($\beta = 0.21$, $p < 0.000$), OCB-H ($\beta = 0.23$, $p < 0.000$), and procedural justice ($\beta = 0.28$, $p < 0.28$, $p < 0.000$). Finally, looking at Table 5.9, normative commitment was positively related to job satisfaction ($\beta = 0.38$, $p < 0.000$), but this relationship is not significant for OCB-O ($\beta = 0.04$, n.s.), and OCB-H ($\beta = 0.01$, n.s.)

To ensure that multi-collinearity was not a problem in regression analysis, variance inflation factor (VIF) for each regression coefficient was calculated. The variance inflation factor (VIF) provides information on the extent to which non orthogonality among independent variables inflates standard errors. The variance factor ranges from a low of 1.66 to a high of 2.1, well below the cut off level of 10 recommended by Nelson and Quick (2005). This additional analysis suggested that multi-collinearity was not likely to be a threat to the substantive conclusions drawn from the parameter estimates.

5.8 Factor analysis

A principal component analysis was used to extract initial factors and resulted in 23 initial factors.

The principal factor analysis was then performed using the orthogonal varimax rotation. The data was collapsed in order to obtain only significant loadings and ten factors with latent roots greater than unity were extracted from the rotated factor loading matrix. The factor matrix and the percentage of total variance explained by each factor are reflected in Table 5.15. Only items with loading greater than 0.3 were regarded as being significant (Boeyens and De Jager, 2005). Furthermore, when items were significantly loaded on more than one factor only that with the highest value was indicated. The significant loadings are highlighted in Table 5.17.

Table 5.17 - FACTOR LOADING FOR ORTHOGONAL VARIMAX ROTATION

ITEM	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	H ²
2	0.119	0.737	0.089	0.001	0.109	-0.012	0.090	0.001	0.011	0.008	0.585
4	-0.014	0.003	0.482	0.129	0.152	0.065	0.043	-0.132	0.153	0.018	0.319
5	0.136	0.061	0.080	0.203	0.747	0.056	-0.039	0.053	-0.010	0.031	0.636
8	0.109	0.193	0.472	0.100	0.096	0.186	0.036	0.061	0.226	-0.107	0.393
11	0.043	0.142	0.162	0.450	0.291	0.097	-0.016	0.066	-0.033	-0.089	0.358
12	-0.012	0.160	0.440	0.099	0.098	-0.058	-0.019	-0.090	0.301	-0.019	0.342
13	0.174	0.106	0.008	0.174	0.522	0.114	-0.243	0.002	0.143	-0.123	0.451
14	0.112	0.761	0.035	0.042	0.038	-0.023	-0.038	0.014	0.128	-0.041	0.617
17	0.105	0.680	0.009	0.081	0.068	-0.072	-0.008	-0.107	0.201	-0.008	0.542
18	-0.051	0.074	-0.008	0.397	0.063	0.214	-0.274	-0.193	-0.125	0.209	0.387
22	0.047	0.124	0.103	-0.024	0.143	-0.014	0.018	-0.066	0.222	0.532	0.386
25	-0.085	-0.141	-0.144	0.201	-0.071	-0.090	-0.013	-0.153	0.047	0.452	0.331
26	-0.117	0.086	0.491	-0.062	-0.048	0.334	0.060	-0.106	-0.097	-0.066	0.408
27	-0.090	-0.269	-0.073	-0.133	-0.184	-0.169	0.132	0.046	0.059	0.373	0.328
29	0.159	0.107	0.025	0.078	0.794	0.074	-0.059	0.044	-0.100	0.052	0.697
31	0.128	0.724	0.142	0.129	0.131	0.198	-0.044	0.075	-0.067	0.035	0.647
34	-0.038	0.006	0.174	-0.161	-0.678	0.013	0.053	0.029	-0.106	-0.100	0.542

ITEM	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	H ²
36	0.033	-0.050	0.657	0.011	0.030	-0.006	0.009	0.024	-0.065	0.041	0.443
39	0.146	0.598	0.292	0.022	0.093	0.054	-0.068	0.253	0.049	-0.053	0.550
42	0.077	0.209	0.464	0.104	-0.084	0.127	-0.013	-0.045	-0.104	0.184	0.342
44	0.225	0.163	0.100	0.495	0.288	0.036	-0.011	-0.021	-0.078	-0.170	0.452
45	-0.082	0.011	-0.064	-0.300	-0.041	-0.121	0.120	0.075	0.113	0.364	0.283
46	0.173	0.198	0.497	0.167	0.010	0.003	-0.036	0.221	-0.153	-0.070	0.423
48	0.212	0.164	0.373	-0.140	0.026	-0.099	-0.068	0.145	0.183	0.064	0.304
49	0.032	-0.033	-0.016	0.012	0.201	0.096	0.012	0.550	0.092	-0.158	0.388
50	0.050	0.155	0.263	-0.045	-0.005	0.026	-0.002	-0.104	0.017	0.429	0.294
51	0.167	0.004	0.622	0.020	-0.175	-0.074	-0.041	0.119	-0.015	0.096	0.490
53	-0.115	-0.292	-0.102	-0.323	-0.046	0.093	0.023	0.071	0.046	0.252	0.295
54	0.158	0.141	0.559	0.035	-0.157	0.003	-0.041	0.187	-0.020	-0.032	0.421
56	0.193	0.250	0.390	0.334	0.012	-0.050	0.020	0.106	-0.218	-0.082	0.432
57	0.288	-0.001	0.585	0.268	-0.055	-0.014	-0.075	-0.105	-0.010	-0.021	0.518
59	0.130	0.164	0.575	0.054	0.029	-0.000	-0.053	0.270	0.087	-0.012	0.462
60	-0.004	-0.390	-0.101	-0.023	0.033	0.031	0.077	-0.462	0.034	0.122	0.400
63	0.140	0.084	-0.038	0.120	0.844	0.014	-0.065	0.091	-0.018	-0.042	0.770
65	0.020	-0.087	-0.027	0.604	-0.047	0.169	-0.126	-0.042	0.085	-0.106	0.441

ITEM	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	H ²
66	-0.018	0.030	0.081	0.513	0.049	0.199	-0.087	0.077	0.003	0.018	0.326
68	0.164	0.269	0.199	0.479	0.028	0.074	-0.207	0.014	0.117	0.016	0.432
69	-0.026	-0.111	-0.010	-0.079	0.059	0.078	0.205	-0.214	0.010	0.414	0.288
71	0.251	0.014	-0.135	0.277	0.217	0.325	-0.041	-0.179	0.029	-0.165	0.373
72	0.223	0.108	-0.024	-0.003	0.744	0.087	0.002	0.132	0.085	-0.070	0.652
74	0.488	0.276	0.186	0.180	0.196	0.137	-0.015	0.382	0.032	-0.084	0.593
75	0.015	0.154	0.151	0.484	0.212	0.227	-0.023	0.218	-0.105	-0.055	0.440
76	0.190	0.183	0.129	0.352	0.175	0.022	0.013	0.245	-0.015	0.084	0.309
77	0.286	-0.030	-0.028	0.400	0.288	0.133	-0.089	0.229	0.195	-0.017	0.442
78	0.341	0.127	0.240	0.227	0.169	0.129	0.056	0.369	0.068	-0.062	0.434
84	0.173	-0.046	0.080	-0.028	-0.002	-0.018	-0.030	0.085	-0.249	0.487	0.347
86	0.295	0.748	0.132	0.130	0.024	0.123	0.038	0.025	0.096	0.020	0.710
87	0.341	0.536	0.250	0.174	0.094	0.065	-0.015	0.221	-0.109	-0.023	0.571
88	0.187	0.205	0.130	0.540	0.189	0.057	-0.076	0.125	0.021	0.091	0.455
89	0.016	0.093	0.023	0.006	0.094	0.060	0.130	-0.007	0.750	0.145	0.622
90	-0.052	0.139	-0.053	0.040	0.028	0.166	0.024	0.107	0.753	0.030	0.635
93	0.097	-0.007	0.030	0.628	0.109	0.185	-0.106	0.016	0.126	-0.014	0.478
94	0.136	0.108	0.260	0.289	-0.092	0.239	-0.144	0.440	0.065	0.017	0.466

ITEM	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	H ²
96	0.147	-0.095	0.159	0.275	0.076	0.050	-0.034	0.207	0.256	-0.192	0.286
97	0.201	0.387	0.088	0.048	-0.199	0.077	-0.048	0.150	0.409	-0.052	0.440
98	0.057	0.205	0.259	-0.006	0.107	0.495	0.046	0.219	0.094	-0.125	0.444
99	-0.084	-0.013	0.026	-0.174	-0.110	-0.154	0.395	0.142	0.056	0.285	0.335
100	0.267	0.392	0.295	0.071	0.205	0.149	-0.094	0.334	0.126	-0.010	0.518
101	0.128	0.115	0.246	0.203	0.176	0.397	-0.139	0.444	0.129	0.007	0.553
102	0.086	0.021	-0.082	0.174	0.079	0.680	-0.137	0.256	0.022	0.102	0.608
103	0.231	0.086	0.126	0.225	0.151	0.454	-0.106	0.058	0.065	-0.273	0.449
104	0.013	0.009	0.011	-0.257	-0.049	-0.016	0.532	-0.100	-0.057	0.164	0.392
105	0.013	-0.004	-0.064	-0.172	0.026	-0.015	0.461	-0.105	0.185	-0.114	0.305
106	0.009	0.032	0.041	-0.166	-0.084	-0.003	0.718	-0.221	0.004	-0.144	0.621
107	0.018	0.032	0.039	-0.102	0.018	0.084	0.690	-0.113	-0.113	0.018	0.522
108	0.079	-0.055	-0.001	0.177	-0.141	-0.162	0.589	0.112	0.185	0.038	0.481
110	0.109	-0.036	0.329	0.059	-0.009	0.509	-0.171	-0.037	0.137	-0.170	0.462
111	-0.026	-0.064	-0.105	0.184	0.004	-0.253	0.524	0.258	0.106	0.158	0.465
112	0.135	0.112	0.150	0.184	0.039	0.455	-0.255	0.056	0.104	-0.059	0.378
113	0.001	-0.165	-0.192	0.029	-0.023	-0.087	0.419	-0.031	-0.072	0.369	0.391
114	0.048	-0.056	0.105	0.042	0.063	0.636	-0.057	-0.281	-0.017	-0.049	0.512

ITEM	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	H ²
115	-0.034	0.035	-0.011	-0.093	-0.089	-0.122	0.693	0.066	-0.033	0.088	0.528
116	0.040	0.003	-0.056	0.344	-0.031	0.589	-0.122	0.241	0.058	0.006	0.548
117	0.130	-0.018	-0.087	0.101	0.036	0.613	-0.015	-0.024	-0.030	-0.023	0.414
118	0.125	0.051	-0.051	0.223	-0.004	0.669	0.027	0.138	0.104	0.113	0.582
119	0.555	0.184	0.125	0.037	0.133	0.278	0.093	0.029	-0.039	0.047	0.467
120	0.606	0.166	0.115	0.200	0.099	0.023	0.028	-0.164	0.036	0.170	0.516
121	0.520	0.100	0.212	-0.037	-0.030	0.032	0.049	0.184	0.067	-0.027	0.370
122	0.510	0.045	0.161	0.153	0.130	0.271	-0.023	0.020	-0.010	0.019	0.403
123	0.792	0.106	0.119	0.028	0.054	0.023	-0.057	0.126	-0.005	-0.029	0.677
124	0.766	0.164	0.083	0.092	0.093	0.024	0.021	0.116	-0.071	0.003	0.657
125	0.548	0.033	0.118	0.051	0.140	0.104	-0.022	0.023	0.129	-0.179	0.398
126	0.701	0.108	0.000	0.060	0.051	-0.024	-0.017	0.111	0.077	-0.007	0.529
127	0.586	0.119	-0.050	0.181	0.241	0.175	-0.081	-0.029	-0.131	0.095	0.502
128	0.602	0.145	0.074	-0.006	0.108	0.100	0.024	-0.261	-0.056	-0.002	0.482
V	5.690	4.993	4.785	4.403	4.326	4.321	3.527	2.798	2.325	2.321	39, 489
VP	6.694	5.875	5.629	5.180	5.090	5.084	4.149	3.291	2.735	2.731	46. 458

Eight items (74, 119,120, 121, 122, 123, 124, 125,126, 127, 128) have high loadings on Factor 1 which represents 6.69% of the total variance. Factor 1 can be described as Organisational Climate.

Factor 2 accounts for 5.88% of the total variance and is made up of items 2, 14, 17, 31, 39, 86, 87, 100. Items in this factor relate to the guideline provided by and the task characteristics.

Factor 3 loaded highest on factors related to job satisfaction. Thirteen items (4, 8, 12, 26, 36, 42, 46, 48, 51, 54, 56, 57, 59) accounted for 5.63% of the total variance.

Twelve items (11, 18, 44, 53, 65, 66, 68, 75, 76, 77, 88, 93) had high loadings on Factor 4 and accounts for 5,18% of the total variance. This factor can be described as role behaviour.

Factor 5 consists of 6 items (5, 13, 29, 34, 63, 72) and makes up 5.09% of the variance. This factor is concerned with the fairness and sufficiency of remuneration.

Ten items (71, 98, 102, 103, 110, 112,114, 116, 117, 118) had high loadings on Factor 6, which reflect 5, 08% of the total variance. Items on this factor related to utilisation.

Factor 7, which accounts for 4, 15% of the total variance, was made up of nine items (99, 104, 105, 106, 107, 108, 111, 113 and 115). This factor is concerned with the future orientation.

Items 49, 60, 78, 94 and 101 have high loadings on factor 8 which makes up 3.29% of the total variance. This factor deals with an individual's positive or negative experience in the organisation and could be described as organisational climate.

The extraction of 7 factors together reflects 46.

5.8 Summary

The results of the study were presented in this Chapter. The biological variables of the respondents were presented in both the tabular and graphical format. The overall coefficient alpha was found to be 0.525, and the questionnaire was deemed to be moderately reliable.

The Pearson's value indicated that there was a positive relationship at 0.01 level of significance between the majority of the quality of work factors and the organisational commitment. The Analysis of variance (ANOVA) indicated that there was no significant difference in organizational commitment across marital status group. There was however a significant difference in organizational commitment across length of service. There was a significant difference in organizational commitment across supervisory span of control.

The results from the hierarchical multiple regression indicated that with the exception of age, education and experience, all other demographics variables do not have an impact on affective commitment.

The results also indicated that age, education and experience had an impact on continuance commitment. Similarly, age and education appeared to contribute significantly to normative commitment.

Also, all three dimensions of organisational commitment were negatively related to organisational climate. Continuance commitment was also positively related to job satisfaction and procedural justice. Finally, normative commitment was found to be positively related to job satisfaction.

CHAPTER 6

DISCUSSION OF RESULTS

6.1 Introduction

The principal objective of the investigation was to establish whether a positive relationship exists between quality of work life and organisational commitment. This Chapter will discuss the results of the study, which were presented in the previous Chapter.

The study will look at each of the quality of work life factors, and organisational commitment. The study will also look at the biographical variables and organisational commitment.

6.2 Discussion

6.2.1 Organisational climate and organisational commitment

A significant positive relationship was found to exist between organisational climate and organisational commitment. Organisational climate refers to the conditions under which an individual operates. It is the individual's positive or negative experiences in the organisation.

This result is reinforced by Mowday, Porter and Steers (1982) who concluded that commitment of employees is increased when they perceive the organisation as possessing well-defined goals and well-organised work activities. The positive experience of individuals also leads to an increase in commitment. Buchanan *et al.*, (1998) and Lee (2000) found that commitment is related to the extent to which companies are viewed in relation to looking after the well-being of employees.

According to Jenks (1999), organisational climate consists of a number of different factors (defined goals, good communication, proper handling of grievances) and includes an employee's reaction to these factors either in a positive or negative fashion. As each organisation is unique, it creates a different climate. In a positive climate, these factors combine to produce an environment of higher motivation and mutual support in achieving

organisational goals which in turn will lead to an increase in commitment. A negative climate produces a lack of inspirational leadership and an unclear understanding of organisational goals which could cause a decrease in commitment.

This dichotomy can lead to personally-competitive and destructive behaviour among employees and general resentment of the organisation.

6.2.2 Task characteristics and organisational commitment

Task characteristics refer to work that is well planned, clearly defined, meaningful and significant. Task characteristics correlated positively with organisational commitment. The positive correlation signifies that the employees found their jobs to be pleasant, well planned, interdependent and meaningful.

This finding is supported by Wyatt and Chay (2001) who found that commitment increased when employees were allowed to participate actively in decision making. Participative decision making is based on the theory that worker motivation, satisfaction, morale, creativity and other favourable characteristics can be increased when employees are allowed to participate in making decisions that are relevant to their jobs (Saal and Knight, 2002). Another aspect of task characteristic that has been found to positively relate to organisational commitment is job scope. Stevens, Bayer and Trice (2004) concluded that when jobs are meaningful, challenging and have well defined goals, they tend to increase commitment.

Another task characteristic that can increase organisational commitment is task independence. Rohari, Fauziah and Illias, (2004) maintain that felt responsibility increases among individuals when tasks are interdependent, that is, when employees depend upon each other to carry out their duties, therefore, managers need to group jobs that are interdependent while at the same time being meaningful, interesting and well planned.

6.2.3 Job Satisfaction and organisational commitment

The study found that there was a positive relationship between job satisfaction and organisational commitment. Job Satisfaction refers to an individual's satisfaction with work as a whole.

The results indicate that there was positive interaction between the individual and the organisation, work groups and formal leadership. These results are consistent with other studies. According to Lawler (2000) mentally-challenging jobs, equitable awards, supportive working conditions (pleasant working conditions, satisfaction with superiors and colleagues) are important determinants of job satisfaction and organisational commitment. These favourable conditions reduce the propensity for the employee to leave as satisfaction is one of the important needs of workers.

Job involvement is another aspect which can influence job satisfaction and ultimately organisational commitment. Gerbing and Anderson (2007) maintain that individuals differ in the extent to which work is a central life interest; they actively participate in work, they perceive work as central to self-esteem and perceive work as consistent with self-concept. Accordingly people who are not involved in their work cannot be expected to realise the same satisfaction and commitment as those who are involved.

Finally, the perceived equity of the outcome in terms of what the employees consider a fair reward also affects commitment. If the outcomes are perceived to be unfair in relation to those of others in similar jobs, the employee will experience job dissatisfaction and will seek means to restore the equity. This inevitably leads to the employee seeking alternate jobs with a subsequent decrease in organisational commitment.

It is therefore apparent that the general satisfaction an individual obtains from the job is crucial for the development of organisational commitment.

6.2.4 Role behaviour and organisational commitment

The study found a positive relationship between organisational commitment and role behaviour. Role behaviour is concerned with the effects of unreasonable demands, role conflict and ambiguity, feedback and communication on the behaviour of individuals.

The positive correlation signifies that the employees found their work reasonably demanding, experienced little or no conflict and ambiguity and clear lines of communication. These results are in agreement with research conducted by Netemeyer, Burton and Johnston (2001) who concluded that “role conflict and role ambiguity may directly influence the propensity to leave an organisation through other constructs such as job satisfaction or organisational commitment”. Role conflict and role ambiguity, as related to commitment, indicate that a lack of tension and ambiguity in the performance of organisational roles can be considered an organisational asset (Netemeyer et al, 1990). Lothams (2002) maintains that the existence of role tension and uncertainty means increased attractiveness to extra organisational alternates and this leads to decreased commitment. These findings are corroborated by Bedeian and Armenakis (2007), Dougherty and Welsh (2002), however, mixed results emerged from a study carried out by Sherman (1999).

Findings related to organisational commitment and role behaviour seem obvious as employees seek jobs that are free from ambiguity and tension. Jobs that are ambiguous give employees no direction and therefore cannot be expected to positively influence organisational commitment.

6.2.5 Utilization and organisational commitment

The results indicate that there is a positive relationship between utilization and organisational commitment. Utilization refers to the ability of the organisation to use an individual’s potential to the fullest. Employees in the sample believe that the organisations are utilising their potential as the result indicates. The results are consistent with previous research. Stevens (2002) found that commitment would be increased as long as the workers had challenging job assignments. According to Gerbing and Anderson (2007), the employees’

level of commitment is related to perceptions of congruence between the organisation's goals and the extent to which their (employees) personal goals will be attained. Robbins (2003) also believes that employees prefer jobs that are challenging and where they could use their skills.

Furthermore, Mowday *et al.*, (1999) found that the highest levels of commitment may be found among employees who brought a high need for achievement to the job and who subsequently perceived their work as challenging.

It is therefore important that unrealistic expectations are not given to employees during the recruitment stage as this could lead to a decrease in commitment if employees expectations (challenging jobs, continuous training) are not met.

6.2.6 Future orientation and organisational commitment

Organisational commitment correlated positively with future orientation. Future orientation is concerned with the ability of the company to provide career and advancement opportunities. The positive correlation signifies that the organisation provide the ideal climate and training opportunities for the employees to be promoted. This is evident from the responses of the sample.

Research evidence suggests that the availability of alternate jobs may interact with both the circumstances surrounding job choice and the sufficiency of extrinsic rewards provided by the company in influencing commitment (Mowday *et al.*, 1998).

Commitment levels can also be influenced by characteristics of other companies in which employees may be engaged, since satisfaction with the group is dependent on the individual's evaluations of that group and their evaluation of alternate groups that they might join. In general, the availability of attractive alternate job opportunities should result in less positive attitudes toward the job and organisation (Rusbult and Farrell, 2002).

According to Cascio (2003), promoted employees assume greater responsibility in return for higher pay, benefits and privileges. Promotions also have a psychological effect and could increase commitment as they help to satisfy needs for security, belonging and personal growth.

For personal goals to develop, it is imperative that companies determine the individual and organisational needs so as to assist the employee climb the corporate ladder. This process could be determined at an early stage as Johnson (2001) points out that manpower planning as part of the strategic process provides an opportunity to determine current and future manpower requirements. This in turn, links into the succession planning process which provides an opportunity to develop individuals with potential for future positions. When organisations provide sufficient training and noticeable room for advancement, this reduces the likelihood of the employees accepting alternate employment thereby increasing their commitment.

6.2.7 Remuneration and organisational commitment

Remuneration was found to be unrelated to commitment. The results are in line with other studies. According to Mowday *et al.*, (1998) remuneration per se will have little effect on the level of commitment. This is further explained by Wyatt and Chay (2001) who found that the equity of remuneration is a more important determinant of organisational commitment than level of pay. Equity is based on fairness, that is, comparison between two individuals. Martocchio (2006) goes on to explain that the basic proposition of equity theory is that people decide if they are being rewarded equitably by comparing their inputs and outcome of another person. If the ratios are equal, the rewards should be considered equal.

Organ and Bateman (2006) support the views of Wyatt and Chay (2001). They believe that someone with chronic feelings about pay inequity will not be disposed to perform discretionary, spontaneous acts of co-operation, helping others, or doing little extras that one is not forced to do. The results of such a disposition on the part of a large number of workers are a loss of cohesion and a reduction in commitment.

6.3 – Quality of work life factors explaining the variance in organisational commitment.

The quality of work life factors (organisational climate, task characteristics, job satisfaction, role behaviour, utilization, future orientation and remuneration) was found to collectively explain the variance in organisational commitment.

The factors with the significant correlation (organisational climate, task characteristics, job satisfaction, role behaviour, utilization and future orientation) have a greater chance of predicting organisational commitment.

On the other hand, the influence of remuneration predicting organisational commitment appears to be minimal due to the low correlation.

6.4 Biographical variables and organisational commitment

6.4.1 Age

The present study showed no significant difference in organisational commitment across different age groups. Studies conducted by Angle and Perry (1993) and Morris and Sherman (1981) found that commitment and age are positively related. Conflicting findings emerged from studies by Hall and Schneider (1998) and Lau (2000).

The fact that there was no significant difference means that the organisations were able to meet the important aspects that determine commitment across the various age groups.

The present economic situation could be a reason for the difference in commitment that was found between the results of the present study and previous ones. Due to the threat of retrenchment and unemployment, employees are happy to be employed thereby creating a sense of commitment.

6.4.2 Marital Status

The present study showed that there was no significant difference in organisational commitment across the different marital status groups. In

research carried out by Hrebiniak and Alutto (1997), the results of which were not strong enough to be inconclusive, they found that marital status could have an effect on organisational commitment. Due to the costs involved in leaving an organisation, married employees usually prefer to remain.

It is apparent that the decision of married individuals to stay may also be influenced by various other factors (promotion opportunities, challenging jobs). These factors are likely to induce more commitment.

6.4.3 Length of service

The results showed that there was no significant difference in organisational commitment due to the length of service.

Hall and Schneider (1998) and Lau (2000) have found that length of service was not a direct correlate of commitment, whereas Angle and Perry (1999) and Morris and Sherman (1998) concluded that length of service was positively related to commitment. The reason for this conflicting finding was explained by Salancik (1999). He suggests that interpreting relationship between organisational commitment and length of service is difficult because many factors (such as age) may covary with the latter.

The findings of the present study support those of Hall and Schneider (1998) and Lawler (2000) for the following reasons:

Firstly, if individuals do not hold challenging jobs or are given unrealistic job previews during recruitment, they are likely to be less committed and leave the organisation as soon as opportunities arise elsewhere.

Secondly, Fukami and Larson (2001) found that with increasing length of service employees accumulate organisational resources (pension or profit sharing schemes) and this binds them to the company.

6.4.4 Span of control

This study found that there was no significant difference in organisational commitment across supervisory span of control. This result is consistent with those of Morris (2001) and Stevens *et al.*, (2004) who found that span of control was unrelated to organisational commitment. This is primarily due to the fact that span of control is concerned with the tightness of control and supervision in any organisation.

Therefore, the commitment of an employee depends on the number of subordinates, the complexity of the task and the amount of participation on their part that is deemed desirable. As the number of subordinates does not affect the commitment level it would therefore seem that the latter two factors could have an influencing effect.

6.4.5 Levels of Education

The present study showed that there was a significant difference in organisational commitment across different levels of education.

Stevens *et al.*, (1998) and Lawler (2000) found that education was linked to organisational commitment. These findings have been supported by Angle and Perry (2003) who state that such attributes as age, tenure and educational level have been demonstrated to be linked to organisational commitment.

Education could influence organisational commitment as the higher the education level, the greater is the expectation of the individual. Individuals expect to be rewarded for their higher education. Furthermore, Angle and Perry (2003) maintain that increasing levels of education reduce the chances of individuals obtaining desirable alternative jobs and this restricts the individuals to their present organisation. Whether education is linked to commitment depends on the ability of the organisation to meet the career aspirations of the employees.

6.5 Chapter summary

The study showed that there is a significant relationship between some quality of work factors (organisational climate, task characteristics, job satisfaction, role behaviour, utilization and future orientation) and organisational commitment.

No relationship was found between remuneration and organisational commitment.

There was no significant difference in organisational commitment across the biographical variables of marital status, age, length of service and span of control. There was, however, a significant difference in organisational commitment across different levels of education.

CHAPTER 7

DEVELOPMENT OF THE MODEL

7.1 Introduction

After evaluating all variables that impacted on Organisational Commitment, organisational climate, task characteristics, job satisfaction, role behaviour, utilization, future orientation and remuneration, there were three dimensions of Organisational Commitment that were considered i.e. affective, continuance and normative. A model was developed for each Organisational commitment dimension.

7.2 Discussion

7.2.1 Null Model

An assumption that none of the variables was related to each other was initially used to develop a null model. This model acted as a baseline for other models that were subsequently developed.

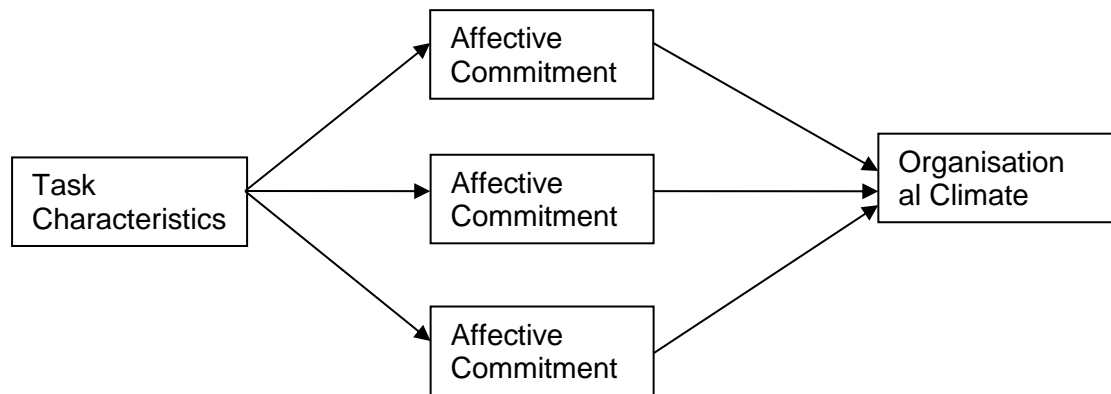


Figure 7.1 – (Model – 1) Null model

The above model proposes that task characteristics affect organisational climate within the working environment through an affective, continuance and normative commitment. Meyer and Allen's (1998) proposed a model of multi-dimensional commitment and hence this model is selected as one of the main theoretical models of interest. The model depicts organisational commitment as a mediating variable task characteristics and organisational climate. Previous studies conducted on organisational commitment that have used

structural models have also reported that both affective and normative commitment mediates the relationship between task characteristics and organisational climate (Clugston, 2006; Netemeyer, Burton & Johnston, 2001; Schaubroeck, Cotton & Jennings, 2001). Mathieu and Zajac (2001) found that task characteristics were related to both affective and continuance commitment.

Similar findings were also reported by William, Bower and Newton (2004), Hackett *et al.*, (2004) and Konovsky and Cropanzano (2006). Studies within organisational behaviour have also investigated the relationship between multi-dimensional commitment and organisational climate. For example, Mathieu and Zajac (2001) in a meta-analysis, reported that both affective and continuance commitment had a negative impact on organisational climate.

Subsequent research by Cohen (1993), Hackett *et al.*, (2004) and Meyer *et al.*, (2003) reported that affective and continuance commitment had a negative effect on organisational climate. Since Meyer and Allen (2003) proposed their three-component model of commitment, over 60 studies have been published utilizing their multi-dimensional paradigm, however, no empirical study, so far, has estimated the effects of all three dimensions of commitment on task characteristics and organisational climate.

Model 1 therefore tests the hypothesis stating that affective, continuance and normative commitment mediates the relationship between task characteristics and organisational climate.

7.2.2 Task Characteristics and Organisational Climate

The model (Model 2) specifies an extension of Model 1 which predicts a direct link between task characteristics and organisational climate.

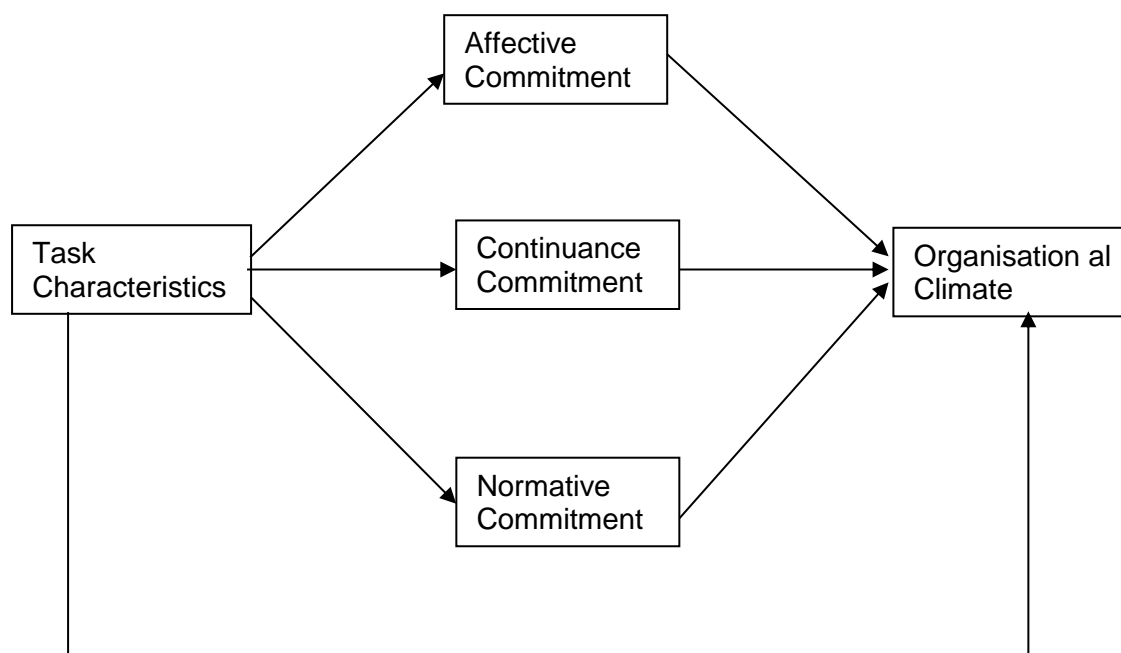


Figure 7.2 – (Model 2) Task Characteristics and Organisational Climate

Model 2 proposes a competing hypothesis, that is, affective, continuance and normative commitment only partially relate to task characteristics and organisational climate. The task characteristics may have a direct effect on organisational climate.

This model is based on empirical evidence stating that task characteristics have a direct impact on organisational climate. For example, Igbaria and Guimaraes (2003) and Clugston (2007) found task characteristics to have a direct and negative impact on organisational climate. In addition, Schaubroeck, Cotton and Jennings (2001) used structural equation modelling to determine that task characteristics had a significant and negative impact on employees' organisational climate.

7.2.3 Utilisation and Job Satisfaction

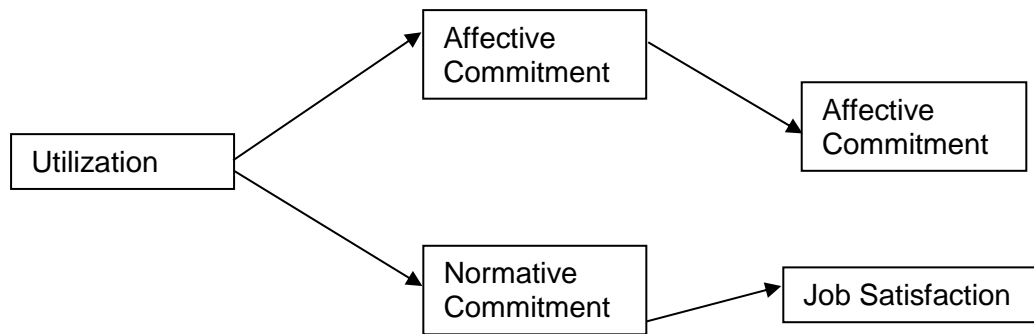


Figure 7.3 – (Model 3) Utilisation and Job Satisfaction

The above model (Model 3) proposes that affective and normative commitments are positively related to utilization and job satisfaction. Though the previous research suggested that affective commitment and normative commitment are clearly distinguishable constructs (as demonstrated by numerous factor analyses), they may have an inherent psychological overlap. It may not be possible to feel a strong obligation to an organisation without also having, or developing, positive emotional feelings for it, therefore, the assumption is that employees with strong feelings of attachment and obligation will also exhibit extra role behaviour, which may result in an increase in effectiveness and also bring harmony in the organisation .

Previous studies suggest that employees with strong affective commitment are likely to engage in extra role behaviours. The studies have found that employees with strong affective and normative commitment defined their behaviour more broadly and considered their extra-role behaviours to be in-role. The relationship between normative commitment and job satisfaction has however received less research attention. Meyer *et al.*, (2003) found a positive relationship between affective and normative commitment and job satisfaction. The relationship between normative commitment and job satisfaction, however, was weaker than those involving affective commitment. As far as the relationship between continuance commitment and job satisfaction is concerned, several studies have reported a negative, negligible relationship between the two variables (e.g. Meyer *et al.*, 2003; Moorman *et*

al., 1999). In their meta-analysis, Organ and Ryan (2006) reported that continuance commitment was not related to job satisfaction.

The assumption of a relationship between affective and normative commitment and job satisfaction may be anticipated on the bases that affectively committed employees define their job responsibilities more broadly, and thus, are more likely to engage in job satisfaction. Moreover, high affective commitment employees tend to perceive their employment based on relational exchange, which is clearly and narrowly specified. Thus, if employees experience a high affective commitment, they tend to define their job obligations in a broader and more flexible manner and are likely to engage in job satisfaction. Previous research indicates that employees' perceptions of utilization in an organisation eventually tend towards more effective employee behaviour in the organisation (Alexander and Ruderman, 2004; Moorman *et al.*, 2006). Specifically, in this regard, studies by Koys (2004) indicated that employees' commitment increases when the implementation of just practices in the organisation is from sincere concerns for employees' well-being.

Intuitively, it would seem that when employees feel that the organisation is treating them fairly regarding work and performance appraisal decisions, and the rewards they perceive for their responsibilities are fair, they will be more committed and tend to go "above and beyond" the work requirements dictated by the organisation; they will volunteer for special work activities, and will help new employees adjust to their jobs. These assumptions constitute Model 3.

Organ (2004) suggests that perceptions of utilization in the organisation might be directly related to job satisfaction, besides being important predictors of key job attitudes such as organisational commitment. These perceptions are instrumental in developing the levels of trust and faith that are needed for employees to provide the beneficial, yet discretionary behaviours that define citizenship.

Other work by Farh, Podsakoff and Organ (2007), Feather and Rauter (2003) and Zainuba (2002) supports a robust relationship between employees'

perceptions of utilization in the organisation and various forms of role behaviour. In this context as well, it seems adequate to deduce that proper utilization of employees, according to their qualification and experience may be a key antecedent to promoting role behaviour (manner in which employees behave) in the work place.

Employees who feel that their organisations have utilized them fairly will:

- demonstrate conscientiousness toward their work,
- try to prevent problems with other employees,
- inform others before taking important action, and
- refrain from excessively complaining about work. They are likely to behave in the above manner because their organisation has treated them in a just and fair manner.

7.2.4 Utilization, Job Satisfaction and Role behaviour

Based on the above assumptions, an extension of Model 3 is specified which predicts a direct link between utilization, job satisfaction and role behaviour.

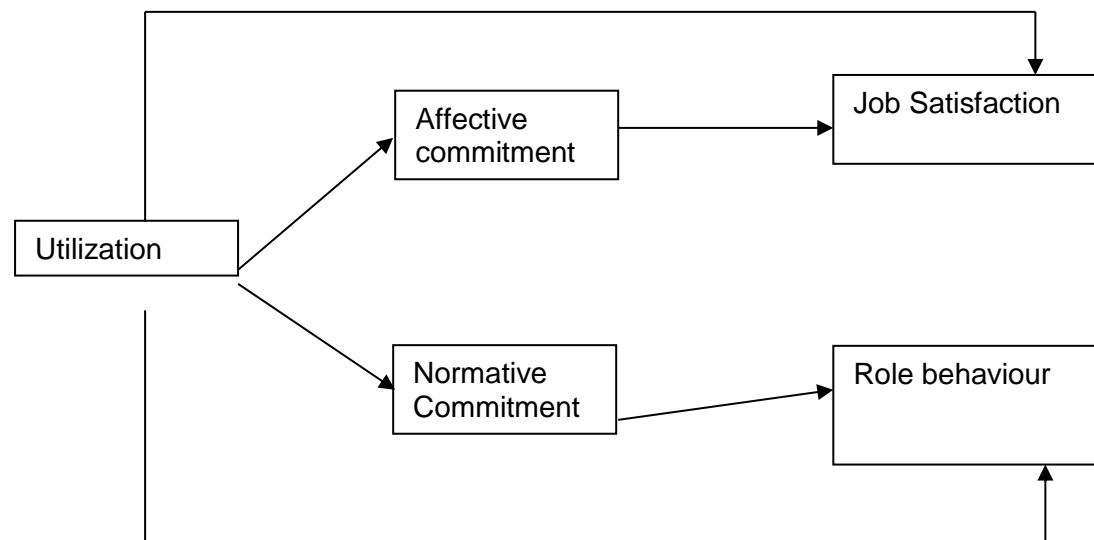


Figure 7.4 (Model 4) Utilization and Role behaviour

Since Organ 's (2004) suggestion that job attitudes may be more strongly related to job satisfaction than in role performance, several studies have explained the empirical base of the commitment, task characteristics, and role behaviour (Bateman and Organ, 2009; Organ, 2004, Smith and Near, 1983).

These studies have reported a significant relationship between differing forms of job satisfaction and role behaviour. Similarly, work by O'Reilly and Chatman (2002) and Becker (2001) provide support for a significant relationship between commitment and role behaviour.

However, there is no previous research available linking commitment to task characteristics and job satisfaction. It would be imperative to investigate the relationship of commitment with task characteristics and role behaviour.

7.2.5 Job satisfaction and Role Behaviour

Model 5 proposes that both the dimensions of organisational commitment are linked to job satisfaction, role behaviour and task characteristics.

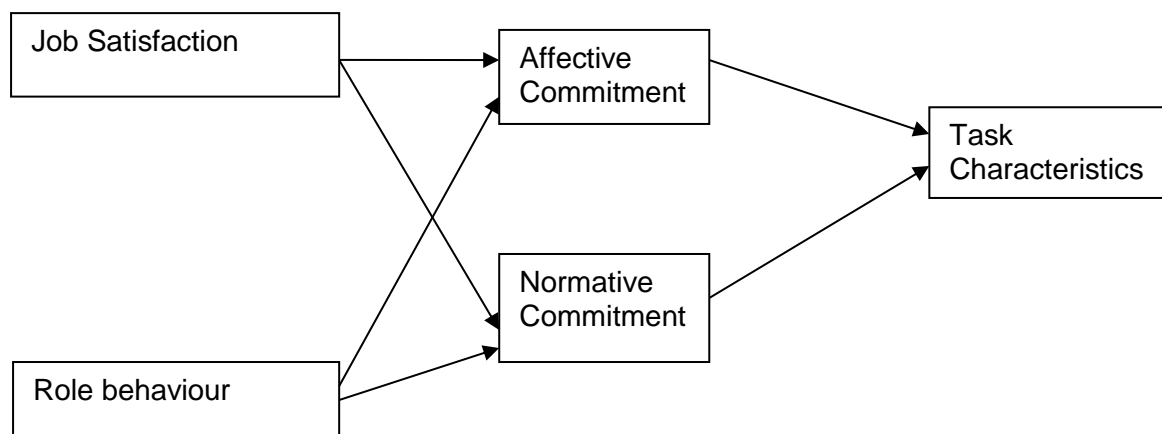


Figure 7.5 (Model 5) Job satisfaction and Role behaviour

7.2.6 Job Satisfaction, Remuneration and Task Characteristics

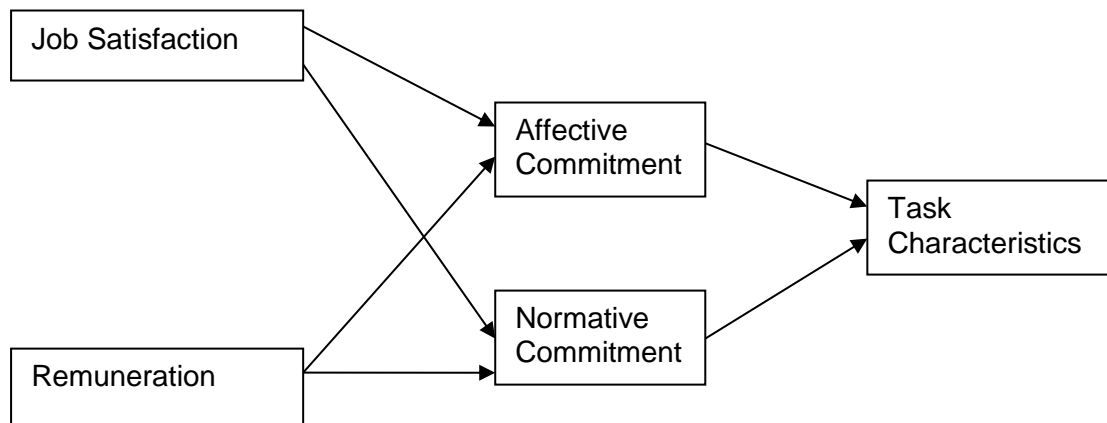


Figure 7.6 (Model 6) Job satisfaction, remuneration and task characteristics

Model 6 proposes a competing hypothesis stating that affective and normative commitment is only partially related to OCN and job satisfaction and that OCB may have a direct relationship with job satisfaction. This model is based on empirical evidence which reveals that OCB is significantly related to differing forms of job satisfaction (Bateman and Organ, 1983; Smith and Near, 1983).

7.3 Structural Equation Modelling

7.3.1 LISREL Analysis

The various models that were constructed were examined using the structural equation models. Sorbom (2000) defined structural equation models as a comparative technique where models are evaluated against other constructed models in order to determine the best-fit model from the derived data.

In order to determine the relationship between different constructed models of quality of work life and organisational commitment, a series of model comparisons was made. For each model, a null model was computed. Basically, the null model is based on the fact that none of the variables that are under consideration are related (Byrne, 1989). The null model provides a baseline for ease of comparison with other models that are being analysed.

Goodness of fit to the data was tested on the models for quality of work life factors and organisational commitment. Some of the models were constructed using a multiple regression analysis to determine the predictors for

organisational construct due to the lack of previous research linking quality of work life and organisational commitment through structural equation modelling.

7.3.2 Identification of the Models

An identification step in structural equation modelling was used to determine if unique values exist for the unknown model parameters. If all unknown parameters can be written as algebraic functions of the elements of the sample covariance matrix of observed variables, a model is identified. Identified models have sufficient information available in the sample covariance matrix to uniquely estimate the model's parameters. At least one unidentified parameter has to exist in an unidentified model; this will indicate that insufficient information is available in the sample covariance matrix to estimate the model's parameters. A recursive rule could be applied to establish that all the models were identified. This will be upon scaling the latent commitment by variables, by constraining the path coefficient for one of the observed variables to one for each latent variable (Bollen, 2001).

7.3.3 Evaluation of the Models

The software package LISREL 8.3 was used to analyse the structural model (Joreskog & Sorbom, 2000). This programme is useful in providing a goodness of fit statistic during the assessment of the degree to which a proposed model fits the observed data. The following indexes are used by the model to measure how well the reproduced covariance matrix estimates the observed sample covariance matrix:-

- Chi-Square (χ^2) statistics,
- the goodness of fit Index (GFI),
- the Root Mean Square (RMR),
- the Normed Fit Index (NFI),
- the Comparative Fit Index (CFI), and
- the Incremental Fit Index (IFI).

In Lisrel analysis, Chi-square statistics is the most commonly reported index. This is where the p values, associated with the maximum likelihood of ratio X^2 statistics to evaluate data fit. The X^2 value provides a test of the null hypothesis that the covariance matrix estimated from the model, and the observed covariance matrix both represent the same population covariance matrix; both represent the same population covariance matrix. Therefore, a lower X^2 value, relative to degree of freedom is an indicator of a better fit, and a non-significant X^2 test is desirable. Hankiss (1978) has argued that since the common level of significance of 0.05 would not particularly provide strong confirmation of one's model, a 0.01 level is suggested. However, models that have been tested and failed to fit the data according to the p values of X^2 statistics, because it is highly sensitive to sample size, such that the likelihood of obtaining a significant X^2 associated with a given model increase as the sample size increases (Bentler and Bonnett, 2001).

Following that, several authors (Bolen, 2006; Breckler, 2003 and Tanaka, 2002) have recommended that a variety of fit statistics be used. Therefore, based on the number of fit statistics available and its usage by other authors, seven fit statistics were selected to determine how well each proposed model fitted the data. These statistics included:

1. The X^2 statistics (it should be non-significant to indicate a good fit)
2. Goodness of Fit Index (Joreskog and Sorbom, 1988) described the GFI as a measure of the relative amount of variance and covariance jointly accounted for by the model)
3. Comparative Fit Index (CFI)
4. The Normed Fit Index (NFI)
5. The relative non-centrality Index
6. The Parsimonious Normed Fit Index
7. The Root Mean Square Residual (RMSR)

Most of these fit statistics have been widely used and have received theoretical and empirical support in the literature. The GFI, CFI, NFI, and RNI are normally constrained to lie in the range 0 to 1, with the values

approaching near 1 considered to be indicative of a well-fitting model. Three statistics, namely, χ^2 , GFI, and NFI, are said to be adversely affected by sample size; the RNI, however, is seen as a more accurate index since it has a smaller set of sampling error (Gerbing and Anderson, 2007). In determining the indices of goodness of fit, Mulaik, James, Alstine, Bennett, Lind and Stilwell (2004) suggest that the parsimony of specified models should also be attended. Therefore, the parsimonious normed fit index (PARS) for the NRI was calculated in order to balance parsimony and adequacy. This index indicates that if a model is shown to have an adequate fit, for example, an RNI of 0.90 or around, it is not impossible for a parsimony index to give a value of 0.5

7.4 LISREL Results

This section presents the indices of fit for the developed models of quality of work life and organisational commitment along with standardized path coefficients for the best fitting model in each variable.

Lisrel Results

Model	X²	df	GFI	rmr	NFI	CFI	RFI	PNFI	▲ X²	▲ df
Null	409.54	7	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Model 1	145.80	5	0.89	0.08	0.81	0.79	0.50	0.31	263.59	2
Model 2	103.65	4	0.91	0.09	0.92	0.90	0.62	0.28	42.11	1
Model 3	92.11	4	0.92	0.06	0.83	0.83	0.50	0.27	11.24	0
Model 4	22.80	2	0.96	0.06	0.95	0.99	0.62	0.08	69.30	3
Model 5	113.59	4	0.89	0.07	0.80	0.79	0.39	0.21	90.01	3
Model 6	130.22	4	0.90	0.07	0.85	0.85	0.32	0.15	16.1	0

The above table indicates that all models evaluated have a good fit in relation to the data based on the GFI. The best fit models appeared to be Models 3 and 4 due to their GFI of 0.93 and 0.98 respectively, however, model 4 provides the best data fit ($\chi^2 = 22.80$, $df = 2$, $p < 0.05$). This is supported by RFI and PNFI scores that exceeded Model 3 scores; therefore, Model 4 appears to indicate a significant improvement over Model 3.

7.5 THE BEST FITTING MODEL

There were six models for the quality of work life factors and organisational commitment that were developed. The best-fitting model for consequences demonstrated that organisational citizenship behaviour and procedural justice were important variables. Apart from that, affective, continuance and normative commitment were also found to be part of the model.

The best-fitting model for the quality of work life factors and organisational commitment is represented below:

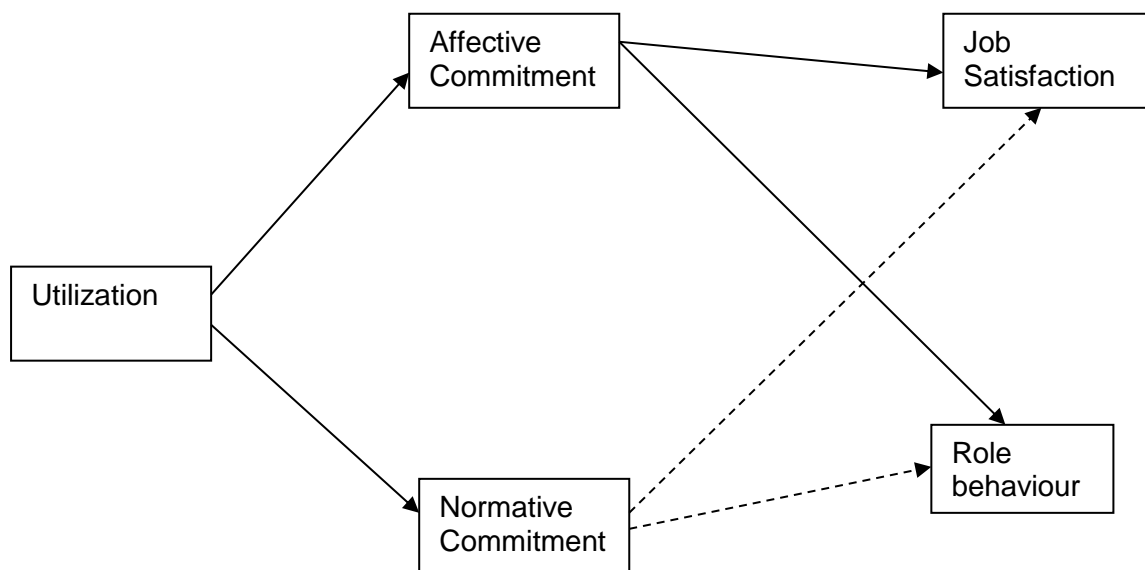


Figure 7.7 Best fitting model

Standardised path coefficients for best-fitting model of the consequences of organisational commitment. All coefficients are statistically significant except for the paths from job satisfaction and role behaviour to normative commitment. This can be interpreted as those affectively committed

employees define their job responsibilities more broadly and are likely to engage in extra role behaviours. This can be seen as an indirect effect toward perceiving the employment procedures as being just. Apart from that, the direct paths from utilization to job satisfaction and role behaviour significantly indicate that both are related to utilization. Employees, who perceive that they are being treated fairly regarding work and performance appraisal, are more likely to engage in extra role behaviours, and go above and beyond what is prescribed as job demand, simply because they are being treated fairly.

The paths from utilization to affective and normative commitment is moderately strong, however, the path from utilization to affective commitment is not as strong. Furthermore, both job satisfaction and role behaviour do not show any statistically significant link with normative commitment. This finding is consistent with some previous research linking job satisfaction and role behaviour to normative commitment variables (e.g. Meyer and Allen, 2006; Moorman *et al.*, 2002). As can be seen from the Figure, the highest coefficient is the path from affective commitment to role behaviour (0.71), indicating that employees with strong emotional attachment exhibit extra role behaviours that increase effectiveness in the organisation. This model also indicates that utilization has a stronger direct link with role behaviour (0.38) as compared to the job satisfaction dimension (0.71). An examination of the t-values reveals that all parameter estimates may, therefore, be considered statistically significant and important to the model.

7.6 Summary

The study showed that there was a significant relationship between some quality of work factors (organisational climate, task characteristics, job satisfaction, role behaviour, utilization and future orientation) and organisational commitment.

No relationship was found between remuneration and organisational commitment.

There was no significant difference in organisational commitment across the biographical variables of marital status, age, length of service and span of control. There was, however, a significant difference in organisational commitment across different levels of education.

CHAPTER 8

RECOMMENDATIONS AND CONCLUSIONS

8.1 Introduction

This study investigated the effects of quality of work life on organisational commitment among employees within the Pulp and Paper industry in Durban metropolitan area. This chapter will present the conclusions and recommendations.

Results indicated that job satisfaction relates positively to affective commitment and utilization. Similarly, role behaviour also showed a positive relationship with affective commitment and utilization. This finding provides evidence that affectively committed employees define their job responsibilities more broadly and are apt to go beyond their job description imposed by the organisation. A significant relationship between affective commitment and job satisfaction has also been observed in previous research (Gregerson, 2007; Organ and Ryan, 2006; Meyer and Allen, 1998; Meyer *et al.*, 2002). The significant relationship between job satisfaction and affective commitment can be explained by two reasons. **Firstly**, affective commitment can cause employees to define their job responsibilities more broadly and thus are more likely to enjoy in job satisfaction. **Secondly**, affectively-committed employees tend to perceive their employment based on a relational exchange which is broad and open ended in contrast to the obligations of a transactional exchange, which is clearly and narrowly specified. Thus, if employees experience high affective commitment, they tend to define their job obligations in a broad and flexible manner.

In this study, relationship between continuance commitment and job satisfaction was not anticipated based on previous research evidence. For example, Meyer and Lynne, (2001) and Organ and Ryan (2006) reported that continuance commitment was not related to either form of job satisfaction. Moorman, Niehoff and Organ (2006) also reported a non-significant negligible relationship between continuance commitment and job satisfaction. Meyer and Allen (1998) suggested that when an employee's primary tie to the

organisation is need based i.e. continuance commitment, the employee engages in behaviour that helps to guarantee continued employment; such an employee is not likely to exert extra effort on behalf of the organisation.

Thus, in an attempt to protect their job security, employees with high continuance commitment may engage in superficial management behaviours to appear as though they are supportive of the organisation. Contrary to prediction and past research, normative commitment showed a non-significant relationship with both the dimensions of organisation commitment. Although previous research suggests that affective and normative commitment share inherent psychological overlap, they are distinguishable. The results of this study revealed that employees who feel obligated to remain with an organisation are least likely to involve in extra-role behaviours. However, it may be noted that the relationship between normative commitment and job satisfaction has received less research attention. Meyer *et al.*, (2002) found a positive relationship between affective and normative commitment and job satisfaction, however, the relationship between normative commitment and job satisfaction was weaker than that involving affective commitment.

The results also showed that affective and normative commitment constructs are positively related to utilization. These findings indicate that employees who feel that the organisation is utilizing them fairly regarding work and performance appraisal decisions, will be more emotionally attached to their organisation and will engage in extra role behaviours; for example, by volunteering for special work activities, and by helping new employees adjusting to their jobs. One way that utilization may be communicated is through the development and enactment of specific policies and procedures that are seen to be fair. Considerable research evidence supports a link between future orientation associated with organisational policies and affective commitment of employees (for example, Folger and Konovsky, 1989; Konovsky and Cropanzano, 2006). Further research to date supports the prediction that employees' perception about the fairness of utilization, rather than satisfaction with their own personal outcomes might be particularly influential in shaping affective reactions to institutions or authorities. In other

words, employees' affective commitment is influenced by whether they always get what they want. The positive relationship between commitment dimensions and future orientation can be explained by two factors. These two factors determine whether an individual's self-interest or group processes predominate when future orientation is concerned.

South Africa is a country where dominant culture is collectivistic (Hofstede, 2001). In a collective culture, group processes are more readily stimulated, and relatively more of a person's behaviour is guided by group concern. However, Lind and Earley (2000) cautioned that utilization research shows that it is dangerous to over generalize the findings on cultural collectivism. Apparently, even in the most individualistic societies, people still care about groups and group-related issues. Similarly, it is also important to note that the distinction between in-group and out-group is more salient in collectivistic cultures. When out-group members are involved, collectivists may behave like individualists, and become more concerned with the fairness of the procedures.

Therefore, a stronger relationship between commitment dimension and utilization in the present study was evident because the work group may have been treated by the employees as out-group situation. Collectivists generally do not value the inter-personal harmony with out-group members more than the individualists do (Hofstede, 2001). The other factor (judgement of justice), in general, affects the balance of group and individual concerns with any given cultural context. This cognition acts independently of cultural collectivism, so even in the most individualistic societies, group-oriented attitudes and behaviours can be evoked by fair procedures. This is because employees are more inclined to suspend attempts to protect their own interests and more likely to give themselves over to group concerns when a state of justice exists (Lind and Earley, 1992). Conversely, when things seem to be working in an unfair fashion, employees will abandon the group interests.

Furthermore, the perception that implementation of “just” practices in the organisation is not only due to compliance with legislature demands but also because of sincere concerns for employees’ welfare may enhance the level of commitment. The “just” organisational practice may also influence employees’ perceptions about the attractiveness of other employment opportunities which are fair. Similarly, the fair and just procedures implemented by the organisation can also enhance employees’ image of the organisation thereby making other alternatives less attractive. The best-fitting model on organisational commitment also anticipates a direct relationship between the two dimensions of job satisfaction and future orientation. The results supported a positive relationship between job satisfaction and future orientation consistent with Organ (2004) views that the perception of justice might be directly related to organisational citizenship behaviour, besides being important predictors of other job attitudes. These perceptions are instrumental in developing the levels of faith and trust needed for employees to provide beneficial, yet discretionary behaviours that define citizenship.

Further research also supports a robust relationship between employees’ perception of future orientation and various forms of job satisfaction, for example e.g. Farh, Podsakoff and Organ (2007) suggest that utilization influences job satisfaction in that it enhances the display of job satisfaction thus creating an environment conducive for a conventional relationship between an employee and his organisation. If employees believe that procedures used in allocating organisational outcomes are fair and just, they will be satisfied and more likely to engage in citizenship behaviours, however, in traditional societies such as that of South Africa, job satisfaction may not necessarily be enhanced by introducing more “just” organisational practices. More fundamental in these cultures are employees’ basic relationships with their organisations.

The findings of the present research regarding the relationship of organisational climate and task characteristics with multi-dimensional commitment revealed that all three dimensions of commitment have a negative relationship with organisational climate and a positive relationship

with task characteristics, indicating that those who are satisfied with their jobs are likely to develop high levels of commitment. The findings suggest that if an organisation's goal is to develop a stable work force, then extra effort is necessary to cultivate commitment in employees. On the other hand, it is also important to note that most organisations' goals are more than just having a stable work force; companies frequently expect and want much more from their employees than simply their continued membership in the organisations.

The results provide evidence of a negative relationship between continuance commitment and organisation climate. This finding is consistent and in line with previous research; for example, Mathieu's and Zajac's (2001) meta-analysis reported that both affective and continuance commitment had negative impact on the intent to leave. Hacket, *et al.*, (2003) and Cohen (2004) also reported similar findings. One possible reason for a negative relationship between continuance commitment and organisational climate may be because of a belief that leaving can be costly and getting hired by another organisation with the same pay and benefits would be difficult, particularly for employees who think their educational and training investments were less easily transferable elsewhere and whose skills do not seem current and marketable.

Perceptions of alternative jobs can also be influenced by such aspects as prevailing unemployment rates, unsuccessful previous job attempts, whether other organisations have tried to recruit the employees, and the extent to which family factors limit the employees' ability to relocate. Secondly, in the Pulp and Paper sector, only a few positions are available for advancement, so the amount of "side bets" that employees can accumulate is also limited. By and large, leaving an organisation for another job is not necessarily a simple procedure.

To test the replicability of the models, a separate study was conducted. All the models were again tested through LISREL with the focus on examining whether the best-fitting models of one study could be replicated with a new sample. Results indicated that the tested models for quality for work life

factors and organisational commitment do not fully replicate the data in the second study. This indicated, however, that the models can be applied when explaining the association between quality of work life factors and organisational commitment.

Even though the indices of fit in both data were not exact, they can be considered adequate taking into account the lack of prior theory on which these models can be based on. Looking at similarities and differences regarding the antecedent's model, it may be observed that the paths that were non-significant in one study also resulted in non-significance in another study. However, the model for consequences showed significant differences between paths on the two studies indicating that the relationships are not stable over time and may be interpreted with caution.

When the organisation is not dependable, or when it fails to provide employees with challenging and meaningful tasks, commitment levels tend to diminish resulting in high intentions to resign. If on the other hand, commitment is a dynamic process, as suggested by Reichers (2007), as the individual engages with the organisation, a desire, a need and an obligation for commitment develops to an optimal point before of plateauing and its consequences become evident. If an organisational climate continues to be good, it may be useful to consider if the development of other types of employees commitment may help or bind the organisation or whether realistic steps can be taken to increase positive commitment.

8.2 Recommendations

From the review of literature and experiences in carrying out the present research and resultant findings, the following recommendations can be made:

- Research in the United States has shown it is important that children of long service workers be employed as organisational commitment tends to be influenced by the individual's experiences prior to entry. Employees will have strong normative commitment if their parents or other family members have spoken positively about the organisation

and also stressed the importance of organisational loyalty. Although this may have its disadvantages (a kind of organisational inbreeding), the advantages outweigh them. That is, the period of socialisation of a person who is familiar with the function and culture of an organisation, would be much shorter.

- The early months of employment are crucial periods for the development of organisational commitment. This may be due to the individual's educational experiences or to the recruitment process employed by the company. It is therefore imperative that human resources practitioners base their recruitment processes on realistic job previews. Besides saving the costs of initial turnover, realistic job previews may bring about a growth in organisational commitment as an employee's experiences (positive or negative) are found to influence commitment to that company.
- It is imperative that jobs are continually evaluated and redesigned with built in challenges to satisfy the employees' needs. Jobs should therefore be rotated on a regular basis; this has the advantage both for the organisation and the individual. From the organisation's point of view, job rotation helps to train individuals for various jobs. In turn employees acquire new skills and they are consequently more versatile and may become more marketable.
- The degree to which people are committed will depend on their perception of the likelihood of obtaining a reward, that is, their expectancy will be high. The literature reviewed in this study shows that higher effort or motivation exists when employees perceive a link between effort, performance and rewards, therefore in order to enhance motivation it is important that employers make rewards contingent upon performance.
- The results of this study show that there is a positive relationship between some quality of work life factors (organisational climate, task characteristics, job satisfaction, role behaviour, utilization and future orientation) and organisational commitment. It also shows that there is no relationship between remuneration and organisational commitment.

These results indicate that those factors related to organisational commitment can be labelled motivators while those not related hygiene factors. The implication of this is that organisations that provide motivators can expect committed employees who display a sense of loyalty and belongingness, responsibility and willingness to exert extra effort on behalf of the company.

It is therefore imperative that management continually assess their employees' needs in so far as the motivators are concerned so as to develop and enhance their employees' commitment.

- It has to be borne in mind that for research to be truly meaningful in South Africa, racial differences also have to be considered. American psychologists still study the influence of various factors on race (organisational commitment, yet in South Africa many organisations consider the inclusion of race in the biographical information form to be too sensitive. Furthermore, the impact of migratory labour, poor education, health and sanitation on an employees work life is a reality. It is therefore imperative that employers permit researchers to study the influence of any factor (relating to quality of work life) on race. This would have been of value in the present study as another important hypothesis could have been developed and tested (that is, influence of race organisational commitment).
- Future research should be conducted in the following areas:-
 - In order to obtain the true effects of an investigation of this nature, it is essential that longitudinal studies be carried out as literature survey has shown that organisational commitment develops slowly over time.
 - Further investigation is necessary to test the hypothesis where inconsistent findings are found (age and length of service).

8.3 Conclusion

It is hoped that this investigation will stimulate research in the important areas of organisational commitment and quality of work life. It is accepted that the present study is not without its limitations and methodological problems.

The greatest challenge that will face organisations in the next decade will be able to effectively integrate the needs of the organisation with those of the employees. This has the benefit of developing a psychological contract which forces the manager to become proactively involved with the activities of the organisation.

In addition, South African employers need to develop a strong organisational culture, similar to the Japanese one. Many of the reasons for the Japanese success can be attributed to the development of an organisational culture. From this culture a shared value between management and workers which emphasises mutuality is derived. South African attitudes have to change from a predominantly “Black-White; or we-they” to a new “our” culture which emphasises commonality or commitment. For this to develop, it is important that all employees, especially the supervisors, be treated with the respect their jobs demand.

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DURBAN UNIVERSITY OF TECHNOLOGY

Doctor of Philosophy - Business Administration

Researcher: Mr. Nathi Ngcobo (083) 263 5773

Research Topic: The quality of Work Life Factors and Organizational Commitment in the Pulp and Paper Industry within the eThekweni Metropolitan area

This research forms part of my thesis which is a requirement for the completion of my Doctor of Philosophy - Business Administration at the Durban University of Technology. The results of this survey will be analyzed and will be used as a findings and the basis for discussion in my dissertation.

Please note that the information will not in any way be utilized for any other purpose other than for the research that I am conducting. The information that you provide will in no way be connected with your name and will not be viewed by management or any other party within the organisation. Only the conclusive results of the research may be conveyed to management. This survey is anonymous; you therefore do not need to include identifying information. However, a fully completed questionnaire will help with producing more meaningful results.

Your completion and submission of this questionnaire will be considered to be your voluntary agreement to participate and an indication of your consent that I may use the data that you provide for research purposes.

Should you wish to withdraw your participation in this research at any time, you may do so by contacting me. I can be reached at nathi.ngcobo1111@gmail.com or 0832635773.

Please answer the questions as truthfully as you can. While I foresee no risks on your behalf, you may find benefits from the opportunity to evaluate your existing work environment and what you would like to change in order to create an environment that is more conducive to increased employee job satisfaction.

Thank you in advance for your participation.

**The relationship between work life of factors and organizational commitment
amongst managers in the Pulp and Paper Industry within the Durban Metro**

Part A - DEMOGRAPHIC INFORMATION

Please mark the appropriate box.

1. Gender

Male		Female	
------	--	--------	--

2. Age Group

16 – 25	
26 – 35	
36 – 45	
46 and above	

3. Marital Status

Married	
Single	
Divorced	
Widowed	

4. Categories of staff

Engineering	
Technical	
Process	
Administration	

5. Level of Education

Below Grade 12	
Grade 12/ Matric	
Diploma	
Degree	
Other (please specify)	

6. How long have you been in this position?

Less than 2 years	
Between 2 and 5 years	
Between 5 and 10 years	
More than 10 years	

7. How many people are reporting to you?

Less than 2	
Between 2 and 5	
Between 5 and 10	
More than 10	

Please rate your own current experience in the industries in each of the following areas by circling the number that best represents your opinion.

5 = **strongly agree**; 4 = **somewhat agree**; 3 = **undecided**; 2 = **somewhat disagree**; 1 = **strongly disagree**

Part B – Quality of Work Life Factors

Question / Statement	Strongly Agree	Somewhat Agree	Undecided	Somewhat disagree	Strongly disagree
1. My job is safe and secure in this organization	5	4	3	2	1
2. To me, not many workers quit or leave their jobs in this organization	5	4	3	2	1
3. Workers are not afraid of losing their job	5	4	3	2	1
4. I am getting wages according to my skill, knowledge, ability and experiences	5	4	3	2	1
5. Worker's wage in my organization is determined according to the market rates	5	4	3	2	1
6. My duty and responsibility is clear	5	4	3	2	1
7. Workers are aware of company policy/organizational performance	5	4	3	2	1
8. I am satisfied with my company health and safety policy	5	4	3	2	1
9. Workers are getting yearly profit benefits	5	4	3	2	1
10. Working lunch is free for workers	5	4	3	2	1
11. Workers are getting transport facilities by my organization	5	4	3	2	1
12. Female workers are getting their maternal leave with salary	5	4	3	2	1
13. I am satisfied with Company provident fund	5	4	3	2	1
14. My performance is evaluated and	5	4	3	2	1

The relationship between work life of factors and organizational commitment amongst managers in the Pulp and Paper Industry within the Durban Metro

rewarded					
15. I am satisfied with performance related pay	5	4	3	2	1
16. I am a member of labor union	5	4	3	2	1
17. To me, worker association is a part of management	5	4	3	2	1
18. Work direction is clear and make sense	5	4	3	2	1
19. My supervisor is very supportive	5	4	3	2	1
20. I am satisfied with organizational induction/orientation/job related training	5	4	3	2	1
21. Job related training programs are regularly provided by management	5	4	3	2	1
22. Leave is available when required	5	4	3	2	1
23. Workers are punished for mistakes	5	4	3	2	1
24. I am a member of labor union	5	4	3	2	1
25. Workers have the right to put their voice to top management	5	4	3	2	1
26. We received attendance bonus	5	4	3	2	1
27. We receive production bonus	5	4	3	2	1
28. Worker are getting 'Yearly wage increment'	5	4	3	2	1
29. I am satisfied with work related technology	5	4	3	2	1
30. I am living with family	5	4	3	2	1
31. Living accommodation is given by my organization	5	4	3	2	1
32. I am living my hired house	5	4	3	2	1
33. Living accommodation is healthy and hygienic	5	4	3	2	1

Part C – Organizational Commitment

1. I would be very happy to spend the rest of my career with this organization	5	4	3	2	1
2. I enjoy discussing my organization with other people outside it	5	4	3	2	1
3. I really feel as if this organization's problems are my own	5	4	3	2	1
4. I think that I could easily become as attached to another organization as I am to this one	5	4	3	2	1
5. I do not feel like part of the family at my organization	5	4	3	2	1
6. I do not feel emotionally attached to this organization	5	4	3	2	1
7. This organization has a great deal of personal meaning for me	5	4	3	2	1
8. I do not feel a strong sense of belonging to my organization	5	4	3	2	1
9. I am not afraid of what might happen if I quit my job without having another one lined up	5	4	3	2	1
10. It would be very hard for me to leave my organization right now, even if I wanted to	5	4	3	2	1
11. Too much in my life would be disrupted if I decided I wanted to leave my organization now	5	4	3	2	1
12. It would not be too costly for me to leave my organization now	5	4	3	2	1
13. Staying with my organization is a matter of necessity as much as desire	5	4	3	2	1
14. I feel that I have too few options to consider options to consider leaving this	5	4	3	2	1

organization					
15. One of the few serious consequences of leaving this organization would be scarcity of available alternative	5	4	3	2	1
16. One of the major reasons I continue to work for this organization is that leaving would require considerable personal sacrifice – another organization may not match the overall benefits I have here	5	4	3	2	1
17. I think that people these days move from company to company too often	5	4	3	2	1
18. I do not believe that a person must always be loyal to his or her organization	5	4	3	2	1
19. Jumping from organisation does not seem at all unethical to me	5	4	3	2	1
20. One of the major reasons I continue to work for this organisation is that I believe that loyalty is important and therefore feel a sense of moral obligation to remain	5	4	3	2	1
21. If I got another offer for a better job elsewhere I would not feel it was right to leave my organisation	5	4	3	2	1
22. I was taught to believe in the value of remaining loyal to one organisation	5	4	3	2	1
23. Things were better in the days when people stayed with one organisation for most of their careers	5	4	3	2	1
24. I do not think that wanting to be a “company man” or “company women” is sensible anymore	5	4	3	2	1

19. General Comments

Thank You.