

THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN QUALITY OF WORK LIFE AND ORGANISATIONAL COMMITMENT OF SUPERVISORS IN THE DURBAN-PIETERMARITZBURG METROPOLITAN AREAS

by

SURESH RAMDIAL

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Supervisor : Professor Elza Thomson

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ABSTRACT

A sample of 304 supervisors was randomly drawn from the Durban-Pietermaritzburg metropolitan areas to investigate the relationship between quality of work life and organisational commitment. Organisational commitment and quality of work life questionnaires were used to analyse the relevant constructs. The results indicate that there is a significant relationship between organisational commitment and some quality of work life factors (organisational climate, work group processes, supervisory leadership, task characteristics, general satisfaction output, role behaviour, utilisation and future orientation). There is, however, no significant difference in organisational commitment across the biographical variables of marital status, age, length of service and span of control.

Overall, the research indicates that there is a significant relationship between organisational commitment and quality of work life.

OPSOMMING

'n Steekproef van 304 toesighouers is ewekansig getrek uit die Durban-Pietermaritzburg metropolitaanse gebied ten einde die verband tussen organisasiebetrokkenheid (organisational commitment) en kwaliteit van werklewe te ondersoek. Vraelyste wat organisasiebetrokkenheid en die kwaliteit van werklewe meet is gebruik om die onderhawige konstrukte te ontleed. Die resultate van die studie dui daarop dat daar 'n beduidende verband tussen organisasiebetrokkenheid en sommige kwaliteit van werklewe faktore soos organisasieklimaat, werkgroepprosesse, toesighoudend leierskap, taakkenmerke, algemene tevredenheiduitsette, rolgedrag, aanwending en toekomstige orientasie, bestaan.

Daar is egter nie 'n beduidende verskil in organisasiebetrokkenheid gevind ten opsigte van die verband met biografiese veranderlikes soos huwelikstaat, ouderdom, dienstermyn en span van beheer nie.

Oorhoofs dui die ondersoek op 'n beduidende verband tussen organisasiebetrokkenheid en kwaliteit van werklewe.

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CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

1.1 Introduction

It has become apparent that 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 people. While it is possible to assess the material success in terms of a number of quantifiable indications, the psychological quality of a society is less easily measured. In recent years man and organisations have encountered a number of changing conditions which they had to take into consideration in order to achieve these goals. As a result of these changes organisations make people their main consideration both inside (internally) and outside (externally) the organisation. Internally, making sure that the quality of work life is considered the correct approach to increase job satisfaction, increase productivity and enhance commitment. Externally, an enterprise may give recognition to people in the environment where they work, thus demonstrating a sense of social responsibility. It is therefore the

intention of the present study to determine the effects of quality of work life on organisational commitment among supervisors.

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 and the values conformed to. The enterprise will have to become involved in activities that are aimed at satisfying needs regarded as important by employees. At the same time the goals of both the enterprise and the employee should be synchronised. Herzberg's Two Factor theory forms the basis for studying quality of work life. In the South African context interest in the quality of work life was generated in the 1980's and a series of acts with regard to health, safety and training were promulgated.

Quality of work life programmes are designed to improve workers' experience on the job in such a way so as to increase motivation, satisfaction and commitment, thereby increasing organisational effectiveness and performance.

The second factor of importance in this study is organisational commitment. Organisational commitment expresses an individual's orientation towards the company by tapping his or her loyalty to, identification with and involvement in an organisation.

Mowday, Porter & Steers (1982) have listed three reasons for the importance of organisational commitment. Firstly, theory related to commitment suggests that organisational commitment should be a fairly reliable predictor of certain behaviour displayed by employees especially in the form of turnover. Secondly, the concept of organisational commitment is intuitively appealing to both managers and behavioural scientists. Finally, 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. It helps to some degree to explain how people find purpose in life. The role of the supervisor in securing commitment among subordinates is of utmost importance.

The role of the modern supervisor is becoming increasingly challenging as well as frustrating. This is due to the fact that supervisors are not only responsible for the production process but also for healthy in-

dustrial relations between higher-level management, union officials and the non-supervisory staff under their control. The supervisor is faced with conflicting loyalties and responsibilities. The position of the supervisors is also steadily declining due to the confusion of roles that they are engaged in.

Furthermore, the rise in the number and power of the unions, have stripped supervisors in unionised plants of much of their remaining authority. The trade unions rather than working with supervisors now work against them.

Therefore, in the light of supervisors' difficult position, this study aims to determine the quality of work life factors that would increase their job satisfaction and also enhance their commitment towards the organisation.

1.2 Motivation for the study

This study was motivated by the following factors:

- (a) Recent interest in the quality of work life has increased as a result of changes in environmental and humanistic values that were neglected by industrialised societies in favour of technological advancement, productivity and economic growth.

Evidence of this is the wide interest, especially from 1975 with the publication of more than 450 articles and books (Myburgh:1984). Despite wide scale applications and interest abroad South African developments have been slow. However, only limited research projects by Coster, Coetsee and Van Niekerk (1979), Coetser (1980) and Duvenage (1981) have been carried out and this study aims to add to the knowledge as it relates to South Africa.

- (b) Interest in quality of work life was generated because workers were often frustrated in the jobs and experienced very little job satisfaction. 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 as well as for general satisfaction. On the other hand, lack of recognition, uninteresting work, poor relations with colleagues and poor working conditions cause job dissatisfaction. Therefore the aim of this study is to determine the effects of these conditions on organisational commitment.
- (c) The concept of employee commitment to organisations 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 Schein (1970) and Steers (1975) that commitment may represent one useful indicator of the effectiveness of an organisation. These findings have important implications for both organisation theory and the practice of management. Therefore, this study will determine ways of increasing retention, especially among supervisors.

- (d) A strong bond (commitment) between an individual and an organisation is mutually beneficial. For the individual, staying with a company provides a continuing source of current economic rewards as well as for future retirement. An organisation, building strong linkages provides assistance towards reducing excessive absenteeism and turnover. An examination of these variables would develop possible feelings of psychological attachment.
- (e) With considerable powers being given to shop stewards, the job of the supervisor is becoming increasingly complex. Management's concern for sound industrial relations in the post-Wiehahn era has placed pressure on the roles and functions of the supervisor. Present-day supervisors are not only concerned with production but are also

responsible for effective industrial relations between higher level management, union officials and non-supervisory staff under their control. The supervisor is often faced with the conflicting loyalties and responsibilities. Although the functions and responsibilities have received attention, limited research has yet been published to determine the influence of quality of work life on the supervisor's commitment to the organisation.

- (f) Numerous studies have been carried out to determine commitment among scientists, nurses and teachers. However, limited published findings relate to the commitment of managers including supervisors (Buchanan:1974). This study would highlight the nature of commitment among supervisors.

1.3 Aims of the study

The specific aims of this study are:

- 1.3.1 To establish whether there is a positive relationship between quality of work life factors and organisational commitment.
- 1.3.2 To determine to what extent the quality of work life factors significantly explain the variance in organisational commitment.

- 1.3.3 To show whether there is a significant difference in organisational commitment across different age groups.
- 1.3.4 To indicate whether there is a significant difference in organisational commitment across different marital status groups.
- 1.3.5 To establish whether there is a significant difference in organisational commitment across length of service.
- 1.3.6 To determine whether there is a significant difference in organisational commitment across supervisory span of control.
- 1.3.7 To show whether there is a significant difference in organisational commitment across different levels of education.
- 1.3.8 To establish Cronbach's alpha for the measures used in this study.
- 1.3.9 To confirm the categorisation of the variables associated with quality of work life.

1.4 Hypotheses

In order to realise the above aims, the following hypotheses were formulated and tested:

- 1.4.1 There is a significant relationship between quality of work life factors and organisational commitment.
- 1.4.2 The quality of work life factors will collectively explain the variance in organisational commitment.
- 1.4.3 There is a significant difference in organisational commitment across different age groups.
- 1.4.4 There is a significant difference in organisational commitment across different marital status groups.
- 1.4.5 There is a significant difference in organisational commitment across length of service.
- 1.4.6 There is a significant difference in organisational commitment across supervisory span of control.
- 1.4.7 There is a significant difference in organisational commitment across different levels of education.

1.5 Structure of the study

This study consists of two main sections namely, a review of pertinent literature on quality of work life, organisational commitment, the status of supervisors and a survey of the effects of quality of work life on organisational commitment.

Firstly, a literary study was undertaken to explain the importance of organisational and personal goals. To understand the organisational goal, the economic and behavioural theory is discussed, highlighting the profit motive. The behavioural theory focuses on decision making in a multi-goal organisation, as against a single goal or decision unit. The role played by the different actors in this coalition is discussed together with the means that are at the disposal of management to resolve conflict. Conflict arises due to the limited resources that are available to management to achieve their goal.

The objectives of organisations are analysed. The functions of planning, organising, leading and controlling as performed by managers to achieve their objectives are examined. A conceptual framework of management by objectives is elaborated on. The importance of management by objectives is discussed, together with

its uses in manpower development. Management by objectives provides feedback to employees on a regular basis which acts as a motivator. It is hypothesised that feedback leads to an increase in organisational commitment.

Once the objectives have been set, a clear and unambiguous method had to be developed to communicate the formal objectives. Objectives not transmitted as intended leads to problems within and outside the organisation.

It is accepted that employees enter organisations to satisfy their needs and wants which could vary from having a challenging and meaningful job to being well paid. The next area examined was the personal goals of employees and their effect on organisational commitment. Schein's organisational model where he describes career movement in an organisation is especially relevant. Job satisfaction and its effect on the individual together with the different theories were also discussed since it is hypothesised that once an employee is satisfied, then commitment is enhanced.

Attention is then turned to the two types of contracts, namely the formal contract and the psychological contract. The formal contract is a written agreement between the employer and employee, whereas the psychological contract is a contract that is brought about when there is a marriage between organisational needs and the individual's needs. Research also suggests that organisational commitment is enhanced when there is congruency between the personal goals of the individual and the relevant formal organisational goals.

The potency of personal motivation is then examined. The expectancy-valence theory is discussed in detail.

The next section discussed is the antecedents of organisational commitment. The four antecedents namely, personal, role-related and structural characteristics and work experiences are concentrated on.

Quality of work life is then considered and the two important areas of concern, the hygiene and motivational factors as proposed by Herzberg are examined. The hygiene factors elaborated on were safety, remuneration, rights in the work place, promotion policies, management style, fringe benefits and social respon-

sibility programmes. Whereas the motivational factors stressed the influence of skills variety, task identity and significance, autonomy and feedback on organisational commitment. The motivational factors are well illustrated in the Hackman & Oldham (1980) model.

Finally, the unique role of the supervisor is discussed. The changing face of industrial relations is having a profound effect on the role of the supervisor. Due to the increasing influence of the shop steward the task of the supervisor is becoming increasingly complex. A review of the different terms used for the supervisor clearly illustrates this point. Reference is made, inter alia, of 'Man in the Middle', 'Marginal Man', 'Another Worker'. After the literature survey of the different factors, attention is then focused on the research design, presentation and discussion of results, recommendations and conclusion. Although every effort was made to carry out this study under approved conditions, it nevertheless, has certain limitations.

1.6 Limitations of the study

South Africa has a cosmopolitan population with each group having its own culture. It would have been advantageous had the study looked at the relationship be-

tween organisational commitment and race, culture and gender. However, due to the sensitive nature of race and gender they were excluded from the biographical information.

This study obtained a return of 35 % of the questionnaire that were sent out. This return rate was due to the fact that participation in the survey was voluntary and because of anonymity, management could not trace the forms that were not returned.

Every attempt was made to obtain participants from other organisations. However, management in some companies were wary of participating, citing the tense political situation as a reason. Some organisations, although willing to participate were in the midst of either a strike or negotiation. They were of the opinion that going to the workers with such sensitive issues as wages and working conditions would be dangerous. One company employed a large number of semi-literate supervisors, although the company was willing it was not considered. Finally, many companies were unwilling to participate for reasons that were not made known.

1.7 Summary

In this chapter an attempt was made to delineate the areas to be investigated and to formulate the aims and hypotheses of this study. The limitations of the study were looked at.

Literature relevant to this study will be reviewed in subsequent chapters. Theoretical concepts of organisational commitment, quality of work life and the supervisor will be identified. Following this will be the research methodology that was adopted in this study. The results obtained from the investigation are presented in Chapter 6 and discussed in Chapter 7. Conclusions, together with recommendations for the application of the findings, are finally offered.

CHAPTER TWO

ORGANISATIONAL COMMITMENT

2.1 Introduction

Shareholders invest capital in companies to receive dividends as a growth on their investment. There is also an expectation to have a workforce represented by committed individuals who would be loyal and be prepared to uphold the company's credentials.

For organisations to have loyal and committed staff, they (organisations) must provide an ideal working environment which "forces" employees to develop positive attitudes towards the company. Having such an attitude reflects the extent to which individuals identify and become involved with their organisations and are unwilling to leave them. Three characteristics impact on the development of this attitude.

The first committing aspect of behaviour concerns how visible and observable it is. Acts that are secret or unobserved lack the force to commit because an act that has not been seen cannot be linked clearly to an individual. One of the simplest and easiest means of committing individuals is to make their identification with the organisation widely known and highly visible.

Secondly, organisations need to create a situation whereby the individual's behaviour is irrevocable. In this respect organisations have utilised several schemes for making a person's attachment to the work more or less easily severed (give employees benefit packages that are not transferable from one organisation to another, loss of pensions funds).

Finally, volition is essential to all commitment as it cements the action of individuals and it motivates them to accept the implications of their acts. With volition employees take personal responsibility for a task's completion and success. This increases an individual's sense of achievement and commitment.

Individuals that are committed to their organisations 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, personal and organisational, which the individual and the organisation attempt to satisfy. When unionism takes place between 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) and skill variety, task identity, autonomy (motivational factors). These two theories (hygiene and motivational) 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 would 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. As each of these factors is considered important for this study they are discussed separately.

In order to ensure that there is an integration of personal and organisational objectives it is appropriate to review the research that has been conducted on organisational objectives and to examine their relationship to organisational commitment.

2.2 Organisational Goals

Organisations in the marketplace compete with each other to survive in a hostile environment. Due to the competitive nature of organisations in a capitalistic society, two schools of thought have developed to ensure survival and growth of assets. In the economic theory of the firm a thrust is focused on the maximisation of profits. While in the behavioural theory, supporters believe in the satisfaction of employees' needs.

2.2.1 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 coordinated to make the achievement of economic objectives possible.

In a modern free market society, economic decisions on price, output, product lines, product mix and human resource allocation are made not only by individual entrepreneurs but by a composite number of players in the private and public institutions. Many of these decisions are made within firms where the main concern is the maximisation of profits (Cyert & March: 1963).

2.2.1.1 The theory of the firm

In 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 outputs (products) and inputs (factors) (Cyert & March : 1963).

The assumptions underlying the rationality in the theory of the firm can be questioned, namely, is profit the only objective of the firm and to what extent does it contribute towards committing 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 (Katona: 1951). 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 diversify or remain and review their present situation.

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

The second concern expressed does not render invalid the importance of profits but emphasis is placed on the process of maximisation. Gordon (1948), Simon (1952), and Margolis (1958) feel that entrepreneurs should place emphasis on making satisfactory profits instead of highlighting maximisation. By satisfactory is meant a level of aspiration that the firm uses to evaluate alternative appropriate policies. The policies are directed at the profit objectives of the organisation.

2.2.1.2 The profit objective in business

It is a truism that the majority of organisations in the capitalistic society have an overriding objective, that is, to make a profit. This goal is often obscured by statements that are made concerning the involvement of services provided to the public and opportunities that are available to favour employees. These objectives could place the organisation in the arena where social responsibility is one of the qualifying factors for acceptance by society and 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 could enjoy status that is compatible with their own 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. Koontz and O'Donnell (1964:97) 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 grow 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. This profit 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.

2.2.2 Behavioural theory of the firm

The behavioural theory of the firm emphasizes the process of decision making in a multi-goal organisational coalition. Decisions made in organisations by management on prices, output and budgets are related to the outcome of problems experienced by the economic environment. It is further the result of the way

various groups and individuals interpret these problems and the attempts that are made to influence the processes of decision making.

In the 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 fulfillment is translated into unique sets of needs.

An organisation that is orientated towards making a profit will ensure that their 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 product and providing services to its clients, is finally determined by the internal harmony in the form of worker commitment.

2.2.2.1 The firm as a coalition of groups with conflicting goals

The behavioural theory of the firm as proposed by Cyert and March focuses on the decision making process of the "large multi-product firms under uncertainty in an im-

perfect market" (Koutsoyiannis 1975:386). The large corporate organisations in which ownership is divorced from its management is characteristic in the analysis of this model. The theory of Cyert and March 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, but 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 set 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 exer-

cise 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 material and services are required together with prompt payment in return. Basically, the most important groups are those people 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 allows participation will determine the outcome of commitment.

2.2.2.2. 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 (the 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 organisa-

tions 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. Cyert and March (1963) 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 (Koutsoyiannis : 1975).

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 could 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, 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 and 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 other groups in the same firm, the achievement of similar demands made by groups in other firms and on the aspirations and ex-

pectations 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.

2.2.2.3 Goals of the firm : satisficing 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 would 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 ensure ultimately an 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 (Koutsoyiannis 1975:388).

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 could 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 conflict situations that have to be resolved with the aim of ensuring continuation

and growth of assets and creating an environment where workers could become committed. The functional operation and success achieved by the organisation will be dependent on how well the conflicts are resolved.

2.2.2.4 Means for the resolution of the conflict

The demands of groups and the goals of a 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 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 of resolving underlying conflict situations.

Policy commitments absorb part of the resources of the firm and are in a way payments to labour. Cyert and March (1963:36) refer to these payments as slack where they are made "to 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.

2.2.2.5. 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. Cyert and March (1963) distinguish between decisions taken by top management and those that involve lower levels of administration:

The 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 need 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 (Koutsoyiannis: 1975).

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 goal. 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 groups, management should eliminate ambiguity by having clear cut boundaries of the duties and functions of all units and players. These objectives can be determined through active negotiation by all the actors.

2.2.3. Dynamic negotiated network of objectives

Etzioni (1964) defined 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. Drucker (1954) supports the notion that the judgement to be exercised by management cannot be replaced or eliminated by depending on a possible formula. Drucker (1954) as cited by Koontz & O'Donnell (1972:118) offers the following possible solution, "all that can be done is to make judgment 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. Miner (1992) believes that management should be proactive 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, would be of little use unless it is transmitted in an unambiguous manner to all levels of management.

2.2.4 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 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 could result in objectives not being met (Krippendorf : 1984). Goals of the organisation could be communicated through a formal system developed through an approach of management by objectives (Pratt & Bennett : 1985).

2.2.4.1 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 (Steers:1973).

The clarification of organisational objectives involves paying attention to the formulation and disseminating 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.

However, 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 (Gerber, Nel & Van Dyk : 1992). 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 a high level 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" (Porter, Lawler & Hackman : 1981). A sense of emotional ownership of, and commitment to, objectives could ensure that members become motivated and exercise self-direction and self-control at their work stations.

If one intends 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 could affect the employee's level of commitment.

The developmental 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 would require 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 et al : 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.

2.2.5 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 (Pratt & Bennett : 1985). Effective communication is a cornerstone of managerial and organisational success as Levering, Moskowitz & Katz (1984:9) point out:

"Each communication is unique, but there were certain themes we heard 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.

2.2.5.1 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 coordinate the activities of their employees (Muchinsky : 1983).

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 communicative efforts made by relevant groups (Klatt, Murdick & Schuster : 1985). 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 (Bendix : 1992). Employees would readily communicate relevant information only when there is openness and sincerity on the part of management, which is relevant for appraising individual performance (Klatt et al : 1985). The development of a formal communication system assists management and employees to clarify and confirm the content of the messages.

2.2.5.2 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 objective of the message, as well as the population that it is directed towards (Bendix : 1992):

Orientation programmes prepare the employee to have a positive and long-lasting relationship with the organisation (Klatt et al : 1985).

The objectives of employee handbooks are to promote commitment between the employer and employees through information relating to the company's operations, mission statement, policies and procedures (Robbins : 1986).

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 (Klatt et al : 1985).

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

2.2.5.3 Organisational communication systems

The formal communication systems of an organisation relate to the establishment of procedures, policies, information processing and scheduled reports (Griffin & Moorhead : 1986). The informal communication systems consist of non-formalised, unplanned, written or interpersonal communication (Wexley & Yukl : 1984). Communication patterns encompass the directions that communication takes in groups and organisations as well as the channels through which communication flows (Gibson, Ivancevich & Donnelly : 1991). Information could 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 inform the employee about possible problems that need attention (Wexley & Yukl : 1984).

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 (Newman : 1990).

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 (Robbins : 1986).

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 (Kiechel III : 1985). 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 (Gibson et al : 1991).

Although the "grapevine" serves as a supplement to the formal communication system, there is the possibility that malicious gossip and disruptive rumours may spread (Gerber, Nel & Van Dyk : 1992).

2.2.5.4 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 (Snyder & Morris : 1984).

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 (Klatt et al : 1985).

To achieve the highest standards of performance, employees receive feedback from their immediate managers on the evaluation of work they perform (Ashford : 1986). In the event where standards are not met managers may take disciplinary action, by either demoting or terminating the services of their employees (Muchinsky : 1983). Communication between a manager and a worker may be in the form of counselling sessions where work related and personal problems are discussed (Snyder & Morris : 1984).

2.2.5.5 Communication problems and solutions

Wexley and Yukl (1984) 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 (Lengel & Daft : 1988).

The comprehension of a message is measured when managers create understanding and acceptance between themselves and employees (Gibson, Ivancevich & Donnelly : 1988). 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 (Watson : 1982).

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. St. John (1985) 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, 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 (Beck & Beck : 1986). 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 a substantial control over desired outcomes (Athanassiades : 1973; O'Reilly & Roberts : 1974).

Furthermore, 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 (Wexley & Yukl : 1984). 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 (Frank : 1985).

Downward communication of relevant messages fail when managers withhold information from workers. This could have a negative effect on the overall performance and commitment of individuals (Wexley & Yukl : 1984). Managers may withhold information due to feelings of insecurity and the fear of losing control over their subordinates (Smeed : 1985).

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 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.

overcome if there is an honest open policy. In this instance employees are not afraid to express their views about their needs.

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

2.3 Personal Goals of Employees

Primarily employees enter organisations to secure a position that provides both intrinsic and extrinsic job satisfaction, and allowing them to pursue a stimulating career. Secondly, they have a complex set of needs and expect the company to satisfy those needs (Gerber, Nel & Van Dyk: 1992). Therefore, the main goals of employees are career advancement and job satisfaction. Although the employee has other goals (challenging jobs, well paid jobs, 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 of organisational commitment.

2.3.1 Careers

Hall (1986) as cited by Gibson, Ivancevich and Donnelly (1991: 600) defines career as "the individually perceived sequence 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. Gibson et al (1991) emphasised 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 (Gunz: 1989).

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 they adapt to the organisation's demands. When career paths are planned certain assumptions have to be made:

2.3.1.1 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 (Barling : 1986). For individuals to progress they must have the potential and willpower 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 resource development assume that employees have a capacity for growth and given the right opportunities they will utilise their talents (Klatt et al : 1985). According to Tannenbaum & Davis (1969:71), "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 choice can be widened and the ability to

learn how to learn more about self can be enhanced." Louis (1980) 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). The 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 (Organ & Bateman : 1986). 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 organisation are compatible. Conditions can be created for "the members of the organization to achieve their own goals best by directing their efforts toward the success of the enterprise" (Porter, Lawler & Hackman 1975:487-488). This indicates that individuals could be motivated to the extent that they will satisfy their own needs and in turn those of the organisation. Both these needs could be achieved if there is collaboration within the organisation.

(d) Collaboration is preferable to competition within organisations

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 than by engaging in competition (Organ & Bateman : 1986). According to Tannenbaum & Davis (1969:70) "A pervasive value in the organization milieu is competition. Competition is based on the assumption that desirable resources are limited in quantity and that individuals 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 growth and considering individual differences the organisation should examine each employee with respect to the following before making any decision:

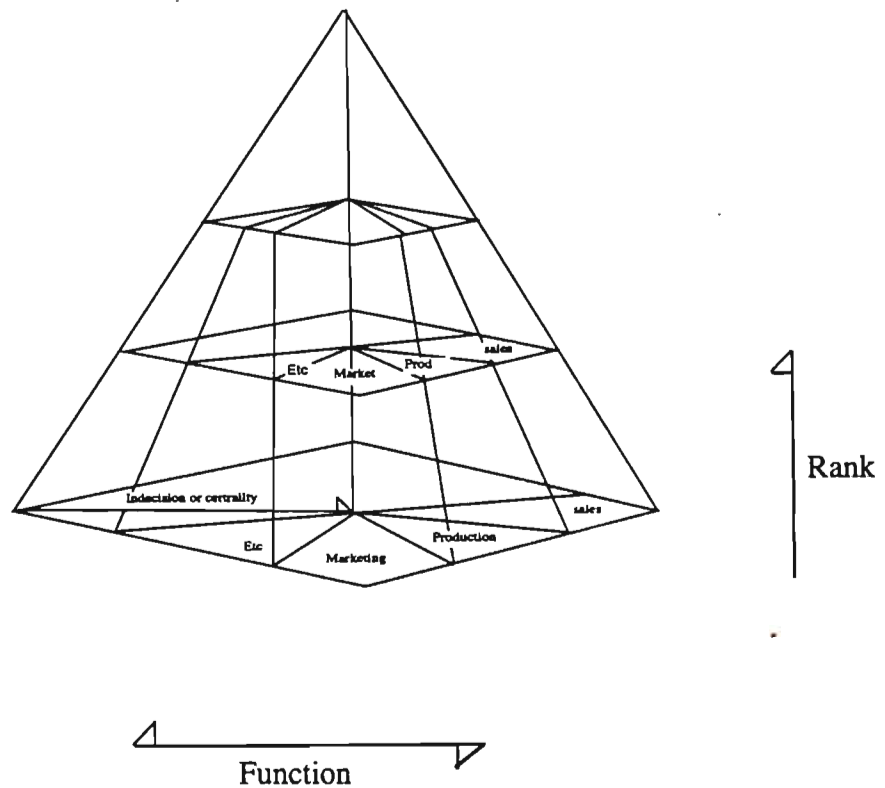
- * The employee's potential to grow within the organisation.
- * The employee's desire to grow (advance) or not. There are individuals that prefer to remain in one job and thereby do not have to accept extra responsibility.
- * The compatibility between the individual's goals with that of the organisation.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

If each of the above factors are carefully considered then the task of the individual in respect of developing careers will be less complicated.

2.3.1.2 Individuals developing careers

Individuals who are goal-oriented 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 (Gerber et al : 1989). 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 would have to move either vertically, radially or circumferentially. This career movement is well illustrated by Schein (1971) in Fig. 2.1.

FIGURE 2.1 A THREE DIMENSIONAL MODEL OF AN ORGANIZATION



Source: Schein, E.H. 1978. Career Dynamics: Matching Individual and Organizational Needs. Massachusetts: Addison-Wesley Publishing Company, p.39.

Schein (1978) developed a model depicting the cycle wherein he identifies some basic dimensions which are linked to external career movement.

The notion that most people who work move along a hierarchial dimension during the course of their careers is well supported by this model. It is evident that a number of promotions and pay raises 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 are fairly tall whilst in others they 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 refers to this as the inclusion or membership dimension. Employees moving along this dimension move toward the core of the organisation. Usually movement along the vertical and inclusion dimensions occur simultaneously. 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.

2.3.2 Job satisfaction

When an organisation can provide a good working environment it would lead to job satisfaction and it is hypothesised that this could 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" (Jenk 1990:78). 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 (Agho, Price & Mueller: 1992).

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) (Heneman, Schwab, Fossum & Dyer : 1989). Secondly, managers seek favourable satisfaction in their own right, that is, managers view workers as a group to satisfy, much in the same line for other groups such as customers and

clients. Positive job satisfaction provides evidence that management is providing the necessary quality of work life (Heneman, Schwab, Fossum & Dyer :1989).

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

2.3.2.1 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 causal bases and that no one theory to date has been successful in incorporating all of the bases into a single theory" (Muchinsky 1983:322).

(a) Discrepancy theory

Locke (1969) believed that satisfaction or dissatisfaction with a job depends on the discrepancy between what individuals desire and what they perceive they are receiving. A satisfied person would be one who perceives no difference between the 'desired' and the 'actual' consideration. The greater the deficiency be-

tween these two factors and the more important the aspect desired, the greater would be the dissatisfaction.

To further explain this theory, Wexley & Yukl (1984:46) conclude 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 focused on perception. Wanous & Lawler (1972) found that employees respond differently depending on how the discrepancy is defined. They concluded that individuals have varying feelings about their job 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 achievements (Scarpello & Ledvinka : 1988).

Employees judge the fairness of outcomes by comparing their outcome or input ratio to that of a significant other person (Klatt et al : 1985). 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 outcome to input is not equal to that of the significant other, a state of inequity exists. This is possible when one individual with 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 outcome:input ratios (Berkowitz, Fraser, Treasure & Cochran : 1987). 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 (Wexley & Yukl : 1984).

According to Wexley & Yukl (1984:50) "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

Salancick and Pfeffer (1977; 1978) disagreed 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 employees' 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" (Wexley & Yukl 1984:50).

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 (Weiss & Shaw : 1979).

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 as to which one can be utilised by the practitioner. Furthermore, these theories can assist in determining the causes and effects of job satisfaction.

2.3.2.2 Determinants of job satisfaction

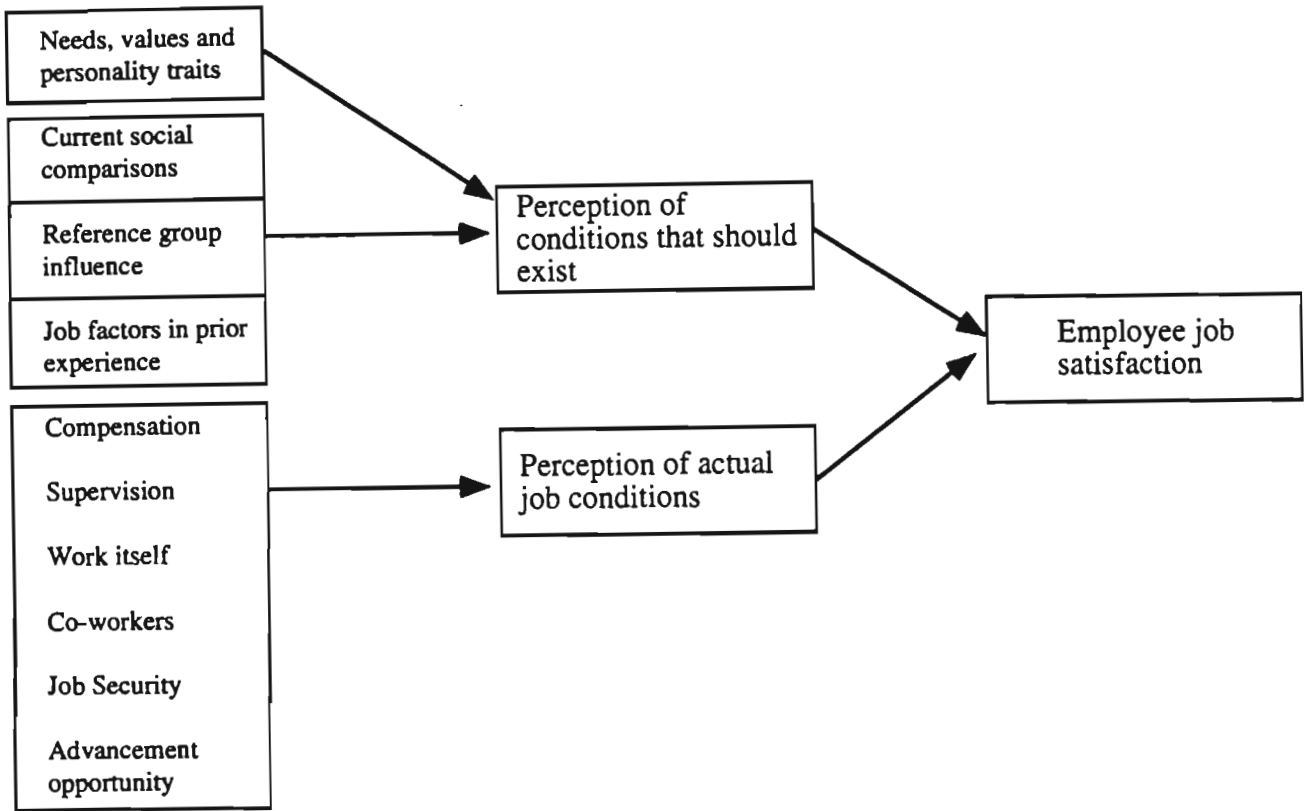
(a) Some determinants of job attitudes

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 (Wexley & Yukl : 1984). Of all the satisfaction theories the discrepancy

one is 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 2.2.

FIGURE 2.2 A HYPOTHETICAL MODEL OF JOB SATISFACTION DETERMINANTS



Source: Wexley, K.N. and Yukl, G.A. 1984. Organizational Behavior and Personnel Psychology. Illinois: Richard D. Irwin, p.57.

Needs, values and personality traits are three types of employee characteristics that affect 'should be' perceptions (Miner : 1992). Needs are essential because the employee wants more of any job factor that is in-

strumental in fulfilling currently activated needs. Only a certain given amount is needed to satisfy a job, anything above that would not increase job satisfaction. Values are relatively stable beliefs about what is 'right' and what is 'wrong' and what is desirable and undesirable life goals (Howell & Dipboye : 1986). 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 (Argyle : 1989). In order to increase the level of job satisfaction employers should determine the needs of the individuals, their preferences and their personality traits. This will assist in some degree to increase organisational commitment.

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

Similarity of attitudes

Interaction between two individuals are rewarding when it results in the development of similar attitudes (Bootzin, Bower, Crocker & Hall : 1991). 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 (Jenks : 1990). It also justifies the individual's decision 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 (Howell & Dipoye : 1986).

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 it requires less physical effort (Cascio : 1989). 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 (Saal & Knight : 1988). Employees in

the lower echelon are closer to the lower level needs whereas those at 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 could assist in creating the environment where the relevant needs could be satisfied.

Satisfaction with supervision

'Satisfaction with supervision' refers to the degree of fulfilment the subordinate receives 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 (Gibson et al : 1988). Hunt and Liebscher (1973) and Kavanagh (1975) found that individuals who were warm and considerate are more liked by others irrespective of whether they are leaders or not. Considerate and supportive leaders are deemed important for employees who have a low self-esteem or very unpleasant and frustrating jobs (Hammer & Turk : 1987).

However, the effect on employees by a supervisor displaying task-oriented behaviour is less predictable. In some instances employees are more satisfied under a task-oriented supervisor, whereas the reverse is also true (Ayman & Chemers : 1983). In a job situation where the work roles of subordinates are ambiguous, they would prefer a leader who will clarify their roles and provide 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 (Hammer & Turk : 1987). The level of satisfaction that an employee enjoys with respect to, inter alia, job level, compensation and the type of supervision received could have far reaching consequences for the company. Dissatisfaction amongst employees may lead to lower commitment, higher labour turnover and absenteeism (Jenks : 1990).

(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 (French : 1987). Research on job attitudes seems to be more concerned with organisational effectiveness than employee

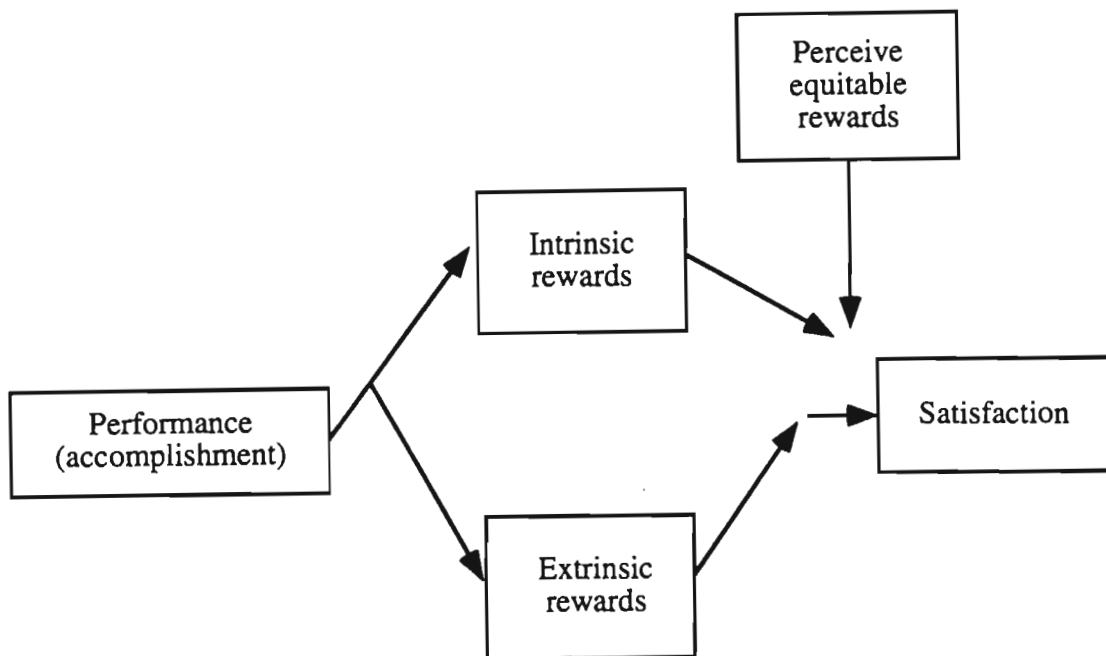
welfare (Wexley & Yukl : 1984). Studies have been carried out to determine the effect of job satisfaction on productivity, absenteeism, turnover and other aspects of employee behaviour relevant to organisational effectiveness (Michaels & Spector : 1982; Organ & Konovsky : 1989).

Satisfaction and performance

According to Saal & Knight (1988:317) "one of the most strongly held beliefs among managers, supervisors and Industrial/Organizational psychologists has been that there is a relationship between a worker's job satisfaction and his performance. Unfortunately this belief has not proved to be valid." Although some research projects have produced positive correlations they were insignificant as French (1987) believes 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 (Saal & Knight : 1988). Extrinsic rewards are provided by the organisation and includes pay, promotion, status symbols and formal recognition (Muchinsky : 1983). Employees producing 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 performers will enjoy satisfaction (French : 1987). 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 Lawler and Porter model (1967) (Fig.2.3) which illustrates the causal relationship between satisfaction and performance.

FIGURE 2.3 LAWLER-PORTER MODEL OF THE RELATION BETWEEN SATISFACTION AND PERFORMANCE



Source: Lawler, E.E. and Porter, L.W. 1967. The Effects of Performance on Satisfaction. Industrial Relations, p.23.

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

Dissatisfaction and withdrawal

Dissatisfied employees are more likely than satisfied workers to be absent from work or to terminate their services with an organisation (Gibson et al : 1991). 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 have to be employed to serve as substitutes. Labour turnover involves additional expenditure for recruitment and selection of staff (Wexley & Yukl : 1984). High labour withdrawals are symptomatic of poor working conditions as a result of which the organisation would 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 with 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 is concluded.

2.4 Formal contract of employment

Contract of service is concerned with the contractual relationship that exists between employer and employee. It is defined as, "a reciprocal agreement between an employer and an employee in terms of which an employee puts his service at the disposal of the employer usually for an indefinite period, at an agreed remuneration and in such manner that the employer exercises control over the employee and supervises the rendition of his services" (Van Jaarsveld 1978:286).

The primary reason for a formal contract of employment is to set out from the beginning the conditions under which the individual would be employed. A formal contract helps to prevent a dispute from arising.

In the contract of employment employees give their service to the employer who in turn promises to pay them a wage or salary together with a safe working en-

vironment (Swanepoel : 1989). In this contract there are obligations on the part of both the employer and the employee.

2.4.1 Obligations of the parties

Most rights and obligations of employers and employees are included in a contract. However, in the event of an oral contract not all aspects of the employer and employee relationship could be covered by the parties in advance (Swanepoel : 1989):

2.4.1.1 Obligations of the employer

In the contract of employment the employer is bound by the following (Swanepoel:1989):

(a) Payment of remuneration

The employer is under an obligation to pay employees either a wage or a salary for the period in which they have performed their agreed upon duties.

In the situation of suspension the employer must continue to pay the employee for the duration of the period. However, suspension without pay is possible where both parties agreed in terms of the employment contract (Rycroft & Jordaan : 1990).

(b) Provision of work

As long as the employer continues to pay the employees' wage they do not have to work continuously. When employees are not in agreement with the situation they can either terminate the contract or negotiate another one. This rule applies where employees have to devote their undivided attention to the business of their employer and is therefore unable to work for another employer (Rycroft & Jordaan : 1990).

(c) Vacation leave

An employee is not entitled to vacation leave unless stated in the conditions of employment. However, due to the force of custom and practice vacation leave is implied to be present in the contract (Gibson & Combrie : 1983).

(d) Sick leave

Employees are entitled to payment during an illness only for periods they have actually worked. However, if the period of absence is unreasonably long, the employer can summarily terminate the contract.

2.4.1.2 Duties of the employee

In the contract of service the employee is obliged to meet certain requirements or the contract could be of no effect:

(a) Making personal services available

The employee's first duty is to use appropriate skills in the work place. The employer cannot force the employee to perform any work that has not been agreed to. However, as time goes on additional duties could become effective as in the event of promotion or transfer. Acceptance by the individual of a promotion or transfer means tacitly accepting a changed condition of employment. If employees cannot perform effectively and produce completed work, they will be guilty of breach of contract (Ringrose : 1976).

(b) Obedience

Refusal by the employee to carry out reasonable instructions could be construed as a breach of contract. However, employees cannot be dismissed if they refuse to carry out unlawful or unreasonable instructions.

(c) Subordination

Showing contempt towards an employer amounts to breach of contract and this could result in the summary dismissal of the employee.

(d) Maintenance of bona fides

It is usual for some employees to obtain vital and strategic information about the functioning of an organisation. Should employees misuse that information towards their own ends, they would not be acting in good faith and as such could be sued for redress by their employer. Breach of faith could lead to dismissal (Rycroft & Jordaan : 1990).

(e) Misconduct

Employees must conduct themselves at all times in accordance with accepted practice and policy of the employer. However, should either of the parties breach the contract then it could be terminated by any of the following events: completion, notice by either party, repudiation or discharge without notice, damages suffered by a party, victimisation, insolvency, death or incapacity.

The legal contract of employment between the employer and employee is drawn up to prevent any disputes during the course of engagement. The formal contract will be redundant if both parties recognise the needs of each other and enter into an informal or psychological contract.

2.5 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 Baker (1985), the components of the psychological contract are shared expectations which can be viewed from two 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 their ability to meet those expectations.

The psychological contract can therefore be defined as "the mutual exchange and reciprocation between the individual and the organization" (Huse & Bowditch 1973: 74). 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 Bowditch & Buono (1982 : 9) who see the psychological contract as, "the link between the individual and the organization 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 ongoing process of negotiation between the employer and employees and much depends on the degree of credibility created between the two parties, which relies on the power exercised by the organisation and the expectations of the employee (Baker : 1985).

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.

2.5.1 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 (Gerber et al : 1992). 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.

2.5.1.1 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 (Cascio : 1989). Although individuals may have positive attitudes towards a company, they could feel rejected unless their feelings are shared by their superiors or colleagues (Blackler & Sylvia : 1984). The initiative for mutual acceptance lies primarily with the organisation and the events which symbolise organisational acceptance as expressed by various researchers are:

- * Organisational acceptance may be in the form of positive feedback the individual receives in the first formal or informal performance appraisal (Bannister : 1986).
- * 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 (Gibson et al : 1986).
- * In work situations the most rewarding event symbolising organisational acceptance is the movement of individuals from their initial job to a more permanent and challenging one (Jacobson : 1977).

- * 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 would not take advantage of it (Feldman : 1981).
- * Acceptance of a new employee could be symbolised by being involved in an organisational 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 (Porter et al : 1981).
- * Promotion, inter alia, provides the evidence and reward of being accepted into the organisation (Schwarzwald, Koslowsky & Shalit : 1992). This is, however, a dysfunctional aspect of many organisational norms to conceive of career growth, progress or success only in hierarchical terms (Lewicki : 1981). It is possible for individuals to grow and make progress laterally across different functions through progressively more challenging work assignments in different areas without change in rank (Erez & Zidon : 1984).

Individuals through their initiative and determination (self-development, acceptance of promotion) could 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 individual can either accept or reject the organisation through various strategies.

2.5.1.2 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 (Schein: 1978). Employees accept their companies by:

- * Deciding to remain in the organisation, which signifies acceptance of the company and its conditions of employment (Gibson et al : 1988).
- * 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 (Von Glinow, Driver, Brousseau & Pine : 1983).

* 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 would be prepared and willing to put up with the constraints and delays (Gibson et al : 1988).

The views expressed by different researchers (Gibson et al: 1988; Von Glinow et al : 1983) 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 (Scott : 1972). This further complicates the relationship between the employer and employee.

The demands placed on the business environment is 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.

2.6 Congruency between personal goals and relevant formal organisational goals

Individuals in employment have certain expectations that are translated into goals, while the desire to survive in a competitive world is the objective of organisations (Nadler, Hackman & Lawler : 1979). The effective operation of an organisation is ensured through the congruency between personal goals of individuals and those of organisations. Various factors (the ability of the firm to satisfy the individual's needs, environmental factors, membership of groups, and realistic job information made available to the individual) can affect this harmony (Van den Berg & Scarpello : 1990).

Career transitions are viewed from the individual's and the organisation's perspective. Individuals develop their careers as life patterns of work or as occupations while organisations create a 'path' for people to follow. Management in turn is instrumental in

realising the ultimate aim of the chosen career (Jenks:1990). This is envisaged from entry into the company.

Upon entry, newcomers are engaged in a process of familiarising themselves with policies and procedures (Van Maanen : 1975). From the organisation's perspective individuals are introduced to induction programmes, basic training and socialisation of the major norms and values of the institution (Gibson et al: 1988). These methods assist with the development of a congruent climate.

Congruency between the individual and the organisation materialises through active negotiation between the different parties that ultimately leads to a psychological contract (Baker : 1985). Satisfaction of an individual's needs could lead to an increase in organisational commitment. Numerous factors contribute to the congruency between the organisational goals and individual goals.

2.6.1 Career development and individual organisation intergration

It is a manager's function to develop people with the aim of setting long term objectives towards the realisation of employees' career paths. This creates a situation of high individual-organisation integration where the individual's goals are congruent with the organisation's goals (Feldman : 1981). A high degree of congruency between an individual's career goals and the organisation's development efforts does not always exist (Meir & Navon : 1992).

Various factors can influence a low degree of congruence between the individual's career goals and the development plans of the organisation. In the first instance, there are fewer positions than the number of people who wish to fill them. Due to the inability of organisations to satisfy the demands placed upon them, dysfunctional consequences are experienced in the form of high turnover, low motivation and morale. From the individual's point of view, this means the experience of psychological failure (Feldman: 1981). Such poor individual organisation integration seems to be inevitable as most organisations are hierarchical and upward mobility is associated with certain privileges. Organisations attempt to reduce the intensity of the

problem by improving the lower-level jobs to be more rewarding. Through a carefully planned selection process the number of people who aspire to higher level positions in the organisation are controlled (Porter et al : 1981).

Secondly, organisations focus their development efforts on individuals, which results in organisations developing individuals that are incongruent with their career goals (Gibson et al : 1988). This situation arises when the organisation develops individuals to fill positions that are below their aspiration levels. Some of these problems are solved when the individual and the organisation jointly plan a career path. Integrated planning and decision making between the two players lead to congruence between career goals and organisational development (Kidd & Killeen : 1992). However, joint planning is not the panacea because it will not solve the problem when there is a discrepancy between the individual's belief and the company's view concerning potential (Miner : 1992).

Finally, poor assessment of the individual's potential can lead to low convergence between career goals and the organisation's proposed development plans for the employee. Under or over estimation of the abilities

could lead to a distortion in the efforts applied for developing. When the individual sets career goals that are unrealistic, dissatisfaction and feelings of frustration are manifested (Porter et al : 1981). In order to prevent ill-feelings it is essential for both the individual and organisation to set realistic goals as unrealistic ones often lead to frustration, lower motivation and ultimately to a decrease in organisational commitment.

2.6.2 A view of individual-organisation interaction

Interaction between individuals and organisations are supported by relevant stimuli related to the skills and needs (Porter et al : 1981) . Both the individual and the organisation contribute towards the effective interaction between the two players in the equation.

2.6.2.1 Contribution by the organisation

The organisation provides two classes of stimuli in the form of expectations that are communicated to the members and the availability of resources (Porter et al : 1981).

Formal systems are used to elicit positive responses from individuals towards expectations initiated by organisations. These include:

- * Recruitment and selection systems which ensure that only individuals who can meet the goals of the company are employed (Gerber et al : 1992).
- * Socialisation and training procedures to help members increase their understanding of organisational expectations and their capability to fulfill them (Robbins : 1986).
- * Evaluation and reward systems to provide explicit contingencies as to whether individuals meet the requirements of their jobs and the receipt of rewards or not (Gerber et al : 1992).
- * Measurement and control systems to assess the extent to which the goals of the company are being met and to provide the means for remedial action (Miner : 1992).
- * Developing supervisory practices to assist the individual to effectively meet organisational expectations (Steinmetz & Todd : 1986).

The second set of stimuli available for contributing towards the interaction between individuals and organisations is the provision of resources. Resources are translated into money, hygiene factors or a by-product directed in pursuit of organisational goals

(Miner : 1992). Beside the role of the organisation in creating a congruent situation, the individual can also make a significant contribution.

2.6.2.2 Contribution by the individual

The individual makes a contribution in the form of related needs, goals, skills and applied energies (Porter et al : 1981). Individuals bring into the company their own unique sets of needs and goals. They have a strong personal stake in organisational membership and seek opportunities to satisfy their own goals.

When considering the application of skills and energies as resources, it is accepted that individuals are members of an organisation (Organ & Bateman : 1986). However, when they decline such membership, they withhold resources that may jeopardise the possible interaction which makes the process of adaptation difficult.

2.6.3 Adaptation process : individuals and organisations learning to accommodate each other

Once the individual and the organisation have chosen each other, they learn to mutually accept either party. For this 'marriage' to work, there has to be

compromises from both sides. This relationship can be viewed as a series of mutual expectations of which the parties may not themselves be aware but which nonetheless govern their relationships with each other.

The adaptation is a two way process where individuals sacrifice a certain amount of their freedom when they join and at the same time they agree on the legitimate demands from the institution (Porter et al : 1981). During the 'socialisation' process the individual's behaviour is shaped in accordance with the organisation's needs (Wanous : 1980). Simultaneously new employees through individualisation exert influence on the organisation to gain their own personal satisfaction. Socialisation and individualisation are integral dimensions in the adaptation process.

2.6.3.1 Socialisation

(a) Nature and importance of organisational socialisation

Socialisation refers to the activities undertaken by the employer to integrate individual and organisational purposes (Feldman & Brett : 1983). Schein (1968:2) emphasises that "the process is so ubiquitous and we go through it so often during our total career that it is all too easy to overlook it. Yet it is a process which

can make or break a career, and which can make or break organizational systems of manpower planning. The speed and effectiveness of socialization determine employee loyalty, commitment, productivity and turnover. The basic stability and effectiveness of organizations therefore depends upon their ability to socialize new members". The fact that socialisation is considered to be such an important process means that it has to be carried out in a well planned and systematic manner.

(b) Phases of the socialisation process

The organisational socialisation process involves three phases:

* Pre-arrival - the individual arrives at the new organisation with an established set of values, attitudes and expectations. The employee enters with an existing perceptual picture of the organisation and about the job (Robbins: 1986). Although the individual will have certain values and norms different from the old ones, there would nevertheless be certain common elements.

* Encounter - when individuals enter a new company with their existing sets of attitudes and behavioural predispositions and encounter ones that

are different from that of the organisation, conflict is created (Handy : 1985). However, individuals are gradually subjected to reinforcement policies and practices of the company.

The success of the encounter phase from the organisation's point of view depends on the level of motivation of the individual as well as the extent to which individuals are prepared to change their own ideas (Bowditch & Buono : 1990);

* Change and acquisition - when engaged in early socialisation, individuals change through experience their ideas and behaviour which are congruent with those of the organisation (Porter et al : 1981). Porter et al (1981) have provided a list of four of these acquisition requirements:

Firstly, after joining an organisation individuals acquire a revised and changed view of themselves. The degree of change will depend on the intensity and extent of the organisation's socialisation attempt (Handy : 1985).

The second acquisition requirement "always involves something more than the development of new relationships; it also requires the abandonment of

old ones. There is always the awareness that becoming what one is now means forgetting what one was before" (Caplow 1964 :171). However, the extent and importance of old relationships usually determine what kind of socialisation process is necessary (Porter et al : 1981).

Thirdly, the individual undergoing the socialisation process acquires values the organisation considers necessary by receiving information about them, then by accepting them and finally by internalising them.

Finally, new employees acquire new sets of behaviour, some of which are essential for their chances of remaining with the organisation. Schein (1971) distinguished between pivotal, relevant and peripheral role behaviours as being important for acquisition. Pivotal are those role behaviours the organisation considers so essential that without their adoption, the individual will not be considered a minimally adequate performer. Relevant behaviour modes are considered by the organisation to be desirable but not absolutely necessary. Finally, peripheral behaviours are not seen as necessary or even desirable but which would be

permitted to be exhibited and which might eventually become relevant behaviours as far as the organisation is concerned.

Even though the individual may enter the organisation with a set of values and attitudes that are different from those of the organisation, with effective socialisation the degree of congruence could be increased. This will depend to an extent on the organisation's methods of socialisation.

(c) The organisation's methods of promoting socialisation

Organisations have various means of promoting the socialisation process (training, apprenticeship and debasement) that new and existing members engage in.

Porter et al (1981) indicated that the 'right' type of person could be appointed in the organisation through a selection process. Selection is widely used and often a powerful means of assisting the socialisation process.

Training is used to develop the necessary technical and task skills that employees will need to carry out their jobs. Training programmes focussing on 'adaptive'

skills have an impact on related socialisation goals by modifying self images, building new relationships and acquiring values. Success or accomplishment of skills demonstrated during training have a major influence on a person's organisational career well beyond the specific training period (Gibson et al : 1986). In addition, the organisation uses apprenticeship and debasement to promote socialisation. Apprenticeship is a preferred mode of socialisation in systems in which the values to be communicated are as important as the accomplishments (Porter et al : 1981). However, during debasement individuals detach themselves from their previously held attitudes and ways of thinking about themselves and substitute another more humble view which will allow easier application of organisational influences (Wanous, Reichers & Malik : 1984) Some of these experiences are accidental while others are deliberate.

Although organisations seek to socialise every individual in an ideal fashion, this is not always possible. Organisations accept this situation as there is a great deal of non-programmed, undeliberate learning of organisation mores by new employees. Since employers cannot exercise complete control over the work experiences of the individual, they depend on

trial and error as a means of encouraging socialisation (Hebden : 1986). In addition to socialisation, the success of the adaptation process depends on individualisation.

2.6.3.2 Individualisation

While organisations make concerted efforts to influence individuals, they place demands on the infrastructure to satisfy their own needs (Porter et al : 1981). The range of individualisation - type reactions to socialisation have been classified into three types, namely, rebellion, creative individualism and conformity (Schein : 1968).

Rebellious reactions from individuals towards socialisation elicit behaviour where the organisation's norms and values are rejected (Godsell : 1986). A possible outcome of this process is where employees are either dismissed or they are successful in bringing about a change in their career.

Creative individualism involves accepting the pivotal or essential norms and values but rejecting the peripheral ones (Von Oech : 1986). This could be a successful form of individualisation for both parties where the worker gains by exerting some influence on

the total collective body and the organisation gains by an infusion of fresh ideas and possibly more effective modes of performance. However, as Schein (1968:10) points out, "to remain creatively individualistic in an organization is particularly difficult because of the constant resocialisation pressures which come with promotion or lateral transfer. With each transfer, the forces are great toward either conforming or rebelling. It is difficult to keep focused on what is pivotal and retain one's basic individualism."

Conformity involves accepting all norms and values of the organisation. Although this may seem to be the most opportunistic, it hardly ever materialises in practice (Howell & Dipboye : 1986).

These reactions are distributed along a continuum. However, behaviour classified at the extremes could have detrimental effects on both the organisation and individuals. Porter et al (1981) hypothesised, the more the distribution resembles a normal curve with most of the employees around the mean, the more likely it will be a healthy organisation. Whether an individual is rebellious or conforming, the employee's

entry into the organisation can be very stressful and the success or not of the socialisation process becomes apparent.

2.6.4 The situation when the new employee enters an organisation

When a new employee enters an organisation stress, anxiety and hope is experienced. For the organisation it is a time of great opportunity to exert influence on an employee. When the new employees enter organisations they have certain expectations and likewise the organisation has expectations of these employees (Salaman : 1981).

2.6.4.1 Expectations of the individual

(a) Self-initiated recruitment

The nature of expectations concerning the organisation will depend upon the extent of the individual's prior relationship during recruiting (Bowditch & Buono : 1990). Since most of the recruitment is largely self-initiated, individuals do not have to be convinced to enter into an agreement of employment. It is, therefore, implied the individual does not have exceptionally favourable or unrealistic expectations. Their main concern is how they will shape in their new job

rather than how the organisation is managed (Godsell : 1986). On the other hand, when the individual is sought after by the organisation one gets organisation initiated recruitment.

(b) Organisation-initiated recruitment

When the organisation encourages individuals to accept job offers different expectations are created. Many of them are unrealistic and organisations are not in a position to satisfy all the needs of the individual. This could lead to an incongruent situation between the goals of the individual and the organisation (Cascio : 1989). If organisations provided realistic job previews during the recruitment stage then individuals could create more realistic expectations.

(c) Creating more realistic expectations

Expectations held by new employees can be unrealistic and this can cause low morale and high turnover. Therefore, organisations attempt to provide realistic information during the recruitment stage.

Organisations are engaged in a 'matching' process between themselves and individuals. There is a demand for individuals entering an organisation with certain talents and needs they wish to satisfy. The primary

motive for ensuring a 'proper match' between organisational and individual needs is to reduce turnover and job dissatisfaction (Bowditch & Buono : 1990).

Creating realistic job previews is beneficial to both the individual and the organisation. Individuals enjoy greater job satisfaction and organisations have a stable workforce, thus reducing recruiting and related costs (Popovich & Wanous : 1982). The importance of realistic job previews is borne out by the fact that in the last decade, the concept has drawn wide spread attention from academic researchers and practitioners who are involved with the recruitment and selection of employees (Van den Berg & Scarpello : 1990 ; Meglino, De Nisi, Youngblood & Williams :1988).

Arising from research, four basic and distinct processes that have been hypothesised to mediate the effectiveness of realistic job previews relate to meeting expectations, ability to cope, air of honesty and self selection. The rationale for these four causal factors are (Breugh : 1983):

With realistic job previews, lower initial job expectations are met and it is congruent with actual encounters on the job. Those employees whose expectations are met will most likely remain with the company and experience reduced stress (McEvoy & Cascio : 1985).

A second manner in which realistic job previews influence satisfaction and turnover is by improving the new employee's ability to cope with the current job demands (Popovich & Wanous : 1982). According to Dugoni and Ilgen (1981:580), "if employees are made aware of problems to be faced, they cope with such problems better when they arise, either because they are less disturbed by the problems about which they have been forewarned or because they may pre-rehearse methods of handling these problems."

A third explanation for the effects of realistic job previews is that they communicate an 'air of honesty' to applicants who feel a greater degree of freedom in their organisational choice (Meglino et al : 1988). To the extent that this occurs, dissonance theory predicts a greater commitment to decisions. Recipients of realistic job previews feel more committed in their choice since the decision was their own without any coercion (Premack & Wanous : 1985).

With the high cost of recruitment and selection it is imperative that organisations provide realistic job previews. The advantages of this process will only be realised in the medium to long term and could create congruency between the needs and expectations of the individual with those of the organisation.

2.6.4.2 Expectations of the organisation

The expectations of the organisation may not be entirely positive, due to the related circumstances of the recruitment process. When the individual applies for a position using his own initiative the organisation may have minimal expectations about the new employee's chances of being successful. However, when the organisation actively recruits new employees, the expectations may be unrealistic (Steinmetz & Todd : 1986).

The expectations of the recruiter will be positive due to the time and effort that is spent in getting the individual to consider joining the organisation. Active hostility may erupt when the newcomer is seen as a threat to the security and relationships of the established employees (Gibson et al : 1988).

With regards to the organisation's expectations cognisance should not only be given to how well the new employee will perform but also how effective the adaptation to the culture and customs will be. The organisation will expect the newcomer to adapt to the pivotal values and norms and will be encouraged to adhere to other less crucial ones (Godsell : 1986). How well the individual adapts to the new organisation will depend to a large extent on the part played by the supervisor.

2.6.4.3 Impact of the supervisor

The success of the integrating process will depend upon the type of supervision the employee receives. The supervisor's actions could increase or decrease an individual's commitment. The various factors concerning the supervisor's influence on the relationship between the employee and the organisation relate to selection and placement, appropriate supervisory training and expectations (Steinmetz & Todd : 1986).

Supervisory training is directed towards formulated objectives which according to Schein (1964:76): "Heighten the supervisors' awareness of the difficult problems which they and the new man will face.

Provide an opportunity for supervisors to share with one another their insecurities, concerns, and problems ... and likewise their successful ideas and experiences.

Create relationships among supervisors which would make it possible for them to consult with one another as a means of obtaining help in dealing with new and unusual problems."

When the person in a supervisory or teaching position has positive expectations concerning how well the subordinate can perform and they are communicated to the subordinate, the employee's performance may actually be facilitated (Jenks : 1990). This approach is known as the 'Pygmalion effect'. If these expectations are considered by the employee to be either too high or low, they lead to frustration and dissatisfaction rather than enhanced performance (Porter et al : 1981).

The role of the supervisor in achieving organisational goals and providing satisfaction to the employee is pivotal to the overall success of the company. The supervisor has an important role to play in enhancing commitment.

Organisations attempt to make better use of their resources by demanding increased productivity from workers. Individuals on the other hand, have their own demands for jobs that allow them to make greater use of their potential. However, for these two goals to be congruent, organisations must ensure that employees are well motivated. They need direction, autonomy and variety when doing the job and feedback once it is done.

2.7 Potency of personal motivation

It has long been recognised that the psychological influence of the environment on the behaviour and development of individuals are crucially important. Likewise, the physical and psychological environment that exist within a company are important motivational determinants of behaviour. The motivation to work or not to work would be determined, inter alia, by the environment the company creates. For employees to perform at a level acceptable to the company, their behaviour has to be directed by way of reward and punishment (Lawler & Mohrman : 1989).

The motivation-hygiene theory as proposed by Frederick Herzberg stipulates that the behaviour of an employee is determined by hygiene factors and motivational fac-

tors (Schwab & Cummins : 1970). The presence of the various hygiene factors, (pay, status, security, working conditions, policies and administrative practices and interpersonal relations), would not necessarily cause satisfaction but the absence would result in dissatisfaction (Miner : 1992). Therefore, it is apparent that hygiene factors could be important motivational determinants.

Motivational factors relate to meaningful and challenging work, recognition of accomplishment, feeling for achievement, increased responsibility, opportunity for growth and advancement and the job itself (Gerber et al : 1992).

The presence of the motivators and the hygiene factors would result in satisfaction and the motivation to perform at an acceptable level (Robbins : 1986). The motivation-hygiene factors form a significant part of this study as they are the basis of the quality of work life. Furthermore, these variables influence the behaviour of individuals.

2.7.1 Behaviour of an individual

The psychological influence present in the environment on instinctive and voluntary development of behaviour direct individuals in certain directions (Gibson et al : 1988).

The psychology of man is concerned with attempting to understand the arousal, direction and persistence of behaviour. Lewin (1935) formulated a theory where he stated that behaviour (B) is a function of interaction between a person (P) and his environment (E).

He translated this into a mathematical formula.

$$B = f (P,E)$$

The essential characteristics of behaviour that need to be highlighted in the life space include :

- * Behaviour always occurs in the context of a particular environment and is influenced by that environment, and
- * Behaviour is directed (Gibson et al : 1991).

Man thus works at something, in a particular setting, at a certain time (Hamblin:1979).

It can therefore be concluded that behaviour of individuals is determined by the environment in which they are present.

2.7.1.1 Psychological environment

Individuals display a behaviour pattern depending on the environment in which they find themselves (Feldman : 1992). When analysing environmental factors an effort must be made to consider the total situation. According to Lewin (1935:73), "such an analysis hence presupposes an adequate comprehension and presentation in dynamic terms of the total psychological situation as its most important task". In these particular circumstances maturation and relative experience are the important factors which the individual will reveal to the outside world (Feldman : 1992). An individual's behaviour is directed once the necessary maturation and experience are gained.

2.7.1.2 Direction of behaviour

According to Lewin (1935) the behaviour of an individual is always goal-directed and there is movement from one activity to another in order to satisfy the behaviour. Man works towards a goal that would lead to satisfaction and moves away from some threat. This ap-

plies to both the environmental and psychological dimensions. At the beginning the 'life-space' of an individual is very small but with time the environment becomes larger and takes on a new meaning (Lewin:1935).

The direction of an individual's behaviour is determined by the goals that has been set and the eagerness to reach the goal. Individuals may move away from a goal that would seem to have no value for them in the long run or if they fear the outcome (Hamblin : 1979). In the psychological environment as well, individuals will direct their behaviour in the direction of a goal that they wish to satisfy. Reinforcement works to increase the probability of a behaviour occurring again. Whether a particular goal will be reached will depend on the intensity of motivation which is the force behind the direction of behaviour (Steers & Porter : 1991).

2.7.1.3 Impetus of behaviour

Motivation refers to a force that energises and gives direction to behaviour and that underlies the tendency to persist (Papalia & Olds : 1987). In order to achieve goals, individuals must be sufficiently aroused and energetic, have a clear focus, and be able and willing to commit their energy for a period of time, long

enough to fulfil their aim (Bootzin, Bower Crocker & Hall : 1991). A motive could be the driving force of attraction or repulsion. McClelland, Atkinson, Clark & Lowell (1953:322) state that motives are "affectively toned associative networks ... arranged in a hierarchy of strength or importance within a given individual". It follows that a motive is then the factor which gives direction, vigour and persistence to an individual's actions.

Motives help to make predictions about behaviour. While motives do not tell exactly what will happen, they do give an idea about the range of activities in which a person will participate (Morgan , King , Weisz & Schopler : 1986).

Hamblin (1979:153) explains that "motivated behaviour refers collectively to all the various forms of behaviour in which the individual engages as he strives to reach a goal. Motivated behaviour includes everything an individual notices, does, feels and thinks in more or less integrated fashion while he is pursuing a given goal. Motivation is a concept that assists in explaining behaviour patterns exhibited by the individual".

2.7.1.4 Motivation of behaviour

Motives which direct most of the daily behaviour of man are acquired during life (Worchel & Shebilske : 1983).

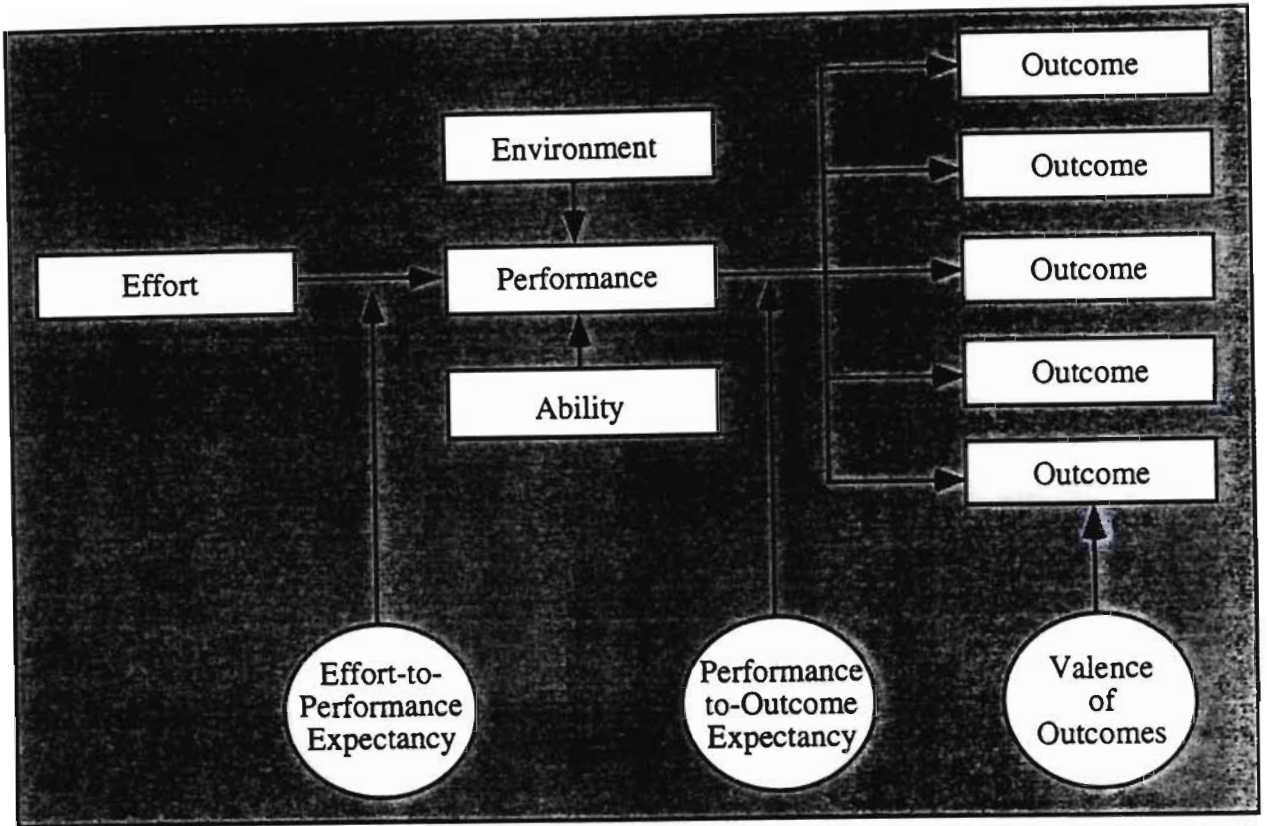
Skinner (1953) who studied acts such as eating and drinking concluded that individuals eat because it leads to a reduction of their hunger drive. He studied such hunger reducing drives in a number of organisms and labelled it 'instrumental learning or conditioning' whereas McClelland and Winter (1969) concluded that all motives are learned and that biological discomforts and pleasures only become urges when they are linked to cues. The way in which these urges become associated together through experience tend to assume stable patterns which McClelland et al(1953) term 'clusters' of expectations and associations. However, he points out that not all of these clusters are associated with biological needs. Instead, some of these clusters are motives which McClelland and Winter (1953:322) define as "affectively toned associative networks... arranged in a hierarchy of strength or importance within a given individual". For a goal to be satisfied there has to be a mobilisation of energy in the form of an aroused need.

How a person behaves is also determined by what he expects upon completing a task and the value of the reward that he receives. This view is evident in theories that reflect on motivation, for example, the expectancy valence theory, which emphasises that individuals are rational beings.

2.7.2 Expectancy valence theory of motivation

Expectancy theory is a variation of early cognitive and decision theories developed by scholars in a variety of disciplines (Schwarzwald et al : 1992). According to the expectancy theory the behaviour of a person reflects a conscious choice based on comparative evaluation of different behaviour alternatives (Wexley & Yukl:1984). According to the expectancy theory an individual compares his effort, performance and outcome with that of another individual (Figure 2.4).

FIGURE 2.4 THE EXPECTANCY THEORY OF MOTIVATION



Source: Griffin, R.W. and Moorhead, G. 1986. Organizational Behavior. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Company, p. 177.

Figure 2.4 summarises the expectancy model which deals with effort, performance and outcomes. The expectancy theory emphasises the linkages between these three steps which are described in terms of expectancies and valences (Pinder:1984).

2.7.2.1 Effort-to-performance expectancy

The effort-to-performance expectancy is the perceived probability that effort will lead to performance (Harder : 1991). For example, if persons believe that their effort will be rewarded with high performance, then their expectancy is very strong, perhaps approaching 1.0 (where 1.0 equals absolute certainty that the outcome will occur). If persons feel that their performance will remain the same no matter how much effort they make, the expectancy is very low, close to 0.0 (where 0.0 equals absolutely no chance that the outcome will occur). An individual who thinks there is a moderate relationship between effort and performance has an expectancy somewhere between 1.0 and 0.0 (Griffin and Moorhead : 1986). Performance is affected not only by effort but also by outcome.

2.7.2.2 Performance-to-outcome expectancy

The performance-to-outcome expectancy is an individual's perception of the probability that performance will lead to certain outcomes. If the individual is certain that high performance will lead to an increase in salary, this expectancy will be close to 1.0. On the other hand, a person who believes that pay raises are entirely independent of performance has an expectancy close to zero (Organ & Bateman : 1986).

Finally, if individuals think that performance has some bearing on the prospects for a pay raise, their expectancy lies in between 1.0 and 0.0 (Griffin & Moorhead : 1986). Besides performance, an individual's motivation also depends on valence.

2.7.2.3 Outcomes and valences

An outcome can be considered as anything that might possibly result from performance (Harder : 1991). High level performance could result in a pay raise, a promotion, recognition from the boss, fatigue, and stress. The valence of an outcome is the degree to which it is desirable or undesirable. The expectancy of an outcome is the perceived probability that it will occur if a given behaviour alternative is chosen (Gerber et al : 1992). Pay raises, promotions and recognition might all have positive valences, whereas fatigue, stress and less personal time might all have negative valences. People vary in the magnitude of their outcome valences. For example, one person may consider stress to be a significant negative factor while another may find it to be only a slight annoyance. Likewise, a pay increase might have a strong positive valence for someone desperately in need of money, a slight positive valence

for a person primarily interested in getting a promotion and even a negative valence for a person in an unfavourable tax position (Barling : 1986).

In order to maximise the advantages of the expectancy theory it is important for management to know the preferences of each employee and also to inform the employees of the types of rewards that are linked to performance. The expectancy theory, although difficult to implement, has important implications for management.

2.7.2.4 Practical implications of the expectancy theory

Wexley and Yukl (1984) have listed several practical implications of the expectancy theory:

- * Appropriate procedures should be developed for evaluating employee performance.
- * The organisation should establish an incentive programme with monetary and related types of rewards which depend upon superior performance by employees.
- * The company should minimise any undesirable outcome (lay offs, accidents) that employees may view to be a result of superior performance.

- * It must not be assumed that employees have an accurate perception of reward contingencies. The reward contingencies should be explained in a manner that will ensure accurate performance-outcome expectancies.
- * The company must ensure that each employee has a high effort-performance expectancy by providing adequate training, making job assignments appropriate to an employee's ability, and eliminating obstacles to effective performance.
- * The valence attached to an employee for potential need-related outcomes should be investigated by the organisation and considered individual differences. Only outcomes with a high valence for employees should be used as incentives for superior performance.

In addition to the foregoing there are theoretical benefits contained in the tenets of the expectancy theory. However, problems may be encountered when the theory is implemented in practice. One problem involves determining the level of effort or motivation. In order to measure effort a clear specification of the meaning of the variable must be determined (Wexley & Yukl : 1984).

Another difficulty concerns the issue of first-level performance outcomes. The theory does not specify which outcomes are relevant to a particular individual in a situation. There is no systematic strategy as each researcher has a unique way of approaching this matter (Larson : 1986).

Due to the intricacies of motivation the conscious and sub-conscious aspects of it must be considered which this theory does not provide for (Harder : 1991) .

However, barring the difficulties, the expectancy theory is valid for predicting certain types of behaviour specifically effort levels and decisions such as occupational choices and job preferences (Harder : 1991).

The problem with motivational theories (including the expectancy theory) is that they do not account for the existence of individual differences which are important motivational factors.

2.7.3 Individual motivational configuration

Effective employee motivation has been one of the most difficult and challenging duties of management. This difficulty arose out of individual differences and the changing dynamics of organisational life. Despite its intuitive appeal the concept of motivation has been a troublesome one for psychology. A reason for this is that motivation itself is not observable. It is a hypothetical process that can only be inferred from behaviour (Staw : 1986).

Despite the complexity of measuring motivation, it has nevertheless, proven to be an extremely useful concept for the analysis of individual behaviour in organisations. The effects connected with motivation is compounded by different reasons for people being involved in work (Desseler : 1982). Firstly, people need jobs to earn a living in order to survive. Secondly, individuals work because society expects it from them. By complying with society's expectations, it is acknowledged that the opinions of 'others' are important (Jenk : 1990).

Understanding and measuring individual motivation is compounded by the existence of variables that affect it.

2.7.3.1 Variables that constitute work motivation

The theory of motivation at work concerns itself with three important set of variables, namely, characteristics of the individual, behavioural implications of the required job tasks, and finally, impact of the larger organisational environment (Steers & Porter : 1991).

(a) Characteristics of the individual

The purpose of activity, or the reason behaviour arousal occurs and is guided in a certain direction, is that man has innate needs that must be satisfied. Each of these needs gives rise to tensions and stimuli represented as instincts in the mental life of the individual. Consequently, the reduction of these energy levels is the ultimate cause of all activity (Bootzin, Bower, Crocker & Hall : 1991).

Of major concern to management is the needs employees bring to the work situation and the expectancy to enjoy satisfaction. Differences in individuals can at times account for a good deal of variance in effort and performance on a job. Steers and Porter (1991) have listed three major categories of individual characteristics that affect the motivational process, namely, interests, attitudes and needs.

- * Interests refer to the direction of an individual's attention. The nature of an employee's interest affects both the manner and the extent to which external stimuli would affect his behaviour. Employees' motivation to participate in the work place are to a large extent determined by the degree of compatibility between their vocational interests and the realities attached to the job (Steers and Porter : 1979).

- * The attitudes or beliefs of employees play a pertinent role in their motivation to perform in the workplace. Individuals who are dissatisfied with, inter alia, their jobs or supervisors, may have little desire to exert the necessary effort.

- * The concept of needs has received widespread attention by motivational theorists e.g. Maslow and McClelland & Atkinson. Variations in human needs can be important factors in the determination of effort and performance.

In addition to these individual traits, the characteristics of the job itself also represents an important motivating variable.

(b) Characteristics of the job

Characteristics of the job involve factors relating to the attributes of an individual's job and may range from the variety of activities required to do the job to the significance of the task. This incorporates the type of feedback individuals receive as a consequence of performance on the job (Anderson, Crowell, Doman & Howard : 1988). These factors play a significant role in determining the level of an individual's motivation. The design of the job, from either the individual's or the organisation's perspective are important motivational determinants (Steers & Porter : 1991). However, the characteristics of the work environment are also important variables that affect the work motivation.

(c) Characteristics of the work environment

The nature of the organisational environment in which the individuals perform their task can be categorised into those associated with the immediate work environment (the work group) and those related to the organisation's wider actions (Organ & Bateman : 1986). Both the categories focus primarily on what happens to the employee at work (Schultz & Schultz : 1986).

There are two factors in the immediate work environment that affect work behaviour. In the first instance, the quality of peer-group interactions significantly influence an employee's effort (Heneman et al : 1989). Such influence can occur at both ends of the productivity continuum : peers can exert pressure on 'laggards' to contribute their fair share of output, or the peers can act to reduce the high productivity of the 'rate-buster'. Likewise, supervisory or leadership style can influence effort and performance under certain circumstances. Immediate supervisors play a significant role in motivation through their control over desired rewards (in the form of bonuses, salary increases and feedback) and their central role in the structuring of work activities. Supervisors play a significant role in determining the freedom of employees to pursue their own personal goals on the job (Steers & Porter : 1991).

The second category of variables in the work environment include systems related to rewards in the form of fringe benefits and individual rewards contained in the salary system (Bowditch & Buono : 1990). The organisational climate that exists in the work environment as well as factors relating to openness of communication, perceived relative emphasis on rewards ver-

sus punishment, degree of interdepartmental co-operation may influence an individual's decision to work effectively.

It is important for management to be aware of the three variables as they contribute appreciably to the provision of a good quality of work life, which could lead to an increase in organisational commitment. The importance of these variables is further explained in the other theories of motivation.

2.7.3.2 Theories of motivation

Five ways of explaining behaviour viz. instincts, needs, rewards, cognitions and job characteristics indicate the evolution of modern theories of human motivation. These could fall into either content theories or process theories (Barling : 1986). Content theories of motivation focus on internal factors such as needs, instincts and satisfaction that energise purposeful behaviour. Process theory of motivation explains how behaviour is given purpose and direction through person-environment interaction. Whereas process theories are dynamic and complex, content theories tend to be static and relatively simple

(Gibson et al : 1988). The importance of cognition in motivation necessitates an analysis of balance theories.

(a) Adam's equity theory of motivation

Another cognitive approach to motivation is embodied in balance theories (Saal & Knight : 1988). According to the balance theories a person's behaviour is influenced by comparisons made between the current status and some standard. When the person's status is reasonably close to the standard, a balance prevails and the person continues with his behaviour and has no reason to change it. If the status is far from the standard, the lack of balance causes tension and the person is motivated to change his behaviour to restore a balance (Cropanzano & Folger : 1989).

Adam's (1965) equity theory is the best known balance theory and is based on Festinger's (1957) cognitive dissonance theory. According to this theory people are motivated to maintain consistency between their cognitive beliefs and their behaviour. Equity is also based on workers' inputs and their outcomes. Input refers to what workers believe they contribute to their jobs or

organisations and outcomes refer to what the individuals perceive that the organisation provides them in return (Jenks : 1990).

Inputs are seen in many forms such as labour, time, skill and years of education or experience that provide workers with the ability to perform their jobs. Outcomes range from pay and fringe benefits to praise and recognition from a superior. Each worker forms a ratio of inputs to outcomes which is compared to the perceived ratio of inputs to outcomes of an appropriate comparison person, called 'significant other' (Katzell & Thompson : 1990). The two ratios are equal when the worker and the significant other receive the same levels of outcomes. Under these conditions, equity prevails and there is no motivation for the individual to change behaviour. If the ratios are not equal, inequity exists and tension will result (Dornstein : 1989).

Three different equity relationships exist, namely, equity, negative inequity and positive inequity. Equity exists when the ratio of outcome to input are equal. Negative inequity occurs when the ratio of outcome to input of the significant other is greater than that of the person. Persons will experience positive

inequity when their outcome to input ratio are greater than that of a relevant co-worker (Scarpello & Ledvinka : 1988). This results in an unpleasant situation.

In order to remedy an unpleasant state, a worker will engage in behaviours that will restore equity. An employee can restore equity by engaging in any of the following behaviours (Scarpello & Ledvinka : 1988):

- (a) Change inputs to bring outcome\input ratio into balance with the comparison person's ratio.
- (b) Change outcomes to bring outcome\input ratio into balance with the comparison person's ratio.
- (c) Cognitively distort or change perceptions of either, own or the other person's inputs and outcome to bring the two ratios into balance.
- (d) Leaving the field, that is, quitting is chosen only when severe inequity cannot be resolved through other methods.
- (e) Select a new comparison person for the purpose of judging equity.

It was found that the amount of tension and the strength of the motivation are proportional to the degree of the perceived inequity.

Research on the equity theory has produced a variety of results, and as such psychologists have begun to examine variables that might improve the predictive power of the theory (Miner : 1992). One variable that has received attention is the way in which workers select comparison persons. Goodman (1974) maintains that workers could compare their outcome\input ratios to a number of different standards:

- (a) The ratios of other people in the same or in other organisations;
- (b) Any of the ratios that the workers themselves have experienced in the past, either in the same organisation or in other organisations;
- (c) Formal or informal understandings or agreements with the organisation concerning outcomes and inputs such as collective-bargaining agreements.

The equity theory has made valuable contributions towards understanding motivation, and has produced several implications for organisations.

* Practical implications of the equity theory

This theory has three important practical implications (Kreitner & Kinicki : 1989). Firstly, managers are provided with an explanation as to how beliefs and at-

itudes affect job performance. The best way to manage job behaviour is to adequately understand cognitive processes. People are motivated powerfully to correct the situation when their ideas of fairness and justice are offended.

Secondly, research on equity theory emphasises the importance of managers paying attention to employees' perception of what is fair and equitable. Irrespective of how fair and just the company's policies and reward systems are, the employees' perception of the equity of those factors are what count (Kreitner & Kinicki : 1989). Employees' perception of equity is affected by, inter alia, cultural factors.

Cross cultural training can help managers be more sensitive towards equity perceptions, especially in multi-national situations. Obtaining employees' perception of the situation within the company is very important. This could be done through informal conversations, interviews or attitude surveys. Organisational loyalty and attachment are greater if employees believe that they are treated fairly (Du Preez : 1986).

Finally, unfair treatment of employees could lead to litigation and costly court settlement. Employees are now more aware of their rights in the workplace and this creates a problem for the employer that treats employees unfairly (Kreitner & Kinicki : 1989).

The equity theory is relevant to present day South Africa as employees are becoming more aware of their rights and managers need to be sensitive to existing cultural differences.

(b) Goal setting theory of motivation

Another cognitive approach to motivation is goal setting. Regardless of the nature of their achievement successful people are found to lead a goal-directed life. Goal setting was first proposed by Locke in 1968. According to Locke, an individual's conscious goals and intentions are the primary determinants of behaviour, that is, "one of the commonly observed characteristics of intentional behaviour is that it tends to keep going until it reaches completion" (Ryan 1970:95).

Locke, Shaw, Saari & Latham (1981 : 126) define a goal as "what an individual is trying to accomplish; it is the object or aim of an action". They explained this

definition further by adding "the concept is similar in meaning to the concepts of purpose and intent ..."
(Locke et al 1981: 126). Other frequently used concepts that are also similar in meaning to that of goal include performance standard (a measuring rod for evaluating performance), quota (a minimum amount of work or production), work norm (a standard of acceptable behaviour defined by a work group), task (a piece of work to be accomplished), objective (the ultimate aim of an action or series of actions), deadline (a time limit for completing a task and budget (a spending goal or limit). All these concepts ultimately impact on the performance of individuals.

The motivational impact of performance goals and goal-based reward plans were recognised a long time ago by among others, F.W. Taylor, who attempted to scientifically establish how much work of a specified quality should be assigned to an individual each day. More recently, goal-setting has been promoted through management by objectives (Earley, Connolly & Ekegren : 1989). Furthermore, the mechanics of goal setting as a motivational tool have now been determined.

* Goal setting mechanism

Although there is an abundance of research on goal-setting, appropriate theories to support the findings are scarce. However, Locke et al (1981) formulated an instructive model.

According to the model, goal setting has four motivational mechanisms (Locke et al : 1981) namely:-

* Goals direct attention

Personally meaningful goals focus one's attention on what is relevant and important. If a project is to be completed in a few day's time, all thoughts and attention are focused on completing the project which may require extra effort.

Goals regulate effort

Goals not only make individuals selectively perceptive but they may also motivate them to act. Generally, the level of effort expended is proportionate to the difficulty of the goal (Locke et al : 1981) and may only be reached through persistence.

Goals increase persistence

Within the context of goal setting, persistence refers to the effort expended on a task over an extended period of time. Persistent people tend to see obstacles as challenges to be overcome. A difficult goal is a constant reminder to keep exerting effort in the appropriate direction and this may require appropriate strategies to reach the goal.

Goals foster strategies and action plans

If a person is in place A and his goal is to be in place B, his problem is getting from A to B. Goals can give direction to a person because they serve as encouragement to develop strategies and action plans that will end in the achievement of goals. By virtue of going from place A to place B the person will have to work out how he is going to do it, and also in what time period (Locke et al : 1981).

Although the goal setting theory may be complex to follow and implement, it does, however, have important implications.

* Practical implications of goal setting theory

The setting of specific goals is a powerful motivating force. Latham & Baldes (1975:125) emphasise this point:

"The setting of a goal that is both specific and challenging leads to an increase in performance because it makes clear to the individual what he is supposed to do. This in turn may provide the worker with a sense of achievement, recognition and commitment in that he can compare how well he is doing now versus how well he has done in the past and in some instances, how well he is doing in comparison to others. Thus, the worker is not only incited to expend greater effort, but he may devise better or more creative tactics for attaining the goal." Research has supported goal setting as a motivational technique and has given managers four practical insights (Kreitner & Kinicki : 1989):

Difficult goals lead to higher performance

The more difficult the goal, the higher the level of performance, provided the goals are accepted. Goal difficulty is the amount of effort required to meet a target (Wright : 1989). Locke et al (1981) found that performance increases as goals become more difficult but a point of diminishing returns appears to be a real issue. Positive relationship that existed between goal difficulty and performance breaks down when goals are perceived to be impossible. Difficult goals on their own are not totally adequate for higher performance, goals need to be specific.

Specific, difficult goals lead to higher performance

Goal specificity refers to the quantifiability of a goal, for example, asking a person to sell 10 cars is more specific than telling the person to do his best (Vance & Colella : 1990). Locke et al (1981) found that specific, hard goals led to better performance than did easy medium do-your-best or no goals. Apart from goals being specific and difficult, individuals need to receive feedback on the work done.

Feedback enhances the effects of specific, difficult goals

Mento, Steel & Karren (1987:72), concluded that "the presence of feedback had a considerable impact on performance when used in conjunction with difficult specific goals". Feedback is important as it lets people know if they are on-course with their goals or they need redirection (Taylor, Fisher & Ilgen : 1984). Feedback, if carried out in the management by objective manner tends to be an important motivator as it is participative in nature.

Participative goals are superior to assigned goals

Participative goals lead to a four per cent increase in productivity over assigned goals (Mento et al : 1987). However, these results were based exclusively on laboratory studies that controlled the level of goal difficulty. Goals that are formulated by management and employees are considered to be superior as the attainment becomes their joint responsibility.

Setting goals require a thorough understanding of the subordinate's ability as goals that are either too easy or too difficult could lead to demotivation, frustration and finally withdrawal.

It is useful to identify individual and situational factors that affect motivation. These enable managers to take a broader perspective when developing motivational programmes. Motivation is not solely affected by individual characteristics but also by a variety of job characteristics (autonomy and responsibility) work environment characteristics (peer group and supervisor) and external environmental characteristics (technological advances and economic cycles). These 'ideal' conditions together with other factors are necessary to increase an individual's commitment toward the organisation.

2.8 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 continued and dedicated service to the organisation contribute to complete the equation. The prosperity and future existence of the company depends on a composition of committed employees. Various definitions and typologies 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 the employee organisational linkage.

2.8.1 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 have far reaching consequences for the future existence for both parties, there is, however, a reciprocal effect on the immediate society (Mowday, Porter & Steers: 1982).

2.8.1.1 Joint importance to the employee and the organisation

From the perspective of individuals joining and staying with 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 (Oliver: 1990). The more the employee invests in an organisation, the greater will be the potential meaningful rewards in both economic and psychological forms (Angle & Perry: 1983).

However, such investments are 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 (Oliver: 1990).

The consequences of behaviour exhibited by an individual who has strong linkages with an organisation may find expression in either positive, neutral or negative rewards from an organisation (Angle & Perry : 1983). 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 remain members of their establishments (Rusbult & Farrell: 1983). The advantages of having mentally healthy employees 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 reduce its effectiveness (Salancik: 1977). Although membership links would be strong for the group, such bonds would prevent the organisation from bringing in better performers (Meyer & Allen: 1984). Having mediocre employees affects the long term viability of the organisation (factory shut down) which in turn affects society at large.

2.8.1.2 Importance to society

The quality of membership linkages affect not only the individual and organisation but also society at large. Society is concerned with whether its members have sufficient commitment to its institutions they serve (Mowday et al : 1982). If the membership attachment is low it has a number of implications for society. An obvious one is without some form of commitment organisations simply would not 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

(Miner: 1992). Society will encounter problems where either extremes in the quality of membership linkages are pervasive across a large number of individuals and organisational situations (Mowday et al.: 1982).

When the quality of membership is low throughout a large number of organisations, the level of productivity including quality of services would be affected. It is clear that society would best be served by organisations where employee commitment is neither too strong or 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.

2.8.2. Nature of organisational commitment

Organisational commitment provides a basis for understanding the behaviour exhibited by employees towards their work (Mowday, Porter & Steers : 1982). 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 or-

ganisation and work toward organisational goals. Interest in increasing commitment, dates from early studies of employee 'loyalty' in which loyalty was seen by many as a desirable behaviour to be exhibited by an employee (Caldwell, Chatman and O'Reilly : 1990). According to Mowday et al (1982:19) "an increased understanding of commitment may help us comprehend the nature of more general psychological processes by which people choose to identify with objects in their environment and to make sense out of this environment. It helps us 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 (Salancik: 1977; Steers: 1977(a); Stevens, Beyer and Trice: 1978; Lincoln and Kalleberg: 1985 and Meyer & Allen: 1987b). These studies have repeatedly shown that commitment is an important factor in understanding the work behaviour of employees.

2.8.2.1 Determinants of commitment

(a) Definitions

Research related to commitment in work organisations has viewed the subject from a number of different angles leading to a plethora of definitions of the phenomenon (Oliver : 1990). Within all these definitions there are those that explain the common aspects of organisational commitment.

Salancik, (1977:62) 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 contribution and other related outcomes and it suggests the differential relevance of motivational factors (Miner: 1992). Another definition of organisational commitment is provided by Mowday, Porter & Steers (1982:27) who explains organisational commitment as "the relative strength of an individual's

identification with and involvement in a particular organization". Conceptually it can be characterised by three factors:

- * A strong belief in 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.

Commitment indicates that there is an active relationship with the company rather than passive loyalty and can be inferred not only from the expressions of individuals' beliefs but also from their actions (Allen & Meyer: 1990). This is clearly illustrated when the attitudinal and behavioural types of commitment are examined.

(b) Typologies of organisational commitment

The division of commitment into attitudinal and behavioural types reflects a distinct approach to the phenomenon (Mowday et al : 1982). Although several conceptualisations have been presented each of them reflect three common themes:

- * The most common approach indicates where commitment is considered as an affective or emotional attachment to the organisation and the individual identifies with it, is involved and enjoys membership (Meyer et al: 1990).
- * Perceived costs is based on the individual's recognition of the expenses that will be incurred when the individual leaves the organisation (Rusbult & Farrell: 1983).
Kanter (1968:504) defined cognitive-continuance commitment as that " which occurs where there is a profit associated with continued participation and a cost associated with leaving".
- * 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 (Meyer & Allen: 1987b).

The attitude theorists view commitment as a 'black box', the contents of which are determined by a range of organisational and individual factors. Factors such as personal, role-related, and structural characteris-

tics and work experiences determine the level of commitment which in turn affects turnover and job effort towards the organisation (Oliver: 1990).

In contrast, the behavioural theorists are concerned with the process by which individuals develop commitment not towards an organisation but to their own actions (Huselid & Day: 1991). Individuals become 'locked' into their behaviour because of past investments which would be lost if they left the company. Meyer & Allen (1988) described the process whereby the individual develops a sense of psychological ownership of their 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 (Oliver : 1990).

Two possible actions could 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 Reichers (1985). The second approach is to

retain the general concept of organisational commitment elements from both approaches namely, the attitudinal and behavioural (Oliver: 1990). The present study follows the second approach and the antecedents of attitudinal commitment are 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 & Perry : 1981; Morris & Sherman : 1981). The biographical data that are discussed include tenure, education, age, marital status.

According to Hrebiniak & Alutto (1972) 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 (Fukami & Larson: 1984). Similarly, it binds a person to the organisation in the form of being a member of a pension fund or profit sharing plans (Sheldon : 1971). Length of service of an employee leads to a strengthening of organisational commitment (Miner: 1992). 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, Fukami & Larson (1984) 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 (Angle & Perry : 1981; Morris & Sherman : 1981; Morris

& Steers : 1980; Steers : 1977a). 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 would be very difficult for the organisation to compete successfully for the psychological involvement of such individuals (Angle & Perry: 1981).

Furthermore, research based on variables relating to men, women and marital status found common ground in occupational commitments and career patterns (Hrebiniak : 1971 ; Alonso : 1970). 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 single unattached individuals (Chacko: 1982). 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 (Morris & Sherman: 1981; Jamal: 1984). 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 also determine their level of commitment (Miner: 1992). This aspect of personality has received moderate support which suggests that individuals with a strong personal work ethic tend to be highly committed (Meyer & Allen: 1988).

Common ground can be found with the findings of previous researchers but commitment linked to the growth of side-bets is material in nature and could 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 could 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 enhances the challenge employees experience and this in turn increases commitment. Employees are thought to respond positively when provided with greater challenges in their jobs with little or no conflict and ambiguity (Mowday et al : 1982).

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 (Netemeyer, Johnston & Burton : 1990). Similarly, the existence of role tension and uncertainty means increased attractiveness of extra-organisational alternatives and this leads to decreased commitment (Jackson & Schuler: 1985). 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 (Oliver: 1990).

The views of Jackson & Schuler (1985) and Netemeyer et al (1990) are acceptable as it seems obvious that employees seek jobs that are challenging and free from conflict and ambiguity. Jobs that are ambiguous 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 organisation size, union presence, span of control and centralisation of authority are not related to commitment (Stevens et al.: 1978). Morris and Steers (1980) in their study found that formalisation, functional dependence and decentralisation 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 (Handy: 1985).

Rhodes and Steers (1981) 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 was related to commitment.

Increased worker participation in decision making has an impact on organisational effectiveness and contributes towards satisfaction, trust, and involvement (Heneman, Schwab, Fossum & Dyer : 1989). Increased participation was positively related to satisfaction and achievement motivation (Cascio: 1989). Companies could benefit if they viewed individuals as adults, desirous

of autonomy and have some degree of self-control or self-determination (Locke & Schweiger: 1979). Hrebiniak (1974) 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 both the individual and the company this role is sometimes denied.

A number of factors may account for this resistance to participation in decision making (Muczyk & Reimann: 1987). 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 supported by two underlying assumptions (Tannenbaum : 1968):

- * The first is the all-or-none 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 (Tannenbaum: 1968).

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 : 1990). Differences in hierarchial position indicate varying degrees of status and formal authority. The impression that an advancement up the ladder denotes career success, especially when reinforced by certain symbols which marks movement through positions of increasing influence, emphasises the importance of structure (Gibson, Ivancevich & Donnelly : 1991). This contributes to the tendency of higher level personnel to guard zealously the control and decision making power which they have worked to attain (Trice , Belasco & Alutto : 1969).

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 informal factors that affect participation and work related attitudes (Kerr, Hill & Broedling: 1986). Social distinction tends to reduce mutual interaction and the support for lower status individuals. Differences in informal status can influence opinions or ideas that carry the greatest weight (Greenberg: 1988). In problem solving situations, differences in prestige can have an effect on the levels of participation by distorting the problem solving process in favour of higher status individuals (Gerber, Nel & 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 'feeling of personal importance'.

* Work experience correlates

Antecedent of organisational commitment are those work experiences that occur during an employee's term of employment (Mowday et al: 1982). 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 (Gibson et al: 1991).

Several work experience variables have been found to be related to organisational commitment. Studies by Buchanan (1974) and Hrebiniak (1974) found that organisational dependability, 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 related to commitment. That is, when individuals felt that they were an important part and needed for the organisation's mission, commitment attitudes increased (Mowday et al: 1982). 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 toward the company, may 'rub off' on employees, leading to increased com-

mitment (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 Gerber et al (1992) the greater the social interaction, the more social ties the individual develops with the organisation resulting in the former becoming further linked to his 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 responses 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.

2.8.3 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 (Mowday et al : 1982). The process begins before the individual enters the organisation and usually develops in three stages namely, anticipation, initiation and entrenchment (Porter, Lawler & Hackman: 1981).

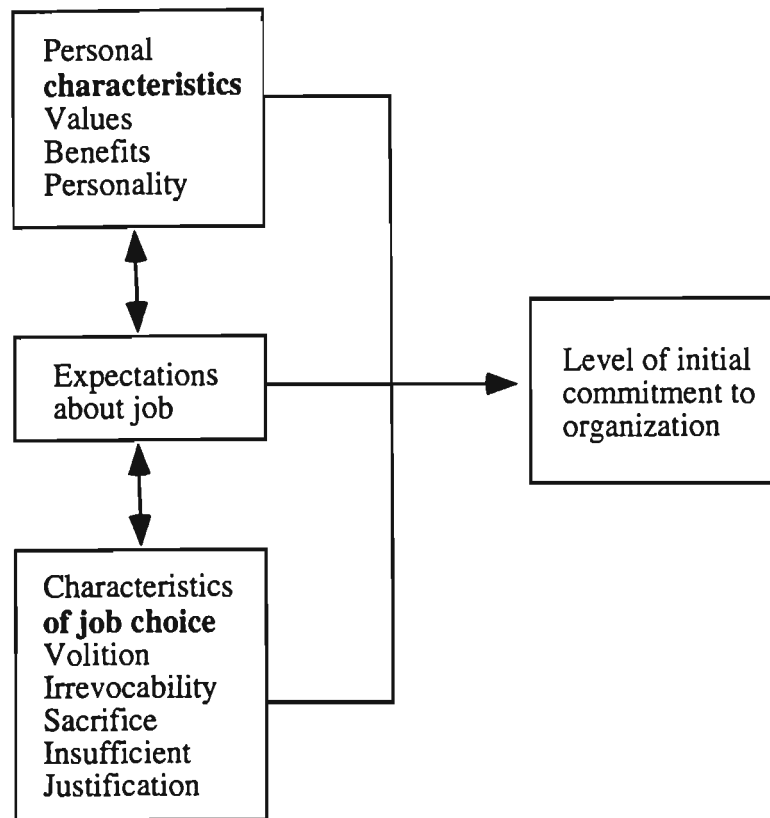
2.8.3.1 Anticipation : pre-employment and job choice influences on commitment

Although the varying goals, values and expectations that new employees bring to organisations have been extensively investigated (Wanous:1980), 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 (Mowday et al : 1982). One study even found that the level of commitment expressed by employees on their first day in the company predicted turnover up to several months on the job (Porter et al :1976). This result, however, could not be replicated in another study (Mowday & McDade:1980). Although the level of commitment among new employees

have been found to vary even before any work in the company has commenced, it is unlikely that this early commitment reflects a stable attachment (Meyer & Allen: 1988). However, Mowday et al (1982:48) 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 work environment".

The strength of the initial level of commitment is determined by the impressions 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 2.5).

FIGURE 2.5 MAJOR DETERMINANTS OF INITIAL COMMITMENT TO THE ORGANIZATION



Source: Mowday, R.T., Porter, L.W. and Steers, R.M. 1982. Employee-Organizational Linkages: The Psychology of Commitment, Absenteeism and Turnover. New York: Academic Press, p. 49.

(a) Personal characteristics

The development of initial commitment is influenced by a variety of personal characteristics (Organ & Bateman : 1986). 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 congruences between the organisation's goals and the extent to which their personal goals will be attained (Gibson et al : 1988). Mowday and McDade (1980) 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 & Allen : 1988). The new employee's needs may interact with their experiences once at work to 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 (Mowday et al. : 1982).

The manner in which individuals socialise both in the family and through their various educational experiences and the resultant values and beliefs, represent influences on the propensity of employees to become committed to organisations (Gibson et al : 1991).

Besides personal characteristics the information the individual received during the recruitment process, also affects commitment.

(b) Employee expectations

Employees who received more realistic expectations during recruitment were less likely to leave voluntarily than employees who were given an unrealistic picture (Popovich & Wanous : 1982). 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 (Gibson et al : 1991).

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

2.8.3.2 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 (Mowday & McDade : 1980). During this period new employees have their 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 (Handy : 1985).

There is an impact on organisational commitment through factors related to personal, organisational and nonorganisational influences (Mowday et al : 1982).

(a) Personal influences

The characteristics that individual employees bring to the organisation represent important influences on commitment (Wanous : 1980). 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 more stable attachment (Mabey : 1986). The importance of this characteristics may be understood in terms of behaviour new employees are likely to engage in. Employees who come into the com-

pany 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, learning the job or who completes a task ahead of schedule, may justify these committing behaviours by even more positive attitudes in the future (Mowday et al : 1982). 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

Salancik (1977:17) 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 and work 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 (Mowday et al : 1982). Greater behavioural involvement should lead to greater attitudinal input as these are developed consistent with their 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 : 1986). Another task characteristic that increases commitment is task interdependence (Salancik : 1977). Felt responsibility increases among employees who have interdependent tasks, that is, employees depend upon each other in the performance of their jobs (Hirst : 1988). 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 overtly tight or loose. Felt responsibility is increased when supervisors allow their employees greater discretion over how the job is performed (Sims & Manz : 1984). However, this appears to be in conflict with the positive relationship that has been found between leader initiating structure and commitment (Morris & Sherman

: 1981). This conflict is more apparent than 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 (Gibson et al : 1988). Felt responsibility and commitment increase when supervisors allow employees to participate actively in decision making on the job (Steinmetz & Todd : 1986). 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 (Rosen : 1988). The degree of social involvement of employees has been found to be positively related to commitment (Buchanan : 1974; Rotondi : 1975). Organisational commitment is positively related to group attitudes toward the organisation and group norms about hardwork (Feldman : 1984). This relationship is stronger in cohesive groups because they are able to ensure member compliance with their beliefs and norms (Feldman : 1984).

* Remuneration

As pay provides an important inducement for an individual to remain in an organisation, it can be predicted that level of pay would be positively related to commitment. Besides the level of pay, a more crucial determinant is the perceived equity of pay (Dalton & Tudor : 1982). Also, a reward system in which employees share in the success of the firm increase their felt responsibility and thus, their commitment to the organisation (Nainaar : 1991).

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 employees leads to increased commitment (Salancik : 1977). Commitment is greater in organisations that are viewed as looking after the interests of their employees (Miner : 1992). 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 (Marsh & Mannari : 1977).

The implementation of a sound socialisation programme provides the stimulus for the creation of employee attachment to the organisation (Gibson et al : 1991). The unquestioning acceptance by newcomers of their new role is likely if certain socialisation practices are followed (Organ & Bateman : 1986) .

According to Van Maanen & Schein (1979:253) "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, thus implying that boundary passages will be denied the recruit unless certain criteria have been met (variable); involving role models who set the 'correct' example for the recruit (serial); and processes which, through various means, involve the recruits redefinition of self around certain recognised organisational values (divestiture)."

According to Mowday et al (1982:62) "the propositions set forth by Van Maanen and Schein (1979) 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 (Mowday et al :1982). If organisations are unable to develop a committed employee from the beginning, then the chances of their being influenced by non-organisational factors (alternate job) would 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. Mitchell (1982) suggests that satisfaction with a group is dependent on individuals' evaluation of that one (comparison level) and also their evaluation of alternative groups that they might join (comparison level for alternatives). The availability of attractive alternative job opportunities should result in less posi-

tive attitudes toward the job and the organisation (O'Reilly & Caldwell : 1980b; Pfeffer & Lawler : 1980). The availability of alternative employment appears to influence the employee's need to justify original job choice and make relevant 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 (Gibson et al : 1988).

'Non-organisational factors' would be of little concern if the organisation can provide conditions of work that are equal to or better than those provided by the 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 challenging jobs.

2.8.3.3 Entrenchment : Continuing commitment to organisations

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 (Mowday et al: 1982).

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 (Mowday et al : 1982).

Furthermore, investments related to employment increase with length of service. The employee having increased investments in the form of time and energy, would make it difficult to leave the company on a voluntary basis (Meyer, Paunonen, Gellatly, Goffin & Jackson : 1989).

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 serve to decrease the employee's job mobility (Meyer et al : 1989). 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 alternative jobs may decrease with age and has the possibility of increased commitment.

Commitment is of importance to both the organisation and the individual and its success depends on a joint responsibility (Jackson, Stafford, Banks & Warr : 1983). 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 the short run and reflects more immediate reactions to specific tangible aspects of the work environment. Therefore, it is important that commitment is assessed periodically.

2.9 Assessment of organisational commitment

According to Meyer & Allen (1988) organisational commitment has become a variable of increasing interest in organisational psychology due to its link to turnover, that is, employees who are strongly committed are those

who are least likely to leave the organisation. Like many constructs in organisational psychology, commitment has been conceptualised and measured in various ways. Mowday et.al. (1979) developed the 15 item organisational commitment questionnaire. This instrument is widely used because it has strongly accepted psychometric properties. Meyer & Allen (1987a) developed separate questionnaires to measure three specific areas of commitment, namely, affective attachment, perceived costs and obligations.

Affective attachment

The affective commitment scale which comprised 8 items was used to measure the affective attachment of individuals. Allen & Meyer (1990) maintain that the most predominant approach to organisational commitment is one in which commitment is considered an affective or emotional attachment to the organisation such that the strongly committed individual identifies with, is involved in and enjoys membership in the organisation. This view was taken by Buchanan (1974:533) who conceptualised commitment as a "partisan affective attachment to the goals and values of the organization, to one's role in relation to the goals and values, and to the organization for its own sake, apart from its purely instrumental worth". This view is similar to that of

Meyer & Allen (1987a) who concluded that with respect to affective attachment those experiences that fulfilled individuals' psychological needs to feel comfortable in the organisation increased their commitment.

Perceived Costs

Commitment related to perceived costs develops on the basis of 2 factors : the magnitude and/or number of investments (or side bets) individuals make and a perceived lack of alternatives. These two factors were derived from the works of Becker (1960) and Rusbult & Farrell (1983). According to Becker's (1960) theory, individuals make side bets when they take an action that increases the costs associated with discontinuing another related action. Furthermore, lack of employment alternatives also increases the perceived costs associated with leaving the organisation. Meyer & Allen (1987a) developed and used the continuance commitment scale which comprises 8 items and has a reliability of 0.75.

Obligation

Meyer & Allen (1990) proposed that normative aspects of organisational commitment will be influenced by the employee's experiences both prior to

(familial\cultural\socialisation) entry into the organisation. With respect to familial socialisation one might expect that an employee would have strong normative commitment to the organisation if significant others (e.g. parents) have been long term employees of an organisation and\or have stressed the importance of organisational loyalty. With regards to organisational socialisation, it is proposed that those employees who have been led to believe through different organisational practices, that the organisation expects their loyalty, would be most likely to have strong normative (obligation) commitment to it. The normative commitment scale which consisted of 8 items and had a reliability of 0.79 was developed and used by Meyer & Allen (1987a) to measure an individual's obligation (normative commitment) toward the organisation.

In the final analysis the level of individuals' commitment depends on their emotional and material attachment to the company as well as their familial or organisational socialisation. Therefore, in order for organisations to secure commitment from their employees it is imperative that individual needs (emotional and material) and organisational processes (socialisation) are carefully considered for their mutual advantage.

2.10 Summary

This chapter centres around organisational and personal goals. These goals are essential for the development and maintenance of organisational commitment.

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 to be 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 instructions and lateral communication involves coordinating and solving problems.

However, 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, the capability of the individual and the sincerity of the company to promote the needs of the employees. Numerous theories of job satisfaction (discrepancy, equity, social influence and the two factor) 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 result 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.

For effective performance to occur there has to be a high degree of motivation which is determined to an extent by the working environment in which individuals find themselves. Reference to the relevant theories of motivation (expectancy-valence, Adam's equity and

goal-setting) emphasised the role of the organisation in motivating employees to higher productivity, satisfaction and 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 nonorganisational factors, entrenchment is influenced by length of service and investments related to employment.

As organisational commitment develops over time and its effects could be either costly or beneficial, it is important that commitment be assessed regularly.

As the hygiene and motivational factors form the basis of this study, they will be discussed in detail. It is hypothesised that the hygiene factors (pay, working

conditions, fringe benefits) and motivational factors (skill variety, task identity, autonomy, feedback) influence the development of organisational commitment. In other words, the better the quality of work life, the higher would be the commitment of the employees.

CHAPTER THREE
QUALITY OF WORK LIFE

3.1 Introduction

For the major part of this century, the worker was expected to simply obey orders. Intensive training, strict supervision and even incentives were merely aimed at inducing submissiveness. The job was done solely to provide a living. The only conclusion that could be arrived at was that under the traditional system, managers were in control and employees accepted this situation unquestioningly and, if the worker earned a reasonable salary, his living conditions and subsequently his quality of work life, were considered to be pleasant. Employers paid little or no attention to aspects such as job alienation.

However, things changed during the late 1950's and early 1960's when behavioural scientists began to concentrate on the quality of work life. The present-day approach to quality of work life as advocated by Herzberg maintains that work should be made meaningful, that employees need to develop personal skills, that they should participate in the management process (Saal & Knight:1988). Interest in the quality of work

life was generated because employees were often frustrated in their work and experienced very little job satisfaction.

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 (Barling:1986). However, the reverse is 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.

This chapter deals with both these two factors separately. The hygiene factors that are discussed include health and safety, remuneration, rights in the work place, management style, fringe benefits and social responsibility.

The reasons for studying health and safety, social responsibility and humanitarian concern are first discussed followed by the physical and temporal conditions that affect the work and finally the causes of accidents.

Remuneration is also an area that is of importance to employees and forms an important aspect of quality of work life. Employees are concerned not only with the adequacy of remuneration but also with fairness. Workers compare their salaries with other employees in the same or other organisations.

The employee in the work place enjoys certain rights and privileges. These are discussed in detail with the emphasis on the recommendations of the Wiehahn Commission.

The quality of work life is influenced by the promotion policy of the company. Fair promotion policy and attainable career paths must be communicated to all employees. This aspect is also highlighted.

An aspect that has the potential to either improve or lower the quality of work life is the management style prevalent in the company. The functions of leaders, the different leadership styles and their effect on the quality of work life are discussed in detail.

Companies award fringe benefits as means of attracting, retaining and motivating employees. Fringe benefits range from medical aid to provision of housing. As part of presenting factors that influence quality of organisational life, fringe benefits as it affects the company and worker are also discussed.

An aspect of quality of work life that has assumed prominence recently in South Africa is social responsibility. This is relevant because organisations tend

to make profit their sole objective and pay limited or at times no attention to the needs of the community in which they operate. Therefore, attention needs to be focussed on social responsibility as part of quality of work life.

The job characteristics model developed by Hackman & Oldham (1980) explain the variables that affect motivation. The four classes of variables that are discussed are core job dimensions, critical psychological states, work outcomes and growth need.

Herzberg's two-factor theory forms an integral part of the quality of work life and it is hypothesised in this study that improving the quality of work life would increase organisational commitment.

3.2 Hygiene factors

Hygiene factors are related to the job and are known as job context factors, wherein they have little influence on producing satisfaction (Barling:1986). 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 (Gerber et al : 1992). One of the most important hygiene factors is health and safety.

3.2.1 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 (Schultz & Schultz:1986). In South Africa, the Machinery Occupational and Safety Act stipulates very stringent clauses related to safety both within and outside of the factory (Swanepoel:1992). Health and safety are the concern not only of the organisation but also of the trade union and society at large.

3.2.1.1 Contemporary bases for concern

(a) Social responsibility

Organisations are generally concerned about and are aware of their social responsibility to society in the area of health and safety, even though efforts are made by some individuals to label organisations of 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 for the human being.

(b) Humanitarian concerns

There are humanitarian concerns expressed by employers 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 (French : 1987).

This is further explained by Grimaldi and Simonds (1975) 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 of 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 (French : 1987). 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 becoming actively involved in safety issues in the work place (French : 1987).

The labour force has been proactive in matters related to safety and health. The proactive stance of unions is the increasing number of industrial hygienists being employed by labour unions to monitor the working condi-

tions, particularly in the chemical, rubber, oil and automotive sectors. This emerged due to pressure exercised by members and union leadership where the focus is aimed at identifying health hazards and thereby improving the conditions of work (Business Week : 1978). 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.

3.2.1.2 Conditions of work

Due to the effectiveness of the reform movements of the 1920's and 1930's, it has been accepted that workers should not be exposed to working conditions that are dangerous or detrimental to their health (Orpen : 1981). 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 (Maller & Steinberg : 1984). This is further explained by Orpen (1981) who feels 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 (Heneman et al : 1989). 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 parking facilities and location and design of buildings to the intensity of lighting and noise impinging on an individual's desk or workspace (Taylor : 1980).

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 (Schultz & Schultz : 1986).

Since the Hawthorne studies were conducted, 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 accident causation, they will be discussed separately.

* Illumination

The quality of work would suffer if there is insufficient light in the work area and furthermore, the eyesight of the individual could be harmed. Factors such as intensity, distribution, glare and the nature of the light source are pertinent aspects of illumination (McCormick & Sanders : 1982).

* Noise

Noise is a common cause for complaints in industry. However, there is contradictory evidence on the effect of noise on productive efficiency (Glass & Singer : 1972). 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 exposures to noise above 130 decibels can lead to permanent deafness (Muchinsky : 1983).

* Music

Since the mid-1940's there has been a tendency for organisations to provide music in the workplace. Workers indicated they were in favour of music and felt that it would make them happier and more productive (Schultz & Schultz : 1986). 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 (Schultz & Schultz : 1986).

However, in the case of complex and demanding jobs that require full concentration, there is no evidence available that music will increase production (Wexley & Yukl : 1984).

* Temperature and humidity

Individuals have experienced the effects of varying temperatures and levels of humidity on morale, the ability to work effectively and the physical and emotional well being (Muchinsky : 1983).

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 (McCormick & Sanders : 1982). 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 (Schultz & Schultz, 1986).

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 affect the morale and productivity of workers.

* Hours of work

There is evidence that unnecessary production time is lost in an ordinary workday (Alluisi & Fleishman : 1982). According to Schultz & Schultz (1986) 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 day or night during which the work takes place. Conditions imposed by shift work af-

fect people in various ways (sleep-wake pattern 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 (Gannon, Norland & Robeson : 1983).

Apart from affecting production and absenteeism, shift work has social and emotional effects on individuals and their immediate families. Wolinsky (1982) found that employees who work at night on rotating shifts may have a higher incidence of stomach disorders, sleep disorders, marital problems and feelings of isolation and irritability.

However, problems associated with shift work can be alleviated by more effective recruitment and selection, or longer interim resting periods between shifts (French : 1987).

Furthermore, in order to do away with the disadvantages of shift work, the compressed workweek is advocated.

* Compressed workweek

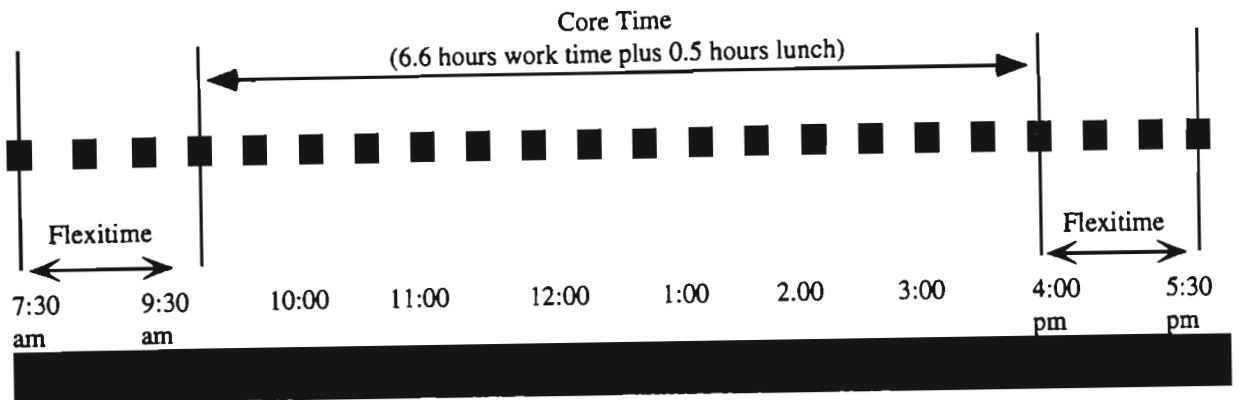
Compressed workweek involves either four days at ten hours per day or a 36-hour week with no reduction in pay. This system has been accepted by union leaders, management consultants and firms (Ronen : 1984).

In most cases the initiative to shorten the workweek came from management because of the possibility of increased productivity and worker efficiency, an incentive of recruiting and retaining employees and the hope of reducing absenteeism (Rosow & Zager : 1981). Although the initiative for shortening the work week came from management, employee acceptance of the four-day workweek is still questionable (Heneman et al : 1989). However, the acceptance of the shorter workweek 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 (Dunham & Hawk : 1977). A suitable alternative to the stringent compressed workweek 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" (Scarpello & Ledvinka 1988:199). With flexitime, the workday is divided into four parts, two are optional and two mandatory (Figure 3.1).

FIGURE 3.1 A TYPICAL FLEXTIME WORK SCHEDULE



Source: Schultz, D.P. and Schultz, S.E. 1986. Psychology and Industry Today: An Introduction to Industrial and Organizational Psychology. New York: Macmillan Publishing Company, p386.

According to Figure 3.1 employees can work any time between 7:30 and 9:00 in the morning and leave from 4:00 to 5:30 in the afternoon. The two compulsory periods during which everyone must be on the job are during the morning from 9:00 until the half-hour lunch break and afternoon from lunch to 4:00 (Ronen : 1981).

Flexitime schedules can be divided into flexitour, gliding time, and maxiflex (Rosow & Zager : 1981).

Flexitime can be divided into flexitour, gliding time, and maxiflex which has revealed the following advantages (Schultz & Schultz : 1986):

- * Productivity was increased in almost half of the organisations.
- * Absenteeism was reduced in more than 75 per cent of the organisations.
- * Lateness was reduced in 84 per cent of the organisations.
- * Turnover was reduced in more than 50 per cent 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 (Dunham & Pierce : 1983; Narayanan & Nath : 1982).

Although Schultz & Schultz (1986) have listed various advantages of shift work, it cannot therefore be deduced that all companies could resort to shift work. The need for shift work has to be carefully considered before any decision is made.

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 (Muchinsky : 1983). At the other extreme, uncomplicated jobs do not tax the worker's intelligence, nor does it pose a challenge to satisfy the underlying need for achievement. The ultimate effect is boredom, monotony, fatigue and less efficient production (Muchinsky : 1983).

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 (Stagner : 1982). 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 (Schultz & Schultz : 1986).

Boredom is referred to as mental or psychological fatigue resulting from performing jobs that are repetitive, monotonous and uninteresting whereas monotonous jobs refer to jobs that are basically uninteresting and does not lead to psychological growth (Schultz & Schultz : 1986). It is, however, the duty of each industry to create a climate that would lead to psychological growth.

Industry is faced with a problem of finding a way to reduce or eliminate boredom and monotony which in turn will improve conditions at work. Schultz and Schultz (1986) 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 is depend-

ent upon the nature of work activities, that is, 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 would be able to work shifts as unsuitable employees could be the cause of industrial accidents.

3.2.1.3 Causes of accidents

Accidents originate due to the involvement in the work place of either machines or man. Accidents arising from deficiencies in plant, equipment, tools, material and the general work environment may be eliminated through engineering (Cascio : 1989). Improper attitudes, errors in judgment, carelessness, inability to perform a job and defective co-ordination are caused by deficiencies in man (Ramdial:1981).

An unpleasant or an unfavourable environment may also be responsible for diminishing productivity and lowering job satisfaction. There are environmental conditions that are either directly or indirectly responsible for accidents (Rosse & Hulin : 1985). 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 (Gerber, Nel & van Dyk : 1992).

* Work methods

The man-machine system is related to work methods and can be defined as "an organization of machines and men plus the processes by which they interact within an environment to produce some desired system output" (Meister 1971:9).

The ultimate goal of this system is mainly to organise equipment, establish a complimentary environment, design tasks and select suitable workers (Muchinsky : 1983). 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 requirements are 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 (Ramdial : 1981).

Work methods are related to safety in three ways (Tiffin & McCormick : 1971). 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 method, 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 accident severity was found in departments with a predominance of male workers, low promotion probability and suggestion records, non-youthfulness of employees and high average tenure of workers (Zohar : 1980). Therefore in the light of Zohar's (1980) findings it is necessary for organisations to have proper mix (male-female, young-old) in order to prevent the possibility of accidents. Having a 'proper-mix' would not be sufficient in itself, as it is essential for machinery to be designed to correct individual specification.

* Design of equipment

According to Meister (1971) 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 the physiological and psychological characteristics of the operator (Meister : 1971). 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 are also provided the necessary training (Cascio : 1989).

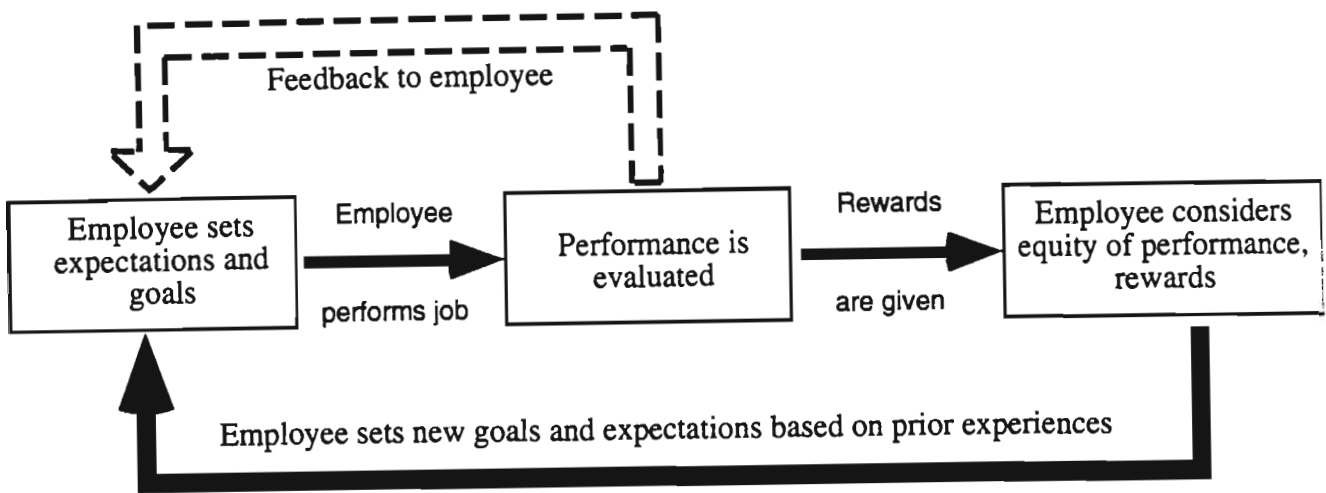
The ultimate aim of any organisation is to reduce the number of accidents to the absolute minimum. Although they try to achieve this, their efforts are in most cases unrewarded due to the poor and careless attitudes of the employees which result in uncalled for accidents. Besides health and safety, remuneration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

3.2.2 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 will not experience psychological well being without being adequately compensated (Orpen : 1981). There are various standards against which adequacy of compensation could be judged and one of the main goals of an organisation when designing a system is to attract, retain and motivate employees (Carrell & Kuzmits : 1986). Employees expect their performance to

have a positive relationship with the rewards received from the organisation. This relationship is explained in Figure 3.2.

FIGURE 3.2 MOTIVATION AND PERFORMANCE MODEL



Source: Carrell, M.R. and Kuzmits, F.E. 1986. Personnel Human Resource Management. Columbus: Merrill Publishing Company, p311.

According to Figure 3.2 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 employee sets new goals and expectations based on his experiences within the organisation.

An organisation providing an accurate evaluation of an employee's performance ensures a positive relationship between performance and motivation (French:1987). Management relating performance levels and pay, increased benefits or working conditions will be directly related to high performance (Armstrong:1991). 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 (Klatt, Murdick & Schuster :1985). Furthermore these goals could be achieved if workers are reinforced by employers in an appropriate manner.

The principle theory of reinforcement indicate that positive behaviour that are rewarded by the organisation are repeated more often than unrewarded or punished behaviours (Scarpello & Ledvinka : 1988).

Rewards will be meaningful and desired by employees when reinforcement has a meaningful affect on their future behaviour and when the rewards are seen to be fair (equitable) (Cascio:1989).

Equity forms the building block and foundation on which pay systems are designed. An employee could be affected by external, internal or employee equity (Milkovich & Glueck : 1985).

External equity refers to comparisons made between employees within organisations to those outside with regard to their remuneration. There are three 'pure' alternatives in setting pay levels to set average pay so it will lead and match competition and follow what the market is paying (Milkovich & Glueck : 1985). 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 (Mitchell : 1982). Higher wages attracts a larger number of applicants and allows the selection process, properly designed, to obtain the cream of the applicants. These higher quality

employees should exhibit greater productivity, thereby offsetting the greater wages (Milkovich & Glueck : 1985).

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 (Scarpello & Ledvinka : 1988).

Mitchell (1982), Milkovich & Glueck (1985) and Scarpello & Ledvinka (1988) 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 the pay structure and job evaluation (Milkovich & Glueck : 1985).

Pay structures refer to pay rates for different jobs within an organisation. These structures are designed with the assistance of job analysis and job evaluation (Milkovich & Newman : 1984).

Job evaluation on the other hand, involves the systematic evaluation of the job descriptions. It helps to develop and maintain pay structures 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 serves as a basis for deciding pay (Taylor & Cogill : 1986). 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 in the design and administration of pay systems since it may have an effect on the employees' attitudes and work behaviour (Armstrong : 1991). Employee equity is translated into practice through a series of policies and techniques which include pay ranges, increase guidelines, individual incentives and group gainsharing programmes (Scarpello & Ledvinka:1988).

However, with regard to employee equity 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 (Heneman & Schwab : 1985).

These differences in rates which are paid to employees performing the same job also takes place in response to policies related to experience, skill and performance and the expectations that seniority together with higher performance deserve greater pay (O'Dell : 1987).

Financial rewards do not have an effect only on performance but also on the attitude of employees toward work as Lawler (1971:233) explains:

"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."

Lawler (1971) believes that pay dissatisfaction can be costly to organisations 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 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.

3.2.3 Rights in the work place

Members of an organisation are affected directly or indirectly by decisions that are made on their behalf (Brassey, Cameron, Cheadle & Olivier : 1988). Trade unions have introduced constitutionalism to the work place to protect individuals from arbitrary or capricious actions by employers (Piron : 1991).

When the work organisation ensures that the 'rights of individuals' in the form of privacy, equity, free speech and due process are officially respected then only can one expect the quality of work life to be high (Bluen & Fullagar : 1986). There are various reasons for employees to have rights in the work place.

3.2.3.1 Reasons for increasing 'rights'

Managers are faced with increasing challenges from workers who feel their rights have in some way been violated at work. Ewing (1982) concluded that in the United States of America employees directing challenges to management in the form of petitions, whistleblowing or lawsuits have increased during the last ten years.

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 (Finnemore & Van der Merwe : 1992). It is only when the employees are aware of their rights can they take action to settle any problems.

3.2.3.2 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 (Bendix : 1992). Furthermore employees must be given the opportunity to improve their performance before disciplinary measures are taken. The main purpose of worker discipline is essentially 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 (Zack & Block : 1979). In this type of discipline punishments increase in severity as the number of previous violations increases (Scarpello & Ledvinka : 1988). However, this approach does have pitfalls.

A major pitfall of traditional discipline is that it relies entirely on negative reinforcements and feedback (Asherman : 1982). It focuses on the employee's undesirable behaviour and it places the burden on the

employee and 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 (Scarpello & Ledvinka : 1988).

The advantages inherent to this method is 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 (Gerber, Nel & van Dyk : 1992).

However, the main disadvantage 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 into the new organisational culture (Campbell, Fleming & Grote : 1985).

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 the employees to know that there are certain basic rights and that the employer during the course of employment cannot violate them.

3.2.3.3 Structural elements of the industrial relations system

The Wiehahn Commission into labour legislation could 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 man 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 finding 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 a recommendation (Wiehahn : 1989).

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 (Nel : 1986).

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 that trade union (Wiehahn:1989).

(b) The right to associate

Although there is a clear distinction between the right to associate and the right to organise, 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 fellow-worker. The concept of the 'right to organise' is a collective right. To organise a trade union, workers must be free to associate (Wiehahn : 1989).

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 (Nel : 1986). 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 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 (Wiehahn : 1989).

Recourse to collective bargaining as a means of determining conditions of employment in the public service and in public enterprises is a recent phenomenon. (White Paper on Labour Legislation : 1978). The general trend is for workers in the public service to be given the right to bargain with the State. However, the heads of departments are unable to make any decision on their own (Gerber et al : 1992).

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 (Bendix : 1992).

(d) The right to withhold labour

The withholding of labour is an age-old remedy when a 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) (Gerber et al : 1992).

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 (Brassey et al : 1988).

(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 (Bendix : 1992). This obligation gradually began to cover the worker's family and his sphere of life outside his 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 (Uys: 1986).

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

(Piron: 1986). In protecting the worker it is accepted that the state, employer and trade unions have joint responsibility (Wiehahn:1989).

(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 (Nel: 1986).

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 their citizens to be trained. South Africa's labour law, though not conferring on

persons a right to development, contains many regulatory measures for training and development of workers.

The Wiehahn Commission 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 could reduce the organisational commitment.

3.2.4 Present promotion policies

Programmes focussing on promotion are developed for employees to progress in an organisation in a planned and systematic way. Successful career management leads to an improved quality of working life and maximum utilisation of employee skills which are influenced by the creation of new jobs, the reorganisation of a company, the prevailing business climate and attrition (Carrell & Kuzmits : 1986). However, if a company needs to develop career paths, then promotion from within seem to become the only viable alternative.

3.2.4.1 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 (Carrell & Kuzmits : 1986).

Furthermore, promotion provides benefits to both the organisation and workers. They enable companies to utilise their employees' abilities more fully. Promotions, if based on merit encourage performance (Boudreau : 1988). There is a correlation between opportunities for promotion and high levels of job satisfaction (Carrell & Kuzmits : 1986). An effective system of promotion results in greater organisational efficiency and high levels of employee morale (Carrell & Kuzmits : 1986). Before an organisation decides to promote an employee certain factors (reasons for promotion, promotion criteria) are considered.

(a) Recruiting for promotion

In the 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 could enquire from other departments about employees

who could fill the vacancy (Gerber et al : 1992). A drawback of this system is that individuals with appropriate qualifications may be overlooked if they are unknown to the officers (Beach : 1985). Therefore the open promotion system is recommended.

The open promotion system overcomes the problem by a job posting system where vacancies are publicised on bulletin boards and other company communication systems (French : 1987). 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.

(b) Official promotion criteria

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

Many companies place extra weight 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 (Kacmar & Ferris : 1989). 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 (Gordon, Cofer & McCullough : 1986). 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 however 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 (Carrell & Kuzmits:1986). Kacmar & Ferris (1989) and Carrell & Kuzmit (1986) present conflicting arguments regarding the use of length of service as a criterion for promotion. It seems acceptable 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 also disadvantages when seniority is used in isolation as a criterion for promotion. It could result in demotivation and career oriented employees may become impatient waiting for a 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 (Carrell & Kuzmits : 1986).

As the drawbacks of seniority outweigh the advantages as a promotion criterion, organisations use current performance when decisions are made. Management will make an effective promotion decision when both the candidate's present job and the higher job require similar skills and abilities (Heneman et al : 1989).

In these instances past work performance would be a fairly good predictor of future success. However, past performance would not be 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 the

ultimate could be resignation unless the organisation uses formal selection procedures (Carrell & Kuzmits:1986).

To improve the opportunities of 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 (Klimoski & Brickner : 1987). A further aim is to increase the pool of employees from which managers are selected. Millard and Pinsky (1980) have shown that the assessment approach improves the odds that a correct management promotion decision will be made. In comparing the assessment centre method to traditional methods, Norton (1977) concluded 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 Millard & Pinsky (1980) say than Norton (1970) 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 could have the effect of demoralising the individual and reducing the organisational commitment.

(c) Unofficial promotion criteria

Official promotion policies are sacrificed at times at the expense of unofficial guide rules (Markham, Harlan & Hackett : 1987). Rational criteria such as seniority, performance and assessment centre ratings 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 (Carrell & Kuzmits : 1986).

Unofficial criteria used to make promotions effective are based on personal characteristics, nepotism, social factors related to memberships of clubs, political parties and alma mater, and the development of friendships (Heneman et al : 1989). Unofficial promotion criteria works against individual-organisational integration which can lower commitment

3.2.4.2 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 ensure through appropriate training that they could enjoy a return on investment in the long term (Handy : 1985). An integration between those aspirations of the employee and the target set by an organisation could bring about satisfaction of needs for both players (Gerber et al : 1992).

However, there are 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 to be more rewarding or to control through the selection process the number of people in the organisation who aspire to those higher level jobs (French : 1987).

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 (Carrell & Kuzmits : 1986).

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 (Carrell & Kuzmits : 1986).

Carrell & Kuzmits' (1986) views seem acceptable as it is common for organisations to assume that it is their prerogative to train employees for the company's specific purpose, not considering the individual's own needs.

Therefore, the aims of a promotion policy should 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.

This aspect of promotion has 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.

3.2.5 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 (Ayman & Chemers : 1983; Sims & Manz : 1984). The productivity and satisfaction prevalent in the workplace is dependent to an extent on the leadership style of the manager.

3.2.5.1 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 (Heilman, Hornstein, Cage & Herschlag : 1984).

There is, however, a difference between management and leadership although there are times when they are used interchangeably. According to Griffin & Moorhead (1986) management relies on formal position power to influence people, whereas leadership stems from a social influence process. A leader can be formal, someone appointed to head a group, or one who emerges from the ranks of the group according to a consensus of the members (Gibson et al : 1991).

Leadership is formally defined as "an attempt at influencing the activities of followers to willingly cooperate through the communication process towards the attainment of some goal or goals" (Fleishman : 1973). An analysis of this definition brings out three important aspects namely:

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 focusses on the accomplishment of goals. The effective leader may have to achieve either individual, group and/or organisational goals. The effectiveness of a leader is measured by the accomplishment of one or a combination of these goals. Therefore individuals may view the leader as effective or ineffective according to the satisfactions they derive from the total work experience (Fleishman : 1973). Depending on the leadership style organisational and individual goals could either be achieved or not. The different leadership styles that could 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 are selected by members of a group (Milkovich & Glueck : 1985).

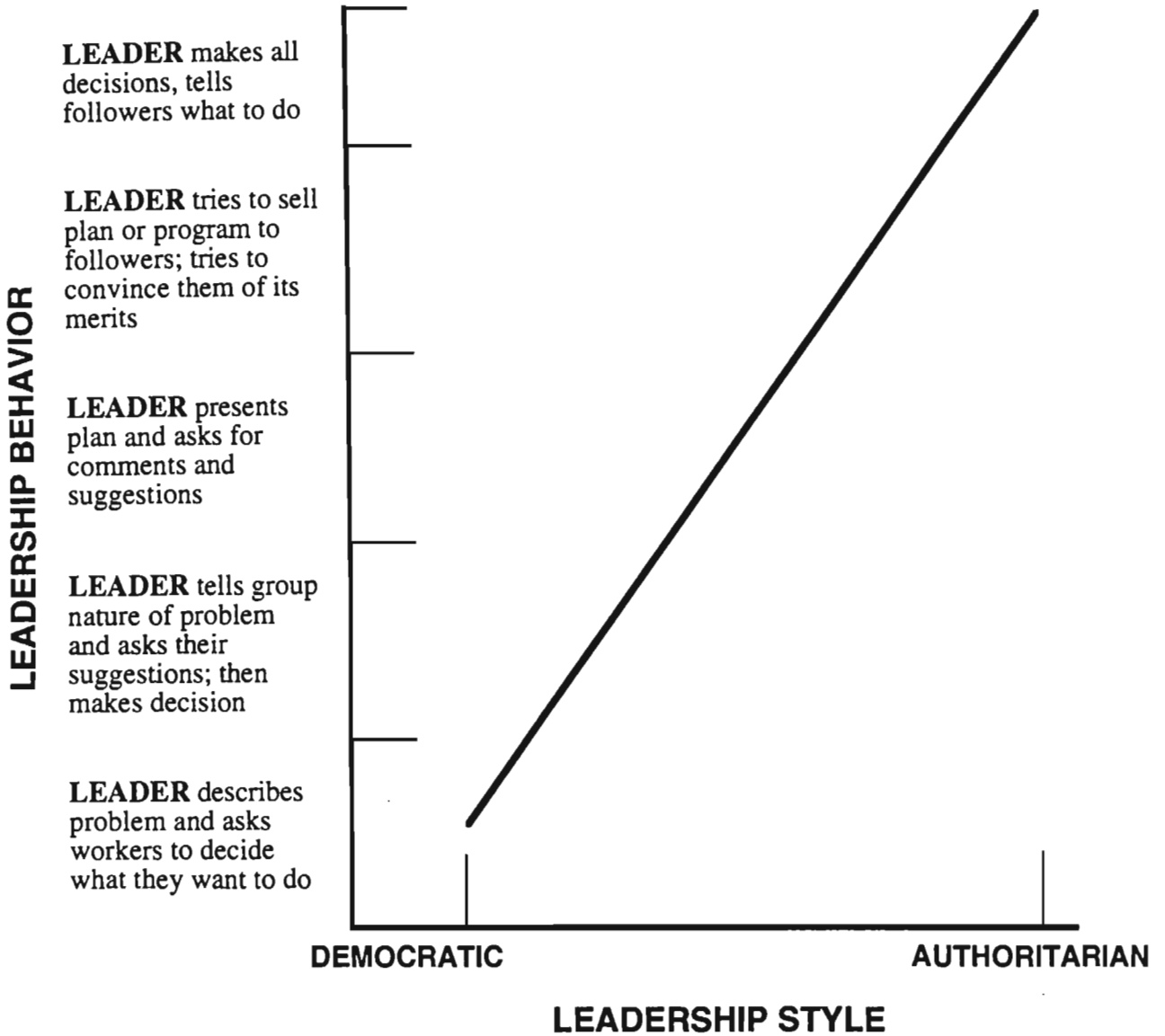
Headship guarantees that leaders can direct or dominate the action of subordinates while leaders have the power to exercise punishment where necessary (Griffin & Moorhead : 1986). Subordinates are not willing followers and group members may only perfunctorily carry out commands for imposed heads (Feldman & Arnold : 1983). This is in contrast with 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 (Schultz & Schultz : 1986).

(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 Schultz and Schultz (1986:260) "leadership situations involve some modifications or combinations 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 variation in leadership style". Figure 3.3 shows the authoritarian-democratic continuum with representative leader behaviours. There is latitude in leader behaviour, power and responsibility between the two extremes.

FIGURE 3.3 AUTHORITARIAN-DEMOCRATIC LEADERSHIP CONTINUUM



Source: Schultz, D.P. and Schultz, S.E. 1986. Psychology and Industry Today: An Introduction to Industrial and Organizational Psychology. New York: Macmillan Publishing Company, p.260.

It is obvious that the headship and authoritarian styles of leadership would be ineffective in the long term as they would be unable to maintain the individual-organisational linkage. Leaders could, however, maintain this linkage with the discrete use of power.

3.2.5.2 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 (Milkovich & Glueck : 1985).

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 (Schultz & Schultz : 1986). Power can be in the form of terminating a subordinate's employment, refusing promotion or salary increases (Schultz & Schultz : 1986). In this respect five kinds of power have been identified:

Legitimate power refers to the formalisation 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 (Muchinsky : 1983).

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 themselves (Cogill : 1986).

However, 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 (Cogill : 1986).

Furthermore, when effective leaders use referent and expert power to influence and motivate their subordinates there is a correlation between job performance and satisfaction (Schultz & Schultz:1986). The use of coercive and legitimate power reduce performance and satisfaction while reward power has shown no consistent influence (Yukl & Taber : 1983).

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 could achieve these objectives either through their concern for people or concern for production or a little of both.

3.2.5.3 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 (Cogill : 1986). Korman (1966:360), however, concludes that, "very little is known as to how these variables may predict work group performance and the conditions which affects 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 (Cogill : 1986). 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 (Robbins : 1986).

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 employee's personal feelings and place greater emphasis on achieving organisational goals through initiating structure (Strauss & Sayles : 1972).

(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 runs counter to the demands associated with consideration. When initiating a structure managers

allocate tasks to subordinates, direct the manner and speed of performance and monitor the work in progress (Robbins : 1986).

These activities may demand authoritarian behaviour and managers may ignore the subordinates' personal feelings (Muchinsky : 1983). Whether managers are able to achieve organisational goals would depend on the environment in which they operate.

3.2.5.4 Environment for effective performance

Managers are expected to attract, maintain and motivate employees. However, the most effective way of doing it has raised important questions. Miljus (1970:37) believes that "much of the answer lies in creating an environment on which individuals may satisfy their own particular goals, while at the same time contributing in a responsible manner to the attainment of organizational objectives. While the modern manager cannot 'make' the employee perform in a desired manner, he can certainly influence subordinate performance by his managerial skills and the style of leadership he exercises." There is support for Miljus's (1970) opinion, that a manager could 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 (Handy : 1985). Through formal and informal communication channels , subordinates are informed of what is precisely expected of them to satisfy organisational goals (Robbins : 1986). Reward in its various forms is a major key in attracting, holding and motivating good employees irrespective of the type of job. According to Miljus (1970:39) "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, fair supervision are relatively satisfied". Rewards could be powerful motivators as long as the expectations are known beforehand and also 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 ac-

tual problems and their causes and to invite solutions through participation from their subordinates (Miner : 1992). This could be achieved through management by objectives.

An evaluation and appraisal system identifying the level of worker's performance provide an ideal channel for communication with a manager (Wexley & Klimoski : 1984). Many organisations involve their employees in development programmes whereby goals are set and evaluated on a periodic basis (Muchinsky : 1983).

Effective managers are classified as being considerate when they achieve high scores in terms of high producing units, minimal turnover, low reject rate, fewer grievances and high employee morale (Miljus:1970). Managers of this calibre build mutual trust and respect through open two-way communications, 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.

3.2.6 Fringe Benefits

Fringe benefits are not awarded to employees as a means of only attracting, retaining and motivating them. However, benefits are used to gain employee compliance and commitment and make individuals aware of the opportunity to satisfy their basic needs (Gerber et al : 1992). Benefits if equitable and properly administered, has an effect on an individual's need fulfillment.

3.2.6.1 Effects of fringe benefits on need fulfilment

Fringe benefit plans are often designed to satisfy certain basic needs relating to physiology and safety (Brinton : 1983). 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 (French : 1987). Some of these benefits may help meet self-actualisation needs, in the form of vacations and 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 (Cole : 1983). Brinton (1983), French (1987) and Cole (1983) 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 term of employees' 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 (Milkovich & Glueck : 1985). 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 less salary (Shea : 1981). Providing fringe benefits may help individuals to fulfil certain basic needs and allows the company to obtain some degree of loyalty.

3.2.6.2 Employee Services

Employee services have been developed to increase employee loyalty to organisations and decrease absenteeism and turnover (Carrell & Kuzmits : 1986).

Child care programmes include both on-site facilities and voucher systems which reimburse employees for outside private child-care centres. The provision of these programmes can significantly reduce absenteeism and turnover (La Marre & Thompson : 1984). Child care programmes illustrate the employer's concern for the welfare of their employees. This also applies in the case of maternity and paternity leave.

- o Providing maternity leave has become an expected practice, however, in South Africa paternity leave is at present still at the negotiation stage. According to Norman and Tedeschi (1984) few men make use of the paternity leave as they feel that this may jeopardise chances of promotion or merit increase because it may be interpreted by management as a lack of their commitment to the organisation. Assistance with tuition fees for employees is another fringe benefit that is offered by organisations.

Employees are encouraged to improve their academic qualifications and are reimbursed by the company for the expenses they incurred for their tuition (Carrell & Kuzmits : 1986). However, there are instances when employees with academic qualifications have to be terminated due to poor performance.

In this case, out-placement programmes terminate the employment of marginal performers 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 out-placement counsellor plays a role in developing a positive attitude in an employee leaving the organisation (Carrell & Kuzmits:1986). Besides outplacement programmes, profit sharing has also become popular among organisations.

Profit sharing has become popular as managers realise that it directly relates to the goals of the organisation and employee. There is a problem, however, related to profit sharing 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 (Nainaar : 1991).

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

3.2.6.3 Validity of employee benefits

The validity of fringe benefits are found in their contribution to organisational goals. Problems are encountered when efforts are made to relate benefits to productivity or profits. An opinion has been expressed that the prime reason for giving benefits is to attract and retain staff (French : 1987).

There is speculation that using fringe benefits as a manipulative instrument, tends to 'freeze' apathetic or marginal employees in their jobs (French:1987). There is a feeling that higher labour mobility may be of benefit to the economy and that pensions should be 'portable' one that the worker can transfer between jobs (French:1987).

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 (Klatt et al : 1985). Fringe benefits provided by organisations assist employees in meeting some of life's contingencies, contribute to meeting the social obligations of employers, and 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 (Cascio:1989).

Although the provision of fringe benefits began as a means of gaining employee compliance and commitment, they will not exist for solely those purposes for very much longer. This is due to the fact that fringe benefits have now become part and parcel 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.

3.2.7 Social responsibility programmes

The complexity of social responsibility was accentuated by Aristotle as quoted by Abratt & Urgand (1985:15) 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 (Orpen : 1987). 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 is illustrated by Savage (1985:7) who said "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 such needed impetus to the programme.

3.2.7.1 Definition and explanation

Originally, according to Steiner (1971), 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

businessmen should oversee the operation of an economic system that fulfils the expectations of the public (Steiner : 1971). 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. Seitel (1984:398) defines 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.

3.2.7.2 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 was Milton Friedman (1962:133) who said, "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 decision or fraud. Few trends could so thoroughly undermine the very foundation of our new society as the acceptance by corporate officials of a social responsibility other than to make as much money for their stockholders as possible. This is a fundamentally subversive doctrine". According to him the function of a business is solely economic and it does not have a 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 (Friedman : 1962). There are, however, other entrepreneurs who are in agreement with the philosophy of social responsibility.

3.2.7.3 Argument for assumption of social responsibility

There are managers who do not only talk about social responsibility but are taking action (Steiner : 1971). There is a new thinking among businessmen 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 assume responsibility by providing more and better jobs for the disadvantaged people, raising the quality of life in the underdeveloped areas and improving race relations (Abratt & Urdang : 1985). However, in 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 (Davis, Frederick & Blomstrom : 1980). 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 responsibilities 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 to its wishes (Finnemore &

Van der Merwe : 1992). 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 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 (Steiner : 1971). 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 (O'Dowd : 1986). 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.

3.2.7.4 Social responsibility of businesses 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. They are the bloodstream of our whole economic world. 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 1978:3).

Tucker (1985:28), Managing Director of S.A. Permanent Building Society 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, ecological awareness, 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."

Pascoe (1985:28) Managing director of the Allied Building Society, 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."

First National Bank believes that, "our commitments to society are essentially to contribute to economic and social development, to respect the social and cultural traditions and so to 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" (First National Bank 1985:29).

It is obvious from the statements made by Ackerman, Tucker, Pascoe & First National Bank, 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 naive 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. Therefore the attitudes of organisations towards social responsibility is encouraging and augurs 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 the organisations beside supporting social responsibility programmes also provide jobs that are intrinsically motivating, as it is hypothesised in this study that intrinsically motivating jobs increase organisational commitment.

3.3 Motivational 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 (1966) is given the credit for developing the conceptual and theoretical base for job enrichment. Herzberg 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 (Steinmetz & Todd : 1986).

In contrast intrinsic motivators are aspects of the job that make it motivating (Jenks : 1990). 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 (Loher, Noe, Moeller & Fitzgerald : 1985). 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 (Brousseau : 1983). Job content is important as it serves a motive arousal function where higher-order needs are concerned and because it influences what rewards will be seen to stem from good performance (Gibson et al : 1988).

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 (Bannister : 1986).

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 in-

dividuals feel that their important abilities are being used on the job can feelings of accomplishment and growth be expected to result from good performance (Saal & Knight : 1988).

Finally, individuals must feel they have a high degree of self-control over setting their own goals and over defining the parts of these goals (Locke, Shaw, Saari & Latham : 1981).

It seems that Bannister (1986), Saal & Knight (1988) and Locke et al (1981) all concur on the importance of intrinsic motivation to satisfy higher order needs.

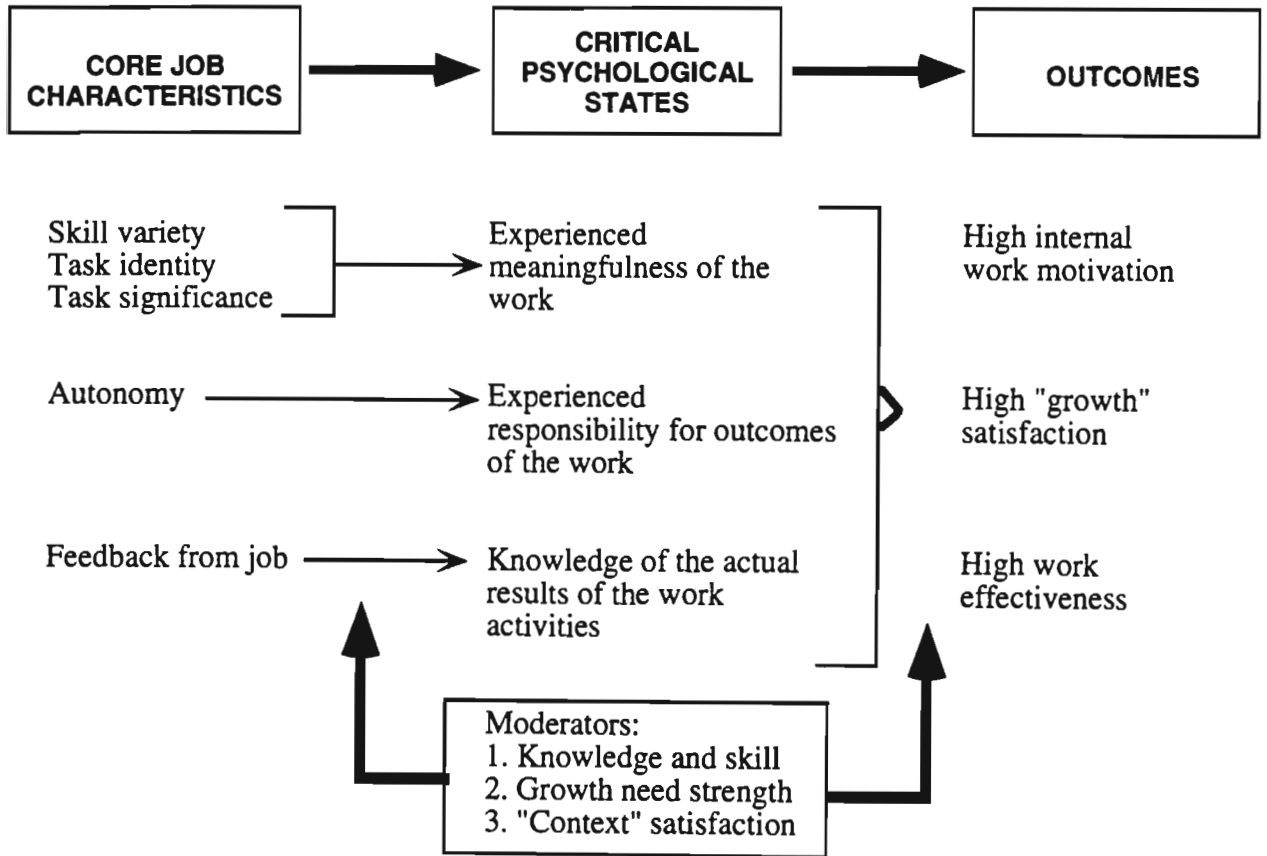
An important method that is used to encourage intrinsic motivation is job enrichment whereby the job itself is used to enrich the quality of working life (Cherrington & England : 1980). The job characteristics model which encompasses job enrichment consists of four classes of variables namely, core job dimension, critical psychological states, work outcomes and growth need strength. Each of these variables has an influence on the quality of work life.

3.3.1 Job characteristics model

The main architects of this model were Hackman & Oldham (1980), who believed 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 toward good performance. Furthermore Tosi et al (1990:92) believed 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 (Figure 3.4):

- (a) Critical psychological states
- (b) Core job dimension
- (c) Work outcomes
- (d) Growth need strength

FIGURE 3.4 JOB CHARACTERISTICS MODEL



Source: Hackman, J.R. and Oldham, G.R. 1980. Work Redesign. Massachusetts: Addison Wesley Publishing Company, p.90.

3.3.1.1 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 (Tosi et al :1990). 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 (Saal & Knight : 1987). 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 (Porter et al : 1981).

(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 (Jenks : 1990). This does not mean that feelings of personal responsibility for work outcomes cannot occur in team projects; all that is required is for team members to feel that their own efforts are important in accomplishing the task at hand (Porter et.al. : 1981).

(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 (Hackman & Oldham : 1980). 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 (Herold & Parsons : 1985). Hackman & Oldham (1980) concur with Herold & Parsons (1985) on the importance of obtaining knowledge of results. It is necessary for all the 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.

3.3.1.2 Core job dimensions

The key to Hackman and Oldham's (1980) model is a set of five core job dimensions that are used to describe jobs in term of design characteristics that have implications for workers' behaviour (Saal & Knight : 1988).

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 (Hackman & Oldham : 1980).

(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:

(i) Skill variety

Skill variety refers to the number of different abilities and capacities that workmen are required to perform (Porter, Lawler & Hackman: 1981). 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 would the worker find the task. Even work that is not very significant or important in an absolute sense can still be meaningful to an individual if that activity taps and stretches the person's skills and talents (Wexley & Yukl : 1984). Besides having variety in a job it is also important for employees to complete a task from beginning to end.

(ii) 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" (Hackman & Oldham 1980:78). 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 (Robbins : 1986).

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."
- (Turner & Lawrence (1965:157)).

Workers who have strong needs for developing and using their competence, a job with such characteristics generally would be expected to be experienced as highly meaningful and significant.

(iii) 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 or-

ganisation or in the world at large" Hackman & Oldham (1980:79). 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 (Jenks : 1990). 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 (Porter et al : 1981). 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 work outcomes is autonomy.

Autonomy refers to the "degree to which the job allows the individual substantial freedom, independence, and discretion to schedule the work, and determine the procedures for carrying it out". (Griffin & Moorhead 1986:257).

When the job provides substantial autonomy to the persons performing it, work outcome 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 (Hackman & Oldham : 1980). 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 (Gibson et al : 1991).

Hackman & Oldham (1980:80) 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 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. Hackman, Oldham, Janson & Purdy (1975) have suggested the five implementation concepts as possible means to achieve this:

(i) 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 job, similar to job enlargement. According to Hackman & Oldham (1980) combining tasks will

increase both task variety and task identity. By combining tasks, organisations form natural work units which could motivate individuals.

(ii) Forming natural work units

It is possible that workers will not be able to see how their work 'gets 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.

(iii) 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 task variety, autonomy and feedback will be increased (Hackman et al : 1975).

(iv) 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.

(v) 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.

3.3.1.3 Work outcomes

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

(i) 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 affects the person's willingness to put forth more work effort.

(ii) 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.

Hackman & Oldham (1980) find the reasoning regarding work quality as straightforward. They feel that when a job is highly motivating people who work on that job tend to experience 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.

(iii) Job satisfaction

Job satisfaction is the third outcome that is affected by the characteristic of work. According to Griffin & Moorhead (1986) the causes of job satisfaction can be grouped into three categories: organisational factors, group factors and personal factors.

(a) Organisational factors

Employees form attitudes about five major organisational factors namely pay, opportunities for promotion, the nature of the work itself, policies and procedures of the organisation and working conditions (Griffin &

Moorhead : 1986). It is hypothesised that the organisational factors which also form aspects of the equality of work life will enhance organisational commitment.

(b) Group factors

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

(c) Personal factors

An individual's needs and aspirations also has an affect 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 (Griffin & Moorhead : 1986).

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.

(iv) Absenteeism & turnover

Both absenteeism and turnover could be the result of poor working conditions. Once they reach a high level they could 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 (Porter et al : 1981). The fact that satisfaction (which is normally associated with absenteeism) usually improves when jobs are enriched would further strengthen the expectation that attendance should improve when the design of work is improved. However, research results on the question are inconclusive (Hackman & Oldham : 1980).

The view of Hackman & Oldham (1980) 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 self-generated negative affect for those who are not. This could also mean 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.

3.3.1.4 Growth need 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 (Saal & Knight : 1988).

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 predicted to develop high internal motivation when they 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 (Hackman & Oldham : 1980). According to Spector (1985), when people with high growth needs are doing a job high in core dimensions, they are more likely to experience high internal motivation, turnover and absenteeism. Only for high growth need strength workers would the core job dimensions affect the criti-

cal psychological states, and only for these same workers would 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 could be expected to be negative, because the emphasis would be placed on needs that are for them, irrelevant. (Saal & Knight : 1988).

It is apparent that Hackman & Oldham (1980), Spector (1985) and Saal & Knight (1988) have all agreed that a person's desire to grow is a strong motivating factor.

Although the job characteristics model is widely used Schultz & Schultz (1986 : 301) maintain 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. It also provides a basis for redesigning jobs, and reports indicate that such attempts have been successful". However, despite these mixed support, the job characteristics model is still extensively used as a motivational tool. And, 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.

3.4 Measurement of quality of work life

One of the main reasons organisations undertake quality of work life assessments is to diagnose existing and potential problems in the organisations. A predicament that the company is faced with is that sometimes isolated problems can be exaggerated. Bowditch & Buono (1982:124) cites 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 questionnaires produce 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 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 : 1983).

In the Job Description Index developed by Smith, Kendall & 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, to produce a total score (Orpen : 1983).

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 individuals 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 the items are summed (Orpen : 1983).

Although both the questionnaires effectively measure job satisfaction, per se, their ability to measure quality of work life is limited as Orpen (1981:42) points out that, "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 feel 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 Orpen (1981:43) "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 ones job; with the desirable state being seen as a reduction of dissatisfaction".

Third, 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.

Therefore, 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 of work life and not job satisfaction in its restrictive sense.

3.5 Summary

In this chapter Herzberg's hygiene and motivational factors were discussed in detail. These factors formed 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 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. Employees are generally not concerned with the amount of pay as much as equity. In determining equity, individuals compare their salaries with 'comparison-others'. Employees who perceive themselves as being underpaid tend to have lower commitment toward the organisation.

Employees have certain common law and statutory rights which they were either not aware of or were denied. The Wiehahn Commission exposed the rights of individuals. These rights have resulted in the worker

being able to challenge management. The outcome of the 'challenge' could either improve or diminish the worker's attitude toward the organisation.

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 feelings 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 second aspect of Herzberg's theory that was discussed was the motivational factor. The Job Characteristic Model of Hackman & Oldham (1980) formed the basis of this theory. The job characteristics model emphasises intrinsic motivation. Therefore, it is important for employers to create conditions that would enhance intrinsic motivation.

It is hypothesised that workers that are intrinsically motivated tend to have higher organisational commitment.

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

However, motivating workers is the joint responsibility of both the company per se 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 FOUR

THE ROLE OF THE SUPERVISOR

4.1 Introduction

According to George (1979:6) "supervisors are the key men in the managerial family who carry out the policies and directives of middle and top management through face-to face contact with the worker. Middle managements directives are carried out by first line supervisors through the efforts of the non-supervisory employees".

From this definition it can be deduced that supervisors occupy the lowest or first level of management hierarchy, that they are responsible not only for the direct day-to-day control of non-supervisory staff, but also direct and control the production process.

The supervisor has to harmonise the demands of management, trade union and workers and this is all added to the responsibility for doing the tasks at hand. Although supervisors have the responsibility for implementing the goals of management, their organisational authority to carry out their functions is frequently unclear (Kerr, Hill & Broedling : 1986).

The supervisor is not only responsible for the production of the department but also responsible for healthy industrial relations between higher level management, the union and the non-supervisory staff in the department.

George (1979) concurs with Kerr et al (1986) in highlighting the important and yet difficult role of the supervisor. It is envisaged the factors that contribute to the supervisor's job satisfaction (commitment) will be clarified in this study. The changing role of the supervisors and their effect in the future is well illustrated by Drucker (1983:34) when he noted "no job is going to change more in the next decade than that of the supervisor. And few people in the workforce are less prepared for the changes and less likely to welcome them."

This change results from the uncertain position of the supervisor and the increasing demands which are brought about by the increasing power and authority given to the shop stewards.

In this chapter, three main sections are discussed. Firstly, the multiple responsibility of the supervisors is reviewed. This includes their responsibility towards owners, employees and customers.

Secondly, as the supervisors find themselves in conflicting situations their role in the organisation will be discussed and assessed. Their present controversial position in an organisation has led to them being referred to by various titles namely, man in the middle, the marginal worker and simply as another worker. These conflicting roles place the supervisors under extreme stress. Furthermore, the position and responsibilities of the supervisor is being eroded by the shop steward who is now being given an increasing amount of power and privileges. These aspects will be discussed and their implications will be expounded upon.

Finally, the relationship between organisational commitment and quality of work life with specific reference to supervisors will be highlighted.

Therefore, in order to understand the role of the supervisors, it is important to differentiate between their multiple responsibilities toward the various sectors both within and outside the organisation.

4.2 Multiple responsibilities of the supervisor

In the past it was felt that a supervisor had only one responsibility, that is, to increase the productivity and profit of the business. However, today a new sense of supervisory responsibility has developed. Some call it business and statesmanship, while others call it enlightened leadership. This means supervisors realise that they have a responsibility not only towards the owners but also to groups and individuals both inside and outside the firm George (1979). The 'new' supervisors recognise their responsibility to the owners, employees and the customers. Each of these responsibilities will be discussed in the following sections.

4.2.1 Responsibility to owners

A primary aim of any owner of an organisation is to get a good return on investment. Another aim is to treat employees fairly and to be honest with the customers and public. The owner expects to achieve these objectives through, inter alia, the supervisor. whose responsibility to the owner is to operate the depart-

ment in a manner that will give the highest return on investment. Working with this aim in mind should not create conflict with respect to obligations that a supervisor has to other individuals and groups.

It is the responsibility of the owner to communicate clear objectives to the supervisor who is in charge of day-to-day activities. The supervisor is the only member of management that is directly in contact with non-management employees and as such is responsible for the welfare of the employees.

4.2.2 Responsibility to employees

Supervisors have a definite responsibility to their employees. As the owner has invested money, the employees in turn their time, their energies and efforts in the firm. Therefore, they are entitled to have a farsighted supervisor who recognises their contributions as well as their specific responsibilities to them (Steinmetz & Todd : 1986).

One of the supervisor's duties includes inducting workers when they start work and also for placing them in positions for which they are both qualified and interested. The supervisor is also responsible for providing physical facilities which promote a good

quality of work life. Furthermore, it is their responsibility to provide leadership that will inspire cooperation and allow the employee to work in a relaxed manner (Sasser & Leonard : 1980)

The supervisors' duties also include the planning function where they ensure the subordinate has a steady flow of work. In addition they are liable for increasing the employees' job satisfaction and well-being. This responsibility includes the obligation to provide the opportunity for advancement and promotion within the limits established by the size and nature of the organisation. Further, it incorporates a moral obligation to train employees so that the employees can attain the highest level of responsibility of which they are capable (Steinmetz & Todd : 1986).

Although the above list is not all-inclusive, they are, however, some of the responsibilities of an enlightened supervisor. Furthermore, being responsible for producing acceptable quality, the supervisors can also be held accountable for their relationship with customers.

4.2.3 Responsibility to customers

A supervisor's basic responsibility to the customer is to help the company make a quality product, produce it when there is a demand, and manufacture it at a price the customer is willing and able to pay. Finally, the supervisor is responsible to the customer for building integrity in the company's products.

Besides multiple responsibilities, the supervisors also have multiple roles to play, and in trying to achieve both, they find themselves in conflicting situations.

4.3 The conflicting role of supervisors

The job of a supervisor differs from that of other managers because the people that are supervised are different in status. That is, whereas managers at the higher level have supervisors (member of management) under them, the supervisors have the production personnel under their control. The situation requires the supervisor to interact in an authority relationship with two groups namely, workers who are the subordinates and managers who are the superiors.

The supervisor's job is further complicated by the fact that staff activities and union relations impinge more upon the supervisor than any other group in management.

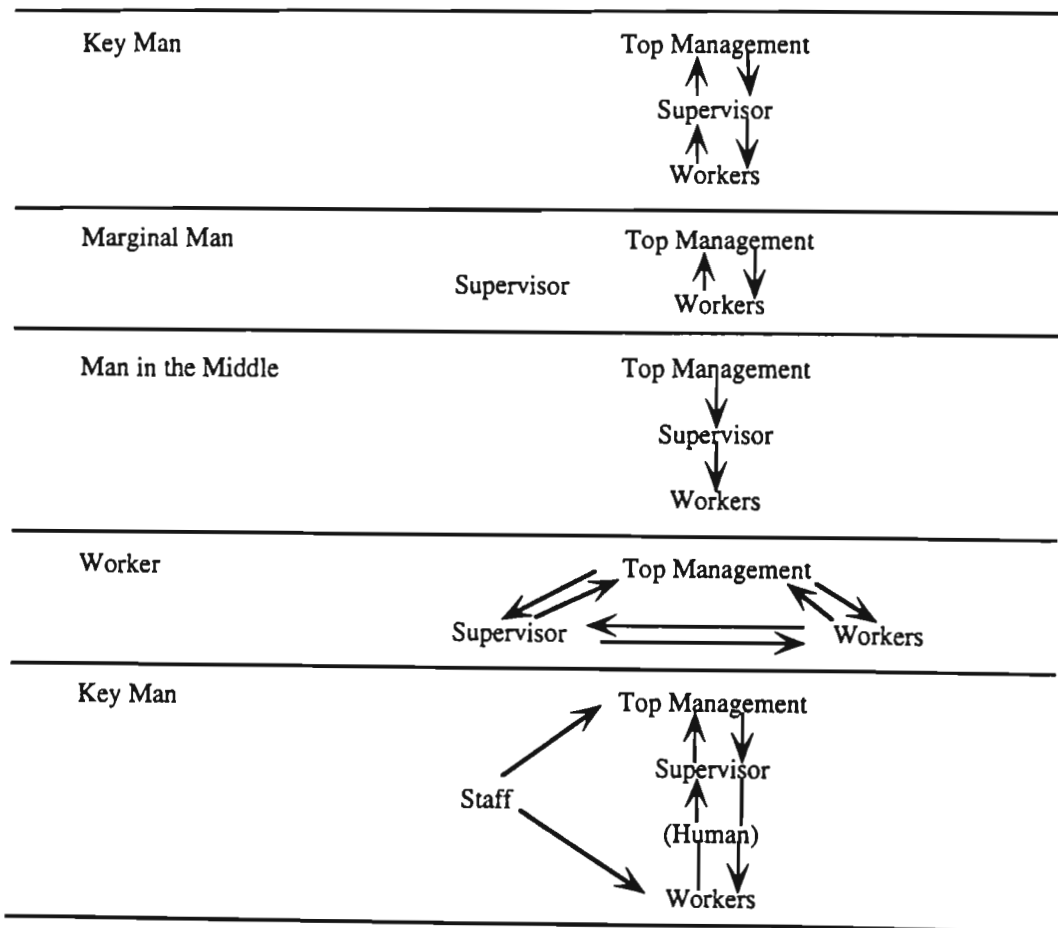
Generally, supervisors relinquish their membership of the trade union as soon as they become supervisors since the union caters mainly for non-management workers. This results in the supervisor depending on management for support. The position and conflicting role of the supervisor is aptly put forward by White (1965:90):

"The workers' representative is in an awkward position. He is paid by the management to whom he sometimes looks like a 'rabble-rousing red' elected by the men, who sometimes suspect him of being in the management's pocket and he is under the vigilance of the trade union with whose rules he is expected to conform even when they apparently run counter to the men's short-term interests. He has to safeguard each member's individual interests whilst preserving the trade union legacy of which he is the main custodian. Yet he must help to preserve the company's prosperity which alone can guarantee that of the men who elected him."

This increasing dissatisfaction calls for more human understanding of their position. The conflicting role of the supervisor is perhaps related to the structure of modern industrial organisation. The unique position of the supervisor is illustrated clearly within the

structure of the modern industrial organisation. There are five traditional views of the supervisor's organisational role as illustrated in the Figure 4.1.

FIGURE 4.1 DIFFERENT VIEWPOINTS OF THE SUPERVISOR'S ROLE



Source: Davis, K. 1967. Human Relations At Work: The Dynamics of Organizational Behavior. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, p.114.

4.3.1 Key man in management

The traditional management interpretation of the supervisors is that they are the key men in management and one of the most important functions of the supervisor is that of a leader. The supervisors need to build cohesion in the work group and they can encourage this by developing good relations between persons. They make various decisions including those related to subordinate's requests, claims and conduct. They control work and interpret the policy of the company and is thus regarded as the key person in the process of accomplishing work. Management considers them to be their representative. They also represent workers to management. Management in the higher echelon get to know the workers primarily through each supervisor. They are considered "an essential element because he sits astride the chains of authority and communication and can block anything going upward or downward. He is like the hub of a wheel: Everything revolves around him" (Davis 1967:114). Although the supervisors are considered key men, the presence of the union stewards appears to undermine their position and thereby marginalise them within the organisational control structure.

4.3.2 Marginal man

The concept 'marginal man' was introduced as early as 1928 by Park and later developed by Stonequist (1937). According to Park (1928:892) the marginal man is a "cultural hybrid, a man living and sharing intimately in the cultural life and traditions of two distinct peoples; never quite willing to break, even if he were permitted to do so, with his past and his traditions and not quite accepted, because of racial prejudice, in the new society in which he now sought to find a place." The supervisors are on the margin of the main activities and influences which affect their department. They are in the unenviable position of being unaccepted by management, ignored by the staff and yet not considered to be one of the workers. They walk the road alone. Top and other levels of management have specialists to support them. Workers have their trade union, their shop stewards and their informal groups but the supervisors have no specialist or professional body to support them. According to Piron, Human & Rajah (1983) the supervisor is the best known marginal man in industry.

Supervisors are in a position where they are not full members of the management team. They share with higher management the responsibility of carrying out policies

but are not involved in making them. Their positions are further complicated by the fact that those in upper management give orders to people who are identified with management, while the supervisors have to transmit information to people who are definitely not part of management (Wray:1948). Their role in labour relations is mostly a passive one. Management conducts the negotiation and their employee decisions are subject to review through the grievance procedure (Steinmetz & Todd : 1986).

Although supervisors are marginalised they, nevertheless, still find themselves sandwiched between management and workers.

4.3.3 Man in the middle

Jackson & Keaveny (1980) believe that supervisors have often been referred to as 'people in the middle' because they are between employees on one hand and upper management on the other. For half-a-century or more the role and status of the first line supervisor has been shrinking in importance. Whereas in the past the supervisors had been 'management' to the employees, they have now become a buffer between and among management, union and workers. The first line supervisor is a person caught between middle management and the work

force. Both these groups have different values and priorities. Middle management is more interested in cost efficiency and performance, whereas the workforce is more interested in wage rates, security and comfort. Management see the labour contract and work rules as restrictive while the workers see it as protection from unreasonable management demands (Driscoll, Carroll & Spencer : 1978). This further brings the supervisor between management and the workers.

According to Sasser and Leonard (1980) the first-level supervisor is caught directly in a cross fire of values and priorities and expands on this by listing the following in relation to the position:

- (a) The supervisor is often ignorant about the objectives and policies of top management but still influences what management can accomplish.
- (b) The supervisor is not part of the production team but depends heavily on its acceptance.
- (c) The supervisor is in the first line of management but has little authority.
- (d) The supervisor is a member of management but is not directly involved in decision making.

- (e) The supervisor is limited by precedents and company culture but is the agent of change without whose action little occurs in the company.
- (f) The supervisor establishes standards and precedents but has little information or knowledge on which to base decisions.
- (g) The supervisor is supposed to spend time on interpersonal relationships but finds that much of that time is required for record keeping.
- (h) The supervisor is supposed to be a leader but feels that leadership traits are suppressed because of the low self-image associated with the position.
- (i) The supervisor is supposed to identify with the values and aspirations of management but is at a dead end in career progress and development.
- (j) The supervisor is usually young and deals with a young, diverse, new type of working person but is evaluated, trained and rewarded by older, more conservative, more authoritarian supervisors.

The confusion of roles, increase in staff services, overlap of powers with the unions and the conflicting demands made on them have reduced the status of supervisors.

Management wants the supervisor to control production, maintain discipline and carry out its plan. It demands loyalty and maximum effort. Its expectations are largely technical or production centered. The pressures brought upon them by workers are largely matters of feeling. They expect them 'to be good supervisors,' to keep them out of trouble and to convey their wants and aspirations to management and to be loyal to them. The supervisors are unable to meet the expectations of both. The pressure applied on the Black supervisor in South Africa is about the worst that could ever be experienced. Having supervised the Black subordinates during the day and regarded as being 'one of management', the supervisors at the end of the working day are 'rejected' by the Whites and they have to return to the second class citizenship together with their subordinates. The question that arises is to whom must the Black supervisors show allegiance (Piron, Human & Rajah : 1983). This further intensifies their conflicting role.

The Black supervisor is an epitome of the 'man in the middle' caught between Black workers, their unions and an essentially White managerial staff. From the company's point of view the supervisors are first and foremost supervisors and as a result they may be asked

at times to wield disciplinary authority. There could be a situation when a Black supervisor who is a trade union member is required to discipline a Black subordinate who is also a trade union member. The union can then find itself in a position where it must defend a trade union member (the Black employee) against the actions of another trade union member who is also Black but is a member of management. The Black supervisor then truly becomes 'the man in the middle' (Piron et al : 1983). Although supervisors feel traumatised by being torn between the subordinate and the management they still consider themselves to be just another in the organisation.

4.3.4 Another worker

Supervisors look upon themselves as just another worker primarily for two reasons. Firstly, the supervisors believe they lack the authority that they rightly deserve. The centre of decision making is elsewhere and they only carry out the decision made by the upper management. They do operative work; and they carry out errands, communicate and make record (Davis :1967).

Secondly, they feel they are not part of the management team. They do not enjoy the management status and their thought patterns are much closer to those of

workers than those of higher management. They have the tendency to interpret management policies and actions in a different way from that which is intended. Although supervisors consider themselves as 'another worker' yet they are looked upon by management as human relations specialist.

4.3.5 Human relations specialist

The ability to work with people is about the most important characteristic of a supervisor (Dubrin:1980). The supervisors are sometimes looked upon by management as a human relations specialist. Their jobs become especially important in industries where repetitive work is performed and where frustrations could arise. According to Steinmetz & Todd (1986) it often happens where repetitive work is carried out the bulk of employees doing the work are poorly educated. This could make the job of the supervisor especially taxing.

Supervisors themselves tend to rate human relations abilities as very important for successful performance. This is especially true of situations where there is a trade union, as they have to be extra careful how they

treat their workers. Therefore supervisors need to be adequately trained so that they could fulfil their changing role in industrial relations.

4.3.6 Role in industrial relations

The supervisor who directs the work of subordinates has the authority to correct the behaviour of a subordinate when he does not conform to the appropriate standards (Yuill:1979). The changing role of the first-line supervisor is explained by Sasser & Leonard (1980:116).

"It has become increasingly difficult to hire or fire without union involvement. Hiring often has to come from the union list; firing has to follow a strict interpretation of the contract, often requiring a number of warnings. Layoffs are normally by seniority, not according to productivity. Disciplinary action was formally taken away from the prerogative of the first-line supervisor's judgment." Furthermore, the union has eroded the prestige of the supervisor by winning wage increases, job security and better working conditions for its members (Kerr et al:1986). According to Piron et al (1983) supervisors are in an extremely difficult situation with regard to union-management relations as they are forced to adhere to grievance and disciplinary procedures but they had no say in the for-

mulation of those contracts. Generally, the shop stewards get to know about the procedures before the supervisors.

This clearly indicates that the power of the shop steward is increasing, the role of the supervisor is slowly diminishing. This situation would continue until management is prepared to move the supervisors to the position they were almost half a century ago. In this respect, the supervisor needs the support of top management (Steinmetz & Todd : 1986).

According to Dubrin (1980) a supervisors' role in labour relations includes five tasks of expectations or obligations:

First, their primary obligation is to protect the interests and rights of management. The supervisor, vis a vis the company does not have to give in to every demand of the trade unions. If management believes that good housekeeping is essential for the safety of employees and for productivity, a supervisor can insist on high standards of housekeeping.

Second, supervisors are the connecting point between the trade union and management and between the shop steward and management. Supervisors are responsible for communicating important messages back and forth between management and the union. They keep management informed about the trade union-management relations.

Third, supervisors are responsible for upholding the formal contract made between management and the trade union. Most agreements demand fair and equitable treatment of employees.

Fourth, supervisors must create a good working relationship with the shop steward. Although shop stewards do not have more formal power than the supervisor, they can nevertheless create problems for an unfriendly or hostile supervisor. If there is a good working relationship between the supervisors and the shop steward this could take care of many employee problems.

Fifth, supervisors often function as paralegal technicians or lay lawyers. They make instant interpretations of the union-management contract to employees. It is felt that management expects too much from the supervisors in the form of loyalty, dedication and com-

mitment. In the face of change industrial relations management still marginalises the first line supervisor.

At present there is strong competition between the supervisor and the shop-steward in a 'winner-take all' situation. This situation is bound to persist for as long as management is 'afraid' of the shop steward. As supervisors would continue to be marginalised it would be unwise for the organisation to expect them to be committed.

4.4 Relationship between organisational commitment and quality of work life with reference to supervisors

Whereas the employees at the bottom work to satisfy their basic needs which is in many instances easy for the company to meet, supervisors want to satisfy their higher order needs. Therefore, employers hoping to gain supervisors' commitment have to make a detailed analysis of their (supervisors') needs and aspirations.

Studies have found factors that could be responsible for enhancing or decreasing a supervisor's commitment towards the organisation.

4.4.1 Studies related to supervisors

According to Hackman and Oldham (1974) numerous aspects of job situation can affect a supervisor's perception of responsibility. Certain jobs carry more responsibility and persons in higher positions tend to be more committed. Likewise, some jobs offer more discretion and self-determination to their occupants, and it has been found that employees in autonomous positions tend to have more favourable attitudes than those with little freedom to decide how to do their jobs (Staw & Salancik : 1977).

Furthermore, the manner by which the job is supervised can affect perceptions of responsibility. An individual who stands over a subordinate provides an excuse for the subordinate's behaviour. When unpleasant aspects of the job become obvious, instead of coping with them and finding some joy in the job, the subordinates can attribute their endurance to the supervisor's strong pressure. Supervisory commitment is also affected by the type of supervision. Maguire and Ouchi (1975) found that close output supervision improves satisfaction but close behavioural supervision does not. Monitoring and providing individuals with feedback about work performance can increase their felt

responsibility. Besides feedback a supervisor's commitment can also be affected by role conflict and role ambiguity.

Studies by Netemeyer, Johnston & Burton (1990), Kemery, Bedeian, Mossholder & Touliatos (1985) and Wunder, Dougherty & Welsh (1982) suggest that role conflict and role ambiguity may directly affect the propensity to leave an organisation through other constructs such as job satisfaction and organisational commitment.

Netemeyer et al (1990) also claim that the consequences of role conflict and role ambiguity are of practical importance regardless of whether their effects are direct or indirect. Managers are now realising both the financial and human resources costs associated with job dissatisfaction and tension. It is, therefore, of great benefit to identify the antecedents of tension and job satisfaction and subsequently take preventive or corrective action. Both role ambiguity and role conflict appear to display a strong relationship with a tendency toward dissatisfaction, tension, lack of loyalty, anxiety and psychological withdrawal from the work group (Van Sell, Brief and Schuler : 1981). Dis-

trust, dissatisfaction and tension are exacerberated by the special treatment accorded to shop stewards and the 'marginalised' role of the supervisor.

Therefore supervisors should have some say in the union management contract which they must help to implement and should also be included in the management team when any discussion takes place with trade unions (Piron, Human & Rajah : 1983). Piron, Human and Rajah (1983:18) further maintain that "if the supervisor is expected to perform managerial functions, then in every instance, he should be treated as part of management; he should never be treated as 'second rate'. The latter point is of particular importance : More senior management cannot expect the supervisor's subordinates to show him respect if they exclude him from the managerial team". To get commitment from supervisors management need to reconsider their (supervisor's) roles. Other studies related to the supervisors were carried out by Brown (1969), Buchanan II (1974) and Grusky (1966) and Caldwell et al (1990).

Brown (1969) in his study discovered that individuals tended to identify with the organisation in three situations, namely, when:

- (1) They saw the organisation as providing opportunities for personal achievement;
- (2) They had power within the organisation;
- (3) There were no competing objects of identification.

However, Buchanan II (1974), concluded that senior managers experience a midlife career crisis. During this crisis they self-scrutinise themselves. Such self scrutiny focuses on the contrast between youthful aspirations and the reality of experience in the course of a career. He felt that some of the blame for any dissatisfaction with the contrast would result in diminished commitment or general disenchantment. Satisfaction with the contrast will bolster commitment. The results of the study conducted by Buchanan II (1974) was generally consistent with other research. These other studies identified years of organisational service, social interaction with organisational peers and superiors, job achievement and hierarchial advancement as determinants of various aspects of commitment.

The third major study was conducted by Grusky (1966) who hypothesised that two general factors influence the strength of supervisors' attachment to an organisation

namely, the rewards they received from the organisation and the experiences they have had to undergo to receive them.

According to the first hypothesis if persons cannot obtain the rewards they desire, they either leave the organisation or accept the rewards offered by the company but at the same time feel less committed to that organisation. On the other hand, obtaining the rewards strengthens their commitment.

According to the second hypothesis a persons' commitment to the organisation is strengthened if they have to overcome hurdles in order to obtain their rewards. The reasoning is that if the rewards are readily obtained, one's obligation to the organisation is likely to be weak because the workers feel that it was their attributes rather than those of the organisation which provided the rewards. On the other hand, if the employee obtains great rewards despite apparent obstacles such as starting out with a low status in the organisation, commitment should be strong.

The first hypothesis received only slight and scattered support (Grusky : 1966). Although highly mobile managers were generally the most committed, managers experiencing moderate or minimum mobility did not reveal the predicted pattern.

The second hypothesis was consistently supported. This hypothesis suggested that the greater the obstacles the individual had to overcome in order to obtain the organisation's rewards, the stronger would be his commitment.

Caldwell et al (1990) found a significant positive relationship between strong organisational recruitment and socialisation practices and commitment. They concluded that when organisations have well-organised recruitment and orientation programmes and well-defined organisational value systems, individuals have higher levels of normative commitment to the organisation. Caldwell et al (1990:257) also found that "well-articulated reward systems are positively related to instrumental based commitment".

The results of research carried out thus far on management have not been entirely consistent. Most of these studies investigated only a few aspects of quality of

work life and its effect on organisational commitment, which does not give a clear picture. This study will endeavour to find a relationship between quality of work life factors and organisational commitment among supervisors.

4.5 Summary

It has long been recognised that the role of the supervisor is becoming very demanding and any change from this situation would require a concerted effort by management to accept the supervisor as an important member of the management team.

The supervisor has responsibilities toward the owners (the boss), the employee (the subordinate) and the customer. It is not possible for the supervisor to neglect any of these responsibilities.

The supervisors have been given various names due to the conflicting roles that they have to enact. Some of these names are 'key man in management, marginal man and another worker'. Although the supervisors have been called by various names, the nature of their jobs has not changed.

Finally, the studies related to supervisors were examined. These studies showed that there is a paucity of research regarding the relationship between organisational commitment and quality of work life among supervisors. The present study is therefore designed to assess whether a relationship exists between organisational commitment and quality of work life among supervisors.

The ensuing chapter will focus on the methodological issues as related to the purpose of the study. Emphasis will be placed on the research design, the description of the sample that was chosen, the procedure that was followed in conducting this research, the statistical analyses of data and the research instruments that were utilised.

CHAPTER 5
RESEARCH DESIGN

5.1 Introduction

It has been suggested that commitment of an individual is influenced in varying degrees by factors such as age, gender, length of service, hierarchial advancement and perception of being paid fairly. Although some research in the field of organisational commitment have been undertaken, no conclusive findings have been published. Furthermore, the relatively few results which have been published tend to be inconclusive and inconsistent with one another.

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

- (a) To establish whether there is a relationship between quality of work life and organisational commitment.
- (b) To determine whether there is a relationship between biographical variables and organisational commitment.

(c) To establish whether there is a relationship between quality of work life factors and organisational commitment.

In order to obtain these objectives investigative 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. Firstly, the sampling procedure used is described and justified, In the second place, the measuring instruments used to carry out statistical testing of the various variables are described in some detail and reasons for their selection recorded. Finally, in Chapter 6 the relationships to be tested empirically are formulated and the statistical tests employed in each instance are specified. The sampling procedure used in this study will be discussed next.

5.2 Sampling

The sample was randomly drawn from the Durban-Pietermaritzburg metropolitan areas using the stratified random sampling method. In this technique, the population is divided into strata and "random sampling techniques are used to select sample members from

each stratum" (Cozby 1989 : 109). Stratified random sampling "has the advantage of a built in assurance that the sample will actually reflect the numerical composition of the various subgroups" (Cozby 1989 : 124).

5.2.1 Description of sample

The present study was undertaken with a sample size of 304 subjects randomly drawn from the Durban-Pietermaritzburg metropolitan areas. This area was chosen as it has the heaviest concentration of commercial and industrial organisations in Natal. The sample was drawn up from the organisations as follows:

TABLE 5.1

COMPOSITION OF SAMPLE: ORGANISATION

<u>Organisation</u>	<u>Frequency</u>	<u>Percentage</u>
Soft Drink Bottling	17	5,6
Petroleum	10	3,3
Refinery	16	5,3
Retail Store	65	21,4
Clothing and Textile	93	30,6
Appliance Manufacturing	24	7,9
Municipality	<u>79</u>	<u>26,0</u>
	<u>304</u>	<u>100,0</u>

The population parameters indicating the frequencies and percentages are presented in Tables 5.2 to 5.6.

TABLE 5.2
COMPOSITION OF SAMPLE: AGE

Age Groups	Frequency	Percentage
Under 30	49	16,12
31 - 40	116	38,16
41 - 50	84	27,63
Above 50	39	12,83
Not available	16	5,26
TOTAL	304	100,00

The age group 31 - 40 years had the highest percentage (38,16 %) while the 'above 50 years' group had the lowest (12,83 %).

TABLE 5.3

COMPOSITION OF SAMPLE : MARITAL STATUS

Martial Status	Frequency	Percentage
Married	240	78,95
Single	43	14,14
Divorced	14	4,61
Separated	2	0,66
Not Available	5	1,64
TOTAL	304	100,00

Married persons had a frequency of 240 or 78,95 % of the total and separated individuals totalled 2 or 0,66 %.

TABLE 5.4

COMPOSITION OF SAMPLE : LENGTH OF SERVICE IN THE
COMPANY

Length of Service	Frequency	Percentage
Under 5 years	90	29,61
6 - 10	54	17,76
11 - 15	60	19,74
16 - 20	37	12,17
More than 20 years	55	18,09
Not available	8	2,63
TOTAL	304	100,00

There were 90 supervisors who had under 5 years of service in the company while the 16 - 20 years group had the lowest number 37 (12,17%).

TABLE 5.5

COMPOSITION OF SAMPLE : NUMBER OF SUBORDINATES

No. of Subordinates	Frequency	Percentage
Under 10	120	30,47
11 - 20	61	20.07
21 - 30	41	13,49
31 - 40	19	6,25
More than 41	35	11,51
Not available	28	9,21
TOTAL	304	100,00

Supervisors who had under 10 subordinates totalled 120 (30,47 %) and there were 19 supervisors who had between 31 - 40 subordinates.

TABLE 5.6

COMPOSITION OF SAMPLE: EDUCATION

Education	Frequency	Percentage
Below Std. 6	17	5,59
Std 7 - 8	86	28,29
Std 9 - 10	117	38,49
Post Matric	74	24,34
Other	8	2,63
Not Available	2	0,66
TOTAL	304	100,00

The majority of the subordinates had either standard 9 or 10 (38,49 %) education whereas other supervisors (technical education) totalled 8 (2,63 %).

The reasons for choosing the samples are:

5.2.2 Reasons for choosing the sample

- (a) The supervisors are the most vulnerable workers in industry. Their positions are being undermined by the trade union whose representative, the shop steward enjoys more privileges. Management pays more attention to the shop steward than the supervisor and as such it is hypothesized that their commitment is affected.
- (b) The sample, because of its representativeness, established a sound base for further related longitudinal study.
- (c) The sample was accessible for testing purposes.
- (d) Every member of the sample was literate. As the questionnaires were distributed by the human resources department, no additional explanation of the form was necessary.
- (e) Within the financial constraints the sample was most acceptable.
- (f) 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.

5.3 Procedure for administration of questionnaire

After receiving confirmation of their intention to participate in the study, questionnaires were given to the human resources department for distribution to the supervisors. The supervisor was defined as the first line of management, that is, they supervise the employees who directly produce services or products.

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

A letter was enclosed with the information that:

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

Altogether 950 questionnaires were distributed to companies and of those 304 were returned giving a return rate of 35%. 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 questionnaire.

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

5.4 Measuring instruments

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

5.4.1 Biographical information form

The following details were obtained from the biographical information form: the date of birth, marital status, 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.

5.4.2 Organisational commitment questionnaire(OCQ)

According to Meyer & Allen (1988) 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 & Porter (1979) 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 (1979:226) used the following definition of organisational commitment.

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

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

The OCQ consists of 15 items that tap the 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 (1979) using the OCQ among the 2563 employees. In particular interest focused on providing information pertinent to the following psychometric properties:

- (i) means and standard deviations
- (ii) internal consistency reliability
- (iii) test-retest reliability (Mowday et al : 1982).

5.4.2.1 Means 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 1,30 and indicate an acceptable distribution of response within samples.

5.4.2.2 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 highly 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 (1982:222) found that, "where two factors emerged from an analysis, the eigenvalue 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".

5.4.2.3 Test-retest reliability

In order to determine the stability of the OCQ over time, Mowday et al (1979) computed test-retest reliabilities for two samples for which multiple data points were available. For the sample of psychiatric technicians, 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 retail management trainees, test-retest reliability was $r = 0,72$ over a 2 month period and $r = 0,62$ for 3 months.

Mowday et al (1979) conclude that these data compare favourably to other attitude measures (job satisfaction).

5.4.3 Quality of work life questionnaire

Staw (1981) 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 differences in how individuals respond to the same work environment.

Staw (1981) expounds 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 Myburgh (1984:54).

"One of the limitations of quality of work life studies is their reliance upon self-report inventories. Locke (1976) warns against some dangers of these, which include the assumption of perfect self-insight (ie. the capacity and willingness to introspect) and the assumption of a common meaning across individuals interpret-

ing questionnaire items. These inherent problems are always a limitation in quality of work life studies due to the nature of these types of investigations."

Therefore, in the absence of the perfect questionnaire, the one developed by Duvenage (1981) was used.

The research methodology used by Duvenage (1981) in the development of the quality of work life questionnaire entailed the compilation, application and analysis of an experimental psychometric instrument.

In developing his questionnaire Duvenage (1981) used Coster, Coetsee and Van Niekerk's (1979) quality of work life questionnaire and Coetsee's (1981) Organisational Diagnosis Questionnaire. Duvenage's (1981) 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 (1981) questionnaire has a five point Likert Scale with anchors of Yes, to a great extent, to some extent, to a little extent, No.

Duvenage (1981) processed the data using the following methods: explorative principle component and principle factor analyses as well as qualitative item analysis on an iterative basis. By means of these analyses three factors were identified as affecting the quality of work life.

Factor 1 was the strongest and was identified as job satisfaction. Four groups of clusters were identified, namely, monetary remuneration, race relations, supervision and job satisfaction. Other clusters loading on Factor 1 are life satisfaction and physical working conditions.

Item analysis of this factor revealed the following coefficients:

Kuder-Richardson (KR)20	$r = 0.952$
KR14	$r = 0.952$

Factor 2 identified as psychosomatic well-being was found to be relatively homogenous within and across clusters. The aspects considered important were psychosomatic anxiety, group cohesion, psychological stress, role overload and role incongruity.

The internal consistency of Factor 2 is:

KR20 $r = 0,809$

KR14 $r = 0,810$

Factor 3 was identified as organisational climate. The important aspects were communication, organisational climate and work group processes. The internal consistency of this Factor is

KR20 $r = 0,610$

KR14 $r = 0,611$

Therefore, the quality of work life questionnaire was used in the present study as Myburgh (1984) points out that Duvenage (1981) has developed a questionnaire that has acceptable properties for the assessment of the quality of work life.

The various factors included in the questionnaire are:

5.4.3.1 Quality of work life factors

The factors used in the quality of work life questionnaire can be operationally defined as follows:

(i) 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.

(ii) Task characteristics

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

(iii) Work group processes

"Work group processes" relates to the individual's interaction with the work group members in social interaction. It also refers to the "climate" with the work groups.

(iv) Supervisory leadership

Supervisory leadership concerns the individual's interaction with the formal leadership and behaviour and how this is experienced. This factor also concerns itself with the supervisor's ability to direct and motivate subordinates.

(v) General satisfaction outputs

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

(vi) Psychosomatic welfare

Psychosomatic welfare depicts the psychosomatic condition of individuals. That is, the effect of the job on the person's health.

(vii) 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.

(viii) 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?"

(ix) General satisfaction with life

This factor concerns the influence of work on the individual's life in general that is, the influence of work on issues like family and social activities.

(x) 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.

(xi) Hygiene

Hygiene relates to safe and healthy working conditions. The conditions that could affect the quality of work life are reasonable working hours, safety at work, clean restrooms, toilets and eating facilities and the company's medical services.

(xii) 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.

5.5 Statistical analysis of data

5.5.1 Introduction

The purpose of using statistics is two fold. Firstly, it describes the data that is collected and secondly, it makes inferences. Hence, descriptive and inferential statistics were utilised for such purposes.

5.5.2 Descriptive statistics

Descriptive statistics 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" (Kinnear & Taylor 1991:546). Therefore, an analysis of the data incorporates the use of frequencies, measures of central tendency (mean) and measures of dispersion (standard deviation).

5.5.2.1 Frequencies

Frequencies are the number of objects in sets or subsets. Research data usually consists of a collection of numbers which represent the measurement of variables. So as to make these numbers meaningful a logical procedure has to be determined for organising and summarising them.

Data in this study were systematically summarised by constructing frequency distribution. Peterson (1988:372) defined frequency distribution as "an ordered array of observed variable 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 variable values, more information can be obtained by computing the measure of central tendency.

5.5.2.2 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 (Downie and Heath : 1970).

5.5.2.3 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 Downie and Heath (1970:56) "of all the measures of variability, the standard deviation is by far the most widely encountered, mainly because it is used in so many other statistical operation." Therefore, in this study the standard deviation was used.

The standard deviation is the square root of the variance and is calculated for a continuous variable and a proportion. It is frequently used in the inter-

pretation of the percentage of scores in a distribution that are one standard deviation above the mean and one standard deviation below the mean.

5.5.3 Inferential statistics

Hinkle, Wiersma and Jurs (1979:10) define inferential statistics as 'a collection of methods for making inferences about the characteristics of the population from the knowledge of the corresponding characteristics of the sample". The objective of 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'" (Dunham 1980:311).

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

5.5.3.1 Regression analysis

Regression analysis is used to study the effects and the magnitude of the effects of more than one independent variable on one dependent variable using the principles of correlation and regression (Kerlinger:

1986). The ordinary product-moment correlation coefficient (r) between two 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: 1992). The index of the magnitude of the relation between a composite of independent variables and a dependent variable is called the multiple correlation coefficient 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: 1992). This is known as the coefficient of determination. The analysis is known as multiple regression analysis as more than one independent variable (predictor) are regressed against a dependent variable (criterion).

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

5.5.3.2 Analysis of variance

The Analysis of variance (ANOVA) was used to test the differences between committed and uncommitted supervisors. 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 (1980: 109) offer 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 you were to conduct a t-test and an F-test on the data from the same two group experiments, you would obtain exactly the same information. The reason 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 (1970: 207), "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 sample 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.

5.5.3.3 Correlation

Downie and Heath (1970:86) define correlation as "a measure of relationship between two variables." The two variables could be anything and are normally labelled X and Y.

Although curvilinear relationship between variables do 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 & Poggio : 1985).

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 direction (positive or negative) shows that a relation-

ship 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 two variables (Downie and Heath : 1970).

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 & Poggio : 1985).

The sign of a correlation does not indicate the size of the relationship, but it does give information about the direction of the relationship. Positive correlation coefficients identify a direct relationship between the two variables. An inverse relationship will produce a correlation coefficient with a negative sign.

5.5.4 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 (Peterson 1988:487). Its importance in research is succinctly put by Kerlinger (1986:569),

"because of its power, elegance and closeness to the core of scientific purpose, factor analysis can be called the queen of analytic methods".

The specific objectives of factor analysis are set out by Peterson (1988:488),

- * "Deriving a set of uncorrelated variates.
- * 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 coefficients are 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 are formed as linear combination of the variables in the correlation matrix (Brijball : 1993). Variables with high correlations are combined to form one factor. This combination is called a principal component or a principal factor. Communality is the proportion of a variables total

variation that is involved in the factors. The percentage of 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 (Brijball : 1993). In the principal factors method the extracted factors are uncorrelated 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 1988:488).

The initial factor loading matrix is then rotated according to a prespecified criterion and becomes 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 (Kinnear & Taylor 1991:614).

5.5.5 Cronbach's coefficient alpha

According to Kaplan and Saccuzzo (1989) there are various tests (personality and attitude) for which there are no right or wrong answers. Cronbach (1951) developed a formula which is commonly used to estimate

the internal consistency of tests where the items are not scored as 0 or 1 (right or wrong). Cronbach called this estimate the coefficient alpha.

Therefore, the Cronbach's coefficient alpha was used to determine the internal consistency of the quality of work life questionnaire.

5.6 Summary

A carefully planned sampling programme which provided for randomness was selected. The sample size ($n = 304$) 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.

The questionnaire developed by Duvenage (1981) 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 is 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 6
PRESENTATION OF RESULTS

6.1 Introduction

The results were computed using the Systat programme to test the hypotheses stated in Chapter 1 and the findings of this investigation are presented.

The means and standard deviations of organisational commitment, together with the means, standard deviations and intercorrelations of the quality of work life factors were 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 organisational commitment 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:

6.2 Feel for the data for quality of work life factors
and organisational commitment

6.2.1 Means and standard deviations of the data

TABLE 6.1

MEAN AND STANDARD DEVIATION OF QUALITY OF WORK LIFE
FACTORS AND ORGANISATIONAL COMMITMENT

VARIABLES	\bar{X}	S.D.
General satisfaction output	38,750	6,588
Task characteristics	37,714	6,528
Organisational climate	36,461	8,843
Role behaviour	35,566	4,572
Supervisory leadership	34,655	7,736
Work group processes	34,076	5,758
Future orientation	32,924	7,388
Hygiene	32,878	7,718
Utilisation	32,444	5,814
Remuneration	30,326	7,278
General satisfaction with life	28,556	5,230
Psychosomatic welfare	22,069	5,874
Organisational commitment	4,355	0,647

Table 6.1 indicates that the sample showed a preference for general satisfaction output, task characteristics, organisational climate, role behaviour and supervisory leadership.

The variables with low means were remuneration, general satisfaction with life and psychosomatic welfare.

6.2.2 Intercorrelation of quality of work life factors

TABLE 6.2

INTERCORRELATION OF QUALITY OF WORK LIFE FACTORS

	OCLIM	WGP	SL	TC	GSO	PW	RB	REMUN	GSWL	UTIL	HYG	FO
Organisational climate												
Work group	**											
Processes (WGP)	0,563											
Supervisory	**	**										
Leadership (SL)	0,506	0,395										
Task characteristics	**	**	**									
(TC)	0,679	0,496	0,395									
General satisfaction	**	**	**	**								
output (GSO)	0,650	0,490	0,493	0,709								
Psychomatic Welfare												
(PW)	-0,111	0,034	0,006	-0,099	-0,093							
Role Behaviour (RB)	**	**	**	**	**							
	0,422	0,417	0,344	0,356	0,395	0,059						
Remuneration (REMUN)	**		**	**	**		**					
	0,394	0,014	0,249	0,400	0,390	-0,159	0,155					
General Satisfaction	**		**	**	**			**				
with life (GSWL)	0,170	0,041	0,176	0,383	0,307	-0,131	0,074	0,275				
Utilisation (UTIL)	**	**	**	**	**		**	**	**			
	0,530	0,453	0,372	0,432	0,501	0,106	0,349	0,213	0,161			
Hygiene (HYG)	**	**	**	**	**		**	**	**	**		
	0,562	0,206	0,315	0,586	0,516	-0,165	0,242	0,513	0,466	0,327		
Future Orientation (FO)	**	**	**	**	**		**	**	**	**	**	**
	0,796	0,456	0,453	0,576	0,657	-0,069	0,387	0,385	0,205	0,513	0,447	

** P < 0,01

The correlation between the quality of work life factors is indicated in Table 6.2. 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) The factor supervisory leadership correlated positively with organisational climate ($r = 0,506$) and work group processes ($r = 0,395$).
- (3) A positive correlation was found between task characteristics and organisational climate ($r = 0,679$), work group processes ($r = 0,496$) and supervisory leadership ($r = 0,395$).
- (4) A positive correlation existed between the factor general satisfaction output and organisational climate ($r = 0,650$), work group processes ($r = 0,490$), task characteristics ($r = 0,709$) and supervisory leadership ($r = 0,493$).
- (5) There was a positive correlation between role behaviour and organisational climate ($r = 0,422$), work group processes ($r = 0,417$), supervisory leadership ($r = 0,344$), task characteristics ($r = 0,356$), and general satisfaction output ($r = 0,395$).

- (6) The factor remuneration correlated positively with organisational climate ($r = 0,394$), supervisory leadership ($r = 0,249$), task characteristics ($r = 0,400$), general satisfaction output ($r = 0,390$) and role behaviour ($r = 0,155$). A negative correlation was found between remuneration and psychosomatic welfare ($r = 0,159$).
- (7) The factor general satisfaction with life correlated positively with organisational climate ($r = 0,170$), supervisory leadership ($r = 0,176$), task characteristics ($r = 0,383$), general satisfaction output ($r = 0,307$) and remuneration ($r = 0,275$). General satisfaction with life correlated negatively with psychosomatic welfare ($r = -0,131$).
- (8) A positive correlation was found between utilisation and organisational climate ($r = 0,530$), work group processes ($r = 0,453$), supervisory leadership ($r = 0,372$), task characteristics ($r = 0,432$), general satisfaction output ($r = 0,501$), role behaviour ($r = 0,349$), remuneration ($r = 0,213$) and general satisfaction with life ($r = 0,161$).
- (9) There was a positive correlation between hygiene and organisational climate ($r = 0,562$), work group processes ($r = 0,206$), supervisory leadership ($r = 0,315$) task characteristics ($r = 0,586$), general satisfaction output ($r = 0,516$), role behaviour

(r = 0,242), remuneration (r 0,513), general satisfaction with life (r = 0,466), utilisation (r = 0,327). There was a negative correlation between hygiene and psychosomatic welfare (r = -0,165).

- (10) Future orientation correlated positively with organisational climate (r = 0,796), work group processes (r = 0,456), supervisory leadership (r = 0,453), task characteristics (r = 0,576), general satisfaction output (r = 0,657), role behaviour (r = 0,387), remuneration (r = 0,385), general satisfaction with life (r = 0,205), utilisation (r = 0,513) and hygiene (r = 0,447).

6.3. Testing the goodness of data

6.3.1 Cronbach's coefficient alpha

TABLE 6.3

CRONBACH'S COEFFICIENT ALPHA OF THE QUALITY OF WORK LIFE
QUESTIONNAIRE

<u>FACTOR</u>	<u>NAME</u>	<u>CRONBACH'S ALPHA</u>
1	Race relations	0,862
2	Organisational climate	0,851
3	General satisfaction output	0,751
4	Supervisory leadership	0,730
5	Future orientation	0,720
6	Task characteristics	0,668
7	Remuneration	0,659
8	Hygiene	0,655
9	Psychosomatic welfare	0,625
10	General satisfaction with life	0,556
11	Work group processes	0,548
12	Utilisation	0,486
13	Role Behaviour	0,414
	OVERALL	<u>0,525</u>

When performing Cronbach's coefficient alpha on the 13 factors in the questionnaire the internal consistency came under consideration.

Nine factors namely, race relatins (0,862), organisational climate (0,851), general satisfaction output (0,751), supervisory leadership (0,730), future orientation (0,720), task characteristics (0,668), remuneration (0,659), hygiene (0,655), psychosomatic welfare (0,625) met the internal consistency guideline of 0,6 established by Sekaran (1992).

However, the other four factors general satisfaction with life (0,556), work group processes (0,548), utilisation (0,486) and role behaviour did not meet the standard.

Since the overall coefficient alpha of 0,525 approaches Sakaran's guideline of 0,6 this questionnaire can be considered to have a moderate reliability.

6.4 Hypothesis 1

"There is a positive relationship between quality of work life (QWL) factors and organisational commitment (OC)."

TABLE 6.4

PEARSON'S r BETWEEN QUALITY OF WORK LIFE FACTORS AND ORGANISATIONAL COMMITMENT

<u>Quality of work life factors</u>	<u>r</u>
Organisational climate	0,340 **
Work group processes	0,314 **
Supervisory leadership	0,174 **
Task characteristics	0,151 **
General satisfaction output	0,254 **
Role behaviour	0,274 **
Utilisation	0,263 **
Future orientation	0,378 **
Hygiene	0,097
Psychosomatic welfare	0,063
Remuneration	0,011
General satisfaction with life	-0,052

** P < 0,01

Table 6.4 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, utilisation 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.

6.5 Hypothesis 2

"The quality of work life factors will collectively explain the variance in organisational commitment."

TABLE 6.5

MULTIPLE REGRESSION ANALYSIS REGRESSING THE QUALITY OF WORK LIFE FACTORS AGAINST ORGANISATIONAL COMMITMENT

VARIABLE	SQUARED	F RATIO	P VALUE
	MULTIPLE R		
Quality of work life factors	0,218	6,772	0,000*

* p < 0,05

Table 6.5 indicates that the quality of work life factors significantly explain the variance in organisational commitment.

6.6 Hypothesis 3

There is a significant difference in organisational commitment across different age groups.

TABLE 6.6

ANOVA OF ORGANISATIONAL COMMITMENT BY AGE

VARIABLE	F VALUE	P VALUE
Age	1,490	0,205

Table 6.6 indicates that there is no significant difference in organisational commitment across different age groups.

6.7 Hypothesis 4

There is a significant difference in organisational commitment across different marital status groups.

TABLE 6.7

ANOVA OF ORGANISATIONAL COMMITMENT BY MARITAL STATUS

VARIABLE	F VALUE	P VALUE
Marital status	1,027	0,393

The results shown in Table 6.7 indicate that there is no significant difference in organisational commitment across different marital status groups.

6.8 Hypothesis 5

There is a significant difference in organisational commitment across length of service.

TABLE 6.8

ANOVA OF ORGANISATIONAL COMMITMENT BY LENGTH OF SERVICE

VARIABLE	F VALUE	P VALUE
Length of service	1,297	0,265

Table 6.8 indicates there is no significant difference in organisational commitment across length of service.

6.9 Hypothesis 6

There is a significant difference in organisational commitment across supervisory span of control.

TABLE 6.9

ANOVA OF ORGANISATIONAL COMMITMENT BY SPAN OF CONTROL

VARIABLE	F VALUE	P VALUE
Span of control	0,961	0,442

On examining the scores in Table 6.9 it was found that there is no significant difference in organisational commitment across supervisory span of control.

6.10 Hypothesis 7

There is a significant difference in organisational commitment across different levels of education.

TABLE 6.10

ANOVA OF ORGANISATIONAL COMMITMENT BY EDUCATION

VARIABLE	F VALUE	P VALUE
Education	6,772	0,000*

*P < 0,05

The results in Table 6.10 indicate that there is a significant difference in organisational commitment across different levels of education.

6.11 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 6.11. Only items with loadings greater than 0,3 were regarded as being significant (Boeyens and De Jager 1982:105). Furthermore, when items were significantly

Eleven 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 race relations.

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 guidance provided by and the characteristics of the supervisor and could be labelled as supervisory leadership.

Factor 3 loaded highest on factors related to work group processes.

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) have high loadings on Factor 4 and accounts for 5,18% of the total variance. This factor has high loadings on working conditions prevailing in the organisation and can be described as hygiene factors.

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) have high loadings on Factor 6, which reflect 5,08% of the total variance. Items on this factor related to general satisfaction with life.

Factor 7 which accounts for 4,15% of the total variance, was made up of items (99,104,105,106,107,108,111,113, and 115). This factor is concerned with psychosomatic welfare (the effect of the job on the person's health).

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.

Factor 9 which accounts for 2,74% of the total variance consists of items 89, 90 and 97. Factor 9 is concerned with the ability of the organisation to utilise employees' potential.

Items 22, 25, 27, 45, 50, 69 and 84 have high loadings on factor 10 which makes up 2,73% of the total variance. This factor concerns itself with an employee's satisfaction with the immediate work environment and can be labelled as general satisfaction output.

The extraction of the ten factors together reflect 46,46% of the total variance.

6.12 Summary

The results of the present study have provided the background against which the effects of the variables on one another can be appreciated.

Statistical differences were calculated to determine the relation between organisational commitment and quality of work life.

In the next chapter each of the hypotheses will be discussed in relation to the present study of past research.

CHAPTER 7

DISCUSSION OF RESULTS

7.1 Introduction

The principal objective of the investigation is to establish whether a positive relationship exists between quality of work life and organisational commitment. This objective necessitated supplementary investigations which generated additional hypotheses. The results presented in Chapter 6 will be discussed fully and placed in context in relation to the objectives and the hypotheses which stimulated the conceptualisation of this study.

7.2 Hypothesis 1

"There is a significant positive relationship between quality of work life factors (organisational climate, work group processes, supervisory leadership, task characteristics, general satisfaction output, psychosomatic welfare, role behaviour, remuneration, general satisfaction with life, utilisation, hygiene and future orientation) and organisational commitment."

The results indicate a positive relationship between the majority of quality of work life factors and organisational commitment.

The quality of work life factors which showed no significant positive relationship with organisational commitment were hygiene, psychosomatic welfare, remuneration and general satisfaction with life. Accordingly, the result delineates the important quality of work life factors which correlate with organisational commitment.

7.2.1 Organisational climate and organisational commitment

A significant positive relationship was found between organisational climate and organisational commitment ($r = 0,340$).

Organisational climate refers to the conditions under which an individual operates. It is the individual's positive or negative experiences in the organisation.

This study shows that the supervisors view the climate in the organisation as positive ($\bar{X} = 36,461$; $SD = 8,843$; Maximum score = 50) (maximum score equals the number of items in the factor multiplied by the highest weighting per item in the questionnaire).

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 experiences of individuals also lead to an increase in commitment. Buchanan (1974) and Steers (1977a) found that commitment is related to the extent that companies are viewed as looking after the well-being of employees.

According to Jenks (1990), 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 different climates. 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.

7.2.2 Work group processes and organisational commitment

Work group processes correlated positively with organisational commitment ($r = 0,314$). Work group processes relate to the individual's interaction with the work group members in social interaction. The results reflect that there is meaningful interaction between members of the group ($\bar{X} = 34,076$; $SD = 5,758$; Maximum score = 50). The results of the present study are in agreement with those of Mowday et al (1982) who found that organisational commitment is positively related to favourable groups attitudes towards the organisation and group norms related to hard work. They found commitment to be strong in groups that are cohesive and have positive attitudes.

Furthermore, Jenks (1990) supports the theory that factors within groups like task effectiveness and group processes influence organisational commitment.

Task effectiveness deals with how effectively the group accomplishes its objectives or tasks. Group process involves the relationships between members and how well the group satisfies the social needs of members. The effectiveness of a group will depend on how well these two dimensions are handled. In any group there is a pull between these two dimensions. Jenks (1990) maintains that if the group concentrates on the task, communication will not be open, misunderstanding and suspicion between members may occur and the decisions made may not be the best ones possible. On the one hand, if members spend time getting to know each other to build up personal relationships, and to gain a feeling of rapport, there could be high morale but the lack of focus on the task can lead to low productivity. This could lead to a conflict between management and supervisors ultimately resulting in a decrease in commitment. Therefore, in the best interest of the company and its employees, a balance has to be found.

7.2.3 Supervisory leadership and organisational commitment

Supervisory leadership was found to correlate positively with organisational commitment ($r = 0,174$).

This factor concerns itself with the supervisor's ability to direct and motivate subordinates. Supervisors in the sample maintain that their superiors provided the necessary leadership as the following data clearly illustrates (\bar{X} = 34,655; SD = 7,736 and Maximum score = 50).

The results of the present study support the findings of Morris and Sherman (1981). Employee's commitment is increased when supervisors allow their subordinates greater freedom over how their work is performing.

Furthermore, studies have found that supervisor's commitment is increased when the immediate superior is understanding and friendly (Robbins : 1986). Commitment is also enhanced when managers display a "firm but fair" attitude and are able to direct the behaviour of individuals in an unambiguous manner.

7.2.4 Task characteristics and organisational commitment

Task characteristics correlated positively with organisational commitment ($r = 0,151$). It refers to work that is well planned, clearly defined, meaningful and significant. The positive correlation signifies that the supervisors found their jobs to be pleasant,

well planned, interdependent and meaningful (\bar{X} = 37,714; SD = 6,528; Maximum score = 50). This finding is supported by Rhodes and Steers (1978) who found that commitment would increase when employees are 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 : 1988). Another aspect of task characteristic that has been found to positively relate to organisational commitment is job scope. Steven, Beyer and Trice (1978) 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 interdependence. Salancik (1977) maintains 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.

7.2.5 General satisfaction output and organisational commitment

The present study found that there is a positive relationship between general satisfaction output and organisational commitment ($r = 0,254$). General satisfaction output refers to an individual's satisfaction with work as a whole. The results indicate that the sample found that there was positive interaction between the individual and the organisation, work groups and formal leadership. Out of a total score of 50, the mean response of the sample was 38,750 and had a SD of 6,588. This result is consistent with other studies. According to Robbins (1986) 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. Gibson et al (1991) 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 affect 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 would inevitably lead to the employee seeking alternate jobs with a subsequent decrease in organisational commitment.

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

7.2.6 Role behaviour and organisational commitment

A positive relationship between organisational commitment and role behaviour ($r = 0,274$). 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 supervisors find their work as reasonably demanding, having little or no conflict and ambiguity and clear lines of communication ($\bar{X} = 35,566$; $SD = 4,572$; Maximum score = 50). This result is in agreement with research conducted by Netemeyer, Johnston and Burton (1990:156) 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). Jackson and Schuler (1985) maintain that the existence of role tension and uncertainty means increased attractiveness to extra organisational alternatives and this leads to decreased commitment. These findings are corroborated by Bedeian and Armenakis (1981), Kemery, Bedeian, Mossholder and Touliatos (1985) and Wunder, Dougherty and Welsh (1982). However, mixed results emerged from a study carried out by Sherman (1981).

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.

7.2.7 Utilisation and organisational commitment

The results indicate that there is a positive relationship between utilisation and organisational commitment ($r = 0,263$). Utilisation refers to the ability of the organisation to use an individual's potential to the fullest. Supervisors in the sample believe that the organisations are utilising their (supervisors') potential as the result indicates ($\bar{X} = 32,444$; $SD = 5,814$; Maximum score = 50). The results are consistent with previous research. Stevens (1978) found that commitment would be increased as long as the workers have challenging job assignments. According to Gibson et al (1988), the employees' level of commitment are related to perceptions of congruence between the organisation's goals and the extent to which their (employees') personal goals will be attained. Robbins (1986) also believes that employees prefer jobs that are challenging and where they could use their skills.

Furthermore, Mowday et al (1982) 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 perceive 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 their (employees') expectations (challenging jobs, continuous training) are not met.

7.2.8 Future orientation and organisational commitment

Organisational commitment correlated positively with future orientation ($r = 0,378$). Future orientation is concerned with the ability of the company to provide career and advancement opportunities. The positive correlation signifies that the organisations provide the ideal climate and training opportunities for the supervisors to be promoted. This is evident from the responses of the sample ($\bar{X} = 32,924$; $SD = 7,388$; Maximum score = 50).

Research evidence suggests that the availability of alternative 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 : 1982).

Commitment levels can also be influenced by characteristics of other companies in which supervisors may be engaged, since satisfaction with a group is dependent on the individual's evaluations of that group and their evaluation of alternative 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 & Farrell : 1983).

According to Cascio (1989) 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 company's 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 Horwitz (1991:150) 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.

7.2.9 Hygiene and organisational commitment

There was no relationship between hygiene and organisational commitment ($r = 0,097$). Hygiene relates to safe and healthy working conditions. It is therefore apparent that the working conditions are acceptable and the supervisors do not place emphasis on them. The means in respect of the sample was 32,878 and the standard deviation was 7,718.

This finding in respect of hygiene is in agreement with Miner (1992) who states that motivators are more important means of achieving satisfaction and commitment than hygiene factors. At present organisations are bound by the Machinery Occupational Safety Act (Act 6 of 1983) in respect of safe and

healthy working conditions, with regular checks by inspectors of the Department of Manpower. Therefore with ideal working conditions employees place little emphasis on the provisions of the Act and are mainly concerned with other aspects of their work (skill variety, meaningfulness, autonomy).

7.2.10 General satisfaction with life and organisational climate

There was a negative correlation between general satisfaction with life and organisational commitment ($r = 0,052$). This factor concerns itself with the influence of work on the individual's life in general.

With respect to general satisfaction with life Lounsbury and Hoopes (1986) believe that personal and non work variables affect organisational commitment with vacations being a clear example of this group of variables. However, Lounsbury and Hoopes (1986) concede that their study was limited to investigating the effects of a vacation on work variables measured within the first week after returning to the job.

7.2.11 Remuneration and organisational commitment

Remuneration was found to be unrelated to commitment ($r = 0,01$). The results are in line with other studies. According to Mowday et.al (1982) remuneration per se will have little effect on the level of commitment. This is further explained by Rhodes and Steers (1981) 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. Martin (1981:94) goes on to explain, "the basic proposition of equity theory is that people decide if they are being rewarded equitably by comparing their inputs and outcomes to the inputs and outcomes of another person. If the ratios are equal the rewards should be considered equal."

Organ and Bateman (1986) support the views of Rhodes and Steers (1981). They believe that someone with chronic feelings of 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 result of such a disposition on the part of a large number of workers is a loss of cohesion and a reduction in commitment.

7.2.12 Psychosomatic welfare and organisational commitment

Psychosomatic welfare refers to the effect of the job on a person's health. In this study the supervisors indicated that the job did not effect their health as the following data illustrates (\bar{X} = 22,069; SD = 5,874; Maximum score = 50). No relationship was found between psychosomatic welfare and organisational commitment ($r = 0,063$). This finding is congruent with those of Ivancevich and Donnelly (1974) who found no difference with regard to physical stress among supervisors.

The outcomes of both psychosomatic welfare and general satisfaction with life prove that supervisors do not consider aspects external to the work environment (psychosomatic welfare and general satisfaction with life) to be important determinants of commitments.

7.3 Hypothesis 2

"The quality of work life factors will collectively explain the variance in organisational commitment."

The work life factors (organisational climate, work group processes, supervisory leadership, task characteristics, general satisfaction output, role

behaviour, utilisation, future orientation, hygiene, psychosomatic welfare, remuneration and general satisfaction with life) was found to collectively explain the variance in organisational commitment.

The factors with the significant correlation (organisational climate, work group processes, supervisory leadership, task characteristics, general satisfaction output, role behaviour, utilisation and future orientation) have a greater chance of predicting organisational commitment.

On the other hand, the influence of other factors (hygiene, psychosomatic welfare, remuneration and general satisfaction with life) in predicting organisational commitment appears to be minimal due to the low correlation.

7.4 Hypothesis 3

"There is a significant difference in organisational commitment across different age groups."

The present study showed no significant difference in organisational commitment across different age groups. Studies conducted by Angle and Perry (1981) and Morris and Sherman (1981) found that commitment and age are

positively related. Conflicting findings emerged from studies by Hall and Schneider (1972) and Steers (1977a).

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'.

7.5 Hypothesis 4

"There is a significant difference in organisational commitment across different marital status groups."

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 (1972), the results of which were not strong enough to be conclusive, they found that marital status could have an effect on

organisational commitment. Due to the costs involved in leaving an organisation, married employees 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.

7.6 Hypothesis 5

"There is a significant difference in organisational commitment across length of service."

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

Hall and Schneider (1972) and Steers (1977) have found that length of service was not a direct correlate of commitment, whereas Angle and Perry (1981) and Morris and Sherman (1981) concluded that length of service was positively related to commitment. The reason for this conflicting findings was explained by Salancik (1977). He has suggested that interpreting relationships

between organisational commitment and length of service is difficult because many factors (age) may covary with the latter.

The findings of the present study support those of Hall and Schneider (1972) and Steers (1977) for the following reasons:

Firstly, if individuals did not hold challenging jobs or were 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 (1984) found that with increasing length of service employees accumulate organisational resources (pension, or profit sharing schemes) and this binds them to the company.

7.7 Hypothesis 6

"There is a significant difference in organisational commitment across supervisory 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 (1980) and Stevens et al (1978) 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 a supervisor 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.

7.8 Hypothesis 7

"There is a significant difference in organisational commitment across different levels of education."

The present study showed that there was a significant difference in organisational commitment across different levels of education.

Brief and Aldag (1975), Stevens, Beyer and Trice (1978) and Steers (1977a) found that education was linked to organisational commitment. These findings have been

supported by Angle and Perry (1983) 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 higher the education, the greater is the expectation of the individual. Individuals expect to be rewarded for their higher education. Furthermore, Angle and Perry (1983) 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 would depend on the ability of the organisation to meet the career aspirations of the employees.

7.5 Summary

The present study shows that there is a significant relationship between some quality of work factors (organisational climate, work group processes, supervisory leadership, task characteristics, general satisfaction output, role behaviour, utilisation and future orientation) and organisational commitment.

No relationship was found between hygiene, psychosomatic welfare, general satisfaction with life and 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.

The reasons for these differences and recommendations for possible applications of these findings could provide cues for future research.

CHAPTER 8

RECOMMENDATIONS AND CONCLUSIONS

This study investigated the effects of quality of work life on organisational commitment among supervisors. The literature reviewed Herzberg's Hygiene and Motivator Factors as basis of quality of work life, antecedents of attitudinal commitment and the conflicting roles of the supervisors.

The organisational and personal goals were reviewed as they were pertinent to this study. An important theoretical implication of the study was the development of the psychological contract which takes place when there is a congruency between the organisational goals and the individual goals. It was hypothesised that companies that provide adequate quality of work life would have committed employees.

The conclusions drawn from the results of this study are summarily listed:

- (1) There is a positive relationship between quality of work life factors (organisational climate, work group processes, supervisory leadership, task

characteristics, general satisfaction output, role behaviour, utilisation and future orientation) and organisational commitment.

- (2) Quality of work life factors can collectively predict organisational commitment.
- (3) There is no significant difference in organisational commitment across different age groups.
- (4) No significant difference was found in organisational commitment across the different marital status groups.
- (5) The results showed that there is no significant difference in organisational commitment due to the length of service.
- (6) There is no significant difference in organisational commitment across supervisory span of control.
- (7) The study showed that there is a significant difference in organisational commitment across different levels of education.

These findings show that the conditions prevailing in an organisation influence the organisational commitment of the supervisor.

While these are tentative results, it can be generally assumed that there is a relationship between organisational commitment and quality of work life.

8.1 Recommendations

From the review of literature and experiences in carrying out the present research and resultant findings, the following recommendations can be made:

- (1) 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 about the organisation and also stressed the importance of organisational loyalty. Although this may have its disadvantages (kind of organisational inbreeding), the advantages outweigh them. That is, the period of socialisation for a person who is familiar with the function and culture of an organisation would be much shorter.

- (2) 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. Therefore it is imperative that human resource 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.
- (3) As the supervisors are in the most vulnerable position, it is important that they receive support from management. In this way, the supervisors would be more dedicated and committed to their employers.
- (4) Since the position of the supervisor is in between middle-management and the shop-floor worker, it is imperative that their jobs be continually evaluated and redesigned with built in challenges to satisfy their needs. Therefore, jobs should be rotated on a regular basis, this has advantages both for the organisation and the individual. From the organisation's point of view, job rota-

tion helps to train individuals for various jobs. In turn employees acquire new skills and they are more versatile and may become more marketable.

- (5) In order to increase the intrinsic motivation of supervisors and thereby their commitment, it is important that they be involved in some form of co-determination (that is, all form of power sharing whether they involve shop floor, the plant or the boardroom). This 'new' form of motivation would be particularly pertinent in South African where the lower level employees (supervisors included) were considered mere factors of production. All decisions, that affected the workers were made unilaterally by the White bosses. Therefore for the situation to change in the new South Africa and in order to create a band of committed employees, co-determination seems the only alternative. Although co-determination does take place to some extent at the plant level, there is little evidence of it at board level.
- (6) The degree to which people are committed will depend on their perception of the likelihood of obtaining the reward, that is, their expectancy.

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.

- (7) The results of this study show that there is a positive relationship between some quality of work life factors (organisational climate, work group processes, supervisory leadership, task characteristics, general satisfaction output, role behaviour, utilisation and future orientation) and organisational commitment. It also showed that there was no relationship between the other factors (hygiene, psychosomatic welfare, remuneration and general satisfaction with life) and organisational commitment.

These results indicate that those factors related to organisational commitment could be labelled motivators while those not related hygiene factors. The implication of this is that organisations that provide motivators could expect committed employees who would display a sense of

loyalty and belongingness, responsibility and willingness to exert extra effort on behalf of the company.

Therefore it is imperative that management continually assess their employees' needs in so far as the motivators are concerned so as to develop and enhance their (employee's) commitment.

- (8) It has to be borne in mind that for research to be truly meaningful in South Africa, racial differences have to be considered. American psychologists still study the influence of various factors on race (organisational commitment, work group processes), 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. Therefore it is imperative that employers permit researchers to study the influence of any factor (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 (influence of race on organisational commitment).

(9) Future research should be conducted in the following areas:

- (a) The number of respondents within each company was small and this made inter-company comparison very difficult. Therefore it is important that research on organisational commitment be conducted in large organisations with many employees.
- (b) In order to obtain the true effects from 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.
- (c) Further investigation is necessary, to test the hypotheses where inconsistent findings are found (age, length of service, supervisory leadership and hygiene).

8.2 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 faces the manager in the next decade is to be able to effectively intergrate the needs of the organisation with those of the employees. This has the advantage 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. Much of the reasons for the Japanese success can be attributed to the development of organisational culture. From this culture is derived shared values between management and workers which emphasise mutuality. 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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