AN ASSESSMENT OF THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN ORGANISATIONAL CLIMATE AND ORGANISATIONAL COMMITMENT WITHIN THE IT DEPARTMENT OF A TELECOMMUNICATIONS COMPANY

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by

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DECLARATION

I, John Saunders, hereby declare that this research thesis is my own original work and that all the sources have been accurately reported and acknowledged, and that this document has not previously in its entirety or in part been submitted at any university in order to obtain an academic qualification.

J. Saunders 31 October 2008

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Thank you Lord for YOU have given me the strength and insight, without which nothing is possible.

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ABSTRACT

The main objective of this study was to assess the relationship between organisational climate and organisational commitment within the Information Technology department of a South African Telecommunications company. Firstly, the research considered the organisational climate from a qualitative perspective. Research interviews that were based on organisational climate literature were performed with 4 members of the relevant department. Qualitative data analysis revealed several themes. The themes highlighted include: perceived ineffective structure and decision-making; lack of mistake tolerance; risk aversion by employees; recognition and reward systems perceived to be inadequate; performance management is perceived to be ineffective and inadequate; Employee Share Options Program (ESOP) perceived to have a negative influence on employee behaviours; the nature of the social environment perceived to be unfriendly; low level of knowledge and skills sharing; inadequate human resource management practices; These findings highlight the importance of certain aspects within the environment that influence employee perceptions. Organisational climate literature suggests that organisational climate has various behavioral influences and its consideration is essential in the effective functioning of the organisation.

Secondly, the research considered the relationship between organisational climate and organisational commitment within the relevant department. The Patterson et al. (2005) Organisational Climate Measure (OCM®) and Meyer and Allen (1991) Organisational Commitment Questionnaire (OCQ) were used to assess the relationship between organisational climate and organisational commitment, respectively. Significant correlations were found between integration, pressure to produce, innovation, supervisory support, reflexivity, clarity, involvement, autonomy, welfare and tradition, and both affective and normative commitment, Training was only significantly correlated to affective commitment. No significant correlations were found with continuance commitment.

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CHAPTER 1: INTRODUCTION

1.1 Setting of the Study

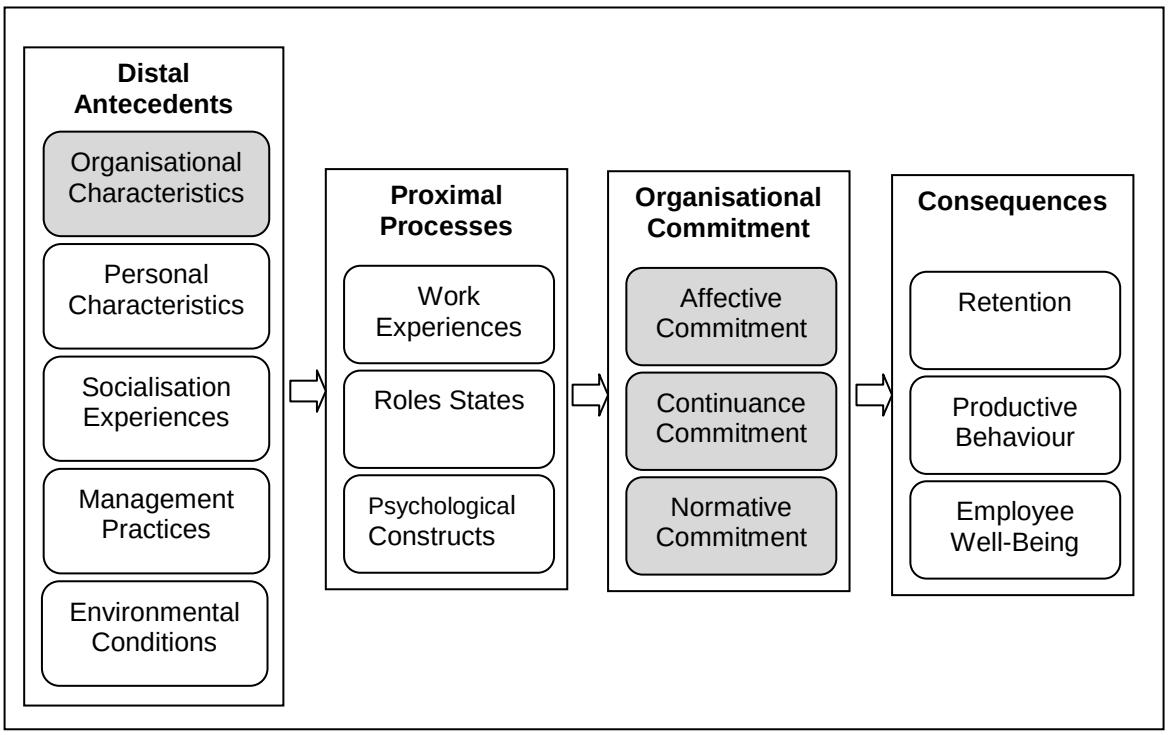
The South African Information, Communication and Technology (ICT) sector has been characterised by a shortage of skills. This has resulted in aggressive recruitment tactics by organisations in this sector (Horwitz, 2004). Many organisations operating in this sector are classified as Knowledge-Intensive-Firms. According to Starbuck (1992) the term “knowledge-intense” emanates from the economist’s view of firms as being capital intensive or labour intensive, referring to the use of capital or labour as production inputs. Labelling a firm as “knowledge-intensive” places a relatively high emphasis on knowledge as an input to the production process. Consequently, the sustainability of a competitive position of firms operating in this sector rests solely on its people.

These ICT sector skills shortages, together with other external pull factors, such as aggressive recruitment tactics by similar organisations makes it very attractive for employees in this sector to leave their current employ and seek employment elsewhere (Horwitz, 2004). Losing employees that hold a large portion of the organisation’s intellectual capital poses a serious threat to the sustainability of the organisation. Any progressive organisation operating in this sector should continuously devise strategies and create work environments that are favourable to achieving organisational goals, as well as foster organisational commitment. The way in which employees perceive their working environment relates to organisational climate, which has been linked to various organisational outcomes. These outcomes include company productivity, profitability, job satisfaction, organisational commitment (Lawler et al., 1974; Patterson et al. 2004), service quality (Davidson, 2003), quality management practices (Kuei et al., 1997), perceived support for innovation (Montes et al., 2004) and salutogenesis (Cilliers and Kossuth, 2002).

Meyer and Allen (1991) provide a multidimensional model of organisational commitment that links the antecedents and consequences of organisational commitment. According to this model, the antecedents of organisational

commitment include aspects such as organisational characteristics, personal characteristics, socialisation experiences, management practices and environment conditionals. Organisational commitment as an employee attitude is a reflection of an individual's cognitive assessment of the work environment (Gelade et al., 2006). On the other hand, aggregated individual perceptions of such a work environment lead to an organisational climate. Meyer and Allen's (1991) model, depicted in Figure 1.1, therefore indirectly suggests a relationship between the organisational climate and the organisational commitment. This model will be used as the theoretical foundation for this study. This relationship will be explored within the Information Technology (IT) department of a South African telecommunications company. The organisation employs approximately 3500 employees of which 180 employees work in the IT department.

Figure 1.1: Multidimensional Model of Organisational Commitment



(Adapted from: Meyer and Allen, p.63 (1997))

1.2 Purpose and Motivation for the Research

Peters and Waterman (1982) suggest that effective organisations place high emphasis on their people and consider people to be their most important asset in achieving their goals. Accepting this premise as true has many

consequences for an organisation and how it manages its human resources. Organisations should pay close attention to how employees perceive their work environment and how such a work environment elicits commitment to the organisation, given the fact that employees are the organisation's most important assets.

A survey conducted within the relevant organisation prior to the commencement of the research indicated that 46% of its employees are seriously considering leaving the organisation (Mopeli, 2005). Turnover could not only be disruptive to the normal course of operations but could also result in increased recruitment and placement costs, incomplete projects, and loss of knowledge to the organisation. The above finding presents the organisation with at least two areas of concern. Firstly, the high percentage of employees intending to leave, and secondly, employees do not leave but considered it seriously.

It needs to be established whether there are other aspects apart from what was assessed in the survey that results in employees wanting to leave the organisation but not doing so. The restrictive nature of quantitative surveys makes it difficult to pinpoint the specific reasons for these findings and may ignore aspects that may be of interest to the organisation. Qualitative research into this phenomenon may shed light on these areas of concern and may also highlight other aspects that need to be attended to by the organisation in an attempt to create a stimulating work environment.

Perceptions of the work environment have traditionally been considered from a post-positivist or quantitative perspective, using predefined instruments. As suggested above, this approach may not reveal the underlying reasons for certain problems within the organisation. Hellriegel et al. (cited in Mullins, 2002: 26) draw the analogy between an organisation and an iceberg:

> "…one way to recognise why people behave as they do at work is to view an organisation as an iceberg. What sinks the ship isn't always what sailors can see, but what they can't see".

This implies that the issues that hinder an organisation from being effective are not always the obvious and quantifiable ones. Qualitative research may reveal the underlying issues.

In addition to considering the qualitative aspects of the organisational environment, this research will also attempt to identify the aspects of the organisational climate that influence the organisational commitment. This research will therefore be conducted in two stages. Stage one will be a qualitative enquiry into how employees perceive their work environment with the aim of gaining insight into the organisational climate of the IT department. Stage two will be a quantitative enquiry with the aim of establishing the nature of the relationship between organisational climate and organisational commitment within the IT department. The quantitative research will form the core of this study and will be guided by Meyer and Allen's (1997) proposed multidimensional model of organisational commitment.

1.3 Research Aim

Given the context and the motivation for the research, the research aims for stage one and two of the study are different.

1.3.1 Stage 1

Stage one aims to explore the organisational climate of the IT department with a view of describing the nature of the environment and to highlight areas of concern. The results could enable the organisation to take appropriate action to improve or maintain the organisational climate.

1.3.2 Stage 2

Stage two aims to explore the relationship between the organisational climate and the organisational commitment by attempting to answer the research questions:

- **Research Question 1:** What is the relationship between the demographic variables and the organisational commitment variables?

- **Research Question 2:** What is the relationship between the organisational climate facets and the organisational commitment facets?
- **Research Question 3:** To what extent do the different organisational climate facets predict the different organisational commitment facets?

1.4 The Research Approach

Stage one will use a qualitative paradigm. This allows the researcher, who has been exposed to this environment, to develop insight as to how the participants perceived their work environment. This phenomenological approach to research begins with first principles derived from primary sources of intuition and insight, and does not seek to generalise (Sanders, 1982). Stage 2 will use a quantitative or post-positivist paradigm to explore the relationship between organisational climate and organisational commitment. The research goals and research approaches are discussed in further detail in Chapter 4.

1.5 Outline of the Research

Chapters 2 and 3 will form the literature review of the study and will consider the theoretical development of organisational climate and organisational commitment concepts, respectively. These chapters primarily deal with the conceptualisation and definitions, antecedents, and consequences of each concept as well as the models used in this research. Chapter 4 centres on the research methodology. It focuses on how the research was designed and conducted, the research paradigms, the sampling and methods of analysing the observations. Chapter 5 presents the research findings as produced by both the qualitative and quantitative data analysis and interpretation. Chapter 6 will take the form of a discussion of the key findings of the research and attempt to integrate these findings with the literature. Chapter 6 also presents the limitations of the study.

CHAPTER 2: ORGANISATIONAL CLIMATE

2.1 Introduction

The purpose of this chapter is to review selected literature on the concept of organisational climate. Meyer and Allen (1997) proposed a model that presents various antecedents of organisational commitment as presented in Figure 1.1. This model indirectly infers a relationship between organisational climate and organisational commitment. This chapter will consider the various conceptualisations and definitions of organisational climate, its antecedents and consequences as well as provide an overview of how organisational climate has a significant impact on other areas within an organisation. These areas include organisational commitment, job satisfaction, productivity, corporate performance, psychological functioning and the psychological contract.

2.2 Conceptualisation and Definitions

Organisational climate forms part of the broader climate concept, which includes aspects of the social environment that are consciously perceived by the organisational members (Patterson et al., 2004). The concept dates back to the early 1900s, with the work of Lewin et al. (1939) and Lewin (1951), who suggested that climate is a characterisation of the salient environmental stimuli and is an important determinant of motivation and behaviour. This has resulted in organisational climate being the direct or indirect subject of many organisational behaviour research projects and emerging as a construct with many behavioural consequences. The subject gained momentum with the work of Litwin and Stringer (1968), who conceptualised climate in relation to its influence on motivation and behaviour. They stated that organisational climate is:

> "a set of measurable properties of the work environment, perceived directly or indirectly by people who live and work in this environment and assumed to influence their motivation and behaviour" (Litwin and Stringer, 1968: 1).

Litwin and Stringer (1968) conducted the first comprehensive study on organisation climate that was based on theory developed by McClelland et al. (1953) and focused on how climate affects human motives for achievement, power and affiliation. They developed the Litwin and Stringer Organisational Climate Questionnaire (LSOCQ), a theoretically based scale for measuring climate with the dimensions aimed at satisfying three management needs, namely accurately describe the situation, relating the dimensions to specific motivations and motivated behavior, and enable management to measure changes in the situation. The dimensions and descriptions of this scale are listed in Table 2.1.

Table 2.1 Dimensions of the Litwin and Stringer Organisational Climate Questionnaire

Structure	The feeling that employees have about the constraints in the group and how many rules, regulations, procedures there are; the feeling that there is an emphasis on ”red tape'' and going through channels, or that there is a loose and informal atmosphere.
Responsibility	The feeling of being your own boss; not having to double-check all your decisions; when you have a job to do, knowing that it is your job.
Reward	The feeling of being rewarded for a job well done, emphasizing positive rewards rather than punishments; the perceived fairness of the pay and promotion policies.
Risk	The sense of riskiness and challenge in the job and in the organisation; whether there is an emphasis on taking calculated risks, or that playing it safe is the best way to operate .
Warmth	The feeling of good general fellowship that prevails in the work group atmosphere; the emphasis on being well-liked; the prevalence of friendly and informal social groups.
Support	The perceived helpfulness of the managers and other employees in the group; emphasis on mutual support from above and below.
Standards	The perceived importance of implicit and explicit goals and performance standards; the emphasis on doing a good job; the challenge represented in personal and group goals.
Conflict	The feeling that managers and other workers want to hear different opinions; the emphasis placed on getting problems out in the open, rather than smoothing them over or ignoring them.
Identity	The feeling that managers and other workers want to hear different opinions; the emphasis placed on getting problems out in the open, rather than smoothing them over or ignoring them.

(Litwin and Stringer, 1968: 81-82)

Numerous studies cited in Patterson et al. (2005), however suggested that a six-factor structure is more appropriate and pointed out that Litwin and

Stringer's (1968) scales showed poor split-half reliabilities. Rogers et al. (cited in Patterson et al., 2005: 383), concluded that the Litwin and Stringer organisational climate questionnaire lacked validity and was not a consistent measurement device. However, Brown and Brook (2002) argue that despite the problems associated with LSOCQ, research evidence exists that render the LSOCQ a useful indicator of perception about feelings of the work environment. Brown and Brooks (2002) conducted a qualitative study with the aim of identifying emotional climate dimensions. They used the LSOCQ dimensions as an initial framework to aid with data coding.

Various definitions and measures of organisational climate have been offered and various reviews of research on organisational climate have appeared. However, these definitions are fraught with a lack of consensus mainly due to its association with the organisational culture concept. Patterson et al. (2005) point out that organisational culture and climate can be seen as different sides of the same coin. They draw on the work of Litwin and Stringer (1968) who described the variables of their organisational climate questionnaire as measuring shared beliefs and values of organisational members. These shared beliefs and values are aspects that are often associated with organisational culture. According to Schneider (2000), climate describes what happens to an employee in an organisational setting and is behaviourally oriented, while organisational culture explains why patterns of behaviour exist. Exploring an organisation's culture can explain why certain perceptions of the work environment exist.

In addition to the lack of consensus stemming from the overlap between the organisational culture and climate, early theorists found it difficult to agree on what the unit of theory and unit of analysis of organisational climate should be. At an individual level of analysis the concept is referred to as psychological climate. Individual perceptions are often aggregated at the work group, department, divisional, or organisational level and referred to as the organisational climate. Schneider (1975) attributed the lack of agreement to the fact that organisational climate was not specific and the term was being used too loosely. He proposed that organisational climate should be used as

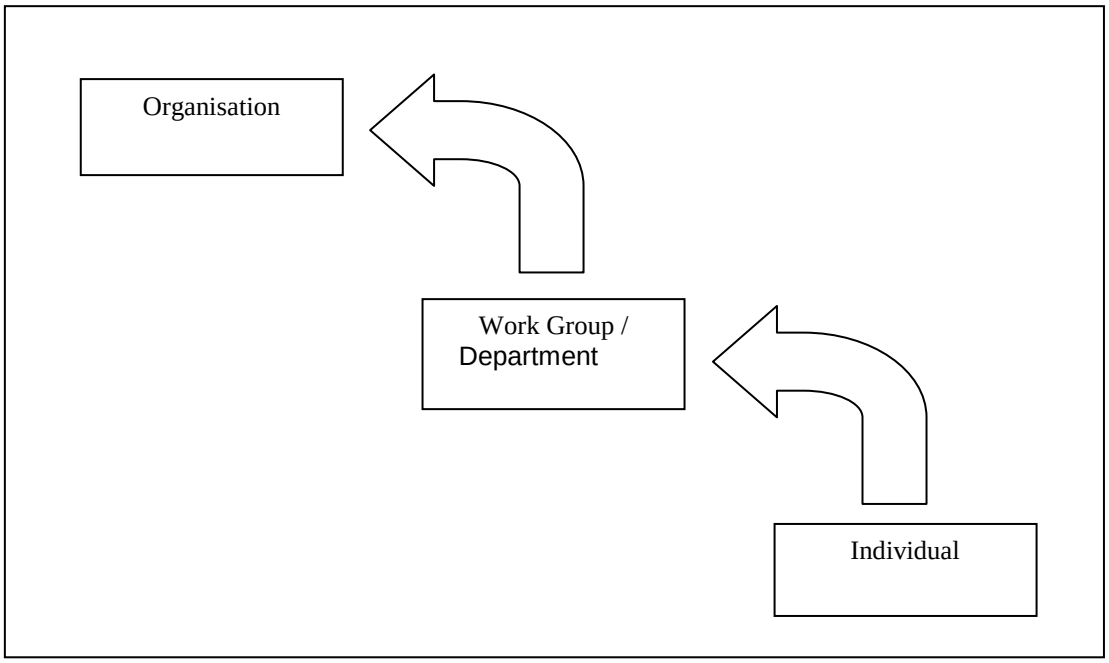
an area of research rather than a construct with a limited number of dimensions. He further cited many studies, which used organisational climate as a dependent variable that furthered climate research, arguing that researchers could have studied the same set of organisations due to the fact that each of the climates could have existed concurrently within the same organisation. This suggests that researchers should limit their studies and focus on a particular dimension of interest to their study. Jones and James (1979) responded to Schneider's (1975) critique, by highlighting the fact that many of the climate dimensions may exist co-exist, but their relation to each other may vary.

Johannesson (cited in Hellriegel and Slocum, 1974: 256) contended that the perceptual nature of organisational climate was reason for concern, and stated that "there are potentially as many climates as there are people in the organisation". Hellriegel and Slocum (1974) clarified this view by contending that organisational climate differs from job satisfaction in that it is perceptual rather than attitudinal, which is the case for job satisfaction. Glick (1988) reinforced Johannesson's (cited in Hellriegel and Slocum, 1974: 256) concern and argued that there are two conflicting definitions of organisational climate. He cites his earlier work in Glick (1985: 601) that defined organisational climate as "a broad class of organisational, rather than psychological variables, which describe the organisational context for individuals' actions" opposing the view of James (1982) and James, Joyce and Slocum (1988). They define organisational climate as aggregated psychological climate whenever perceptual agreement has been demonstrated.

According to Patterson et al. (2005) most empirical studies referred to organisational climate at the aggregate unit of analysis, which is operationally constructed by aggregating individual scores to the appropriate level by using the mean to represent climate at that level. In Figure 2.1 each block represents a different unit of analysis and the arrows represent perceptual agreement at the level below. Perceptual agreement at a specific level implies shared assignment of psychological meaning which allows for the construct to

be considered at a higher level. This current study examines the organisational climate at the work group or department unit of analysis.

Figure 2.1 – Perceptual agreement aggregated to different levels



Hellriegel and Slocum (1974) concluded that several themes were implicit in the definitions and conceptualisations of organisational climate. These themes are:

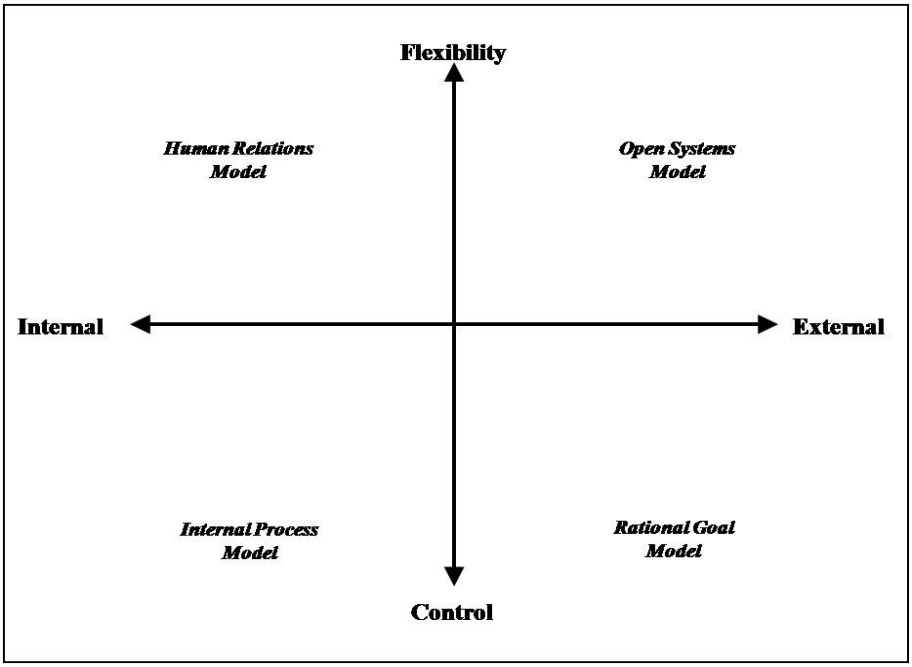
- Perceptual responses sought are primarily descriptive rather than evaluative;
- Levels of items of scales and constructs are macro rather than micro;
- The units of analysis tend to be attributes of the organisation or subsystem rather than the individual;
- The perceptions have potential behavioural consequences.

2.3 Patterson et al. (2005) Model of Organisational Climate

Patterson et al. (2005) recently proposed a proprietary Organisational Climate Measure (OCM®) that utilises Quinn and Rohrbaugh's (1983) Competing Values Framework (CVF). The aim of the OCM® was to access a broad range of organisational attributes that make up the organisational context for the individual. According to Patterson et al. (2005) the CVF offers a framework of

values that underlie the concept of organisational climate. The CVF is based on the concept of organisational effectiveness and has two underlying dimensions namely organisational focus and organisational preference. Each one of these dimensions is represented on a continuum ranging from one extreme to the other. The organisational focus dimension ranges from an internal emphasis on the well-being and development of employees to an external emphasis focusing on the well-being of the organisation itself. The organisational preference for the structure dimension differentiates between a preference for stability and control, and flexibility and change. Figure 2.2 represents the two dimensions on two axes forming four quadrants as defined by Quinn (1988).

Figure 2.2: Competing Values Framework Quadrants



(Adapted from: Quinn and Rohrbaugh (1983) and Quinn,1988).

According to Patterson et al. (2005: 384), each quadrant in Figure 2.2 describes a broad domain of "valued outcomes and associated managerial ideologies about the means through which these outcomes may be achieved". Patterson et al. (2005: 385-386) define each quadrant as follows:

The Human Relations Model has norms and values associated with belonging, trust, and cohesion, achieved through means such as training and human resource development. Coordination and control are accomplished through empowerment and participation, and interpersonal relations are supportive, cooperative, and trusting in nature.

The Internal Process Model emphasises stability, where the effects of environmental uncertainty are ignored or minimized. Coordination and control are achieved by adherence to formal rules and procedures.

The Open Systems Model emphasises readiness, change and innovation, where norms and values are associated with growth, resource acquisition, creativity and adaptation.

The Rational Goal Model primarily emphasises the pursuit and attainment of well-defined objectives, where norms and values are associated with productivity, efficiency, goal fulfilment, and performance feedback.

Table 2.2 summarises the focus of each of the four quadrants and its corresponding climate dimensions as proposed by Patterson et al. (2005).
The organisational climate dimensions that make up the quadrants are defined in Tables 2.3.

For the purpose of this study, the Patterson et al.'s (2005) model will be used for assessing the organisational climate, as it assesses a broad range of organisational characteristics. The OCM® and the qualitative interviews are intended to provide an all-encompassing view of the organisational climate.

Table 2.2: CVF Quadrants mapped to OCM® Dimensions

CVF Dimension	Focus	Dimensions
Human Relations Model	Flexibility and internal focus Cohesion, morale Human Resources Development	Involvement Autonomy Supervisory Support Integration Welfare Training Effort
Open Systems Model	Flexibility and external focus Readiness, growth, resource acquisition External support	Reflexivity Innovation and Flexibility Outward Focus
Rational Goal Model	Control and an external focus Planning, goal setting Productivity Efficiency	Clarity of Organisational Goals Pressure to Produce Quality Performance Feedback Efficiency
Internal Process Model	Control and an internal focus Stresses the role of Information management, communication, stability and control	Formalization Tradition

Table 2.3: OCM® Dimension Definitions

Dimension	Definition	Source
Welfare	The extent to which the organisation values and cares for employees	(Robinson & Rousseau, 1994; Guest, 1998);
Autonomy	Designing jobs in ways which give employees wide scope to enact work	(Cherns,1976; Klein, 1991);
Participation	Employees have considerable influence over decision-making	(Miller & Monge, 1986; Hollander & Offerman, 1990; Heller, Pusi, Strauss, & Wilpert, 1998);
Communication	The free sharing of information throughout the organisation	(Callan, 1993; Hargie & Tourish, 2000);
Emphasis on Training	A concern with developing employee skills	(Gattiker, 1995; Morrow, Jarrett, & Rupinski, 1997);
Integration	The extent of interdepartmental trust and cooperation	(Lawrence & Lorsch, 1967; Nauta & Sanders, 2000);
Supervisory Support	The extent to which employees experience support and understanding from their immediate supervisor	(Cummins, 1990; Eisenberger et al., 2002).
Formalization	A concern with formal rules and procedures	(Pugh, Hickson, Hinings, &Turner, 1968; Hall, 1991);
Tradition	The extent to which established ways of doing things are valued	(Coch & French,1948);
Flexibility	An orientation toward change	(Garrahan & Stewart, 1992; King & Anderson,1995);
Innovation	The extent of encouragement and support for new ideas and innovative approaches	(West & Farr, 1990);
Outward Focus	The extent to which the organisation is responsive to the needs of the customer and the marketplace in general	(Kiesler & Sproull, 1982; West & Farr, 1990);
Reflexivity	A concern with reviewing and reflecting upon objectives, strategies, and work processes, in order to adapt to the wider environment	(West, 1996, 2000).
Clarity of Organisational Goals	A concern with clearly defining the goals of the organisation	(Locke, 1991);
Effort	How hard people in organisations work towards achieving goals	(McCaol, Hinsz, & McCaol, 1987);
Efficiency	The degree of importance placed on employee efficiency and productivity at work	(Ostroff & Schmitt, 1993);
Quality	The emphasis given to quality procedures	(Deming, 1986; Hackman &Wageman, 1995);
Pressure to Produce	The extent of pressure for employees to meet targets	(Taira, 1996);
Performance Feedback	The measurement and feedback of job performance	(Annett, 1969; Kopelmann, 1986).

2.4 Antecedents and Consequences of Organisational Climate

Organisational climate can be viewed as a transformation process. It has objective aspects such as structure, processes, leadership style, and reward systems as inputs. These inputs are transformed, producing organisationally relevant outcomes.

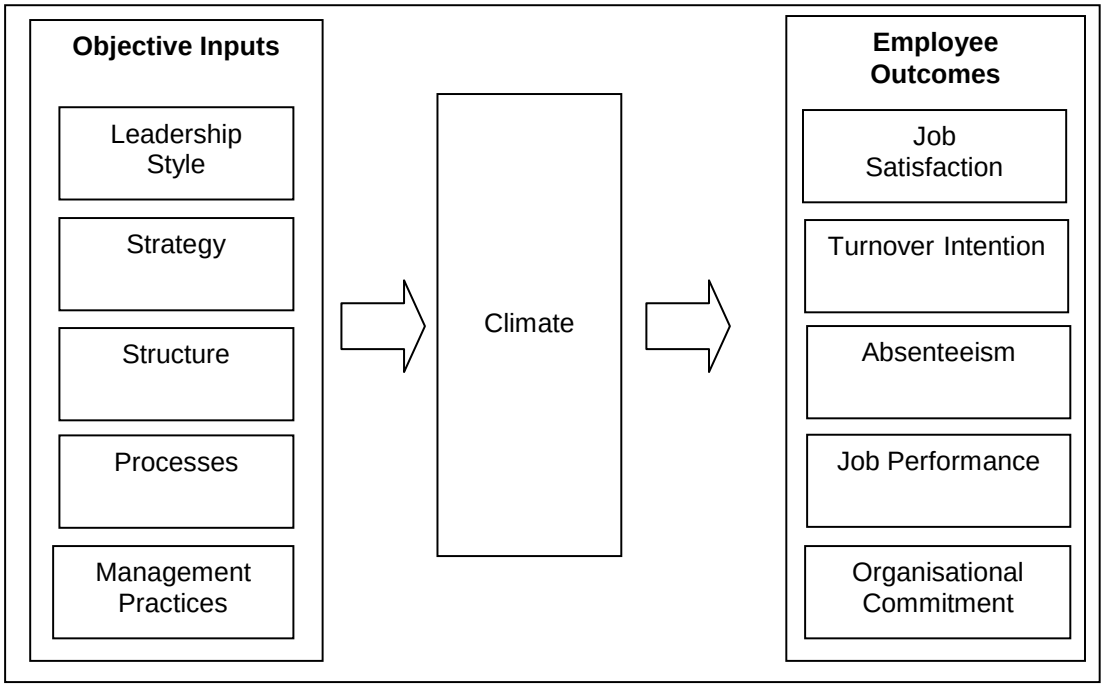
Furnham and Gunter (1993) cite various writers who believe that organisational climate is an intervening variable between structure and process in organisations, and major employee outcomes such as job performance and job satisfaction.

Gordon and Cummins (1979) had a similar view and considered climate analysis as encompassing four elements of an organisation, namely strategy, structure, processes, and people. These elements can be changed by management as a means of affecting the quality of the work environment. At a lower level, these elements are influenced by factors such as the nature of the communication network, reward systems, leadership style and goal-setting techniques, and is an indication of how effective organisations are at mobilising their human resources.

Nel et al. (2004) emphasise the leadership influence on the organisational climate and assert that organisational climate primarily develops as a result of the management philosophy of an organisation, which manifests itself in leadership style and behaviour. This leadership style and behaviour in turn imposes structure, policies and working conditions in the working environment.

Organisational climate provides a way of relating the effects of organisations and organisational life on the motivation of individuals who work in these organisations (Litwin and Stringer, 1968). Figure 2.3 summarises the contribution of these various theorists.

Figure 2.3: Climate as an Intervening Variable



2.4.1 Antecedents of Organisational Climate

Litwin and Stringer (1968) criticised early organisational theories that viewed a human being as an economic and logical being. Their main critique related to, the subdivision of activities into clearly defined functional units, the formal structuring of the organisation that differentiated positions in terms of status and function, and the structuring of operations in terms of time and motion studies, work flow, and production charts. They contended that this view prohibits the consideration of informal, subjective phenomena such as climate. They further proposed an organisational climate model that encompassed factors such as history and culture, leadership style and spatial arrangements that have an influence on the motivation and behaviour of individuals through climate, many non-rational components whereby individuals may be completely unaware of the effect that climate has on them and others, and lastly conditions that assume properties of cyclical change, time decay and fairly rapid temporary shifts.

In order to influence climate, numerous factors, such as physical structure and settings, procedures and practices, and leadership style, need to be

considered. Litwin and Stringer's (1968) model suggests that the concept of organisational climate needs to be integrated with other theories of organisational behaviour such as motivation. The integration of these organisational behaviour theories with organisational climate shows the relationship and importance of factors like leadership style, management practices, decision-making processes, technology, formal organisational structures and social structures on the formation of climate.

Various models exist that explain how the various factors interact to establish a climate. According to Furnham and Gunter (1993), these factors are primarily categorised into:

- External forces, encompassing an organisation's external environment, categorised in terms of economic, market, political, social and technological factors;
- Organisational history encompassing the culture, values and behavioural patterns of the organisation;
- Management encompassing the organisational structure and leadership pattern.

Gordon and Cummins (1979) argue that organisational climate is spontaneous, but rather that it is caused by an aggregate of internal and external circumstances, each carrying a different weighting and is either fixed or variable. These circumstances can be delineated precisely and objectively. The internal factor or circumstance that shapes organisational climate the most is leadership.

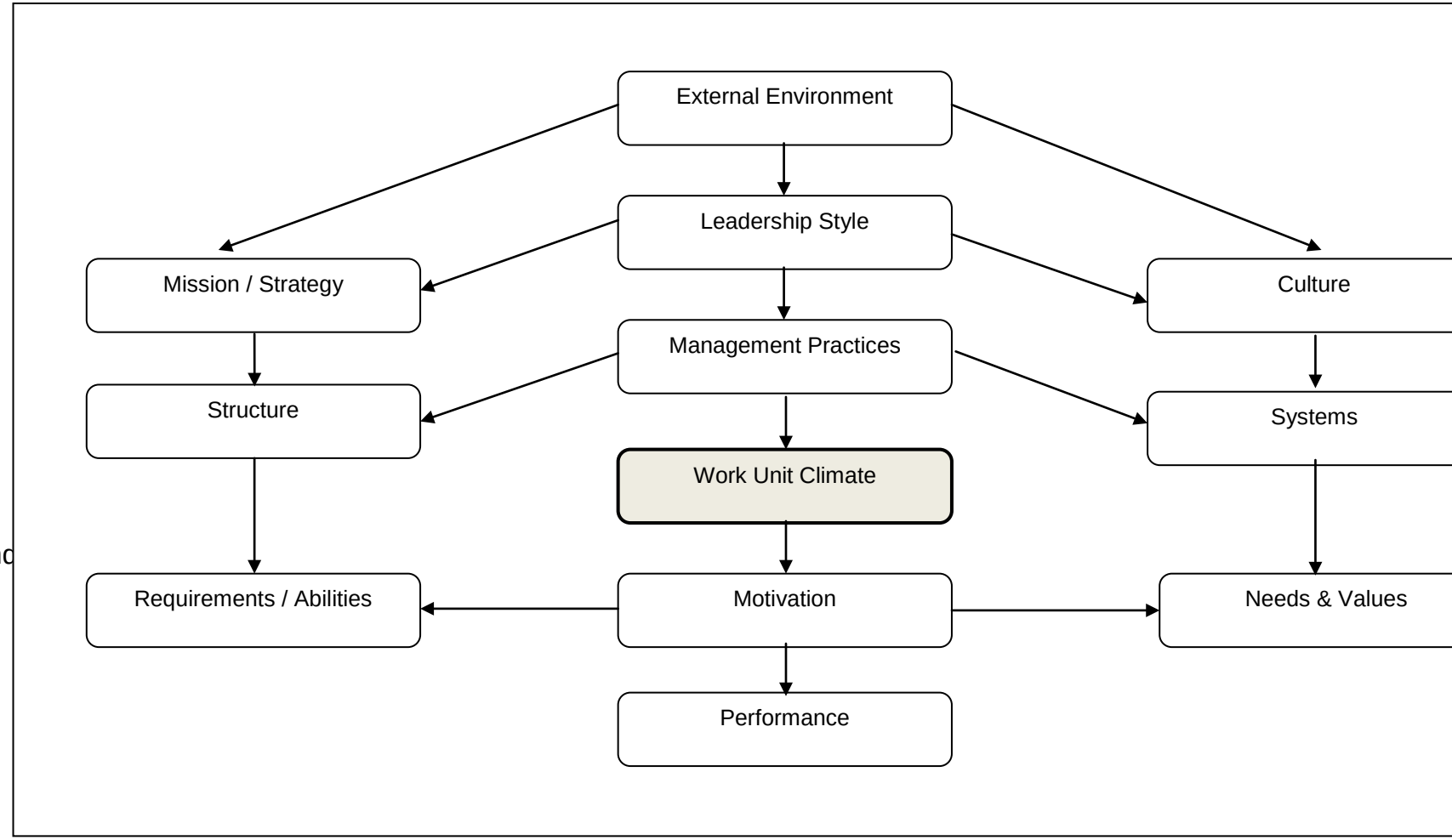
Nel et al. (2004) accentuate these views by describing organisational climate as an all-encompassing concept that could be regarded as the result of all the elements of the job context environment. The job context environment refers to interpersonal and intra-group job satisfaction and consists of a leadership element and other factors that Herzberg (1966) refers to as "hygiene factors". This has an important influence on the throughput process in the organisational environment. Organisational climate is therefore a representation of employees' perceptions of the objective characteristics of an

organisation (Landy, 1989), and of the conditions, factors, and events that occur in the organisation (Ekvall, 1987).

Burke and Litwin (1992) proposed a causal model for organisational performance and change as depicted in Figure 2.3 that aims to explain climate formation in terms of the external and internal circumstances as suggested by Gordon and Cummins (1979). The model suggests that the forces within the external environment influence the leadership style in the organisation, the organisation's mission, vision as well as organisational culture. Leadership style in turn has a direct influence on management practices, which influences the organisational structure and systems. The management practices consequently have a direct impact on the work unit climate, which influences the motivation of individuals within that work unit. The motivation then influences performance at an individual as well as at the organisational level.

Schneider and Reichers (1983) view climate formation from three perspectives. Firstly, they consider the structural perspective to climate formation, which suggests that climate arises from the structural characteristics of an organisation. Secondly they consider the selection, attraction and attrition perspective to climate formation, which suggests that similarity in climate perceptions is a consequence of the homogeneity of the organisational membership. These two perspectives relate directly to the management practices aspect of Figure 2.3 which influences recruitment and organisational structure. Additionally, Schneider and Reichers (1983) consider the social interactionism perspective, which suggests that individuals check, suspend, regroup and transform their own perceptions as a result of their interactions with other organisational members. The social interactionism approach explains differences in climate for different workgroups within the same organisation. Ashforth (1985) supports the social interactionism perspective by suggesting that newcomers entering an unknown environment are unsure of their role and status. They need to learn about the roles and expectations, management structures, communication and reward systems, as well as organisational policies and procedures.

Figure 2.4: A Causal Model of Organisational Performance and Change



(Adapted from: Burke and

This uncertainty makes them vulnerable to the social influence of existing organisational members. Symbolic management may enforce the climate by intense indoctrinating of newcomers, specific selection of compatible applicants for new jobs, use of collective socialisation to foster cohort cohesion, structured learning activities, formalised career paths and use of role models (Ashforth, 1985). The physical setting impacts social interaction between employees, subtly reinforcing or preventing inter- and intra-group communication, thereby evoking certain expectations about the climate.

Additionally, Ashforth (1985) relates climate formation to social comparison theory which suggests that individuals need to evaluate their abilities and beliefs with regard to both themselves and their external environment. Interaction between members of a workgroup takes place because of perceived interpersonal similarities, since individuals are uncomfortable with referents that hold opposing beliefs. March and Simon (cited in Ashforth, 1985: 839), suggested that the level of conformity is a function of similarity of job context, content and role, task interdependencies and frequency of interaction, group size and stability, member tenure and career aspirations, similarity of individual characteristics, uniformity of existing perceptions and centralised information flows. The likelihood of conformity to membership shared beliefs is highest in the workgroup, where members are forced to interact physically and psychologically. Common perceptions and understandings within a group develop further as there is ongoing validation of those perceptions. A strong organisational culture therefore informs climate directly as well as indirectly: directly by telling individuals what is important in the environment and indirectly through its influence on the environment. In addition to being influenced by the objective aspects of an organisation, climate perceptions are also socially constructed by the role of the workgroup, the role of affect, culture, symbolic management, and the physical setting of the work environment.

The model depicted in Figure 2.4 specifically refers to the work unit climate. This is attributed to the fact that leadership style and management practices may differ across work units, and that the role workgroup that may affect the

climate differently across the work units of the organisation. This model summarises the early contributions such as those made by Litwin and Stringer (1968), Gordon and Cummins (1979), Schneider and Reichers (1983), Ashforth (1985) and Furnham and Gunter (1993).

In addition to the social and structural aspects of climate formation considered, it is worth noting that personal dispositional approach to exist. Staw and Ross (1985: 470) describes this approach as one involving “the measurement of personal characteristics and the assumption that such measures can aid in explaining individual attitudes and behaviour”. Staw and Ross (1985: 470) go on to say that concepts such as personal dispositions, traits, personality, and individual characteristics are “based on a set of common assumptions: that it is possible to characterize people on certain dimensions, that these dimensions have some stability over time, and that these dimensions are useful in predicting individual behaviour across situations”. This implies that constructs such as organisation climate, to some extent are also influenced by personal disposition. George and Bishop (1971) studied the relationship of organisational structure and personality characteristics to organisational climate among teachers. Their study found that personality characteristics, in interaction with the organisational structure components, were related more closely to organisational climate than the separate personality characteristics or organisational structure components. More recently, Hershberger et al. (1994) studied the genetic and environmental influences on organisational climate perceptions. They found that both genetic and environmental influences affected organisational climate perceptions, with the environmental influences having the strongest influence.

2.5 Consequences of Organisational Climate

Organisations may never realise the full potential of individuals due to behavioural constraints imposed on members by the organisational environment. The absence of stimuli that would normally elicit certain behaviours may also prevent individuals from reaching their full potential. These constraints typically relate to rules and regulations, routine practices, instructions, taboos and explicit restrictions, all relating to the objective

characteristics of an organisation. Consequently, these constraints develop into ways of behaving, ways of working, ways of loafing, ways of co-operating, and ways of resisting (Furnham and Gunter, 1993).

This relationship between the organisational environment and the individual, and its importance was first recognised by Argyris (1957), who pointed out that conflict sometimes exists when there is incongruence between the individual's needs and the needs of the organisation. Accordingly, this incongruence leads to frustration, failure, a short-term perspective on the part of the individual, and conflict within the organisation. Employees would subsequently resist or find ways of dealing with these frustrations within the organisation.

Lewin (1951) proposed that behaviour of an individual within an organisation is a function of the individual and the organisational environment as depicted by the following equation:

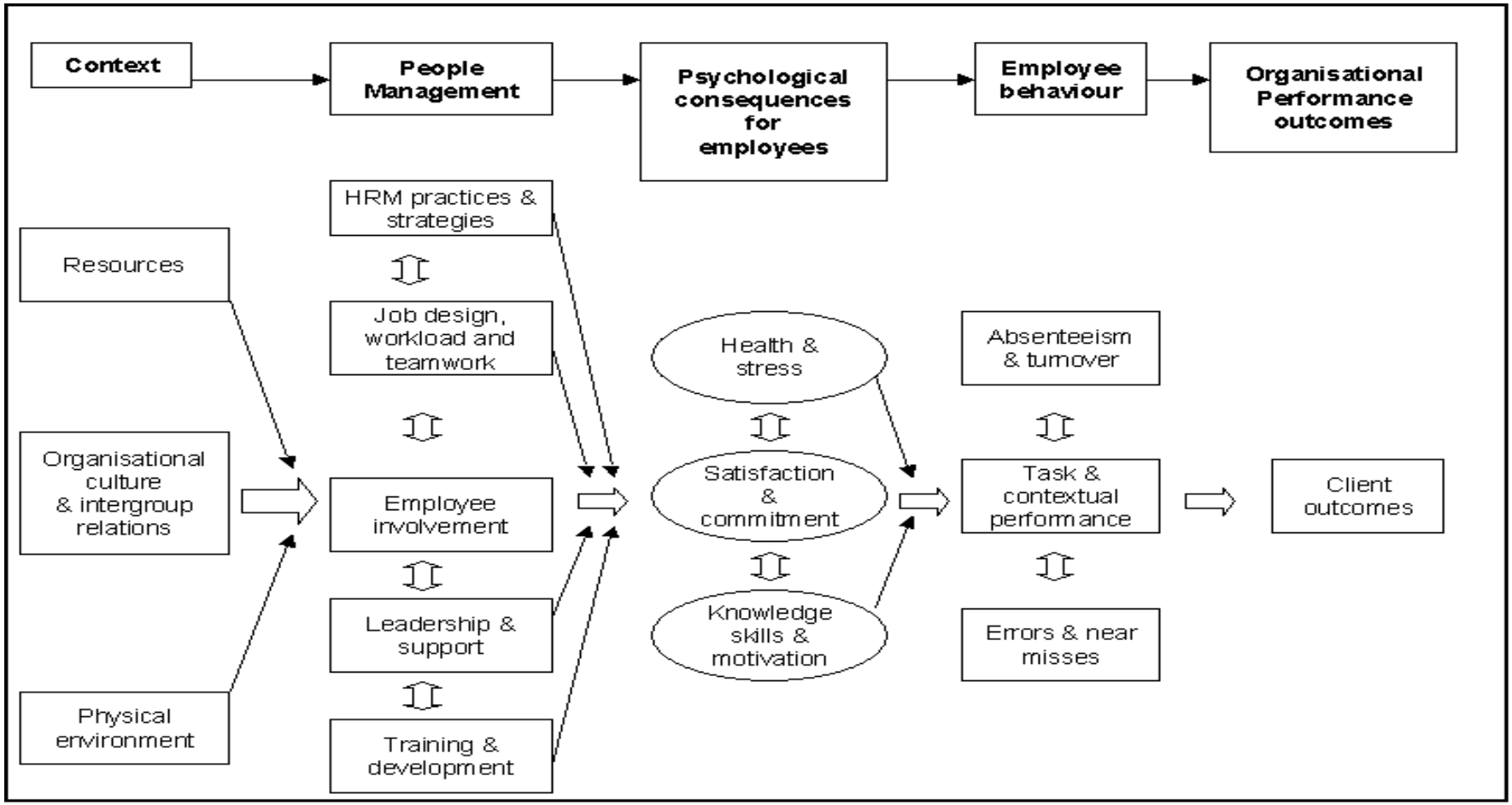
$$\text{Behaviour} = f(P,E)$$

Where
P is the characteristics of the individual; and
E is the characteristics of the environment that the individual operates in.

This formula summarises the essence of environmental influences on an individual's behaviour. It is therefore also indicative of the effect that organisational climate has on behaviour.

Michie and West (2004) used the model illustrated in Figure 2.4 to relate the organisational context to organisational performance outcomes. In this model, the context of an organisation refers to the culture and climate, and intergroup relations.

Figure 2.5: Organisational Context – Organisational Performance Outcomes Model



(Adapted From: Michie and West, 2004).

People management refers to the aspects of management that directly affect individuals who are employed by the organisation, such as human resource practices and strategies, job design, workload and teamwork, employee involvement, leadership and support, training and development. The psychological consequences for employees refers to the way in which job design impacts on employees' physical and psychological wellbeing, their attitude towards their work, and behaviour in the workplace. Employee behaviour refers to absenteeism and turnover, employee performance, and mistakes.

Based on various definitions of organisational climate, the context and people management represented in Figure 2.5, relates directly to the formation of organisational climate. It follows that the organisational climate has psychological consequences that in turn give rise to employee behaviours and organisational outcomes.

The following section will relate organisation climate to some of the important organisational outcomes and psychological consequences as suggested by this model depicted in Figure 2.5.

2.5.1 Organisational Climate and its Relationship to Job Satisfaction and Organisational Commitment

The relationship of organisational climate to job satisfaction and commitment is of particular importance to organisation researchers. Certain dimensions of organisational climate have been found to cause job satisfaction and commitment, in particular, the leadership facilitation and support dimension, and the co-worker integration or cohesion dimension. Commitment in turn impacts a variety of organisational and behavioural outcomes. Cohen (1999) argues that commitment could predict important outcomes such as turnover, turnover intentions, performance, job satisfaction, pro-social organisational behaviour, absenteeism, and tardiness. Lance (1991) found high quality vertical relationships to be a source of job satisfaction, and the integration of employee values and goals with that of the organisation to be a source of commitment. Additionally, it was found that co-worker integration provides

opportunities for social reward and consequently leads to job satisfaction. Greater social involvement and psychological attachment to the work situation would then lead to organisational commitment. High quality vertical relationships and co-worker integration are considered as aspects of the organisational environment and consequently influence organisational climate.

2.5.2 Organisational Climate and its Relationship with Psychological Functioning

2.5.2.1 Cognitive Abilities

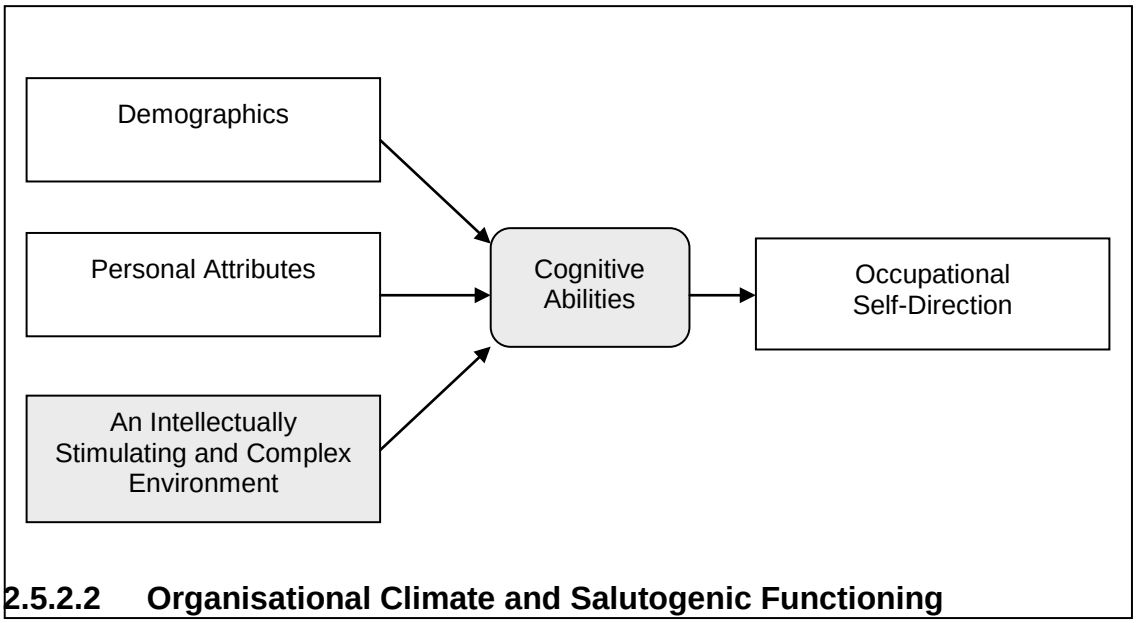
Schaie (1989) showed that individual differences in cognitive abilities could be attributed in part to demographics and personal attributes. In addition, Frias and Schaie (2001) cite other research that indicated that the likelihood of the decline of cognitive abilities can be attributed to individuals not being exposed to and engaged in an intellectually stimulating and complex environment.

Kohn and Schooler (1983) showed a reciprocal relationship between cognitive abilities or intellectual functioning and occupational self-direction. Their study examined the reciprocal relationship between one dimension of occupational self-direction (substantive complexity of work) and one dimension of psychological functioning (intellectual flexibility). They found that the relationship between substantive complexity on ideational flexibility was thought to be immediate, which indicated that an individual's present job influences his or her present thinking. Occupational self-direction was defined as initiative, thought, and independent judgment concerning work. Over time, workers whose job conditions lack substantive complexity may be able to modify these conditions or switch jobs to those more compatible with their intellectual functioning (Frias and Schaie, 2001). Schooler (cited in Frias and Schaie, 2001 :68) argues that exposure to simple environments for long periods may have a negative effect on cognitive performance and could result in individuals with similar abilities exhibiting different rates of change in abilities over time (Avolio and Waldman; Farr, Tesluk and Klein, cited in Frias

and Schaie, 2001: 69). Consequently, the model depicted in Figure 2.6 can be derived.

The relationship between the complexity of the environment and cognitive abilities is of particular interest. Frias and Schaie (2001) showed that not only does the work environment affect cognitive abilities but also the perceptions of the work environment. These perceptions of the work environment relates to the organisational climate.

Figure 2.6: Relationship between Cognitive Ability and Occupational Self-Direction



2.5.2.2 Organisational Climate and Salutogenic Functioning

Empirical evidence suggests that a relationship exists between salutogenic functioning and organisationally relevant behavioural constructs. Salutogenesis provides a theoretical framework for analysing work-related behavioural constructs (Cilliers and Kossuth, 2002). Salutogenesis is a concept that refers to a new approach to health promotion and needs assessment, and examines the creation of wellbeing by looking at successful coping strategies and health. It examines the underlying social constructs, in order to both define the health problem and to search for coping resources or mechanisms (Antonovsky, 1979). Cilliers and Kossuth (2002) cite various sources, which suggest the use of sense of coherence, self-efficacy, and locus of control as the most important constructs in salutogenic functioning.

Antonovsky (cited in Cilliers and Kossuth, 2002: 9) suggests that the comprehensibility aspect of sense of coherence is strengthened by a work environment that enables the individual to see the entire spectrum of his or her own role. This also promotes confidence and feelings of security and supports communicability in social relationships. It is also suggested that workload balance provides the basis for manageability and that participatory management provides the basis for meaningfulness. These propositions effectively link the work environment to salutogenic functioning. Feldt, Kinnenen and Mauno (cited in Cilliers and Kossuth, 2002: 9) found a strong positive correlation between a positively perceived organisational climate and sense of coherence. It was also found that as the climate worsened the sense of coherence diminished.

Conversely, Feldt et al. (2004) studied the dominance of predictive relationships between sense of coherence and work characteristics, such as organisational climate and job control. Their study reported that sense of coherence predicted organisational climate at a future time. They concluded that sense of coherence was a relatively stable disposition, and could influence the ability to mobilise human resources within the work place.

2.5.3 Organisational Climate and its Relationship with Productivity

Patterson et al. (2004) studied a relationship between organisational climate and productivity, mediated by job satisfaction. Their study of 42 manufacturing companies found that productivity was significantly correlated to various aspects of organisational climate. The correlation was found to be higher for those aspects of organisational climate that had a stronger influence on satisfaction.

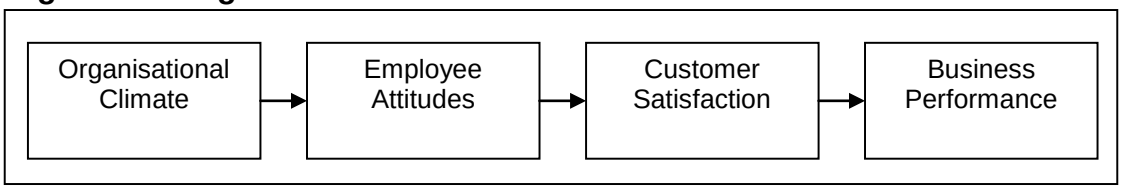
2.5.4 Organisational Climate and Corporate Performance

Kangis et al. (2000) examined the extent to which the climate affects corporate performance management by examining various companies in both an industry that was in its growth phase as well as an industry that was in decline. Their samples in each sector included companies that had above

average returns as well as companies with below average returns. Their results indicated a consistent association between climate and corporate performance, independent of the sector that they operated in.

Gelade and Young (2005) further showed that business units with favourable employee perceptions produce superior financial results. They investigated the relationship between the organisational climate, employee attitudes, customer satisfaction and sales performance in a retail-banking sector. Customer satisfaction was found to be a critical intervening variable between organisational climate and employee attitudes, and sales performance, highlighting the importance of the "service profit chain". Figure 2.7 provides a graphical illustration of their findings.

Figure 2.7: Organisational Climate and the Service Profit Chain



(Adapted from: Gelade and Young, 2005).

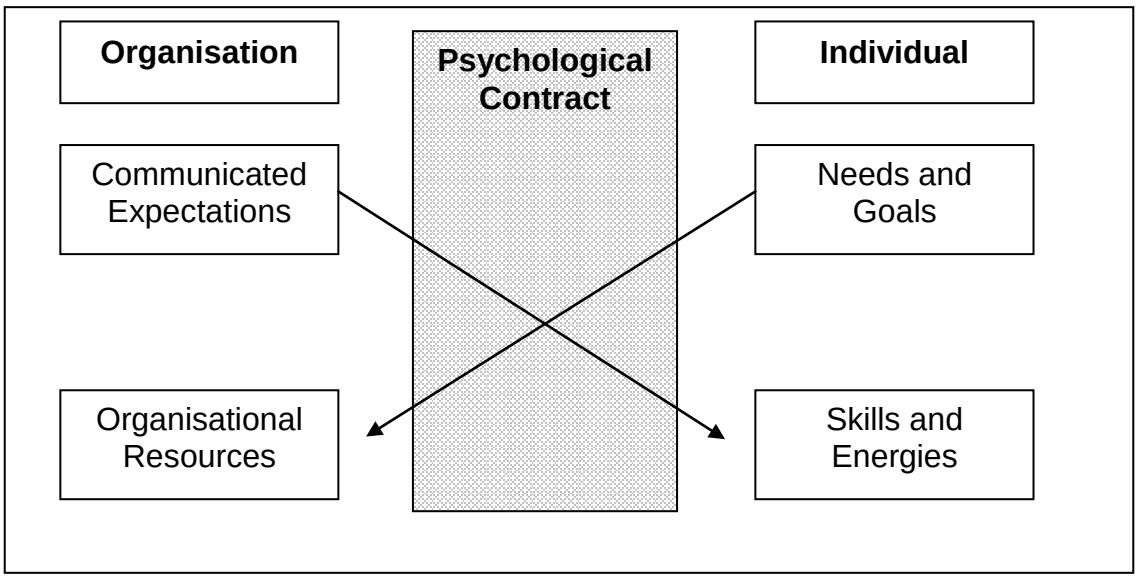
2.5.5 Organisational Climate and the Psychological Contract

As a means of understanding the relationship between the organisational environment and the individual, the psychological contract needs to be considered. Psychological contract refers to the continuous dialogue that exists between an employee and an employer. According to Robinson and Rousseau (1994), it is an individual's belief regarding the terms and conditions of a mutual exchange agreement between an employee and an employer.

Examination of the psychological contract provides a systems view of the relationship between employee and employer. Rousseau (1989) defines the psychological contract as a non-written, but mutually agreed upon set of expectations that individuals develop when they enter organisations.

Another way of viewing the psychological contract is by means of the model depicted in Figure 2.8, which describes a summary of the contribution to individual-organisation interaction as suggested by Porter, Lawler and Hackman (1987). The arrows in the model illustrate the demand the organisation places upon the skills and energies of the organisational members, and the demands that the organisational members place on the resources of the organisation. The organisational demands are communicated as a set of expectations placed upon the skills and energies of the individual. The "grey area" in the middle represents the "non-written, but mutually agreed upon" psychological contract, as suggested by Rousseau (1989). Long-term sustainability of the relationship between the organisation and the individual, depends on each party being responsive to the other's demands at least at a minimal level. Any hostility on the part of the organisation or the individual may result in either party's interest in maintaining the relationship decreasing (Porter, Lawler and Hackman, 1987).

Figure 2.8: Summary of Contributions to Individual-Organisation Interaction



Adapted from: Porter, Lawler and Hackman (1987) and Rousseau (1989)

The degree of fit between the individual and the organisation ultimately affects organisational effectiveness. Porter et al. (1987: 110-114) presents the various degrees of fit between individual and organisation along two axes

ranging from poor to good, each axis representing the individual and the organisation, respectively. These degrees of fit are as follow:

- **Good-Good fit** – Representing a situation where the individual's energies and skills meet the expectations of the organisation, and the demands of the individual are met by the organisation;
- **Good-Poor fit** – Represents a situation where the individual's energies and skills meet the expectations of the organisation, but the organisation is unable to satisfy the demand of the individual upon its resources;
- **Poor-Good fit** – Represents a situation where the individual's energies and skills do not meet the expectations of the organisation, but the organisation is able to meet the demands of the individual upon its resources;
- **Poor-Poor fit** – Represents a situation where the individual's energies and skills do not meet the expectations of the organisation and the organisation is not able to meet the demand of the individual upon its resources.

According to Porter et al. (1987: 110-114), various consequences may result, depending on the degree of fit between the individual and the organisation. These consequences are as follows:

- **Good-Good fit** - Represents the perfect relationship. The individual is capable of meeting the organisation's and the organisation likewise. This type of relationship could be problematic if the two parties have conflicting needs and goals;
- **Good-Poor fit** - Individual finds little personal reward. The individual may end up leaving the organisation unless he or she:
    - Feels that he or she can change the situation;
    - Has no better alternatives (for example: unfavourable labour market or the organisation pay above market salaries);
    - Becomes "locked in" due to monetary loss incurred if he or she should leave (e.g. pension fund and employee share ownership program). The individual may end up frustrated by the needs

and goals not being met. This frustration is less of a loss than monetary loss incurred. The needs and goals of the individual may change as individual becomes accepting of his or her "lot in life". The individual is not motivated to exert extra effort towards achievement of organisational goals as the only aim is to remain an organisational member.

- **Poor-Poor fit** – This dismal situation soon results in the termination of the relationship;
- **Poor-Good fit** – The individual may improve him or herself as a means of meeting performance standards, depending on whether the organisational environment satisfies his or her needs and goals.

In addition to the individual-organisation fit, other critical aspects in the maintenance of the psychological contract are the management of contract violations by the immediate supervisor, the authenticity and communication regarding career development of the employee, and the supervisor's confidence in the employee's abilities. The employees' perception of the immediate leadership is therefore of critical importance to the management of the psychological contract (Soma, 2003).

Robert and Rousseau (cited in Soma, 2003) operationalise the psychological contract as defined by the type of relationship perceived between the employee and employer. The relationship falls into two types namely:

- **Relational**, referring to an employee-employer relationship that can engender feelings of affective involvement or attachment in the employee and can commit the employer to providing more than remunerative support to the individual with investments like training, personal and career development and provision of security.
- **Transactional**, a "money comes first" attitude where employees are more concerned about remuneration and other personal benefits than being a good organisational citizen or going "the extra mile" in accomplishing organisational goals.

Bruce (2000) relates breaking the psychological contract to anti-ethical behaviour and describes this kind of behaviour as complacent and thoughtless that, at the onset appears neither harmful nor helpful, and neither good nor bad. This behaviour ignores the responsibility and principle centered choices that ethics demand.

Ruscia (cited in Bruce, 2000) describes the psychological contract as a set of economic and normative expectations developed by the employee when he/she enters the organisation, and is grounded in trust which forms the foundation for social relationships and social order (Feldheim cited in Bruce, 2000). This trust exists when employees enter an organisation, and can be increased or decreased based on the actions by organisational representatives in power positions that violate the contract. Such contract violations may lead to disillusionment, dissatisfaction and exit.

2.6 Conclusion

This chapter aimed to provide an overview of the development of the organisational climate concept, its conceptualizations, as well as antecedents and consequences. The organisational climate emerged as a construct with many behavioural consequences. Of particular importance in this context, are the consequences that relate to organisational commitment. Assessing the organisational climate could provide an organisation with the knowledge of how it needs to adjust its organisational characteristics so that employees perceive it in a more favourable way. By positively affecting employee perceptions, organisations would be able to realise their goals through the use of its human resources.

CHAPTER 3: ORGANISATIONAL COMMITMENT

3.1 Introduction

The purpose of this chapter is to review the literature on organisational commitment. This will include key aspects of its conceptualisation and definition, antecedents and consequences, and how the concept has been operationalised.

3.2 Conceptualisation and Definitions

Organisational commitment forms part of the broader field of organisational behaviour. The concept has formed the basis for many studies in organisational behaviour due to its assumed effect on organisationally relevant outcomes such as job performance, turnover, productivity and absenteeism. Literature on commitment dates back to the 1950's and 1960's with the work of Becker and Carper (1956) and Becker (1960). The literature provides various conceptualisations and definitions of the construct. Some of these definitions and conceptualisations complement each other while others lead to a degree of ambiguity. Morrow (1983) attributes the numerous definitions of organisational commitment to many researchers formulating their own definition instead of relying on existing ones. Morrow (1983) lists thirty forms of work commitment and their formulators, demonstrating wide spread discrepancies in the intended meaning of the concept. Meyer and Herscovitch (2001: 301-302) listed the various important definitions and performed a reviewed of the literature on commitment. They noted that the various definitions "in general make reference to the fact that commitment (a) is a stabilising or obliging force, that (b) give direction to behaviour". This force is experienced as a mind-set or psychological frame of mind that compels an individual towards a course of action.

Literature on organisational commitment suggests that four major approaches to commitment exist (Suliman and Isles, 2000). These can be categorised into unidimensional approaches that distinguish between a behavioural, an attitudinal, a moral approach, and a multidimensional approach, respectively. These approaches are differentiated by the nature of the underlying mind-set

(Meyer and Herscovitch, 2001). The different approaches to commitment are discussed below.

3.2.1 Behavioural Approach to Commitment

The behavioural approach to commitment was pioneered by Becker (1960) who conceptualised commitment in terms of the "side-bets" theory. This view asserts that employee commitment stems from the fact that employees are committed because of investments they have made by remaining with an organisation, which they would lose if they left the organisation. These investments could be socially or monetary oriented and could include social networks and fringe benefits. The value of these investments increase based on the employee's tenure with the organisation, making it more difficult for the employee to leave as these accrued investments would be lost. These losses together with a perceived lack of opportunities to substitute these investments, consequently commit the individual to the organisation. Kanter (1968) added to Becker's (1960) "side-bet" theory by proposed that commitment be viewed from a sociological perspective and defined commitment as

> "the process through which individual interests become attached to the carrying out of socially organized patterns of behavior which are seen as fulfilling those interests, as expressing the nature and needs of the person" (Kanter, 1968: 500).

This approach viewed commitment along a social systems axis and a personality system axis. In terms of this perspective Kanter (1968) proposed the three dimensions of commitment namely, continuance, cohesion and control commitment. The main focus was to consider organisational commitment from a social psychology perspective focusing on the psychological attachment that an employee develops to the organisation and is based on an exchange and accrual process (Hrebiniak and Alutto, 1972). The behavioural approach suggested by Becker (1960) and Kanter (1968) focuses on investments as the bond between the employee and the organisation. Mowday et al. (1982: 26) highlight the behavioural consequences of behavioural commitment by suggesting that "behavioural

commitment relates to the process by which individuals become locked into a certain organisation and how they deal with this problem".

3.2.2 Attitudinal Approach to Commitment

Attitudinal commitment largely concerns itself with the antecedents and the behavioural consequences of commitment (Meyer and Allen, 1991). According to Mowday et al. (1982: 26) "attitudinal commitment focuses on the process by which people come to think about their relationship with the organisation". The main proponents of attitudinal commitment were Porter et al. (1974: 604), who defined organisational commitment as:

> "the strength of an individual's identification with and involvement in a particular organisation".

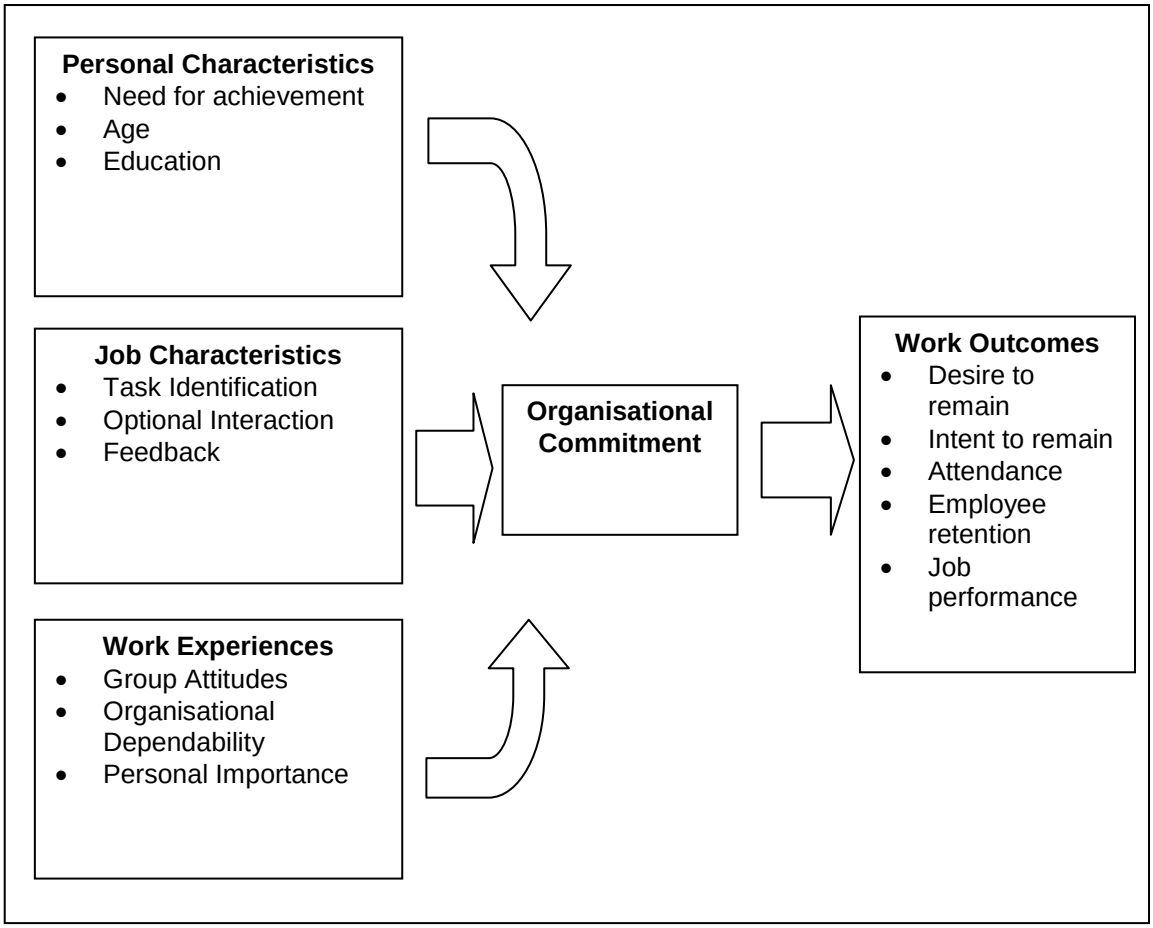
Porter and Smith (cited in Steers, 1977: 121) later extended this definition to highlight important behaviours and consequences. They defined organisational commitment to refer to:

> "the nature of an individual's relationship to an organisation, such that a highly committed person will indicate: (1) a strong desire to remain a member of the particular organisation, (2) a willingness to exert high levels of effort on behalf of the organisation, and (3) a definite belief in and acceptance of the values and goals of the organisation".

This definition of organisational commitment was the most commonly used (Reicher , 1985).

Steers (1977) highlighted the important contributors of attitudinal commitment and how such commitment influences work outcomes. These contributors include personal characteristics, job characteristics, and work experiences. He proposed a model that is primarily based on previous research to link the antecedents of commitment to its outcomes.

Figure 3.1: Hypothesized Antecedent and Outcomes of Organisational Commitment



(Adapted from: Steers, 1977)

3.2.3 Moral Approach to Commitment

The third approach to organisational commitment is the normative or moral approach. Wiener (1982) recognised a particularly important shortcoming in the various conceptualisations of organisational commitment stating that these conceptualisations concentrated on behaviour-outcomes contingency models. Wiener (1982) asserted that these models do not encompass behaviours that are not guided by potential outcomes. Work behaviours like these may be as a result of normative pressures such as personal moral standards. Based on this view, Wiener (1982: 421) defines organisational commitment as:

> "the totality of internalized normative pressures to act in a way that meets organisational goals and interests."

According to Scholl (1981) normative pressures may be enhanced by the organisation investing in the employee in advance. This may result in employees feeling an obligation towards the organisation until these investments have been settled.

3.2.4 Multidimensional Approach to Commitment

It is well recognised that organisational commitment is a multidimensional construct with varying antecedents, correlates, and consequences across the different dimensions (Meyer et al., 2002).

The multidimensional approach to commitment incorporates the other major approaches and views commitment as a multifaceted concept. Table 3.1 lists some of the conceptualisations of commitment by the various authors.

Meyer and Herscovitch (2001: 303) noted that the various motives and strategies involved in developing these models included efforts to "(a) account for empirical findings (b) distinguish among unidimensional conceptualisations (c) ground commitment within an established theoretical context, or (d) some combination of these". According to Meyer and Herscovitch (2001), the two models that have generated the most research are those of Meyer and Allen (1991), and O'Reilly and Chatman (1986). These models are discussed below.

Table 3.1 Dimensions of organisational commitment by different authors

Author	Dimension	Definition
Angle and Perry (1981:4)	Value commitment	"Commitment to support the goals of the organisation"
	Commitment to stay	"Commitment to retain their organisational membership"
O'Reilly and Chatman (1986:493)	Compliance	"Instrumental involvement for specific extrinsic rewards"
	Identification	"Attachment based on a desire for affiliation with the organisation"
	Internalisation	"Involvement predicated on congruence between individual and organisational values"
Penley and Gould (1988)	Moral	"Acceptance of and identification with organisational goals" (p. 46)
	Calculative	**"**A commitment to an organisation which is based on the employee's receiving inducements to match contributions" (p. 46)
	Alienative	"Organisational attachment which results when employees no longer perceive that there are rewards commensurate with investments: yet they remain due to environmental pressures" (p. 48)
Meyer and Allen (1991:67)	Affective	"The employee's emotional attachment to, identification with and involvement in the organisation"
	Continuance	"An awareness of the costs associated with leaving the organisation"
	Normative	"A feeling of obligation to continue employment"
Mayer and Schoorman (1992:673)	Value	"A belief in and acceptance of organisational goals and values and a willingness to exert considerable effort on behalf of the organisation"
	Continuance	"The desire to remain a member of the organisation"
Jaros et al. (1993)	Affective	"The degree to which an individual is psychologically attached to an employing organisation through feelings such as loyalty, affection, warmth, belongingness, fondness, pleasure, and so on" (p. 954)
	Continuance	"The degree to which an individual experiences a sense of being locked in place because of the high costs of leaving" (p. 953)
	Moral	"The degree to which an individual is psychologically attached to an employing organisation through internalisation of its goals, values and missions" (p. 955)

(Adapted from: Meyer and Herscovitch, 2001)

3.2.4.1 Meyer and Allen Three Component Model

Meyer and Allen (1991) reviewed organisational commitment research and proposed a model that incorporated both the attitudinal and behavioural perspectives of organisational commitment. Additionally they considered the "complimentary relationship" between these two perspectives (Meyer and Allen, 1991: 62). They proposed a three component, multivariate model for organisational commitment that incorporated the three general themes that are apparent throughout the literature, namely affective attachment, perceived costs, and feelings of obligation towards the organisation. Meyer and Allen (1991) defined organisational commitment in terms of this three component model and equate affective attachment to affective commitment, perceived costs to continuance commitment, and obligation to normative commitment. The three forms of commitment were found to be related yet distinguishable from each another as well as from concepts such as job satisfaction, job involvement, and occupational commitment. Meyer and Allen (1991) suggested that these different types of commitment be viewed as components of commitment rather than different types of commitment. Individuals may experience all three forms of commitment at varying levels. The strength of an individual's affective commitment could for instance be determined by the extent to which the individual's needs are being met by the organisation, whereas continuance could be determined by the perceived cost of leaving the organisation as well as the availability of alternatives. The Meyer and Allen (1991) three component model was used to assess organisational commitment in this study. The dimensions of this model are discussed next.

3.2.4.1.1 Affective Commitment

According to Joros et al. (1993), affective commitment is the most widely discussed form of psychological attachment to an organisation. Affective commitment refers to an employee's positive emotional attachment to an organisation. Meyer and Allen (1991: 67) defined affective commitment to refer to "the employee's emotional attachment to, identification with, and involvement in the organisation. Employees with a strong affective commitment continue employment with the organisation because they want to do so" (Meyer and Allen, 1991: 67).

3.2.4.1.2 Continuance Commitment

Continuance commitment is based on the perceived the costs that an employee will incur when leaving their organisation. Meyer and Allen (1991:67) define continuance commitment as referring “to an awareness of the cost associated with leaving the organisation. Employees whose primary link to the organisation is based on continuance commitment remain with the organisation because they need to do so”. According to Joros et al. (1993) these perceived costs represent sunk cost that take on the form of time, job effort, development of work friendships, organisation-specific skills, and political deals, which diminish the attractiveness of external employment alternatives.

3.2.4.1.3 Normative Commitment

Normative or moral commitment is based on the internalisation of norms and identification with an organisation (Etzioni cited in Jaros et al., 1993) and reflects a sense of duty, an obligation, or calling, to work in the organisation,
but not necessarily emotional attachment (Jaros et al., 1993). Meyer and Allen (1991:67) define normative commitment as reflecting “a feeling of obligation to continue employment. Employees with a high level of normative commitment feel that they ought to remain with the organisation”.

3.2.4.2 O’Reilly and Chatman Models

As suggested by Meyer and Herscovitch (2001) the O’Reilly and Chatman (1986) model of organisational commitment has generated a fair amount of research. O’Reilly and Chatman (1986) based their multidimensional commitment model on the work of Kelman (1958) relating to attitude and behaviour change. The model is based on the premise that commitment represents an attitude towards an organisation and that there are various processes through which these attitudes develop. O’Reilly and Chatman (1986) defined their model in terms of three components, namely compliance, identification, and internalisation:

Compliance focuses on an individual’s involvement with an organisation purely on the basis of extrinsic rewards. As a result attitudes and behaviours are adopted in order to gain specific rewards.

Identification focuses on an individual's desire for affiliation with an organisation and occurs when an individual accepts influence to establish or maintain a satisfying relationship.
Internalisation focuses on an individual's involvement with an organisation based on the degree to which there is similarity between the individual and the organisation's values.
Similar to Meyer and Allen's (1991) view, an individual's commitment profile may reflect varying levels of the three dimensions.

According to Meyer and Herscovitch (2001), further research highlighted the difficulty in distinguishing between identification and internalisation due to these dimensions being highly correlated with each other and showing similar correlation with other variables. The dimensions were later combined and named normative commitment.

3.2.4.3 An Alternative Commitment Model

Although Meyer and Allen's (1991) and O'Reilly and Chatman's (1986) models have been widely adopted, it is worth noting that newer models and conceptualisations exist. One of the rationales behind these models and conceptualisations is that the research pertaining to existing models' conceptualisations are almost five decades old and its relevance is questionable (Wright and Kehoe, 2008).

Klein, Morrow and Brinsfield (cited in Wright and Kehoe, 2008) proposed a commitment model which considers commitment as having three components or aspects across three elements. The three components are an affective component, a continuance component, and a motivational component. An individual's commitment is determined by considering the three elements, namely the target towards which the commitment is focused, the strength or degree to which someone is committed, and the rationale or self-explanation for the commitment. According to Klein et al. (cited in Wright and Kehoe, 2008: 11), affective commitment is concerned with "affect, or emotion, positive or negative, that one feels towards a target". Continuance commitment is

“unwillingness to withdraw from a target”. Motivational commitment involves both “the willingness to exert effort in support of the target and persistence in maintaining that effort over time”. Klein et al. (cited in Wright and Kehoe, 2008: 11) argue that individuals may develop multiple commitments within the workplace as well as outside of the workplace that are aimed at different targets. These multiple commitments to different targets coexist depending on whether the targets have compatible demands.

3.3 Antecedents and Consequences of Organisational Commitment

Morrow (1983) distinguished between five forms of work commitment, namely protestant work ethic, career salience, job involvement, central life interest, organisational commitment, and union commitment. Each form of work commitment demonstrates considerable differences in terms of their antecedents and consequences. For the purpose of this study, the focus will be on the antecedents and consequences of organisational commitment.

3.3.1 Antecedents of Organisational Commitment

Morrow (1983) classifies these antecedents into functions of personal characteristics such as age, tenure, education, need for achievement, situational factors such as climate, role conflict, job and organisational characteristics, and personal factors such as those described by Becker’s (1960) side-bet theory. Steers (1977) tested the first part of his model proposed in Figure 3.1 and found the antecedents of organisational commitment to be quite diverse. He found significant positive relationships between the need for achievement, group attitudes toward the organisation, organisational dependability, perceived personal importance to the organisation, and task identity, and organisational commitment, respectively. Education was found to be inversely related to organisational commitment. Steers (1977) found the strongest correlation between work experience and organisational commitment.

Steers (1977) noted a recurring notion of exchange, highlighting the importance of the degree of fit between the individual-organisation relationships model as proposed by Porter et al. (1987) and the significance of

the psychological contract as proposed by Rousseau (1989), as highlighted in Figure 2.4. The effects of age and organisational tenure on organisational commitment are regarded as items of contention as researchers cannot agree on whether it is significantly related to organisational commitment (Meyer and Allen, 1991, Morrow, 1983, Steers, 1977).

In addition to Morrow's (1983) distinction between the different forms of commitment, Meyer and Allen (1991) further assert that the different components of their three component model of commitment each have different antecedents. It is important to note that these assertions are based on theoretical grounds rather than empirical findings. Meyer and Allen (1991) proposed that work experience and organisational structure influences affective commitment and that continuance commitment is influenced by Becker's (1960) side-bets as well as the lack of alternatives. Drawing on the theories of Wiener (1982) and Scholl (1981), Meyer and Allen (1991) assert that feelings of obligation form as a result of normative pressures exerted on the employee due to cultural and organisational socialization processes. The formation of normative commitment is attributed to organisations providing employees with advances or incurring significant costs in employing the individual.

More relevant to the context of the current study is the recent analysis done by Döckel et al. (2006) involving specific retention factors that induced the organisational commitment of high technology employees within the South African telecommunications sector. They found the most relevant statistical significance between compensation, job characteristics, supervisor support, work/life policies, and its influence on the development of organisational commitment. Certain attributes of these retention factors can be linked to the job context environment and hence organisational climate.

Meyer et al. (2002) performed a meta-analytical study involving the three forms of commitment and the variables identified as antecedents, correlates and consequences of Meyer and Allen's (1991) Three Component Model. They found that the demographic variables proposed in the Three Component

Model had a generally low correlation to all three components of the model. Age and tenure had a positive but weak correlation to organisational commitment. With regards to the work experiences variables, they found these variables to have a generally stronger correlation than those of personal characteristics. The strongest relation was found with affective commitment. Their study found the work experience variables to have an opposite relationship to continuance commitment, as opposed to affective and normative commitment. The availability of alternative variables was found to be more strongly correlated to continuance commitment than to affective and normative commitment. The investments variables showed stronger correlations for affective commitment and normative commitment as opposed to continuance commitment.

3.3.2 Consequences of Organisational Commitment

Organisational commitment is considered as an important organisational concept due to its links to favourable outcomes at both an individual and organisational unit of analysis. For example, at an individual unit of analysis, commitment predicts behaviours such as turnover, absenteeism, organisational citizenship, extra-role behaviour, and performance. At an organisational subunit commitment is associated with customer satisfaction and sales achievement (Gelade et al., 2006).

Meyer and Allen's (1991) model of organisational commitment links each component of commitment to specific work outcomes. These outcomes include employee churn and work behaviours such as performance, absenteeism and citizenship. Somers (1995) used Meyer and Allen's (1991) model to investigate the effects of organisational commitment on job withdrawal intentions, turnover and absenteeism. He found the affective commitment component to be most consistent predictor of these variables. The results also indicated that the affective commitment component was the only one related to turnover and to absenteeism. Somers (1995) also established that normative commitment was only related to withdrawal intentions while no direct effects for continuance commitment were observed. The continuance commitment, however, interacted with affective commitment

in predicting job withdrawal intentions and absenteeism. High “investments” tempered relationships between affective commitment and the relevant outcomes.

In testing the hypothesised model proposed in Figure 3.1, Steers (1977) found that commitment was related to both the desire to remain and intent to remain in a two sample study. Commitment was related to attendance for one sample but not the other. Commitment was further found to be negatively correlated to employee turnover. Partial support for the hypothesised relationship between commitment and job performance was found for the one sample but no relationship was found in the other sample.

3.4 Conclusion

This chapter considered various conceptualisations and definitions of organisational commitment, the different forms of organisational commitment, and the antecedents and consequences thereof. As organisations move into an era that is knowledge-driven, as opposed to the traditional forms of production inputs, such as labour and capital, the emphasis is increasingly being placed on an organisation’s human resources. This highlights the importance of the types of commitment that organisational members have towards their organisation. An understanding of how commitment is formed and what its consequences are is becoming more important in securing and overseeing of a company’s human resources.

CHAPTER 4 - RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

"We are what we repeatedly do. Excellence, then, is not an act, but a habit" - Aristotle

4.1 Introduction

According to Babbie and Mouton (2003) social research involves the systematic observation of social life for the purpose of finding patterns in these observations and interpreting it. The literature provides three broad methodological paradigms for performing social research. These paradigms are: the quantitative paradigm, the qualitative paradigm and the participatory action research paradigm. Each one of these paradigms makes different assumptions about the social world, what the purpose of the research is, the approach to the research, and the researcher's role (Babbie and Mouton, 2003).

Quantitative research is based on the positivist paradigm, which assumes that there are social facts with an objective reality. It employs objective measurement and quantitative analysis to explain the causes of changes in social facts. Quantitative research employs experimental and correlational designs in an attempt to reduce errors and bias in order to clearly perceive social facts. The researcher acts as a detached, objective analyst (Remenyi, 1996).

Qualitative research on the other hand, has its foundation in the constructivist paradigm, which sees reality as being socially constructed through individual or collective definitions of a situation. It is aimed at understanding the social phenomenon from the social actor's perspective. The approach to qualitative research is ethnographic which assists the readers in comprehending situations within the setting. In a qualitative enquiry the researcher becomes immersed in the phenomenon under study (Firestone, 1987).

Participatory action research is characterised by the researcher being a change agent, who is a professional researcher and specialist in a field and comes from outside of the community under research. The research setting is

typically “grassroots groups” or social classes and their organisations, in a Third World setting and is aimed at “grassroots development” interventions (Babbie and Mouton, 2003: 314). Participatory action research is therefore inappropriate for the current research.

Organisational climate and organisational commitment have predominantly been studied from a functionalist behaviourist or quantitative perspective. This traditional approach to theory building in organisational studies has generally produced valuable but incomplete views of organisational knowledge, primarily because it has been predicated predominantly on the doctrine of the quantitative paradigm (Kuhn, 1970). This perspective frequently produces quantitative data and has restricted possibilities. Such restrictions relate to the fact that this quantitative data does not go beyond the superficial aspects and symptoms of constructs such as organisational climate. Furthermore, it does not provide a broader understanding of the behavioural complexities associated with such constructs.

On the other hand, a qualitative investigation allows for a broader and exploratory way of looking at behavioural constructs by facilitating the study of issues in both depth and detail. The researcher is the instrument in this process and approaches fieldwork without being constrained by a rigid questionnaire. This approach contributes to the depth, openness, and detail of qualitative inquiry. It differs from quantitative research that requires the use of standardized measures so that the varying perspectives and experiences of people can be fitted into a limited number of response categories (Patton, 2002).

Firestone (1987) argues that the quantitative and qualitative methodological paradigms have their different descriptive strengths and foci. The quantitative paradigm primarily assesses the magnitude of relationships more precisely and shows patterns that extend across a large number of settings. The qualitative paradigm conversely concludes with more ambiguous statements and provides a complete picture of the detail. Furthermore, Firestone (1987) suggests a complimentary approach where both qualitative and quantitative

methods are used separately to strengthen the research. Given the two stages of this research, this approach has been followed in the current study.
As stated in chapter 1, stage one of this research seeks to explore the organisational climate of the IT department with a view of describing the nature of the environment. This qualitative enquiry uses the Litwin and Stringer's (1968) OCQ dimensions as an initial framework as suggested by Brown and Brooks (2002). Stage two seeks to explore the relationship between the organisational climate and organisational commitment from a quantitative perspective, using Patterson et al.'s (2005), and Meyer and Allen's (1991) climate and commitment models, respectively.

This chapter aims to presents the research methodologies and processes that were employed in investigating these two stages.

4.2 Research Goals and Hypothesis

4.2.1 Research Goals and Hypothesis of Qualitative Research

The aims of the qualitative research, as stated in the introductory chapter are thus:

- To explore the employee perceptions relating to the organisational climate within the Information Technology department of the relevant organisation.

Although the researcher was part of the research setting as described in chapter 1, the qualitative research was conducted to provide the researcher with further insight into the organisational climate. The results of the research could be used by the relevant organisation to identify shortcomings of the organisational climate that could be changed to positively affect employee perceptions and other behavioural outcomes.

4.2.2 Research Goals and Hypothesis of Quantitative Research

The overall goal of the quantitative research is to identify different aspects of organisational climate that influence the organisational commitment. Consequently the results may allow the relevant organisation to positively

manipulate those aspects of the organisational climate that mostly influence organisational commitment.

The objectives of the quantitative research are thus:

- To investigate the relationship between organisational climate and organisational commitment by:
  - Identifying the facets of organisational climate that mostly impact organisational commitment;
  - Investigating how the different facets of organisational climate impact the different types of organisational commitment.

Consequently, the following research hypotheses have been formulated:

- Null Hypothesis H_0: There is no statistically significant correlation between organisational climate and organisational commitment.
- Alternative Hypothesis H_1: There is a statistically significant correlation between organisational climate and organisational commitment.

4.3 Research Paradigm

Guba and Lincoln (cited in Denzin and Lincoln, 1994: 105) define a paradigm as a "belief system or worldview that guides the investigator, not only in choices of method but in ontologically and epistemologically fundamental ways". Ontology refers to the nature of reality and what is known about it. Epistemology refers to the relationship of the investigator or inquirer and the inquired or the study. Following on their definition Guba and Lincoln (cited in Denzin and Lincoln, 1994: 108) note three questions that need to be considered in establishing a research paradigm:

- "The ontology question", relating to what the form of reality is and what there is to know about it;
- "The epistemology question" relating to what the nature of the relationship is between the investigator and the subject under investigation;
- "The methodological question" relating to how the researcher goes about finding whatever he or she believes can be known.

Denzin and Lincoln (1994) note four major competing paradigms for which the answers to these questions are fundamentally different. These are the positivist, postpositivist, critical theory, and constructivist paradigms. Each paradigm has a different ontological, epistemological and methodological focus which are summarised in Table 4.1 below.

Table 4.1: Basic beliefs of alternate paradigms

Item	Positivist	Postpostivist	Critical Theory	Constructivist
Ontology	Naïve realism -"Real" reality but apprehendable.	Critical realism -"Real" reality but only imperfectly and probabilistically apprehendable.	Historical realism -Virtual reality shaped by social, political, cultural, economic, ethinic, and gender values; crystallized over time.	Relativism -Local and specific constructed realities.
Epistemology	Dualist/objectivist -Findings are true.	Modified dualist/objectivist; -Critical tradition -Findings are probably true.	Transactional/ subjectivist; -Findings are mediated by values.	Transactional/ subjectivist; -Created findings.
Methodology	Experimental/ manipulative; Verification of hypotheses; Quantitative methods.	Modified experimental/ manipulative; Critical multiplism; Falsification of hypotheses; May include qualitative methods.	Dialogic/ dialectical.	Hermeneutical/ dialectical

(Adapted from: Denzin and Lincoln, 1994: 109)

Given the nature of the research and the fact the objectives are twofold, the appropriate paradigms that the researcher chose for this study was the constructivist and postpositivist paradigms.

4.4 Research Design

According to Babbie and Mouton (2003), research design should be distinguished from research methodology. The research design is focused on the end product of the research, the research problem, and the logic of the research. A research design involves designing a strategy for solving or investigating a research problem. It is a “plan or blueprint” of how the research will be conducted (Babbie and Mouton, 2003: 74).

4.4.1 Qualitative Research Design

The research design used for the qualitative part of the study followed a qualitative design with a phenomenological approach, and contextual focus. According to Atkinson (cited in Sanders, 1982: 353), phenomenology is a qualitative research method that seeks to make explicit the implicit structure and meaning of human experiences. It emerged as a descriptive philosophical method to challenge analytical or deductive philosophies. As opposed to quantitative research that holds pertinent assumptions about the world, such as the fact that there are stable social facts and that there is a single, context-free reality, qualitative research assumes that there are multiple realities and focuses more on understanding the social phenomena (McMillan and Schumacher, 2001). According to Kvale (1996), qualitative research interviews attempt to gain subjective descriptions of the informants’ environment in terms of their interpretations of meaning.

Qualitative research, using in-depth, face-to-face interviews, would thus yield more insightful and informative findings than quantitative research, and would allow the researcher to clarify responses with informants by asking spontaneous probing questions.

4.4.1.1 Qualitative Sampling

The qualitative stage of this study used purposive non-random sampling strategy. According to Patton (1990: 169) qualitative inquiry typically focuses in-depth on relatively small samples that are “purposefully” selected. The rationale of purposeful sampling lies in selecting “information-rich” cases for study in depth. Information-rich cases provide an opportunity to learn about

issues of innermost importance to the purpose of the research. This strategy sees the number of people interviewed as less important than the criteria used to select them.

By definition, the qualitative approach used in this study requires the researcher to be an active participant within the research setting. According to Patton (1990) the researcher is required to have some advanced knowledge of the population under investigation. The researcher has been with the organisation for more than six years and could strategically select the informants who could contribute most to the understanding of the phenomena being investigated. The emphasis is on seeing the social world from the point of view of an actor, referring to people in the relevant department who perform particular jobs.

4.4.1.2 Sampling Criteria

According to Patton (1990), purposive sampling criteria can be a combination of several criteria and is not mutually exclusive. The sample size depends on the purpose of the study, its usefulness, credibility, and available resources. The sampling strategy allows for a small number of “information-rich” cases. Patton (1990: 184-185) suggests that “the validity, meaningfulness, and insights generated from qualitative inquiry have more to do with the information-richness of the cases selected and the observational/analytical capabilities of the researcher than with sample size”.

The participants were carefully selected from various sections of the IT department in order to obtain a general overview regarding the organisational climate. The actors or informants in the research were permanent employees who had been with the organisation for longer than two years. This tenure was assumed to be ample time for employees to create perceptions about various objective aspects of the organisation, and it was assumed that these participants would contribute meaningfully to the research. In addition to this tenure, the participants were selected on the basis of having had a fair amount of social interaction with members of the IT department, were

experienced in the context of the organisation and comfortable with expressing their opinions to the researcher.

4.4.1.3 Data Gathering

According to Hannabuss (1996), qualitative interviews have emerged as a popular option for practitioner and student research in social sciences, as it has distinct advantages in eliciting unique information and opinions from research settings. The interviews are geared towards gaining an understanding of how people make sense of and create meaning out of the objective aspects of organisations. Exposing this understanding by means of transcription of interviews allows for the exposure of, what has up to then been tacit, hidden away, or merely been inferred from an actor's actions. These understandings may include perceptions, connotations to meanings, implicit consensus and intentions. Qualitative interviews were therefore chosen as the most appropriate means of gathering the data.

The data collection was done by means of in-depth interviews with informants allowing the researcher to systematically probe to elicit detailed responses. The interviews were tape-recorded. Each interview was later transcribed by hand and captured in Microsoft Word. According to Sanders (1982), it is important for the phenomenological analysis that the interviews be transcribed as this provides a basis for the data to be analysed. Each informant was assigned a code number, to maintain anonymity. A literature review was done prior to the interviews to provide the researcher with insight into the field being studied and to provide a framework for specific questions related to organisational climate. Given the fact that the qualitative stage of the research was a preliminary study and the available time, a total of four interviews were conducted.

4.4.1.4 Analysing the Data

Data analysis has four levels (Sanders, 1982). The first level is the description of the phenomena as revealed by the transcriptions. The second level is the identification of the themes that emerge from the descriptions. These themes are commonalities within and between narratives and are identified based on

importance and centrality accorded to them rather than frequency of occurrence. The third level is the objective / subjective correlates and represents the subjective reflections of the objective themes. This represents the informant's perception of the phenomena under investigation and is fundamental to the identification of what the experience essentially is. The fourth level consists of the abstraction of essence that emerged from the subjective reflections of the objective themes. It is accomplished through intuition and reflection and describes the why. This methodology was used to interpret the data collected in the interviews. Close scrutiny of the data was required to interpret, explore and extract themes.

Once all the interviews were conducted and transcribed, the researcher and an independent assistant, who is experienced in data analysis and has worked for a leading market research company for several years, reviewed each interview, made further memos, coded and identified unique aspects revealed in the interviews. These were discussed, debated and grouped into primary themes, which were used in the findings and analysis. The findings were related directly to the interviews, and verbatim responses were included to support the researcher's interpretation.

The transcribed interviews were analysed to identify common categories and themes. First the unique and common codes were identified as described by the respondents, based on their interpretation of the questions. This interim and iterative analysis continued until the researcher was satisfied that all codes were identified. Secondly, these codes were grouped and segmented into themes that related to organisational climate literature, as well as other areas that impact on organisational climate. A master code list of inductive codes was kept for easy reference. Frequently occurring themes and areas of significant importance to the respondents were identified and analysed. These were interpreted to reveal the perceptions of the organisational climate, and its effect on the respondents. The aspects of organisational climate that had the most impact on employees were identified and elaborated on in the form of thematic analysis.

4.4.2 Quantitative Research Design

The quantitative part of this research used a survey method to obtain information relating to organisational climate and organisational commitment. This section describes the design that was followed in obtaining the required information.

4.4.2.1 Population And Sampling

Roscoe (cited in Mouton, 1996: 134) defines a population as “a collection of objects, events or individuals having some common characteristic that the researcher is interested in”. Mouton (1996: 132) refers to sampling as “the sampling procedures which involve some form of random selection of elements from the target population” with the aim of producing a representative selection of the population. The population of this research is all the permanent employees within the Information Technology department of the relevant organisation. The employee details were obtained from the human resource department’s employee database. The Microsoft Excel random number generator was used to select a random sample of 100 employees to whom the questionnaires were distributed via electronic mail. Random sampling ensures that biases are cancelled out. As part of the electronic mail a brief description of the purpose of the research was included as well as a guarantee of anonymity and confidentiality.

4.4.2.2 Measurement Instrument

Data was collected using a questionnaire that was composed of a demographics section, an organisational climate section, and an organisational commitment section. Respondents had to choose the degree to which they agreed with the statements. A four and five point Likert scale was used to assess the organisational climate and organisation commitment sections, respectively. The response categories ranged between strongly agreeing to strongly disagreeing. The questionnaire is contained in Appendix A.

The overall goal of the quantitative phase of the research was to assess the relationship between organisational climate and organisational commitment.

To assess each of these constructs, existing instruments were used. These instruments are discussed below.

4.4.2.2.1 Organisational Climate Measure® (OCM)

Patterson et al. (2005) developed the OCM using the CVF as a means of devising the different scales of the measure. Their final measure consisted of 17 scales with each of the scales relating back to a dimension of the CVF. This view regards organisational climate as a measure of organisational effectiveness.

Table 4.2 contains the internal consistency estimate using the Cronbach's alpha statistic for the seventeen scales. All the alpha values except for Autonomy are above 0.73.

Table 4.2: Internal consistency of the OCM®

Scale	Cronbach's alpha
Autonomy	0.67
Integration	0.86
Involvement	0.87
Supervisory Support	0.88
Training	0.83
Welfare	0.91
Formalization	0.77
Tradition	0.73
Innovation and Flexibility	0.86
Outward Focus	0.83
Reflexivity	0.76
Clarity of Org. Goals	0.87
Efficiency	0.80
Effort	0.79
Performance Feedback	0.78
Pressure to Produce	0.79
Quality	0.80

(Adapted from: Patterson et al., 2005)

Generalisability of the scale was tested across various levels within the different organisations using the Bentler-Bonnett normal fit (NFI), the non-normal fit index (NNFI) and the comparative fit index (CFI). Table 4.3 presents the results which indicate similar fit indices for the 17-factor model across all levels and job types.

Table 4.3: Fit indices for the different subgroups

Subgroup	NFI	NNFI	CFI
Management	0.81	0.83	0.84
Non-management	0.85	0.85	0.86
Shopfloor	0.82	0.83	0.84
Non-shopfloor	0.81	0.84	0.84

(Adapted from: Patterson et al., 2005)

Discriminant validity was assessed using analysis of variance on all scales using the different organisations as an independent variable and found significant between-organisation differences on all the scales. The F-values ranged from 5.21 (degrees of freedom=53) to 27.25 (degrees of freedom=53).

Within group agreement index of multiple item scales were used to test the organisational climate perception within an organisational unit. The indices for the scales ranged from 0.69 to 0.85 for the different scales. The authors of the instrument deemed it to be satisfactory as it was consistent with the levels suggested in the literature (James, and Nunnally cited in Patterson et.al., 2005: 395).

4.4.2.2.2 Organisational Commitment Questionaire (OCQ)

Meyer and Allen's (1991) three component Organisational Commitment Questionnaire (OCQ) was used to assess the organisational commitment in this study. Meyer and Allen (1997: 120) report Cronbach alpha values for the different scales of the OCQ as listed below:

Table 4.4: Cronbach alpha values for the different scales of the OCQ

Organisational commitment subscale	Cronbach alpha
Affective Commitment scale	0.85
Continuance Commitment scale	0.79
Normative Commitment scale	0.73

(Adapted from: Meyer and Allen, 1997)

Meyer and Allan (1997: 121) also identified various studies that provide evidence for discriminant validity. These studies distinguish organisational commitment from job satisfaction, career, job and work values, career commitment, occupational commitment and perceived organisational support.

4.4.2.3 Data Collection

As stated previously, data was collected using a questionnaire that was sent to the defined sample using electronic mail. The electronic mail contained a cover letter stating the purpose of the survey and guaranteeing respondents of anonymity and confidentiality as well as stating that participation was voluntary. In an attempt to guarantee anonymity, participants were asked to print the questionnaire, fill it in and return the paper based copy to the researcher. This method prevented third parties from potentially viewing responses.

4.4.2.4 Data Analysis

Data was analysed using a combination of SAS and SPSS statistical packages. Descriptive statistics was performed on the demographic variables as a means of describing the respondents. The data was tested for internal reliability by calculating the Cronbach's alpha coefficients for the different subscales of each measuring instrument. The data was tested for multicollinearity as a means of assessing whether factor analysis was feasible.

Correlation analysis between the demographic variables and the organisational climate variables, and organisational commitment variables was performed to establish whether any significant correlations existed. Regression analysis between the organisational climate variables and the organisational commitment variables was performed to establish the degree to which the organisational climate facets predict the different organisational commitment facets. Given the nature of the data, in particular the responses (N=46) and the number of predictor variables, partial least squares (PLS) regression was deemed to be the most appropriate method of regression analysis.

The PLS procedure entailed the following steps:

- PLS regression was performed using the organisational climate variables as independent variables and the organisational commitment variables as dependent variables;
- Variables with a Variable Influence on Projection (VIP) statistic < 0.8 were excluded from the analysis;
- PLS regression was re-run to only include variables that satisfied the above-mentioned condition and the number of components determined in step 2.

4.4.2.5 Ethical Considerations

A discussion was held with the head of the IT department explaining the purpose of the study. He requested a formal electronic mail stating the purpose of the research and requested a copy of the final report. The instrument used for measuring the organisational climate is copyrighted and permission was obtained from the authors on the condition that the results are shared with them and that the entire question in the instrument be used. The electronic communications pertaining to the requests are listed in Appendix B. The electronic mail addresses have been removed to ensure confidentiality.

CHAPTER 5 – FINDINGS

"A moment's insight is sometimes worth a life's experience" – Oliver Wendell Holmes

5.1 Introduction

As stated in Chapter 1, the research aimed to explore the perceptions that IT workers in a telecommunications company have of their work environment and its effect on organisational commitment. Two research methods were used, namely qualitative and quantitative methods. The qualitative research aimed to explore the organisational climate with a view of describing the nature of the environment and to highlight possible areas of concern. Secondly, the quantitative research aimed to explore the relationship between the organisational climate and the organisational commitment. This chapter presents the findings of both the qualitative and quantitative research respectively.

5.2 Qualitative Analysis

5.2.1 Presentation and Discussion of Qualitative Findings

The qualitative findings are presented using thematic analysis. Key findings from the various interviews were consolidated. A number of distinct recurring themes were evident across the different participants' responses. Some themes that emerged from the analysis of the interviews were unrelated to the organisational climate, but were considered important due to its influence on the organisational environment.

Gordon and Cummins (1979) argued that the dimensions of organisational climate should not be seen as independent of each other but rather as interdependent and that one dimension cannot be considered in isolation without influencing another. They further suggested that "the development of an overall picture" is critical to the understanding of the findings and that it facilitates the recommendation of the interventions to change the climate (Gordon and Cummins, 1979: 41). Consequently, the findings are presented

in a way that, where possible, highlights the interdependence as suggested by Gordon and Cummins (1979).

The interviews were based on the literature review and centered on the Organisational Climate dimensions listed in Table 2.1. In-depth analysis of the interviews suggested that the perception of the emergent themes were at a departmental rather than an individual level. The following themes emerged from the interviews:

- Theme 1 - Perceived ineffective structure and decision-making;
- Theme 2 - Lack of mistake tolerance;
- Theme 3 - Risk aversion by employees;
- Theme 4 - Recognition and reward systems perceived to be inadequate;
- Theme 5 - Performance management is perceived to be ineffective and inadequate;
- Theme 6 - Employee Share Options Program (ESOP) perceived to have a negative influence on employee behaviours;
- Theme 7 - The nature of the social environment perceived to be unfriendly;
- Theme 8 - Low level of knowledge and skills sharing;
- Theme 9 -Inadequate human resource management practices;

These emergent themes will be explored in more detail in the sections that follow.

5.2.2 Theme 1 – Perceived Ineffective Structure and Decision-Making

A common thread during the interviews was that there was a discouraging tendency in the environment to postpone decision-making for the approval of a higher authority, for fear of making the wrong decisions. Employees in lower levels face numerous constraints attributable to the rigid procedures and an inflexible hierarchy, where management attempted to retain all control. There was a perception of lack of ownership for fear of consequences of decisions made. These are a few comments made in this regard:

> "…you'll find that some of the petty signoffs are done by higher management".
>
> "…people are afraid to make decisions, especially to whom I report".
>
> "You'd be too terrified to make a decision and you'd make sure you have approval in black and white, so if it's questioned you can pass the buck".

The department did not appear to encourage individual decision-making, and there seemed to be a lack of trust and empowerment, with all respondents referring to the need to justify to management why a decision was made. Decision-making was perceived to be easier and more effective at higher levels of the organisation than at the lower levels, attributed to the "amount of detail" that people in lower levels have to deal with. A consequence of the "blurred" structure at lower levels resulted in responsibilities and accountability not being clear. This was also perceived as a source of ambiguity with regard to roles and responsibilities in lower levels. In addition, a common perception was that decision-making was not effective. Respondents felt that a general lack of processes and policies affected decision-making and that shortcomings in these areas consequently led to inefficiencies as described by one respondent:

> "… even doing all the red tape, things don't get done, they are not actioned and not efficient".

Respondents perceived that line managers were however supportive of them to take personal responsibility for projects, but did not "push" them any further. Another respondent mentioned a lack of contingency planning relating to the fulfillment of a manager's responsibility and authority of a manager in his or her absence:

> "For example, if someone goes away, it is not clear who has signing authority".

Structural issues such as an inefficient hierarchy were perceived to be a "waste of resources" and did not allow for "freedom of opinion". Respondents felt that their job descriptions were unclear, resulting in confusion and duplication of effort among team members, as well as across departments. The organisational structure was described as being as "dysfunctional".

Litwin and Stringer (1968: 81) describe structure as “the feelings that employees have about constraints in the group, how many rules, regulations, procedures there are; is the emphasis on “red tape” and going through channels, or is there a loose and informal atmosphere “.

As highlighted by the findings, the perception was that the structure within the department was very restrictive. The structure was characterised by what was interpreted as a lack of authority and accountability, especially within lower levels of the organisation. The perception was that higher management made operational decisions that should be the responsibility of line management. This directly affected the performance outcomes of employees at lower levels of the department.

In addition to this perceived lack of authority and accountability, respondents perceived the roles and responsibilities of people within the organisation to be unclear. A majority of respondents felt that jobs lacked variety and that tasks were broken up into too small segments. This could lead to employees becoming bored and not having a sense of meaningfulness. This lack of meaningfulness of jobs could in turn influence individuals’ sense of coherence and consequently their salutogenesis, as proposed by Antonovsky (1979).

It was generally felt that the reporting hierarchy restricted the effective implementation and achievement of departmental and organisational strategies and goals. The structure was described as promoting a “functional silo” effect. The perception was that communication within the organisation, particularly between departments was inadequate. Furnham and Gunter (1993) relate ineffective communication to an ineffective structure that restricts the flow of communication within an organisation. They further point out that an ineffective communication system may seriously affect the organisational performance. As highlighted by Porter et al. (1987), the communication regarding expectations to individuals may further affect organisational effectiveness. Ineffective communication may therefore result in individuals within the organisation not knowing what is expected of them. Consequently, this may affect the performance of individuals directly.

The perception was that employees were not given the opportunity to "push the boundaries" and that such opportunities were given to contracting employees and consultants. This situation represents the converse of what Handy (cited in Nel et. al., 2004: 384) proposes for the survival of organisations in the future. Handy proposes a structure resembling that of an inside-out doughnut, with a solid core representing essential business and offering scope for initiatives, and the outer space consisting of a flexible band of subcontractors, advisors and part-time workers. The core would consist of permanent employees who are allowed a great deal of discretion and authority. Conversely, the outer space would have less discretion and authority. The findings indicated that permanent employees in the organisation are not perceived to be at the core and that they are perceived to lack discretion and authority.

5.2.3 Theme 2 - Lack of mistake tolerance

Overall, respondents perceived the organisation to have a low level of mistake tolerance. This resulted in people within the organisation refraining from taking any kind of risks due to possible repercussions associated with taking these risks. The common perception was that when things go wrong, there was a tendency towards "finger pointing", as stated by 3 of the respondents:

> "But when things go wrong, they want to knock you, instead of mentoring you…or acknowledging what has been done right".
>
> "Mistake tolerance is not very good".
>
> "Management comes down on you like a ton of bricks when things go wrong".

At higher levels of management, mistake tolerance was perceived to be better than at the operational level. Management at a higher level was thought to have a clearer idea of the bigger picture.

Ryan (cited in Thongsukmag, 2003: 28) defines fear in the workplace as "feeling threatened by possible repercussions as a result of speaking up about

work-related concerns. These feelings of threat may come from four sources: actual experience, stories about others' experiences, assumptions and interpretations of others' behaviour, and negative, culturally based stereotypes about those with supervisory power".

Wolfford et al. (cited in Thongsukmag, 2003: 28) argue that prolonged fear can possibly cause "maladaptive behavioural psychological and somatic responses to stressors", which is known as strain. People generally associated fear with negative emotions that may hinder organisational as well as individual development (Thongsukmag, 2003).

Thongsukmag (2003) on the other hand cite theories such as McGregor's Theory X, which uses fear of being reprimanded, and Blake and Mouton's managerial grid theory which uses "fear of disapproval" as a motivation factor to keep employees in line. The fear elicited by the latter theory relates to the human relations side of people, which seeks to avoid being personally rejected.

Respondents in this research felt that fear as a result of the organisation's low mistake tolerance prevented them from exploring new areas of interest and resulted in employees avoiding taking risks. Consequently, this fear stifled employees' creativity and other characteristics favourable to effective organisational functioning. Deming (1982) in his fourteen steps for improving management explicitly deals with driving out fear in the workplace. Deming argues that fear of negative consequences by employees result in them not expressing ideas, questioning policies or taking a stance with regard to their responsibilities could lead to poor performance resulting in the organisation realising economic losses.

Gibb (cited in Thongsukmag, 2003: 35) posited that pervading fears in organisations could result in a hostile work environment that shows itself in behaviours such as "ambiguity, tight control, talent threat and depersonalised role behaviour". Gibb brands this as defensive behaviour, defined as

"behaviour which occurs when an individual perceives threat or anticipates threat in the group".

5.2.4 Theme 3 – Risk Aversion by Employees

As noted in the previous theme, individuals in the organisation were commonly perceived to be risk averse. This was however not the case across the organisation. Respondents perceived senior management at the organisational level to be more venturesome than those employees at lower levels. This follows directly on and is related to a generally perceived lack of mistake tolerance. Top management at an organisational level were perceived to be very risk tolerant and that risks are normally taken after considering all the facts. This risk tolerance did not filter down due to structural constraints imposed by "controls and policies" and "red tape". At lower levels, it seemed that management was more concerned with micro-managing. Risk taking was seen as possibly career limiting. One respondent thought that individuals were not encouraged to take risks, and would do so independently:

> "…they do it at their own expense. It's only a special person who would do that, who would step out of their comfort zone".

Another respondent suggested:

> "…if you're concerned about security and the long term journey with the organisation, then you wouldn't do that".

There was a perception of fear to take risks, as well as excessive caution to ensure that all your tracks were covered if things did go wrong. There seemed to be a lack of management support in risk taking, which stifled creativity and innovation in the lower levels of the organisation.

Risk tolerance directly influences what Gordon and Cummins (1979) define as organisational vitality. They define organisational vitality as "the extent to which people see the organisation as a dynamic one, as reflected by the venturesomeness of its goals, innovativeness of its decisions, and the responsiveness to changing conditions".

At a top management level, the organisation was perceived positively with regard to organisation vitality. This innovativeness and venturesomeness, however was not filtered down to the lower levels of the department.

5.2.5 Theme 4 - Recognition and Reward Systems perceived to be inadequate

Individuals within the department perceived the organisation's recognition and reward systems as inadequate and that there was no linkage between the two systems. A common perception was that "good work" was not recognised nor adequately rewarded and the communication relating to organisational performance was superficial.

Respondents felt that peer recognition within the department was not encouraged nor was the organisation's recognition program perceived to be credible:

> "there isn't a lot of honest recognition".

> "no, you just need to do what you're expected to do… because no one knows and no one cares" .

This appeared to discourage employees from applying any extra effort over and above what was required.

However, this was not the case for all departments as can be seen from a comment made by one of the interviewees about the finance department:

> "Top performers are compensated with time off: They [finance] do give people off days".

This was not common in the IT department. Some respondents indicated that non-monetary intrinsic rewards would create a sense of satisfaction for them:

> "If the monetary reward is not ok, I know I've upped my technical skills".

Recognition and reward form an integral part of an organisation's compensation system and should be aligned with an organisation's strategic initiatives. Risher (cited in Nel et al., 2004: 269) argues that current compensation systems are designed to support bureaucratic structures, which focus on jobs in isolation to each other. In other words, it rewards practices that do not promote teamwork, and consequently lead to "the silo" effect within and across departments. As we move into an era that recognises people as being the only sustainable competitive advantage (Hale and Bailey cited in Nel et al, 2004: 270), organisations should devise compensation systems that elicit behaviours that are favourable to organisational goals. Risher points out that when individuals are rewarded for old behaviours that are no longer relevant to the attaining of organisational goals, they are unlikely to adopt new more relevant behaviours. Thus, any organisational initiative aimed at changing behaviours should consider assessing the compensation system. McClune (cited in Nel et al., 2004: 268) argues that compensation systems must be able to attract, retain and motivate good employees. Newman and Kzystofiak (cited in Nel et al., 2004: 270) support this view and suggest further that compensation systems should be seen as a value-creating function, which seeks to sustain membership, motivate performance, build employee commitment, and encourage growth in employees' skills.

The research findings indicated that most of the elements discussed above are inadequately addressed by the current reward and recognition practices within the department. The compensation system was seen as unimaginative, focusing only on monetary reward, and not catering for different employee needs. Other non-monetary rewards, such as fringe benefits, that the company offered were implicitly converted to a monetary value. This was indicative of the nature of the psychological contract that employees had with the organisation. Robert and Rousseau (cited in Soma, 2003) describe this type of psychological contract as transactional, emphasising a "money comes first" attitude where employees are more concerned about remuneration and other personal benefits than being a good organisational citizen or going "the extra mile" in accomplishing organisational goals.

The compensation system fell short of eliciting the types of behaviour described above in Nel et al. (2004). Nel et al. (2004:233-234) cite various motivation theories arguing that people "are motivated by internal feelings of accomplishment, capability, and competency – not just extrinsic rewards, such as food, water, acceptance and financial well-being. Money is a motivator, but not the only and most powerful source of self-motivation". Consequently they cite Lawler who argues that any organisational design efforts that fail to emphasise intrinsic rewards fail to "tap into a very powerful source of motivation that can lead individuals to perform at extraordinary levels".

Gordon and Cummins (1979) argue that negative perception in this area could result from the perception of employees in the organisation that their compensation is on par with their job performance and responsibilities. This could result in employees feeling as if they were unfairly treated.

5.2.6 Theme 5 - Performance management is perceived to be ineffective and inadequate

Ineffectiveness and inadequacy of performance management within the department surfaced as a salient theme within this research. This inadequacy was partly ascribed to the performance management system's incongruence with the reward and recognition systems. Although the aim of the research was focused at a departmental level, reference was also made to performance management at an organisational level.

The organisation places high emphasis on performance at a corporate level with references to market share, profitability and revenue growth. However, the interviews revealed that the perception was that performance management at an individual level is inadequate and ineffective. Common criticism was that the score attained in the performance appraisal was not directly linked to salary increases; instead the performance management was perceived as not being transparent and was subjective with the possibility of allowing for favouritism. Respondents stated:

> "…it is not linked with reward".

"…does not determine what percentage increase you get".

"… it is how you are perceived by your manager".

"... I have no faith in it".

The lack of autonomy and authority by management with regard to rating individuals was questionable, as the system did not particularly favour excellent performance. It appeared that ownership of the performance management system lay with the human resources department, as opposed to line management.

The rating scale used in the performance appraisal used values from zero to four, with zero being the lowest possible score, indicative of non-performance, and a four implying outstanding performance and exceeding all expectations. Performance management within the organisation has been described as ambiguous and subjective not allowing managers sufficient authority and autonomy. One respondent related the following de-motivating experience during her appraisal:

> "I was marked down even though my manager said I deserved higher scores. They say nobody deserves a three because there is always room for improvement… So I decided that I won't put my all into it ever again".

Mentoring and coaching were aspects of performance management that were perceived to be lacking. Respondents felt that if the performance management system worked as it was intended to, it would be encouraging:

> "I think if they want to take a more active approach, then they should mentor you on a monthly basis, which then manages your performance and how you are doing. The next level then is the mentoring… but this is not in place".

> "…it rewards you for what you've done and encourages you to do better and better…it is a review of the quality of your output to

> determine… a suitable increase, a suitable bonus, based on your work performance".

At a corporate level, the good performance of the organisation was perceived to be the result of favourable market conditions rather than the sum of individual contributions. One respondent summarised this perception as follows:

> "They do not have new ideas. But for now irrespective of whether you work well or not, the market is doing well and the company is doing well. The market compensates for that".

This was ascribed to the fact that the organisation operates in a sector that has been regulated up to recently, when the government initiated the deregulation. Overall, performance management was negatively perceived within the organisation.

Gordon and Cummins (1979) suggest that negative perceptions (low scores) of performance management may indicate that accountability is diffused and indefinite with no one being clearly responsible for producing specific results. Their suggestion emphasises the finding relating to the "Ineffective Structure and Decision-Making" theme discussed earlier. Gordon and Cummins (1979: 38) further point out that if "accountability is unclear, failure to accomplish the expected results have little, if any, effect upon the individual responsible". They warn that this may be a result of a "danger signal" of the organisation's inability to tie individual performance to organisational goals. They further attribute possible lack of performance to operational decisions being made at the inappropriate levels within an organisation, and suggest that employees dealing with operational issues be empowered to make those decisions that affect their outcomes.

5.2.7 Theme 6 - Employee Share Options Program (ESOP) Perceived to have a Negative Influence on Employee Behaviours

No explicit questions relating to ESOP were asked in the interviews. However, it emerged as a pervasive theme, and all respondents mentioned the organisation's ESOP as an area of concern. The ESOP was commonly perceived as being associated with a general lack of communication regarding the scheme:

> "There is a lot of vagueness around (ESOP). There is not enough communication".

The ESOP was perceived to have an overall negative effect on the organisation and its members. Respondents perceived employees to be oblivious as to "what it was all about" and did not comprehend the ownership aspect of the program. It was seen more as an "entitlement" rather than ownership:

> "People feel that just by being here for these years they are entitled to it".

Employees were perceived to have attached a purely monetary value to the program, which consequently affected their relationship with the organisation in a negative way:

> "Those who have been around for a long while feel trapped that they should stay that it is worth it monetarily".

The ESOP was perceived as eliciting some kind of a conformance and has been described as "golden hand cuffs". Employees were perceived to fear negative consequences that may result if they should "challenge upwards" and "step out of line":

> "There is intent to keep a dangling carrot, but you don't know if it is a carrot or a stick to keep you in line, so you do not leave".

This kind of conformance was perceived to have an adverse effect on the organisation. One respondent perceived it as being a mistake by the organisation. The fact that it was not linked to performance management and the negative perceptions of performance management within the organisation

led respondents to perceive negative consequences in terms of individual growth:

> "…people either grow or they go. [the organisation] has stifled that growth, and the desire to leave, 'caus in staying until then [end of 2008] there is a reward. So you have lots of dead wood staying. People are trapped in the comfort zone until then…"

In seeking to balance the interest of various stakeholders, organisations may choose to introduce ESOPs as a means recognising employees as an important group of stakeholders. The relevant organisation introduced a broad based ESOP as a means of recognising its staff's contribution.

However, the general perception regarding the ESOP was that it was "detrimental" to the organisation. Overall, it was seen as a program that did not elicit affective commitment but rather a continuance type of commitment, as suggested by Meyer And Allen (1991), and emphasised a transactional relationship with the organisation, that focused on monetary value, between the employee and the organisation.

According to Hellriegel et al. (2002), incentive schemes such as ESOPs may increase employee motivation and commitment, but only if they are linked to desired individual behaviours. Heinfeldt and Curcio (1997) studied the impact of companies' employee management strategies on their financial performance. They considered the impact of a firm's compensation strategies, human relations strategies, and its ability to challenge and motivate employees on its financial performance. Their results indicated that as the number of outstanding shares controlled by employees through an ESOP increased, the firm's financial performance, as measured by excess values, decreased. They justified this result by asserting that a possible reason could be that as employees' ownership within the company increased, employees may start to "feather their own nest" or squander resources for their own benefit.

Mchugh, Cutcher-Gershenfeld and Bridge (2005) used the conceptualisation of ownership as a multidimensional construct consisting of the right to influence, information, and equity, to determine what the relationship between ownership attributes and managerial perception of performance was. Their study found that employee influences on operational decisions with employee-owners had a positive impact of managerial perceived financial performance of the firm. Based on their findings they suggest that ESOP firms wanting to increase economic performance should consider increasing the opportunities for employee-owners to influence operational decisions, as well as develop extensive ESOP communication programs.

Although the relevant organisation did not intend introducing a broad based ESOP as a motivational strategy, this research suggests that it had negative employee behavioural implications for the organisation. The findings suggest that employees felt trapped within the organisation and that the perceived cost of leaving the organisation would be too high. The situation that some employees found themselves in is typical of quadrant 2 in Figure 2.5. The findings suggest that many of the characteristics proposed by Porter, Lawler and Hackman (1987) are present. In addition, employees finding themselves in the situation described could potentially experience decreased cognitive ability (Frias and Schaie, 2001).

A possible solution would be for the organisation to establish an extensive communication program to educate employees, and to link the incentive to organisationally relevant behaviours. The organisation should consider revising the decision-making hierarchy in an attempt to empower employees to make operational decisions. This could possibly serve as a vehicle for strategic cultural change within the organisation.

5.2.8 Theme 7 – The nature of the social environment perceived to be unfriendly

The social relationships between people were generally seen as very formal, strictly professional and political in nature. One respondent highlighted a constant “infighting between contractors and permanent employees” and that

this contributed to the formation of a more political environment. Relationships were generally characterised by a lack of the trust:

> "When guys say things, you wonder what the ulterior motives are".

The lack of trust on the other hand was perceived as the cause of the lack of empowerment resulting in a lack of knowledge and skills sharing.

Relationships between staff members on the same level (horizontal) were perceived to be fairly good whereas manager-subordinate (vertical) type relationships were not perceived to be favourable. These manager-subordinate relationships were seen as a source of fear that resulted in employees "lying low" or "feeling threatened".

The majority of the respondents felt that the organisation did not have a warm and caring environment, and did not cater for the emotional needs of staff.
It was felt that caring was something that the human resources department should do, but instead there was avoidance of softer issues:

> "they outsource it to some TLC company, and the buck is passed".

There was also a sense of tension within the environment:

> "but you feel the animosity between groups, departments, management and staff".

This respondent also alluded to the fact that the lack of focus on people by the organisation led to a feeling of "they don't care, why should I".

One respondent gave a contrasting perspective, and felt that since it was a corporate environment, it would be inappropriate to expect a warm and caring environment. The type of relationship experienced by most respondents was purely professional, indicative of a purely transactional relationship.

There was a general perception of a lack of trust, and that people who did show any affection had ulterior motives, as aptly put by a respondent:

“Everyone thinks that everybody wants to stab them in the back”.

There was also a lack of trust portrayed in the way decision–making was handled, as previously discussed.

As highlighted by the findings, the social relationships, especially vertical relationships, were perceived as very formal, strictly professional and political in nature. They were characterised by constant infighting between permanent employees and contractors, and a general lack of trust. Horizontal relationships however, were perceived to be more favourable than the vertical relationships within the organisation.

As indicated in the literature review, high quality vertical relationships could potentially be a source of job satisfaction, and the integration of employee values and goals with that of the organisation to be a source of commitment. Additionally, co-worker integration provides opportunities for social reward and consequently leads to job satisfaction. Consequently, high degrees of social involvement and psychological attachment to the work situation may then lead to organisational commitment (Lance, 1991). The literature further indicates that a lack of trust could affect social relationships in a negative way.

The nature of the social environment within the organisation does not promote any of the qualities that are suggested by the literature. This affects employees’ job satisfaction and commitment to the organisation in a negative way.

5.2.9 Theme 8 – Low level of Knowledge and Skills sharing

The general perception was that the department was lacking in the area of getting employees to share knowledge and skills. One respondent described the departmental environment as one that that did not encourage teamwork and that there was an absence of a shared vision. It was also suggested that it was because of the individualistic nature of organisational members:

> “We don’t have a shared vision. We operate individually in the area we are responsible for”.

Another possible reason perceived to contribute to the lack of knowledge sharing was the excessive use of contractors. The perception was that the organisational structure and processes favoured the hiring of contractors, who were perceived to "just take over". The perception was that contractors were hired to perform more meaningful work than permanent employees, and there was a perceived reluctance by contractors to share their knowledge with permanent employees.

A lack of coaching, empowerment and succession planning by management was also seen as further contributing to the low knowledge and skills sharing within the organisation. One respondent mentioned that management was more interested in negative management than coaching and mentoring staff to guide them in the right direction:

> "…when things go wrong they want to knock you, instead of mentoring you and saying this is how you should do it, or acknowledging what has been done right".

Another respondent alluded to management not wanting to transfer knowledge for reasons relating to job protection:

> "if I empower you, where do I go".

Holstshouse (cited in Nel et al., 2004: 475) argues that "the systematic capturing, re-use, and retention of knowledge through voluntary sharing remains the primary organisational challenge". Holstshouse suggests that organisations should create work environments with a culture and incentives that are conducive to sharing, and that these organisations should support that environment with improved work processes and technology. Holstshouse relates proactive sharing to performance by arguing that best performers are "proactive sharers" and the lowest performers are "hoarders", who associate knowledge sharing to the loss of power.

These behaviours are all directly influenced by the organisations' performance management and rewards and recognition system. These organisational

practices are geared towards rewarding the type of behaviours that do not promote knowledge sharing.

5.2.10 Theme 9 - Inadequate human resource management practices

There were a variety of responses as to how the interviewees perceived human resources management practices within the department. Some respondents felt that their work was no longer challenging, and resorted to extra-mural activities within the company to find fulfillment. Some felt that certain areas were over-resourced, whereas other areas were described as being under-resourced and required them to perform varying roles. This indicates possible uneven workload and resource distribution within the department. The work environment was perceived as having a lack of skills and standards, ineffective feedback from management, not following-up and lack of commitment by employees. People in the organisation were perceived as having low ambition and were not keen on personal development. This led to a sense of complacency with people doing the bare minimum.

> "… you wonder whether all those people have something to do, or … are they breaking down what they have so that everyone will have something to do."

> "we put on different caps because of resource problems, and I'm not too phased by that because I like variety..".

> "…a person can get away with doing nothing for 3 years".

The main concerns of interviewees related to recruitment and promotion. The following sections discuss these areas.

5.2.10.1 Recruitment

The aim of organisational recruitment practices was perceived as not being aligned with the organisational goals. It was highlighted that recruitment was political in nature in that it focused on recruiting employees that could easily be controlled as opposed to employees with the proper competencies and characteristics favourable for achieving organisational goals. In addition, the process was perceived to be one of "just getting people into positions" as opposed to focusing on a proper person-job fit. Another point raised was that external recruitment was sometimes considered before due consideration was

given to potential internal recruitment. Consequently internal candidates felt unfairly treated, and were unwilling to support new recruits:

> "They won't give that person support; they will undermine and do everything they can to make that person look like a stupid person".

An area of concern was one relating to the perception of the organisation's practices regarding contractors. It was felt that contractors had free reign and that there was no process in place to determine their boundaries. Their relationship with the organisation was described as transactional in nature, focusing only on the monetary rewards and lacking a long-term perspective.

> "Contractors, contracting houses are just pumping people in, because of no process and structure; they just seem to take over. This is a problem... There is no structure, so they just take over and do their own thing, since they don't have a long-term vision… The reward for contractors is putting in time, and that relates to money, purely money".

5.2.10.2 Promotion System

Although the structure was perceived to be clear at higher levels of the organisation, the general perception was that there was vagueness around levels and grading of jobs. It was felt that employees did not know what competencies and characteristics were required to get from one level to the next:

> "… I didn't even know what my grade is, so how can I go to the next level if they won't tell me that?"

Additionally, there was a lack of proposed training interventions that would allow an employee to acquire the necessary skills to be considered for promotion. In some cases, people in specialist roles did not have proper vertical paths that would enable them to move into management positions.

The human resource development was generally perceived as unfavourable with regard to promotions, recruitment and career development. Internal recruitment opportunities were seen as not being given due consideration with the aim of promoting internal candidates. The findings indicated that a lack of developmental and promotional opportunities for employees could lead to the organisation losing some of it most ambitious employees. The lack of

developmental and promotional opportunities was compounded with a lack of mentoring and coaching by management. This could be a consequence of the organisation not encouraging its employees to take up broader responsibilities.

Gordon and Cummins (1979) argue that negative perceptions in areas such as development could be indicative that other areas, such as performance management, are not functioning optimally and that there is low emphasis on developing employees. They, however warn against career development that is misdirected and not aimed at attaining current or future organisational goals.

As suggested by the literature, individual perceptions of organisational climate and consequently the human resources practices depend largely on how individuals feel about the organisation and its practices (Guion, and Johannesson cited in Ashforth, 1985: 841). Dissatisfied employees may perceive the climate as unfriendly, and may behave negatively. As a result of this dissatisfaction, these employees may impact other areas such as external recruitment. The findings indicated that perceived lack of fairness with regard to the external recruitment process might affect aspects of newcomer socialisation negatively. Additionally, these early negative experiences within the organisation may have an impact on the psychological contract between the organisation and the newcomers. As suggested by Ruscia (cited in Bruce, 2000), the psychological contract is a set of economic and normative expectations developed by the employee when he/she enters the organisation and is grounded in trust which forms the foundation for social relationships and social order (Feldheim cited in Bruce, 2000). Consequently, these early negative experiences may in turn affect the newcomers' attitude towards the organisation in a negative way and could defeat the purpose of doing external recruitment, as a means of bringing new ideas and different perspectives to the organisation.

5.3 Quantitative Analysis

5.3.1 Introduction

This section presents the findings of the quantitative research. First the response rate and possible reason for the response will be given. Secondly, the demographic variables of the sample are described. Lastly, the relationship between organisational climate and organisational commitment is explored.

5.3.2 Response Rate

The survey was administered to one hundred participants within the population. A total of forty-five questionnaires were received back. Given the low response rate the researcher followed up on non-responses by email and personal request. A further six questionnaires were obtained. Of the fifty-one questionnaires received five questionnaires were deemed unusable due to incomplete data and were discarded, resulting in a forty-six percent response rate.

Upon follow-up, various reasons were given for the lack of responses. The low response rate was attributed to the following reasons:

- The organisation was annually subjected to a number of similar surveys. The perception regarding these surveys was that they did not result in any actions on the part of the organisation.
- At the time of the research the organisation was going through a restructuring and people were reluctant to respond to any form of surveys.
- The time of the research also coincided with the organisation's financial year-end and peak trading period resulting in various operational pressures.

Given the reasons above the response rate was deemed adequate.

5.3.3 Statistical Analysis

The statistical analysis includes the following:

- Descriptive statistics on the demographic variables
- Reliability testing using Cronbach alpha coefficients for the two measurement instruments
- Analysis of variance (ANOVA) to establish whether there are any relationships between the demographic variables and the organisational commitment construct as the theory suggests
- Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) and Bartlett's test of sphericity to test the measuring sample adequacy (MSA), depending on the MSA factor analysis using the principle component analysis
- Pearson Correlation and Regression analysis to establish whether there are relationships between the two main constructs of the research and what the nature of the relationship between the two constructs are.

5.3.3.1 Descriptive Statistics

The frequency distributions of the various demographic variables as well as the mean scores for the subscales of the different instruments are contained in Appendix C. Demographic variables that were included in this research were:

- Age
- Gender
- Highest Level of Education
- Total Number of Years Employed
- Organisational Tenure
- Race
- Role

The section that follows describes the respondents in terms of these demographic variables.

5.3.3.1.1 Age

Table C.1 represents the age distribution of the respondents. Respondents were grouped into the following five age groups:

- 25 or less
- 26 to 30
- 31 to 35
- 36-40
- 41 or older.

The largest single age group was between 31 and 35 years making up 32.61% of the respondents, followed by 30.43% aged between 26 and 30 years. The smallest age group accounted for 6.52% of the population and were under 26 years. The remaining 30.43% of the respondents were older than 36 years.

5.3.3.1.2 Gender

Table C.2 represents the gender distribution of the respondents. Females accounted for 34.78% of the respondents while males made up the remaining 65.22%.

5.3.3.1.3 Highest Level of Education

Table C.3 represents the highest level of education of the respondents. The level of education was grouped into the five groups listed below:

- High School
- College (Diploma)
- Technicon Diploma
- Bachelors Degree
- Post Graduate.

University qualifications were held by 53.33% of respondents of which 40% had a Bachelors degree and 13.33% had a Post Graduate qualification. Respondents with a College diploma made up 22.22% while those with Technicon diplomas made up 11.11%. 13.33% of respondents had no formal qualification at a tertiary level.

5.3.3.1.4 Total Number of Years Employed

Table C.4 represents the total number of years employed for the respondents. The years employed were grouped into the five groups listed below:

- 0-5
- 6-10
- 11-15
- 16-20
- 21 or more

The largest group of respondents had working experience of between 0 and 5 years and accounted for 26.09% of the responses. This was followed by two groups who had working experience of between 6 and 10 years and 11 and 15 years, respectively, each accounting for 23.91% of the responses. 19.57% of respondents had a working experience of between 16 and 20 years and 6.52% of respondents had working experience of more than 20 years.

5.3.3.1.5 Organisational Tenure

Table C.5 represents the organisational tenure for the respondents. The organisational tenure was grouped into the four groups listed below:

- 0-2
- 3-5
- 6-8
- 9 or more

The largest group of respondents had been with the organisation between 3 and 5 years and accounted for 42.22% of the responses. This was followed by the group that had been with the organisation between 0 and 2 years who accounted for 35.56% of the responses. The two remaining groups who had been with the organisation between 6 and 8 years, and more than 8 years, respectively accounted for 22.22% of the responses.

5.3.3.2 Mean Scores for OCQ and OCM$^{(R)}$

Table C.8 contains the means score for the dimensions of the OCQ. Affective commitment scored the highest (3.062) followed by continuance commitment (2.7319) and lastly normative commitment (2.5870). These scores are represented graphically by Graph 5.1.

Graph 5.1: Organisational Commitment Profile

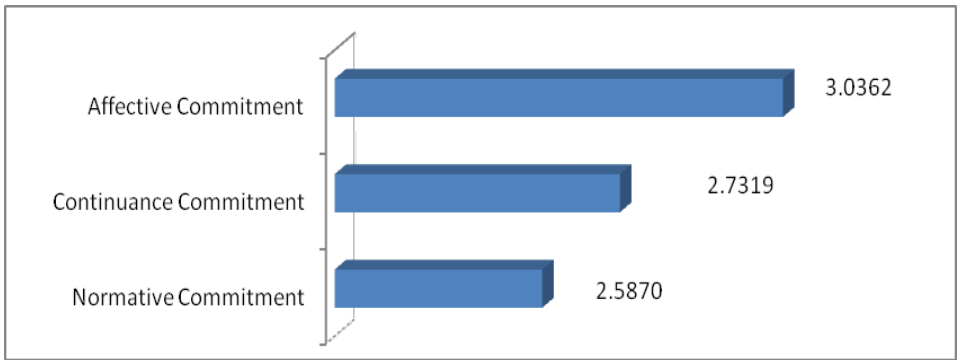


Table C.9 contains the mean scores for the dimensions of the OCM® as well as CVF Factor that the dimensions belong to. All of the mean scores for the different dimensions are below low 3, except for the Pressure to Produce dimension, indicating a below average rating for all these dimensions. Graph 5.2 presents the Organisational Climate Profile graphically.

Graph 5.2: Organisational Climate Profile by OCM(R) Dimensions

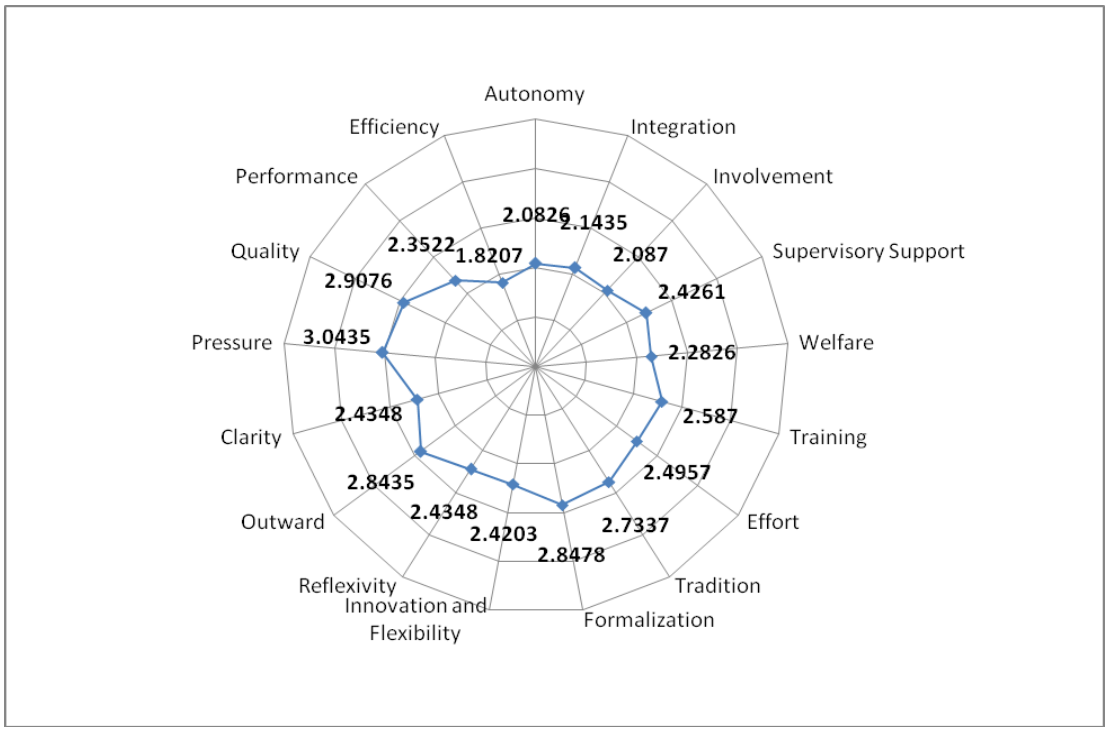
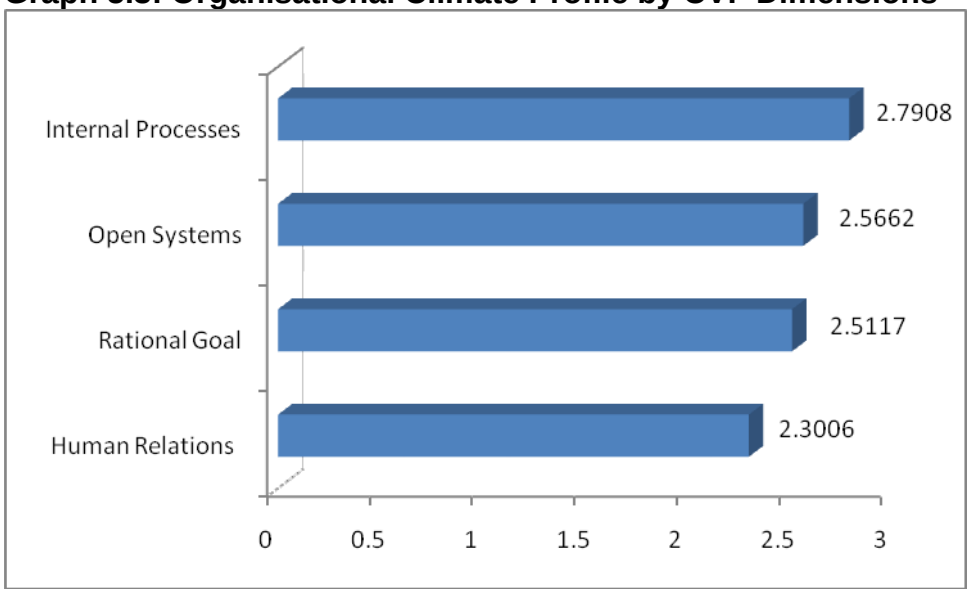


Table C.10 presents the average of the mean scores contained in Table C.9, grouped by the different factors of the CVF. Graph 5.3 indicates each of the CVF factors relative to each other. The profile indicates the highest average

score for the Internal Process dimension and the lowest average score to the Human Relations dimension.

Graph 5.3: Organisational Climate Profile by CVF Dimensions



5.3.3.3 Reliability

Table 5.1 and Table 5.2 present the internal consistency of each of the organisational commitment and organisational climate scales as measured by the Cronbach alpha coefficient. Nunnally (1978: 245) recommends that instruments used in research have reliability of about 0.70 or better. Based on the composite Cronbach alpha values for the subscales, this criterion was satisfied except for the autonomy and performance subscales of the organisational climate scales.

Table 5.1: Cronbach Alpha for Composite Organisational Climate Scales

Subscale	Cronbach Alpha (Raw)	Cronbach Alpha Standardized
Welfare	0.880458	0.882950
Clarity of Organisational Goals	0.859827	0.861225
Autonomy	0.671623	0.676456
Efficiency	0.745645	0.772135
Innovation	0.759953	0.761504
Integration	0.811385	0.812582
Involvement	0.779573	0.796358
Outward Focus	0.776533	0.762155
Performance	0.560772	0.564587
Pressure	0.781697	0.787521
Quality	0.725464	0.729626
Reflexivity	0.731001	0.727525
Supervisory Support	0.890140	0.890757
Tradition	0.732495	0.743772
Training	0.775733	0.790806
Effort	0.802195	0.806470
Formalization	0.644075	0.642984

5.3.3.4 Factor Analysis

In order to assess whether factor analysis would be appropriate given the large number of variables and the few responses, the data was screened for multicollinearity using the Variance Inflation Factor (VIF) and tolerance in regression. Table 5.2 and 5.3 presents the multicollinearity statistics for the organisational climate and organisational commitment response, respectively.

As can be seen from Table 5.2, the tolerance statistics for the organisational climate variables are all relatively close to zero, indicating a high degree of multicollinearity. The tolerance statistics for organisation commitment appears to be better for organisational climate. However, the overall Kaiser's Measure of Sampling Adequacy (MSA) for organisational commitment was found to be 0.3934. This indicates that factor and regression analysis may be problematic. This shortcoming was addressed by applying Partial Least Squares (PLS) Regression as opposed to Multiple Linear Regression, to assess the relationship between the constructs.

Table 5.2: Multicollinearity Statistics for Organisational Climate

Subscale	R^2	Tolerance	VIF
Autonomy	0.759	0.241	4.156
Clarity	0.705	0.295	3.391
Efficiency	0.615	0.385	2.594
Effort	0.538	0.462	2.163
Formalization	0.504	0.496	2.015
Innovation	0.745	0.255	3.919
Integration	0.750	0.250	3.994
Involvement	0.873	0.127	7.896
Outward	0.716	0.284	3.518
Performance	0.670	0.330	3.032
Pressure	0.681	0.319	3.131
Quality	0.696	0.304	3.294
Reflexivity	0.763	0.237	4.222
Supervisory Support	0.588	0.412	2.427
Tradition	0.773	0.227	4.403
Training	0.632	0.368	2.719
Welfare	0.667	0.333	3.007

Table 5.3: Multicollinearity Statistics for Organisational Commitment

Subscale	R^2	Tolerance	VIF
Affective	0.531	0.469	2.131
Continuance	0.199	0.801	1.248
Normative	0.570	0.430	2.324

5.3.3.5 Demographic Variables

In order to assess the relationship between the demographic variables and organisational commitment Spearman's correlation analysis was performed. The results indicate that none of the demographic variables used in the study had a significant correlation on any of the organisational commitment variables.

5.3.3.6 Correlation Between Organisational Climate Variables and Organisational Commitment Variables

The research question regarding the correlation between the organisational climate and organisational commitment variable was addressed by means of Pearson's Product Moment as presented in Table 5.4.

All of the organisational climate variables except efficiency, effort, performance, and outward focus were significantly correlated with two of the organisational commitment variables, namely affective commitment and normative commitment. There were no significant correlations between continuance commitment and any of organisational climate variables. All organisational climate variables that were significantly correlated to the organisational commitment variables had a moderate correlation at either significant levels of 0.05 or 0.01.

Table 5.4: Pearson Correlation Matrix for the organisational climate and organisational commitment variables

Subscale		Affective	Continuance	Normative
Integration	**Pearson Correlation**	.342(*)	0.102	.410(**)
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.02	0.5	0.005
Pressure	**Pearson Correlation**	-.369(*)	0.005	-.410(**)
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.012	0.975	0.005
Efficiency	**Pearson Correlation**	0.198	0.065	0.273
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.186	0.666	0.066
Training	**Pearson Correlation**	.321(*)	-0.119	0.189
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.03	0.429	0.209
Innovation	**Pearson Correlation**	.400(**)	0.104	.432(**)
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.006	0.493	0.003
Supervisory Support	**Pearson Correlation**	.603(**)	0.079	.408(**)
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0	0.602	0.005
Effort	**Pearson Correlation**	0.004	-0.095	-0.058
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.978	0.531	0.7
Reflexivity	**Pearson Correlation**	.505(**)	0.26	.590(**)
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0	0.081	0
Clarity	**Pearson Correlation**	.451(**)	0.081	.426(**)
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.002	0.594	0.003
Performance	**Pearson Correlation**	0.234	0.11	0.18
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.118	0.467	0.23
Involvement	**Pearson Correlation**	.469(**)	-0.065	.397(**)
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.001	0.668	0.006
Autonomy	**Pearson Correlation**	.436(**)	-0.122	.346(*)
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.002	0.421	0.018
Formalization	**Pearson Correlation**	0.136	-0.061	-0.092
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.366	0.689	0.543
Outward	**Pearson Correlation**	0.238	0.09	0.17
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.112	0.553	0.258
Welfare	**Pearson Correlation**	.536(**)	-0.071	.679(**)
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0	0.637	0
Tradition	**Pearson Correlation**	-.499(**)	0.016	-.404(**)
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0	0.917	0.005

* Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

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

5.3.3.7 The Degree to which Organisational Climate Facets Predict Organisational Commitment Facets

In order to address the research question regarding the degree to which the organisational climate facets predict the different organisational commitment facets, PLS regression analysis was performed. According to Hoyle (1999), PLS is a variance-based regression approach that focuses on predictive modelling and places minimal demands on sample size and residual distribution (Wold cited in Hoyle, 1999: 313). This method could be used in theory confirmation as well as suggesting relationships between independent and dependent variables. PLS varies from multiple linear regression in that it uses variation in both the independent as well as the dependent variables to predict the dependent variables. Multiple linear regression only uses the variation in the independent variable to predict the dependent variable. Additionally, high collinearity in the set of independent variables presents the traditional multiple linear regression and canonical correlation analysis with potential problems.

The PLS regression using the Cross Validations (CV) method was used to determine the number of significant factors for the model. The CV method described by Wold (1985) was used.

Table 5.5 and 5.6 present the results of the PLS CV procedure that was produced using SAS statistical software. The results show that two significant factors were extracted for the preliminary PLS model for organisational climate and organisational commitment.

The PLS procedure was re-run in order to limit the number of significant factors to two, as suggested by the PLS CV procedure. The factor scores and weights produced in this iteration of the PLS procedure was used to determine the Variable Influence on Projection (VIP) statistics for the independent variables. The VIP statistic can be used as an indicator to assess the contribution of an independent variable in the PLS model. Table 5.7 presents the coefficients and the VIP statistic for each of the organisational climate variables against the organisational commitment variables.

Table 5.5: Split-sample Validation for the Number of Extracted Factors

Number of Extracted Factors Extracted Factors	Root Mean PRESS	T**2	Prob > T**2
0	1.178366	10.759	0.006
1	1.086477	7.2385	0.046
2	1.067772	0	1
3	1.11194	2.1665	0.583
4	1.183934	6.7067	0.061
5	1.203487	5.4729	0.13
6	1.202202	5.591	0.129
7	1.267443	5.5947	0.118
8	1.320964	6.2303	0.073
9	1.363321	6.3554	0.069
10	1.385708	7.3097	0.028
11	1.424504	8.3409	0.012
12	1.443097	9.2676	0.006
13	1.458685	9.8888	0.003
14	1.462174	10.175	0.003
15	1.454768	9.9511	0.003
Minimum root mean PRESS			1.0678
Minimizing number of factors			2
Smallest number of factors with p > 0.1			2

Table 5.6: Percent Variation Accounted for by Partial Least Squares Factors

Number of Extracted Factors	Model Effects		Dependent Variables	
	Current	Total	Current	Total
1	44.6877	44.688	24.6085	24.6085
2	7.7311	52.419	16.3564	40.965

Wold (1995) suggests that variables with a VIP value of less than 0.8 be considered too small and should be considered for deleting from the model. Additionally, the smaller the absolute values of a variable's coefficient the less that variable contributes to the model. Table 5.7 ranks the predictor variables in descending order based on the value of the VIP statistic.

Table 5.7: PLS Regression Coefficients and VIP Values for the Preliminary Model

Predictor Variable	Affective Commitment	Continuance Commitment	Normative Commitment	VIP
Effort	-0.15560	-0.09110	-0.29832	1.44352
Welfare	0.19070	0.07243	0.28963	1.43504
Reflexivity	0.19198	0.07604	0.29761	1.40806
Formalization	-0.12394	-0.07565	-0.24361	1.23482
Supervisory Support	0.11102	0.03115	0.14725	1.07167
Training	-0.04517	-0.04434	-0.12128	1.05218
Involvement	0.03213	-0.01059	0.00462	1.03824
Quality	0.13245	0.04794	0.19656	1.03258
Performance	-0.04635	-0.04265	-0.11893	0.96953
Tradition	-0.06723	-0.00900	-0.07006	0.96919
Clarity	0.10070	0.02957	0.13612	0.93634
Innovation	0.05748	0.00511	0.05490	0.92183
Integration	0.03361	-0.00641	0.01389	0.90037
Outward Focus	-0.03682	-0.03665	-0.09985	0.87745
Pressure	-0.10502	-0.03591	-0.15179	0.85765
Autonomy	0.05313	0.00516	0.05160	0.83611
Efficiency	0.04573	0.01076	0.05665	0.50259

The only organisational climate variable that had a VIP value of less than 0.8 was Efficiency. However, it is also worth noting that all of the coefficients of the organisational climate variables for continuance commitment are relatively small.

Table 5.8: Percent Variation Accounted for by Partial Least Squares Factors for the Preliminary Model

Number of Extracted Factors	Model Effects		Dependent Variables	
	Current	Total		Current
1	44.6877	44.6877	24.6085	24.6085
2	7.7311	52.4188	16.3564	40.9650

The last iteration of the PLS regression excluded the organisational climate variable (Efficiency) with the VIP value of less than 0.8 identified above. The results of the final iteration are shown in Tables 5.9 and 5.10.

Table 5.9: PLS regression coefficients and VIP values for the Final Model

Predictor Variable	Affective Commitment	Continuance Commitment	Normative Commitment	VIP
Welfare	0.19321	0.07013	0.29158	1.41269
Effort	-0.15241	-0.08592	-0.29199	1.37635
Reflexivity	0.19124	0.07183	0.2935	1.36893
Formalization	-0.12307	-0.07248	-0.24205	1.1971
Supervisory Support	0.11092	0.02898	0.14455	1.05655
Training	-0.04287	-0.04191	-0.11807	1.01938
Involvement	0.03679	-0.00835	0.01157	1.00886
Quality	0.12981	0.04386	0.1893	1.0007
Tradition	-0.07197	-0.01054	-0.07706	0.95065
Performance	-0.04330	-0.03975	-0.11401	0.92902
Clarity	0.09847	0.02638	0.12963	0.91984
Innovation	0.06033	0.00579	0.05842	0.90534
Outward Focus	-0.03987	-0.03748	-0.10677	0.88965
Integration	0.03923	-0.00363	0.02301	0.8687
Pressure	-0.11027	-0.03691	-0.16011	0.85658
Autonomy	0.05526	0.00545	0.05381	0.82401

Table 5.10: Percent Variation Accounted for by Partial Least Squares Factors for the Final Model

Number of Extracted Factors	Model Effects Current		Dependent Variables Total	
	Model Effects	Dependent Variables	Number of Extracted Factors	Model Effects
1	**46.4055**	**46.4055**	**24.6338**	**24.6338**
2	**8.2551**	**54.6606**	**15.9426**	**40.5764**

The degree to which the organisational climate facets predict the organisational commitment facets can be assessed by considering the PLS regression coefficient for each of the organisational climate facets. The analysis indicates the importance of each of the organisational climate facets in predicting the organisational commitment facets. The analysis also shows that the extracted factors account for 54.66% and 40.57% of the variation for the organisational climate variables and organisational commitment variables respectively.

This chapter presented both the qualitative and quantitative findings of the research. These findings will be discussed in further detail in Chapter 6.

CHAPTER 6 – DISCUSSION OF THE RESULTS

"We have nothing to Fear but Fear itself." - Franklin D. Roosevelt

6.1 Introduction

The aim of this chapter is to discuss the various findings as presented in the chapter 5, in the context of the research goals. The main aim of the research was to establish whether there is a relationship between the organisational climate aspects and organisational commitment aspects, and what the nature of this relationship is. Wherever possible the qualitative themes will be drawn upon to look for possible explanations for the quantitative findings.

6.2 Discussion

According to the quantitative findings none of the demographic variables correlated with any of the facets of organisational commitment, with particular reference to organisational tenure and age. This is consistent with the findings of previous research by Dockel (2003) and Laka Mathebula (2004). Meyer and Allen (1991) suggested that the relationship between age and organisational tenure be considered from a purely theoretical perspective as they could also not find empirical support for this relationship.

The research indicated that only affective and normative commitment correlated significantly with some of the organisational climate facets (see Table 5.4). No correlation was found between the facets of organisational climate and continuance commitment. A possible reason for this could be drawn from the qualitative analysis in which all respondents made reference to the organisation's ESOP. The organisation's ESOP could potentially distort the relationship between facets of the organisational climate and continuance commitment. The qualitative analysis indicates that the ESOP is a major source of continuance commitment.

The significant correlations between both affective and normative commitment, and the organisational climate facets were all positive except for the pressure to produce and tradition facets. Supervisory support emerged as the highest correlated organisational climate facet that influenced affective

commitment. This is consistent with Dockel's (2003) research context and findings. The literature suggests that supervisory support is also crucial in maintaining the psychological contract. However, as suggested by the qualitative analysis, the career development aspect of maintaining the psychological contract is lacking. Welfare emerged as the highest correlated organisational climate facet that influenced normative commitment. This finding is expected given the definitions of welfare and normative commitment. Both the qualitative and quantitative analyses strongly emphasise aspects of the human relations model of the CVF. However, the quantitative analysis indicates that the human relations model scored the least. According to Cameron and Quinn (1999: 82), the human relations climate is: "A friendly place to work where people share a lot of themselves. It is like an extended family. The leaders, or the heads of the organisation, are considered to be mentors and perhaps even parent figures. The organisation is held together by loyalty or tradition. Commitment is high. The organisation emphasizes the long term benefit of human resource development and attaches great importance to cohesion and morale. Success is defined in terms of sensitivity to customers and concern for people. The organisation places a premium on teamwork, participation, and consensus." Given the nature of the research, and its focus on commitment, various aspects of the human relations quadrant need to be considered in order to increase commitment.

The department scored highest in the internal process quadrant of the CVF. According to Cameron and Quinn (1999), characteristics of this quadrant are an emphasis on information management, documentation, stability, routinisation and control. These aspects are of great importance given that fact that the IT department needs to support the business operations and maintain stability. However, by definition, the CVF promotes a balanced approach between the different quadrants, essentially finding a common ground between the four quadrants.

The qualitative and quantitative findings were consistent regarding the open system model and the rational goal model. The open system model is

characterised by innovation, growth, creativity and adaptation. However, as can be seen from both the qualitative and quantitative analyses, these aspects are lacking in the environment. The qualitative analysis indicates that factors such as fear and risk aversion inhibit these open systems model characteristics. The rational goal model predicates the pursuit and attainment of well defined goals, emphasising norms and values associated with productivity, efficiency, goal fulfilment, and performance feedback. The qualitative analysis indicates that factors such a lack of career development, a lack of performance management, effective resource utilisation, the organisation's ESOP, and ineffective communication inhibits the rational goal model attributes.

The quantitative analysis revealed that the regression coefficients of welfare, reflexivity, quality, and supervisory support contributed the most to predicting affective commitment. The same factors also contributed the most to predicting normative commitment, based on the regression coefficient and the VIP statistic. All of the predictor variables for continuance commitment had a relatively small regression coefficient. However, the VIP statistic for reflexivity, welfare, quality and supervisory support revealed that these factors are the most predicting variables in continuance commitment.

6.3 Summary

The research set out to describe the nature of the perceived organisational climate of the IT department of an organisation operating in the South African telecommunications sector, and to assess the relationship between the organisational climate and organisation commitment. In-depth qualitative interviews were conducted as the means of gathering the necessary data for describing the perceived organisational climate. This allowed the participants to relate their entire experience of the work environment without answering specific questions and allowing the researcher to ask probing questions. The analysis of the various interviews resulted in various recurring themes emerging.

These themes were generally directly related to the various aspects of organisation climate. However, the influence that the organisation's ESOP had on individual behaviour emerged as a pervasive theme. This would not have been identified by solely relying on quantitative climate assessments.

The relationship between the organisational climate and organisational commitment was assessed using a quantitative survey. The quantitative analysis revealed significant relationships between certain aspects of organisational climate and organisation commitment. The analysis also produced a means of assessing the degree to which the different components of organisational climate aspects influence the different components of organisational commitment.

In conclusion, various aspects of the qualitative and quantitative research were consolidated and related to various aspects of the literature. The literature indicated that organisational climate encompasses a broad range of objective organisational characteristics that could be perceived in either a positive or a negative way by organisational members. These perceptions consequently affect their behaviour and occupational well-being as well as important organisational outcomes such as organisational commitment. The qualitative findings of this research highlight various shortcomings within the environment. The quantitative findings contribute to the understanding of how the organisational climate aspects relate to the organisational commitment aspects within the given setting. The research thus achieved its main objectives of (1) describing the organisation climate as a means of providing insight into the organisational environment with regards to the organisational climate, and (2) nullifying the null hypothesis.

The relevant department could use these findings to focus on the areas highlighted in both the qualitative as well as the quantitative findings to improve the organisational climate perceptions of employees, and thus improve organisational commitment. Due to the limited scope of this study, further research is required to make specific recommendations as to the interventions necessary to positively influence these areas of concern.

6.4 Limitations of The Research

This research has various limitations. The main limitation of the research was that it focused only on one organisational department. Further research needs to be conducted to establish whether these findings are at an organisational level as well. The limited sample size with both the qualitative and quantitative stages of the research also imposed certain restrictions on the research. These restrictions would be eliminated should the research be performed at an organisational level.

APPENDIX A – QUESTIONNAIRE

Climate and Commitment Survey

(Approximate time to complete 15 to 25 minutes)

Rationale behind the study

A positive work climate has been linked by various researchers to a multitude of organisationally relevant aspects. These include job satisfaction, productivity, employee turnover and the like. Work climate is primarily created by employees' perceptions of the various aspects of the organisation. By management taking cognizance of how climates are formed, they can influence the aspects of the organisation that could be perceived in a negative way. The rationale behind this study is to assess the work climate that exists within the IS Department and its relation to employee commitment to the organisation.

Confidentiality and Anonymity

Your confidentiality and anonymity of this survey is completely assured. You are NOT required to disclose you identity in any way. This study forms part of the requirements for the Degree of Master of Business Administration at the Rhodes University for 2007 (**Student** John Saunders, **Student No:** 63S4290).

A. Please complete the following information by marking the appropriate box with an X.						
1	What is your gender?	Female ☐	Male ☐			
2	Your race:	Coloured ☐	White ☐	Indian ☐	Black ☐	Other: _____
3	What age group you are in: (years)	25 or less ☐	26-30 ☐	30-35 ☐	36-40 ☐	40 or older ☐
4	How long have you been employed.(years)	0-5 ☐	6-10 ☐	11-15 ☐	16-20 ☐	21 or more _____
5	How long have you been with the organisation. (years)	0-2 ☐	3-5 ☐	6-8 ☐	9-11 ☐	
6	Select the highest level of formal education you have completed:	High School ☐	College Diploma ☐	Technical College ☐	Bachelor's Degree ☐	Post Graduate Degree ☐
7	Indicate which of the following best describes your current position:	Clerical/ Office Support ☐	Technical/Professional Staff Position ☐	Supervisory Position ☐	Middle/Senior Managerial Position ☐	Executive/ Top-Level Managerial ☐

B. Please indicate the level of your agreement/disagreement with each of the following statements by marking your preference with an X.					
	Statement	**Definitely False**	**Mostly False**	**Mostly True**	**Definitely True**
1	There is very little respect between some of the departments here.	☐	☐	☐	☐
2	In general, peoples' workloads are not particularly demanding.	☐	☐	☐	☐
3	This company does not have much of a reputation for top-quality products.	☐	☐	☐	☐
4	Things could be done much more efficiently, if people stopped to think.	☐	☐	☐	☐
5	The company only gives people the minimum amount of training they need to do their job.	☐	☐	☐	☐
6	New ideas are readily accepted here	☐	☐	☐	☐
7	People are not properly trained when there is a new machine or bit of equipment.	☐	☐	☐	☐
8	This company is quick to respond when changes need to be made	☐	☐	☐	☐

	Statement	Definitely False	Mostly False	Mostly True	Definitely True
9	Supervisors show that they have confidence in those they manage.	☐	☐	☐	☐
10	People here don't put more effort into their work than they have to.	☐	☐	☐	☐
11	This company is always looking to achieve the highest standards of quality.	☐	☐	☐	☐
12	Supervisors show an understanding of the people who work for them.	☐	☐	☐	☐
13	Management requires people to work extremely hard.	☐	☐	☐	☐
14	This organisation is very flexible; it can quickly change procedures to meet new conditions and solve problems as they arise	☐	☐	☐	☐
15	Time and money could be saved if work were better organized.	☐	☐	☐	☐
16	The methods used by this organisation to get the job done are often discussed	☐	☐	☐	☐
17	In general, it is hard for someone to measure the quality of their performance.	☐	☐	☐	☐
18	People don't have any say in decisions which affect their work.	☐	☐	☐	☐
19	It's important to check things first with the boss before taking a decision.	☐	☐	☐	☐
20	Management here are quick to spot the need to do things differently	☐	☐	☐	☐
21	There are often breakdowns in communication here.	☐	☐	☐	☐
22	People here get by with doing as little as possible	☐	☐	☐	☐
23	In this organisation, time is taken to review organisational objectives	☐	☐	☐	☐
24	It is considered extremely important here to follow the rules	☐	☐	☐	☐
25	People believe the company's success depends on high-quality work.	☐	☐	☐	☐
26	This company tries to be fair in its actions towards employees.	☐	☐	☐	☐
27	Collaboration between departments is very effective.	☐	☐	☐	☐

	Statement	Definitely False	Mostly False	Mostly True	Definitely True
28	People at the top tightly control the work of those below them.	☐	☐	☐	☐
29	This organisation is continually looking for new opportunities in the market place.	☐	☐	☐	☐
30	Changes are made without talking to the people involved in them.	☐	☐	☐	☐
31	Management keep too tight a reign on the way things are done around here.	☐	☐	☐	☐
32	People have a good understanding of what the organisation is trying to do	☐	☐	☐	☐
33	This company pays little attention to the interests of employees.	☐	☐	☐	☐
34	Management involve people when decisions are made that affect them.	☐	☐	☐	☐
35	People are prepared to make a special effort to do a good job.	☐	☐	☐	☐
36	People are enthusiastic about their work.	☐	☐	☐	☐
37	People here are under pressure to meet targets.	☐	☐	☐	☐
38	In this organisation, objectives are modified in light of changing circumstances	☐	☐	☐	☐
39	People in this organisation are always searching for new ways of looking at problems	☐	☐	☐	☐
40	Ways of improving service to the customer are not given much thought.	☐	☐	☐	☐
41	Information is widely shared.	☐	☐	☐	☐
42	Everything has to be done by the book	☐	☐	☐	☐
43	Its not necessary to follow procedures to the letter around here	☐	☐	☐	☐
44	This organisation is quite inward looking; it does not concern itself with what is happening in the market place	☐	☐	☐	☐
45	People are strongly encouraged to develop their skills.	☐	☐	☐	☐
46	People are suspicious of other departments.	☐	☐	☐	☐
47	The way people do their jobs is rarely assessed.	☐	☐	☐	☐

	Statement	Definitely False	Mostly False	Mostly True	Definitely True
48	There are regular discussions as to whether people in the organisation are working effectively together	☐	☐	☐	☐
49	Supervisors can be relied upon to give good guidance to people.	☐	☐	☐	☐
50	Management are not interested in trying out new ideas	☐	☐	☐	☐
51	People don't have any idea how well they are doing their job	☐	☐	☐	☐
52	This company is slow to respond to the needs of the customer.	☐	☐	☐	☐
53	Customer needs are not considered top priority here.	☐	☐	☐	☐
54	Productivity could be improved if jobs were organized and planned better.	☐	☐	☐	☐
55	People are expected to do too much in a day.	☐	☐	☐	☐
56	Changes in the way things are done here happen very slowly	☐	☐	☐	☐
57	This company tries to look after its employees.	☐	☐	☐	☐
58	Quality is taken very seriously here.	☐	☐	☐	☐
59	People can ignore formal procedures and rules if it helps get the job done	☐	☐	☐	☐
60	People receive enough training when it comes to using new equipment.	☐	☐	☐	☐
61	Nobody gets too upset if people break the rules around here	☐	☐	☐	☐
62	People here always want to perform to the best of their ability.	☐	☐	☐	☐
63	Management let people make their own decisions much of the time.	☐	☐	☐	☐
64	Management trust people to take work-related decisions without getting permission first.	☐	☐	☐	☐
65	The pace of work here is pretty relaxed.	☐	☐	☐	☐
66	People usually receive feedback on the quality of work they have done.	☐	☐	☐	☐
67	The future direction of the company is clearly communicated to everyone	☐	☐	☐	☐

	Statement	Definitely False	Mostly False	Mostly True	Definitely True
68	The way this organisation does things has never changed very much	☐	☐	☐	☐
69	Assistance in developing new ideas is readily available	☐	☐	☐	☐
70	People in different departments are prepared to share information.	☐	☐	☐	☐
71	There is very little conflict between departments here.	☐	☐	☐	☐
72	This company cares about its employees.	☐	☐	☐	☐
73	Senior management like to keep to established, traditional ways of doing things	☐	☐	☐	☐
74	People feel decisions are frequently made over their heads.	☐	☐	☐	☐
75	Supervisors here are really good at understanding peoples' problems.	☐	☐	☐	☐
76	In this organisation, the way people work together is readily changed in order to improve performance	☐	☐	☐	☐
77	Everyone who works here is well aware of the long-term plans and direction of this company	☐	☐	☐	☐
78	People aren't clear about the aims of the company	☐	☐	☐	☐
79	Supervisors here are friendly and easy to approach.	☐	☐	☐	☐
80	There is a strong sense of where the company is going	☐	☐	☐	☐
81	People's performance is measured on a regular basis.	☐	☐	☐	☐
82	Poor scheduling and planning often result in targets not being met.	☐	☐	☐	☐

C. Please indicate the level of your agreement/disagreement with each of the following statements by marking your preference with an X.

	Statement	Strongly Agree	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
83	One of the few negative consequences of leaving this organisation would be the scarcity of available alternatives	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
84	If I had not already put so much of myself into this organisation, I might consider working elsewhere	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
85	I would feel guilty if I left my organisation now	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
86	This organisation deserves my loyalty	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
87	It would be very hard for me to leave my organisation right now, even if I wanted to	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
88	Right now, staying with my organisation is a matter of necessity as much as desire	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
89	I really feel as if this organisation's problems are my own	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
90	I do not feel any obligation to remain with my current employer	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
91	I do not feel a strong sense of "belonging" to my organisation	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
92	Even if it were to my advantage, I do not feel it would be right to leave my organisation now	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
93	Too much of my life would be disrupted if I decided to leave my organisation now	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
94	I feel that I have too few options to consider leaving this organisation	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
95	I do not feel "emotionally attached" to this organisation	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
96	I would be very happy to spend the rest of my career with this organisation	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
97	I would not leave my organisation right now because I have a sense of obligation to the people in it	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
98	I do not feel like "part of the family" at my organisation	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
99	I owe a great deal to my organisation	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
100	This organisation has a great deal of personal meaning for me	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

APPENDIX B – REQUESTS FOR PERMISSION

B.1 REQUEST TO PERFORM RESEARCH AT THE ORGANISATION

From:
Sent: Wednesday, 15 November 2006 11:13 AM
To:
Subject: RE: MBA Research

Agreed. I may also have asked you to sent me a copy of your research proposal so that I can be sure as to what I have agreed to.

From:
Sent: Wednesday, 15 November 2006 10:58 AM
To: Subject: MBA Research

Dear Erich,

Thank you for your valuable time afforded to me during our discussion regarding my MBA research project.

Please verify that my understanding of what we have discussed is correct.

- You have granted me permission to perform a survey within the IS Department to do an assessment of the work group climate.
- A copy of the research to be sent to you upon completion.

Your assistance is highly appreciated.

Kind Regards,
John Saunders

B.2 REQUEST TO USE THE ORGANISATIONAL CLIMATE MEASURE

From: Jeremy Dawson [mailto:j.f.dawson@aston.ac.uk]
Sent: Tuesday, 17 July 2007 10:01 AM
To:
Subject: RE: Research

Dear John,
I am replying on behalf of Michael West, about your request to use the Organisational Climate Measure. I have attached a copy of the measure. We are happy for the measure to be used for research purposes, subject to the following agreements:

- it is used only for academic research purposes (i.e. not for commercial uses)
- the measure is used either complete, or in complete climate scales, with the same response scale
- the data you gather are shared with us (anonymised), so we can add them to our norm data base

A number of other researchers across the world are currently using the tool with these agreements also, and we hope to build up a database of norms that will eventually be of great benefit to all.

Best wishes,
Jeremy Dawson

Jeremy Dawson
RCUK Research Fellow
Work & Organisational Psychology Group
Aston Business School
Aston University
Birmingham B4 7ET, UK
Tel. +44 (0)121 204 3075
Fax +44 (0)121 204 3327

From:

Sent: 12 July 2007 09:23

To: West MA

Subject: Research

Dear Professor West,

I am an MBA student at the Rhodes University in Grahamstown, South Africa. I am currently in the process of doing my dissertation in the field of Organisational Behaviour, specifically looking at organisational climate and how it affects organisational commitment. My study involves both a qualitative as well as a quantitative section. The qualitative section focuses on an analysis of organisational climate at an organisational unit level and involves interviews with four staff member. The quantitative section entails a study of the organisational climate and its relationship with organisational commitment within the Information Technology department of the relevant organisation.

The purpose of this mail is to request your permission to use the Organisational Climate Measure® (OCM) as the instrument for measuring organisational climate for this research. The research will purely be used for academic purposes and will by no means be used to gain any economic benefit. A copy of the completed dissertation could be made available to you should you request it.

The contact person at Rhodes University to verify my research is Professor Gavin Staude (g.staude@ru.ac.za) who is the head of the business school and can be contacted on
+27 46 603 8617.

Should you require any additional information, please feel free to contact me.

Best regards,
John Saunders
Rhodes University Student No: 63S4290

APPENDIX C – FREQUENCY DISTRIBUTIONS FOR DEMOGRAPHIC VARIABLES

Table C.1: Age Distribution of Respondents

Age	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Frequency	Cumulative Percent
25 or less	3	6.52	3	6.52
26-30	14	30.43	17	36.96
30-35	15	32.61	32	69.57
36-40	6	13.04	38	82.61
41 or older	8	17.39	46	100

Table C.2: Gender Distribution of Respondents

Gender	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Frequency	Cumulative Percent
Female	16	34.78	16	34.78
Male	30	65.22	46	100

Table C.3: Level of Education Distribution of Respondents

Highest Education	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Frequency	Cumulative Percent
High School	6	13.33	6	13.33
College (Diploma)	10	22.22	16	35.56
Technical College	5	11.11	21	46.67
Bachelors Degree	18	40	39	86.67
Post Graduate	6	13.33	45	100
Frequency Missing = 1				

Table C.4: Year Employed Distribution of Respondents

Number of Years Employed	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Frequency	Cumulative Percent
0-5	12	26.09	12	26.09
6-10	11	23.91	23	50
11-15	11	23.91	34	73.91
16-20	9	19.57	43	93.48
21 or more	3	6.52	46	100

Table C.5: Organisational Tenure Distribution of Respondents

Organisational Tenure	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Frequency	Cumulative Percent
0-2	16	35.56	16	35.56
3-5	19	42.22	35	77.78
6-8	5	11.11	40	88.89
9 or more	5	11.11	45	100
Frequency Missing = 1				

Table C.6: Race Distribution of Respondents

Race	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Frequency	Cumulative Percent
Coloured	10	21.74	10	21.74
White	13	28.26	23	50
Indian	8	17.39	31	67.39
Black	15	32.61	46	100

Table C.7: Role Distribution of Respondents

Role	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Frequency	Cumulative Percent
Clerical/Office Support	4	8.7	4	8.7
Technical/Professional	34	73.91	38	82.61
Supervisory	4	8.7	42	91.3
Middle Management	4	8.7	46	100

Table C.8: Mean Scores for Organisational Commitment Subscales

Variable	Maximum	Mean	Minimum	N	Std Dev
Affective Commitment	4.8333	3.0362	1.0000	46	1.0043
Normative Commitment	4.6667	2.5870	1.0000	46	1.0048
Continuance Commitment	4.5000	2.7319	1.3333	46	0.9125

Table C.8 presents the means score for the organisational commitment subscales. The affective commitment scored the highest, followed by continuance, and normative commitment. Graph C.1 indicates the mean scores relative to each other.

Table C.9: Mean Scores for Organisational Climate Subscales

CVF-FACTOR	Variable	Maximum	Mean	Minimum	N	Std Dev
Human Relations	Autonomy	3.0000	2.0826	1.0000	46	0.4836
Human Relations	Integration	3.8000	2.1435	1.0000	46	0.5822
Human Relations	Involvement	3.5000	2.0870	1.0000	46	0.5564
Human Relations	Supervisory Support	4.0000	2.4261	1.0000	46	0.6234
Human Relations	Welfare	3.5000	2.2826	1.0000	46	0.6864
Human Relations	Training	4.0000	2.5870	1.2500	46	0.6481
Human Relations	Effort	4.0000	2.4957	1.0000	46	0.5621
Internal Processes	Tradition	4.0000	2.7337	1.7500	46	0.5255
Internal Processes	Formalization	4.0000	2.8478	1.6000	46	0.4466
Open Systems	Innovation and Flexibility	3.3333	2.4203	1.1667	46	0.4801
Open Systems	Reflexivity	3.4000	2.4348	1.0000	46	0.4868
Open Systems	Outward	4.0000	2.8435	1.6000	46	0.5702
Rational Goal	Clarity	4.0000	2.4348	1.0000	46	0.6329
Rational Goal	Pressure	4.0000	3.0435	2.2000	46	0.5197
Rational Goal	Quality	4.0000	2.9076	2.0000	46	0.5435
Rational Goal	Performance	3.8000	2.3522	1.6000	46	0.4525
Rational Goal	Efficiency	3.7500	1.8207	1.0000	46	0.6048

Table C.10: Organisational Climate Profile in terms of the CVF

CVF Dimension	Scores
Human Relations	2.3006
Internal Processes	2.7908
Open Systems	2.5662
Rational Goal	2.5117

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