

# A study of the organisational commitment of new employees

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# A STUDY OF THE ORGANISATIONAL COMMITMENT OF NEW EMPLOYEES

by Leonie V. Still

A thesis submitted in fulfilment of the requirements of the degree of Doctor of Philosophy, in the Department of Organisational Behaviour, the University of New South Wales.

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#### ABSTRACT

This study was concerned with investigating the influences effecting the organisational commitment of new employees. In particular it focused on the measurement of the attitudes of 270 newly-employed retail sales assistants during their first four months of employment. The organisational entry period was chosen for investigation because of its importance in the formation of new employee attitudes. The study also focused on definitional and methodological considerations. Of equal importance were the attempts to prove that commitment was a multidimensional construct (incorporating the concepts of involvement and identification), and the development of a new measuring scale (which separated affective responses towards the job from affective reponses towards the organisation). These issues needed resolution as considerable confusion surrounded them in the literature.

Using a repeated measures design within a three-stage socialisation model framework, answers were sought to the following questions: what types of influences effected employee levels of commitment; did the commitment attitude remain consistent over time, rise or fall?; and were certain commitment influences more critical at certain stages than at others? The range of variables drew from socialisation theory and the Becker/Ritzer and Trice controversy - that is, 'side-bet' and social-psychological variables. To achieve a more macro and integrated approach to commitment, job search and job leaving behaviours were also included.

The data revealed that the development of, or predisposition to, organisational commitment was the result of a mixture of 'side-bet', social-psychological and socialisation variables. Moreover, different variables appeared to influence organisational commitment at different stages of the organisational entry process. Although some variables such as age, the influence of the work group, search and realism were consistent over time, other variables became important at different socialisation stages. 'Side-bet' variables appeared to be the more important influences After entry socialisation and social-psychological at entry. variables became more dominant. The commitment attitude also varied considerably over time. In this study it proved to be a less stable attitude than other attitude variables such as realism, supervisor affect and work group affect which remained fairly constant. Evidence was found for both the Becker and Ritzer and Trice theories, while job search behaviour and anticipatory socialisation variables appeared to have little influence on the level of employee commitment.

The study concluded that it was what happened to individuals after they joined an organisation that led to commitment.

Favourable treatment produced favourable results; non-favourable treatment led to the contrary. Finally, it was suggested that the existence of different variables influencing commitment at different times had implications for the maintenance of commitment. Organisations would need to be more flexible in their personnel and training

policies if employee commitment levels were to be prevented from declining in the first few months of employment.

Unless this was done organisations would continue to suffer from high turnover, high dissatisfaction and low productivity.

### ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

So many people took an interest in my thesis that it is difficult to acknowledge all of them individually. Collectively, my sincere thanks go to the senior managements of the three firms who allowed this investigation to be undertaken, their personnel and training staff, and the 270 retail sales assistants who so willingly acted as subjects.

I am also grateful for the contructive guidance and support given by my supervisor, Professor D.C. Dunphy. My special thanks go to Francis Lovejoy and John Ray of the School of Sociology for their assistance with the 'mysteries' of scale development and computer programmes, while Graham Pratt and Jim Lucas provided much needed encouragement and stimulation at appropriate stages of the study. Finally, my sincere appreciation to my parents without whose assistance on the home front this thesis would not have been possible.

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#### CHAPTER 1: INTRODUCTION

#### 1.1 INTRODUCTION

Organisation commitment is a term used in management and organisational theory to describe an individual's loyalty or commitment to and involvement with a particular cause, ideal or organisation. It has long been of interest to managements in the belief that a 'committed' employee would "give more adequately of his time, energy, talent, judgement, ideas and moral courage in the best interests of the company" (Stewart, 1961, pl9). In fact, so engrained has the concept become in management folklore that Salancik reports that most writings on the subject extol the virtues of commitment. Commenting generally, he states (1977a, pl):

"In them, you will find that the committed employee is the happy employee, the success of the organisation is a matter of its members sacrificing their time and effort, and commitment to the values of the organisation gives meaning to a person's life. In them commitment enhances productivity, assures quality in the final product and guarantees the flow of adaptive innovation. In them, you will find, in short, a lot of nonsense mixed with a lot of common sense. But from them your understanding of commitment may not be enhanced".

The notion of commitment tends to pervade most organisations, and as such is of vital concern to both employee and organisation alike. Most organisations not only endeavour to select employees whom they believe will be 'committed', but

they support their desire for such employees by appropriate socialisation practices and organisational policies - for example, pension schemes and bonus systems. Many employees similarly have a desire to 'belong', to feel 'accepted' and will conform to the expectations and values of the organisation if the socialisation practices and organisational policies are pertinent to their needs. When such co-operation arises, a 'match' is said to have been achieved (Kotter, 1973; Wanous, 1979; Schein, 1978). In the event of no such co-operation, a 'mismatch' is said to have occurred.

Organisational commitment, as a topic of interest, has a long tradition in the social sciences. Previous research has focused on five easily recognisable areas - namely, the meaning of the concept, the measurement of the construct, correlates of commitment, the relationship with other conceptual and research areas - for example, socialisation and turnover, and longitudinal research. However, while these foci are readily identifiable, developments in some of the areas have been marked by controversy and lack of agreement.

The first contentious issue concerns the meaning of the concept. Three separate conceptual approaches exist in the literature - attitudinal, behavioural and sociological.

Organisational and industrial psychologists favour the attitudinal approach (Buchanan, 1972; Mowday and McDade, 1979;

Gordon et al 1980) which sees commitment as having to do with an individual's psychological bond to the organisation. The behavioural approach, favoured by social psychologists (Mowday and McDade, 1979; Wiener and Vardi, 1980), views commitment as the binding of individuals to behavioural acts (Kiesler and Sakumura, 1966; Porter and Steers, 1979). The third tradition, the sociological, examines commitment from a slightly different perspective. It looks at the conflicting commitments and multiple role orientations of professionals in organisations (Salancik, 1977a) and suggests that involvement in one organisation is partly a function of involvements in other organisations. The first two traditions are essentially a philosophical conflict over the meaning of commitment and how people become committed. The third is considered to be similar to the attitudinal approach (Salancik, 1977a; Gordon et al, 1980) as it is concerned with a person's willingness to leave or stay with the organisation (Hrebiniak and Alutto, 1972) or his orientation to the rewards of his various affiliations (Sheldon, 1971).

These separate traditions have influenced the second research area - the measurement of commitment. The most highly developed approach is that of the attitudinal school whose theorists have spent considerable effort developing appropriate measures (Porter and Smith, 1970; Porter et al 1974, 1976; Cook and Wall, 1980; Gordon et al, 1980). However, some dissension exists over the elements comprising

the attitudinal measure - for instance, does commitment include involvement, identification, loyalty, attachment or only some of these? The <u>behavioural</u> school is less well developed in its constructs although Hrebiniak and Alutto (1972) are considered to have a calculative-instrumental type of measure which has been used by other researchers. Apart from this there is no other commonly used behavioural measure.

The third contentious issue concerns the correlates of commitment. For some time development has stagnated because of the difference in opinion between Becker (1960) and Ritzer and Trice (1969). Researchers tended to interpret the difference as an argument over the superiority of structural versus social-psychological type variables. The hiatus has only recently been broken with the suggestion by Shoemaker et al (1977) and Stevens et al (1978) that an integrated approach be adopted and that other variables be considered. Encouraging work has been performed by Steers (1977), Stevens et al (1978) and Wiener and Vardi (1980). However, the area remains considerably undeveloped.

Another recent research development has been the move towards a multifaceted approach to the study of organisational commitment. Beginning with Buchanan (1972, 1974) an attempt has been made to link the study of socialisation with that of commitment. Van Maanen (1972, 1975) made a

major contribution in this area and further work has been published by Gordon et al (1980). However, while this area has enormous potential it is also considerably undeveloped.

Finally, research interest has begun to focus on the benefits of longitudinal studies. Most previous work has been of a cross-sectional nature but Porter et al (1974, 1976) and Van Maanen (1972, 1975) attempted longitudinal investigations of varying time periods. Buchanan's (1972, 1974) work can also be included because his cross-sectional research design has longitudinal implications.

These five research traditions lack general co-ordination. However, recently there has been a new surge of interest in commitment research which Salancik (1977a, p3) believes is justified by "the general decay of employee interest in working, rising dissatisfaction, absenteeism and turnover". Most of the new studies have focused on the meaning of commitment, the measurement of the construct, and the determinants and consequences of commitment. Some attempts have been made at modelling (Steers, 1977; Staw, 1977; Steers and Porter, 1979; Wiener and Vardi, 1980), while the behavioural approach to commitment has also gained a lot of prominence (Staw 1974, 1976, 1977; Staw and Fox 1977; Staw and Ross 1980; Salancik 1977a; Salancik and Pfeffer 1978; Wiener and Vardi 1980). Nevertheless, the field still lacks co-ordination as Mowday et al (1979, p225) assert:

"Recent investigations of the topic have largely been marked by a one-sample, one-study methodological approach. Little systematic or programmatic research has been carried out. Moreover, studies of commitment have been made more difficult by the general lack of agreement concerning how best to conceptualise and measure the concept".

In short the concept demands further systematic research.

#### 1.2 PRELIMINARY STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM

## a) Reconciliation of this study with previous research.

This research adopted a macro and integrated approach to the study of organisational commitment. While its primary purpose was to investigate the influences effecting the organisational commitment of new employees, the study actually covered all five research traditions. In other words it. was concerned with the meaning of commitment, the measurement of commitment, the correlates of commitment, a multifaceted approach and the conduct of a longitudinal This broad approach was largely motivated investigation. by the comments of Stevens et al (1978) and Shoemaker et al (1977) that commitment resulted from the influence of multiple forces. As more recent studies (Gordon et al 1980, Wiener and Vardi 1980, Morris and Steers 1980) were beginning to support this notion, the need arose to test this

less segmented approach. Accordingly, this study:

- a) Adopted both an attitudinal and a behavioural approach to the meaning of organisational commitment. The attitudinal approach was used to measure the dependent variable, commitment, while the behavioural approach was used to measure some of the predictor variables. In other words, the traditions were not considered to be separate, but to be "focusing on different stages of the same general process" (Mowday and McDade, 1979, p84).
- b) Constructed and validated a new attitudinal scale for the measure of organisational commitment.
- c) Investigated a combination of variables considered to be correlates of commitment (for example, personal variables, structural variables, role-related variables and socialisation variables. The intention was to lend further support to the dissolution of the Becker/Ritzer and Trice hiatus).
- d) Adopted a multivariate approach to the the study of organisational commitment. In other words, commitment was studied within the framework of a socialisation model and using socialisation variables.
- e) Attempted a longitudinal repeated measures study over a period of four months.

This study was thus the first to draw from all five research traditions and the first to combine or investigate both

(a) and (b) within a longitudinal design. Further details on the specific aspects of the study now follow.

# b) <u>Purpose</u>

This research approached the study of commitment from the vantage point of organisational theory. Specifically, its purpose was to investigate the influences effecting the organisational commitment of new sales assistants within three retail organisations. Using the first four months of employment as the time frame, the objective was to determine what types of influences (for example, personal variables, role-related variables and socialisation variables) effected a new employee's level of commitment as he 1 settled into employment. The study built on existing commitment and socialisation research, with the results providing a building block for future longitudinal study into the organisational entry behaviour of new employees.

Throughout this study the pronoun 'he' is used to describe employees. Although most of the participants were female it was thought more practical to use the accepted designation rather than the clumsy 'he/she' description. Despite the rise of feminism, the researcher's own socialisation prevents her from using the pronoun 'she' although it would have been very relevant in this study.

Answers were sought to the following questions:

- a) What types of influences effected employee levels of organisational commitment during their initial employment period?
- b) Did the commitment attitude remain consistent over time, rise or fall?
- c) Were certain commitment influences more critical at certain stages of the entry process than at others?
- d) Given the same occupational group within three firms from the same industry did employees differ in their levels of commitment and the types of influences effecting commitment?
- e) What recommendations could be made regarding future empirical study concerning commitment as an organisational attitude?
- f) What implications did the research have for future developments of the commitment concept, notably its meaning and measurement?
- g) What implications could be made regarding managerial applications of the research results?

# c) Focus of Study

The study focused on the measurement of the attitudes of 270 newly-employed retail sales assistants during their

first four months of employment. Commitment was thus studied within the organisational entry period, a critical time frame in the formation of new employee attitudes (Brim 1968; Patten 1969; Berlew and Hall 1966; Schein 1971, 1978; Wanous 1973, 1976, 1977, 1979, 1980; Wanous et al 1979; Hall and Schneider 1973; Van Maanen 1975; Louis 1980). The focus also included definitional and methodological considerations. Of equal importance were the attempts to prove that commitment was a multidimensional construct (incorporating the concepts of involvement and identification), and the development of a new measuring scale (which separated affective response towards the job from affective response towards the organisation). These issues needed resolution as considerable confusion surrounded them in the literature.

## d) Scope of Study

The research drew from the literatures of management, organisational theory, psychology and sociology. Of particular interest were the two research strands dealing with organisational commitment and organisational socialisation. The former was important because it was the dependent variable in the study. The latter was significant because its theoretical concepts formed the genesis for the framework for the study and contributed a number of possible predictors of organisational commitment. Socialisation

theory was selected for analysis as it seemed to offer explanations for why people became committed. It also hypothesised a number of socialisation stages which were important in the transformation of an individual from an 'outsider to an insider' (Wanous 1977, 1979; Van Maanen 1975) and described the events which occurred in each. Moreover, it saw commitment as a socialisation outcome (Buchanan 1972). Thus commitment could not be studied apart from its socialising influences.

The scope did not cover <u>job</u> commitment or the many areas of socialisation such as professional, childhood, retirement socialisation. Instead, the research focused on the work milieu and affective responses towards the organisation. The basic consideration was to study the organisational commitment of new employees.

## 1.3 DEFINITION AND MEASUREMENT OF COMMITMENT.

Because of the separate traditions (outlined in section 1.1), the literature describes and uses commitment in many ways. This study adopted the attitudinal approach to organisational commitment because it was interested in investigating changes in employee attitudes after they commenced employment. Preliminary scale construction also revealed that commitment was a multidimensional construct (confirming the work of Buchanan 1972 and Porter et al 1974, 1976) comprising the

components of involvement and identification. Accordingly, the investigation was based on the following conception - namely, that organisational commitment

"Referred to the nature of the individual's relationship to an organisation such that a highly committed person would 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;
- (3) a strong belief in and acceptance of the organisation's goals and values; and
- (4) a feeling of affection for and attachment to the organisation".

This conceptualisation was a combination of the definitions of Porter and Smith (1970, p2 - items 1, 2 and 3) and Buchanan (1972; 1974, p533 - items 3 and 4). It also incorporated the ideas of Hrebiniak and Alutto (1972 - item 1). Basically, it had three dimensions: involvement (2), identification (3 and 4) and commitment itself (1 and 4), indicating various degrees and forms of commitment. The concept was thus viewed as a complex, affective attachment of the individual to the organisation and separate from affective attachments to the job.

The literature revealed many ways of measuring organisational commitment from a single one-item statement to a fully

developed psychometric scale. The most widely used scale was that of Porter et al (1974, 1976). However, it was not selected for use as having been designed specifically for American employees the phrasing of items were often inappropriate for this study's target population.

Accordingly, a new scale was developed and revealed suitable psychometric qualities (a feature not always reported in alternative measures). This scale was the first to deliberately separate affective responses towards the organisation from those directed towards the job (the Buchanan 1972 and Porter et al 1974, 1976 scales tended to confuse these issues).

#### 1.4 METHODOLOGY

A repeated measures design was chosen to measure the changes in attitudes over the four month experimental period. The timing of the measuring occasions was keyed in to a socialisation model whose three stages were described in the literature as being entry, encounter and adjustment. While organisational commitment was the criterion variable, the socialisation stages helped to select the relevant predictor variables. An examination of the main issues effecting both the individual and the organisation during entry, encounter and adjustment highlighted the variables or influences most likely to be important to organisational commitment as individuals progressed through the organisational entry process. The predictor variables represented a mixture

of demographic, role-related (social-psychological) and socialisation influences. Measurement occurred once at entry and encounter and twice during adjustment. The latter procedure was considered necessary to quantify any change in attitude once the employee was assumed to have 'settled-in'. A repeated measures design was thought superior to a 'before and after' approach as the objective was to advance the knowledge concerning the behaviour of the commitment attitude over a crucial time period.

#### 1.5 RESEARCH SETTING.

Retailing was chosen as the site for the study on three important grounds. First, it was an industry containing a large number of employees performing an essentially similar task. Hence, 270 newly employed sales assistants in three separate retail organisations formed the sample population for this study.

Second, the researcher's own personal experience had revealed that retailing, as an industry, had extensive socialisation practices. Moreover, being an industry which traditionally promoted the 'family' owners, a great deal of emphasis was placed on commitment to the organisation. The industry thus seemed to be the ideal venue for the study of commitment as well as taking cognisance of the socialisation influences. In other words, the industry allowed the two theoretical strands of this study to be examined together.

Finally, the industry was one in which employees experienced the broad facets of their jobs within six months of employment. Retailing is an industry geared to two six monthly cycles called 'Half's' with industry events such as sales and stocktaking occurring at the same time periods each half. Thus, once employees had experienced the first six months of employment their work routines were largely determined. Because of this unique feature retailing appeared to be a most appropriate locale to test the validity of the study's three-stage socialisation framework. A new employee should have experienced the stages of entry, encounter and adjustment within the four months experimental period.

### 1.6 JUSTIFICATION OF THE RESEARCH TOPIC

Despite the long research tradition, a theory of organisational commitment is still relatively undeveloped in the social science literature. Because of the separate approaches (attitudinal, behavioural and sociological), considerable confusion exists as to the meaning of the concept and how it actually develops. Moreover, many measurement techniques are relatively unsophisticated. Add an empirical emphasis on investigating correlates of commitment, and the area demonstrates all the features of an underdeveloped construct.

This study attempted to break the stalemate in development by further examining an issue known as the Becker/Ritzer and Trice controversy and by introducing a more macro and integrated approach to the study of organisational commitment. Both Becker (1960) and Ritzer and Trice (1969) were essentially concerned with 'explaining' commitment, with Becker emphasising 'side-bet' (or investment-type) variables and Ritzer and Trice concentrating on The positional difference psychological explanations. sparked a number of studies, most of whom set about explaining which argument was superior to the other. positional difference appeared to be hindering advancement in the field this research incorporated most of the known predictors into its longitudinal study. At the same time the hypothesised range of predictors of commitment was widened to include both job search and job leaving behaviours (the latter had been previously examined but not the former) and socialisation influences. Stevens, Beyer and Trice (1978, p394) had argued the need for such a study as they felt that the currently known predictors only explained a certain amount of the variance in organisational commitment. Finally, a longitudinal design was chosen to examine the behaviour of both commitment and the predictors over time. Whilst two other studies had investigated the concept longitudinally (Porter et al 1974, 1976; Van Maanen 1972, 1975) and one cross-sectionally (Buchanan 1972, 1974) they had been concerned with restricted issues. This study

brought a broader and inter-disciplinary perspective to the study of commitment.

Consequently, this study had three original features. First, it was the first occasion that the Becker/Ritzer and Trice controversy had been examined within a longitudinal design. To break the current stalemate an attempt was made to determine whether certain variables were important at different stages of the organisational entry process. Secondly, the study drew from two major theoretical strands commitment and socialisation theory - to resolve the issues. While Buchanan (1972) and Gordon et al (1980) had investigated socialisation influences and Van Maanen (1972, 1975) had described a socialisation sequence, no previous study had combined both and a priori in their investigation of organisational commitment. Finally, the study drew from a broad range of predictors to explain the behaviour of the commitment attitude over time. While other studies had been attempting to broaden their perspective, no previous work had examined numerous variables in a longitudinal time frame. Only by such endeavours, however, will the state of knowledge be advanced. This study attempted to make a contribution in these three main directions.

#### 1.7 LIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY

In designing and implementing this study, constraints and limitations existed which will influence any interpretation and evaluation of its results and conclusions. A number of limitations were due to the particular time frame chosen for the study; others could be attributed to the problems of operationalising and quantifying the many variables.

The generalisations of the study must be regarded as tentative as they were based on a single occupational group within a single industry. Moreover, the sample of participating firms was representative of the large retailers and not the small ones. The fact that the study took place within the metropolitan confines of Sydney (although some perimeter areas were included) could also have reduced the representative nature of the data (country employees may have been more 'committed' than city employees).

Bias may also have entered the study through deficiencies in the design of the research instruments and the nature of the topic itself. Because respondents were new employees it may have been difficult for them to articulate candidly what they really thought about their organisational entry. Finally, some respondents may have felt obliged to participate even though the exercise was voluntary. Although the study was designed to control for as many influences as possible these limitations must be considered when interpreting the results.

### 1.8 OUTLINE OF THESIS CONTENTS.

The remainder of this thesis is devoted to an examination of the issues explained above. Chapter 2 deals with a review of the literature relevant to organisational commitment while Chapter 3 examines the literature pertaining to the other main theoretical strand - organisational socialisation. An outline of the study's research design, incorporating the study framework, variables and hypotheses, is then given in Chapter 4. Chapter 5 discusses the results of the pilot study conducted to develop the necessary measurement scales and outlines the essential background to the main study - that is, the particular procedure adopted, the research instrument, the sample, the characteristics of the participating firms, and the analytical procedures selected for the examination of the results. The study results are then examined in two separate chapters. The first, Chapter 6, deals with the reliability and validity analysis of the criterion and predictor variables. The second, Chapter 7, itemises the results of the hypotheses testing. Finally, Chapter 8 isolates the main results, and discusses their significance in terms of the general literature and the retail industry in particular. The thesis concludes with suggestions on future research directions.

# CHAPTER 2: ORGANISATIONAL COMMITMENT: REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE.

## 2.1 INTRODUCTION.

This chapter is concerned with examining the concept called organisational commitment. Despite its importance for industrial and organisational psychology, the literature reveals considerable confusion on the nature and functional operation of the concept. For instance, there is no commonly accepted definition because of two main opposing schools of thought - behavioural and attitudinal. 1 Secondly, researchers tend to differ over the determinants of the variable - some favouring structural or investmenttype determinants and others psychological determinants. Originating with Becker (1960) and Ritzer and Trice (1969), this issue has spawned a number of studies with no satisfactory resolution. Thirdly, research has tended to concentrate on correlates of commitment rather than exploring the multifaceted nature of the concept. result, commitment is often confused with identification and involvement, either conceptually, analytically or empirically, with few attempts being made to arrive at definitive differences. Finally, only two measurement instruments (Porter et al, 1974, 1976; Cook and Wall, 1980)

Chapter 1 mentioned another school of thought - the sociological. It is not discussed further in this study as it is thought to be similar to the attitudinal. Another reason is that this study is not concerned with investigating professional employees.

appear to have any psychometric qualities. <sup>2</sup> The concept, in short, holds many avenues for further theoretical and empirical development.

Nevertheless, the concept has an extensive background in the social science literature. As organisational commitment is the major dependent variable in this study, a review of the concept is now in order.

## 2.2 DEFINITIONAL ISSUES.

Generally, there is only partial consensus on what commitment is and how it develops (Buchanan 1972; Mowday, Steers and Porter, 1979) This is because there are two major approaches to the concept's definition - commitment is seen either as a behaviour or as an attitude. These approaches correspond roughly to the distinctions between two major social science disciplines. According to Buchanan (1972, p8), "attention to behavioural commitment characterises social psychologists, while attitudinal commitment is usually emphasised by students of organisations". Kiesler (1971), Salancik (1977a, 1977b), Wiener and Gechman (1977), Wiener and Vardi (1980), Staw (1974, 1976, 1977), Staw and Fox (1977), Staw and Ross (1980) are proponents of the former; Buchanan (1972, 1974), Hrebiniak

Gordon et al (1980) has recently developed a scale with psychometric qualities measuring commitment to a union. It was developed too late for consideration in this study.

and Alutto (1972), Sheldon (1971), Hall, Schneider and Nygren (1971) - to name but a few - are advocates of the second.

## Commitment as Behaviour:

Kiesler (1971), Salancik (1977a, 1977b), Staw (1974, 1976, 1977), Wiener and Gechman (1977), Wiener and Vardi (1980), Staw and Fox (1977), Staw and Ross (1980), Salancik and Pfeffer (1978) believe that commitment is best viewed as a behaviour rather than as an internal process or construct. Their interest has focused on situational factors which make it difficult to change or revoke a particular action (Mowday and McDade, 1979, p84). Kiesler and Sakumara (1966), for example, have identified five factors which may increase an individual's commitment to a specific course These factors are the number of acts performed by the individual, the importance of the act to the individual, the explicitness of the act, the degree of revocability of the act, and the degree of choice or volition perceived by the individual in performing the act (1966, p350). According to this view, an individual will be more committed to a course of action when the action is "explicit, known by others, important, made of the individual's free choice, and circumstances make it difficult to revoke" (Mowday and McDade, 1979, p84). Steers and Porter (1979, p305) explain that individuals incur

"sunk costs that make it difficult to take alternative courses of action" - for example, a blue-collar employee undergoing an apprenticeship programme may find that the sunk costs in time and seniority 'commit' him to the organisation - that he cannot afford to leave and go elsewhere. Commitment is also aided by the psychological forces of dissonance reduction which ensure that individuals forego alternative courses of action and link themselves to their particular cause, person, activity or institution. Kiesler and Sakumura (1966) point out that if the behavioural commitment is inconsistent with an individual's pre-existing belief system, the fact that the individual has declared himself in public will lead him to adjust his attitudes to become more consistent The more irrevocable and unambiguous the with the act. act, then, the more attitude change will be consistent with the act.

## Commitment as an Attitude:

A more or less separate line of research has examined employee commitment to organisations. However, its main focus has been on the attitudinal manifestations of commitment. In fact, the study of attitudinal commitment has generated a substantial body of knowledge. There has been extensive empirical work, and considerable effort has been devoted to the development of a measurement

instrument (Mowday, Steers and Porter, 1979, review the attempts of 9 years to develop a 15-item attitudinal scale). Although definitions are many and varied, they generally portray commitment as either a uni-or-multidimensional construct. A brief review of these definitions now follows.

The unidimensional researchers include Grusky (1966), Sheldon (1971) and Hrebiniak and Alutto (1972). treats commitment as a general construct, referring to it as "the nature of the relationship of the member to the system as a whole! (1966, p489). Similarly, Sheldon sees commitment as an "orientation which links or attaches the identity of the person to the organisation" (1971, pl43), while Hrebiniak and Alutto view it as the "perceived utility of continued participation in the employing organisation" (1972, p560). Gross (1964) discusses an individual's "psychological immersion" in the affairs of the organisation; Kanter (1968) highlights the "willingness of social actors to give their energy and loyalty to social systems"; and Becker and Carper (1956), Brown (1969), Schein (1961) and Gouldner (1959) all discuss "identification with and loyalty to organisations". views, whilst diverse and general, are also rather specific for example, Hrebiniak and Alutto consider that commitment exists when the individual merely wishes to remain with the organisation.

The multidimensional researchers are more inclusive and concentrate on delineating the nature of the psychological bonds between individuals and organisations. For example, Buchanan (1974, p533) considers commitment to be a "partisan, affective attachment to the goals and values of an organisation, to one's role in relation to goals and values, and to the organisation for its own sake, apart from its purely instrumental worth". Porter, Crampon and Smith (1976, p91) agree, asserting that commitment can be characterised by at least three related factors: "(1) a strong belief in and acceptance of the organisation's goals and values; (2) a willingness to exert considerable effort on behalf of the organisation; and (3) a strong desire to maintain membership in the organisation". Commitment is thus viewed as the relative strength of an individual's identification with, and involvement in, a particular organisation. This multidimensional view is of recent origin. Prior to its enunciation and verification by Buchanan's (1972) empirical work the unidimensional approach held sway with its less satisfactory explanation of the process.

## Relationship between Behavioural and Attitudinal Commitment:

Although the two approaches of behavioural and attitudinal commitment have separate research traditions a number of

researchers have begun to recognise that they may be related. Staw (1977) was the first to do this; more recently Salancik and Pfeffer (1978) discussed the linkage in terms of a social information processing model, while Mowday and McDade (1979) examined the relationship in a longitudinal analysis of job choice and job attitudes. In fact, these latter researchers contend that "investigations of behavioural and attitudinal commitment appear to be focusing on two different stages of the same general process" (1979, p84). Using job choice as an example they assert that:

"For most individuals, the choice among alternative jobs is of some importance, explicit, and evident to others. In addition, such choices may be difficult to change or Even though an individual may have a choice among alternative jobs at one point, changes in the job market or investments made both on or off the job may make this choice difficult to revoke, even if the job proves to be a good deal less attractive than expected. When employees are highly committed to their choice of a job, attitudes towards the job are likely to be made consistent with this choice. Following choice, highly committed individuals are likely to hold more positive attitudes toward the organisation which, in turn, may lead to subsequent behaviour (e.g. putting in extra time on the job) which further commits the individual" (1979, p84)

Mowday and McDade's analysis sheds a new perspective on some previous research. For instance, Porter et al's (1974, 1976) longitudinal investigations of commitment and turnover could be interpreted as combined attitudinal and

behavioural investigations rather than solely attitudinal studies. Other work, when examined, could also exhibit varying degrees or combinations of the two approaches. However, the issue is not whether previous orientations have been correct or incorrect - rather it is to recognise that the two traditions are not as distinct as previously assumed and may in fact be different parts of a similar process. Mowday and McDade have thus assisted in opening up a new direction in the study of commitment. Their selection of job choice is an excellent illustration of the relationship exhibited between the two schools of thought.

In keeping with this new direction, this study combines both attitudinal and behavioural traditions in its examination of commitment. However, the main focus is on the attitudinal approach because the study's objective is to examine change in employee attitudes during their first few months of employment. The behavioural approach is covered by an examination of job leaving behaviour (indications of intentions to leave the company and absenteeism). Apart from this inclusion, which lends complementary support to the changes in employee attitudes, the behavioural approach to commitment plays no major part in this research. Henceforth, whenever organisational commitment is discussed it is from the attitudinal approach and is to be taken as such. No further elaboration of the behavioural approach to commitment is made in this chapter.

# 2.3 RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN THE ATTITUDINAL APPROACH TO COMMITMENT AND INVOLVEMENT AND IDENTIFICATION.

Just as the definitional issues reveal a link between behavioural and attitudinal approaches to organisational commitment, an examination of the attitudinal approach reveals a link between the concepts of involvement, identification and commitment.

March and Simon (1958) appear to have initiated this when they defined four principal targets for identification: namely, external organisations, the organisation itself, the job, and the sub-groups within the organisation (1958, p65). Etzioni (1961) enlarged this framework by treating commitment as a special case of involvement (identification). He described involvement as a "cathectic-evaluative orientation" of an actor to an object, characterised by Commitment was the occurrence intensity and direction. of positive involvement with moral overtones. Hall (1970, 1971) then supported this link between involvement and commitment with his adaptation of the March and Simon categorisation. He defined three types of commitment: commitment to a career (or the motivation to work in a chosen type of role); commitment to the job (involvement with a particular role or work assignment) and organisation commitment (implying identification and loyalty). Hall suggested that the three categories, while related, were also theoretically distinct with different causes and

consequences. Finally, Buchanan (1972, 1974) decided the matter when on developing scales to measure the concepts of commitment, identification and loyalty, found them to be measuring the same concept. This result was confirmed by Porter and Smith (1970), Porter, Steers, Mowday and Boulian (1974) and Porter, Crampon and Smith (1976) in their development of a 15-item attitudinal scale measuring commitment.

This issue of the relationship between commitment, involvement and identification is highlighted because the literature reveals extensive separate development of the concepts in their own right. This suggests that they are independent constructs. Owens (1975, p2) appears to sum up the matter with his observation that all three states refer to a process "whereby a person or group of persons become part of, for them, a new system and in doing so undergo some form of psychic change". The terms also refer to the state of being a functional part of, and having affinities with, an organisation. Hence, while they may be analytically distinct, they are also very similar. they deal with aspects of a person's affective reactions to characteristics of his employing organisation, it is more than probable that they come from the same conceptual domain (Nunnally, 1967). Buchanan's work asserts this, and the pilot work performed for this study confirms it (see Chapter 5). In fact it would appear from previous research and from this study's pilot work that organisational commitment is a global construct incorporating involvement

and identification as well as other facets (see below).

Such an interpretation is adopted in this study and confirmed by its main investigation (Chapter 6). Becker's (1960, p32) original assertion that commitment was "...a primitive concept, introduced where the need is felt without explanation of its character and credentials" is no longer valid. The concept is emerging as a useful device for studying the responses of individuals to their working environment.

# 2.4 RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN THE ATTITUDINAL APPROACH TO COMMITMENT AND SATISFACTION.

Just as an examination of attitudinal commitment reveals a relationship between identification and involvement so it reveals a relationship between commitment and satisfaction. Porter et al (1974) found this and suggested that it was the result of the global evaluative link between employee and organisation. However, they also asserted that the two constructs were distinguishable attitudes with each contributing unique information about the individual's relationship to the organisation (1974, p608)

Mowday, Steers and Porter (1979, p226) expanded this theme by isolating two main differences between commitment and job satisfaction. The first concerned the nature of the concept - either global or specific. Job satisfaction was

seen as the specific concept, reflecting an individual's response to the job or to certain aspects of the job; alternatively, commitment was viewed as the global concept, being a general affective response to the organisation as a whole. The second difference concerned the stability of the construct over time. Attitudinal commitment appeared to develop slowly but consistently while job satisfaction tended to be a more immediate response to specific and tangible aspects of the work environment - for example, pay and supervision (Smith, Kendall and Hulin, 1969; Porter et al, 1974).

Despite these analytical differences, commitment and satisfaction are still linked psychometrically - that is, they intercorrelate (Porter et al, 1974). A commonly accepted definition of commitment is thus difficult to devise as the construct has many components. As Nunnally (1967, p86) says the larger the domain of observables related to a construct "the more difficult it tends to be to define which variables do or do not belong in the domain". Commitment appears to be such a case. Definition apparently depends on both the particular tradition and the depth to which the researcher wishes to go in investigating this concept - for example, the difference between the uni-and-multidimensional (attitudinal) researchers. What has to be acknowledged, however, is that the construct has several traditions and a number of elements dealing with being a functional part of, or having affinities with,

an organisation. Researchers need to be clear in their particular interpretation of the concept. Only then can confusion be avoided and the definitive links between employee and organisation properly assessed.

### 2.5 THIS STUDY'S APPROACH TO COMMITMENT.

There are three aspects to this study's approach to organisational commitment.

First, as already mentioned the study is mainly interested in an attitudinal approach (by investigating changes in employees' attitudes after employment) although the behavioural approach is considered in the measurement of job leaving behaviour. However, the study of behavioural commitment has only a minor part in this research and has been included to illustrate the recent theoretical development that the two traditions deal with "different stages of the same general process" (Mowday and McDade, 1979, p84).

Secondly, in focusing on the attitudinal approach to commitment this study recognises that involvement, identification and commitment (and even satisfaction) are closely related. Consequently, this study's definition of organisational commitment (given in Chapter 1, page 12) encompasses aspects of involvement and identification.

Thirdly, and related to two, this study separates affective responses to the organisation from affective responses to The reason for this is that other variables in this research, notably work environment and congruence, have been selected to deal with an individual's affective responses to the job. Most previous research (Buchanan, 1972, 1974; Porter et al, 1974, 1976 for example) has ignored this distinction preferring to incorporate job reactions with organisational ones in both definitions of the concept and the measuring instruments. This blending of objects (that is, job and organisation) makes it difficult to determine the unique contribution of each in an individual's affective response. Moch (1980) and Cook and Wall (1980) recognise this inconsistency, with the latter acknowledging that the interpretation of involvement is mainly to blame. They state: (1980, p40)

> "Buchanan deals with involvement as a form of satisfaction obtained from one's work and activities carried out in the job role. This is similar in conception to one aspect of Lodahl and Kejner's (1965) scale of job involvement and to Hackman and Oldham's (1976) internal work motivation... An alternative view, provided in Porter el al (1974), is of a higher effort in the job on behalf of the organisation. The difference between the two positions is whether or not a person's involvement with his work goes beyond the job itself such that he works hard both for his own satisfaction and for the sake of the organisation".

Cheloha and Farr (1980, p468) lend their support with the comment that traditionally both the definitions and measures

of job satisfaction and job involvement have been confused with each other. Lodahl and Kejner (1965) reported that job involvement and job satisfaction had roughly the same factorial content, while Newman (1975) and Saal (1978) also reported correlations between the two constructs. avoid adding to the confusion this study treats both the organisational and job aspects as different variables. While it recognises that these variables will be linked psychometrically as indicated by previous research, the study attempts to determine scientifically what unique information, if any, each contributes to an individual's feelings towards his work environment. Only by collecting such information can adequate statements be made about analytical differences and empirical similarities. date most statements of this nature have been based on assumptions rather than empirical evidence. This study attempts to break new ground by operationalising the distinction.

#### 2.6 COMMITMENT AND SOCIALISATION.

Organisational socialisation is dealt with extensively in the next chapter. However, it is considered timely at this stage, while considering commitment's relationship with other concepts, to briefly explore the link between commitment and socialisation.

Organisational socialisation is usually described as a process which encourages new employees to internalise organisational values and norms and to display appropriate role behaviours (Brim, 1968; Schein, 1971). Buchanan (1972, p6) considers that the specific behaviours to be acquired are the cognitive element of an individual's role while the values and norms comprise its affective component. However, he believes the latter to be more important as:

"These are the things which invest the organisation with institutional identity. Their internalisation by successive generations of employees (sic) promotes perpetuation of the organisation in recognisable form. The organisational (sic) socialisation process is directed primarily at developing a personal commitment to the organisation's goals, values and norms. Its secondary objective is training in the substantive details of particular roles" (1972, p7)

Although commitment is a distinct process from socialisation a consensus exists among social scientists that organisational commitment is related to the character of socialisation experiences (Gordon et al, 1980, p481). For example, commitment may be effected by socialisation that occurs prior to membership in an organisation; likewise by the socialisation experiences that occur after an individual joins an organisation. Buchanan (1972) also feels that commitment links the individual's needs to the organisation's goals and values. The socialisation process assists this by reducing any felt discrepancies between

individual needs and organisational goals. It accomplishes this by standardising the articulation of individual needs to the point where the needs of most employees can be met by the organisation. As Buchanan (1972, pl3) says: "commitment results from a systematic leading and shaping of amorphous, pre-existing intrinsic needs into stable organisation-specific articulation".

This study recognises the importance of socialisation in the shaping of the commitment attitude. In fact its main objective is to examine the commitment attitudes of new sales assistants within a socialisation model and by making reference to socialisation variables. Because time is important in the evolution of the commitment attitude (Porter et al, 1974, 1976; Van Maanen, 1975), it is a longitudinal study. Of particular interest are the types of experiences or personal attributes important to commitment at different socialisation stages. Further development of the research design, hypotheses and variables is given in Chapter 4. At present it is sufficient to point out that organisational commitment will be examined within a socialisation framework.

## 2.7 OVERVIEW OF CONVERGENT LITERATURE APPROACHES.

### 1. <u>Introduction</u>

Because there is a psychometric link between attitudinal commitment, identification and involvement, this review considers all three aspects. This is a novel approach as the three variables are usually treated separately in the theoretical literature. Moreover, empirical studies tend to divide into two separate areas - those dealing with organisational identification and job involvement on the one hand and those with organisational and occupational commitment on the other.

Despite these divisions several important features emerge from the literature. In the first place, there is the positional difference over structural versus psychological determinants of the commitment variable (for convenience this will be called the Becker/Ritzer-Trice controversy). Secondly, there is the amount of research devoted to determining correlates of commitment/identification/involvement, and finally, there is the more recent development of interest in longitudinal studies. Because the material is very diverse, the literature review is segmented as follows:

- Job/Organisational Involvement studies
- Organisational Identification studies

- Organisational Commitment studies
  - Types of Commitment
  - . Commitment as an independent variable
  - . Commitment as a dependent variable
  - . The Becker/Ritzer-Trice controversy
  - . Longitudinal studies.

The measurement of commitment is covered in Chapter 5.

## 2. Job/Organisational Involvement Studies.

According to Moch (1980, pl7) organisational identification "refers to the degree to which employees identify with the organisation, whereas (sic) job involvement concerns the degree to which employees take their identity from their job". This distinction, however, has seldom been made clear in organisational research. Instead, the literature emphasises job involvement rather than organisational or group involvement.

Moch attributes the origins of this perspective to Dubin (1956) who was interested in the importance of work in employees' lives. Lodahl and Kejner (1965) added to this view when, following Dubin, they identified three relatively stable components of job involvement. Since then much of the research has used Lodahl and Kejner's findings as a

base and proceeded from there. The result is that little research reflects employees' involvement in the organisation.

Research into job involvement itself is marked by considerable conceptual confusion and proliferation of Rabinowitz and Hall (1977, p265), in their review of the area, highlight a few: namely, central life interest, work role involvement, ego-involvement, ego-involved performance, occupational involvement, morale, intrinsic motivation and job satisfaction. Generally these concepts are classified into two areas: performance self-esteem and self-image components. Theorists belonging to the first category are Dubin (1956), Guion (1958), Gurin, Veroff and Feld (1960), French and Kahn (1962), Vroom (1962) and Lawler (1969). Those in the second include Lodahl and Kejner (1965), Lawler and Hall (1970), Maurer (1969) and Patchen (1970). The second category is more relevant to this study as it has bearings on the way commitment theorists usually view the concept - that is, involvement is "the degree to which a person is identified psychologically with his work, or the importance of work to his total self-image" (Lodahl and Keiner, 1965, p24). It also indicates the ease with which a person could be socialised by an organisation - that is, a predisposition or 'readiness to respond' to socialisation.

Note that Moch (1980), Cook and Wall (1980) and this study distinguish between two types of involvement - that directed towards the job and that directed towards the organisation.

Rabinowitz and Hall (1977) also identify three theoretical perspectives on involvement: namely, involvement as a function of individual differences, as a function of the situation, and as a function of individual-situation interaction. After reviewing the appropriate research they conclude that job involvement is related to all three - that is, personal characteristics, situational characteristics and work outcomes. However, no one set of variables is more strongly related to job involvement than any other (1977, p284).

Like commitment, most research studies of involvement emphasise correlates such as age, sex, marital status, education, need strength, job level and participation in decision making. Researchers include Brown (1969), Weissenberg and Gruenfeld (1968), Schwyhart and Smith (1972), Gechman and Wiener (1975), Ruh, White and Wood (1975), Hall and Hall (1976), Bailyn (1977), Rabinowitz, Hall and Goodale (1977) and Cheloha and Farr (1980). Most of these researchers operationalise their concept of job involvement on the findings of Lodahl and Kejner (1965). As already mentioned these researchers found three components of involvement: the importance of the job to the individual; the amount of energy and ambition employees directed towards their jobs; and the employees' willingness to work independently of extrinsic rewards. The only other approach to measurement has been Saleh and Hosek's (1976) factorial examination of a large number of items purporting

to measure involvement. Three dimensions emerged, which add weight to Lodahl and Kejner's contention that job involvement is multidimensional by nature.

Hall and Hall (1976) and Gould (1979) have recently attempted some new directions. The former tested a model of the development of work involvement (Hall's 1970, 1971
'psychological success' or career subidentity model); the latter posed a new equity-exchange model based upon the earlier work of Barnard (1938) and March and Simon (1958). Basically it asserted that individuals "exchange their contributions or involvements in organisations for certain rewards or inducements which that organisation can provide them" (Gould, 1979, p53). However, unlike the Hall model, the equity-exchange model has not yet been operationalised.

Saal (1978) significantly upgraded most previous job involvement research by attempting an extensive multidimensional study. Aroused by Rabinowitz and Hall's (1977) deductions, he examined the relationship between job involvement and a number of other variables — in particular, personal—demographic characteristics, situational—job characteristics, work outcomes and selected other measures — for example, need achievement. Two conclusions emerged: job involvement could be best understood by dividing 'personal' characteristics into personal—demographic (age, sex etc); and that both situational (job) characteristics and personal—psychological variables shared

more common variance with job involvement than personal-demographic variables (1978, p53). His work opens up additional areas for research.

Finally, Rabinowitz, Hall and Goodale (1977) and Cheloha and Farr (1980) looked at similar aspects to Saal. The former investigated the relative potency of job characteristics versus individual differences as predictors of job involvement; the latter studied the relationship between absenteeism, job involvement and job satisfaction. Rabinowitz et al found that both types of variables had equal importance in explaining the variance in job involvement, while Cheloha and Farr discovered that job involvement acted as a mediating influence between absenteeism and job satisfaction.

Several significant issues emerge from this review of job involvement. First, a large number of differing conceptions of involvement exist; secondly, most research studies deal with isolated variables; and thirdly, efforts are only now being made to explore the multidimensional nature of the construct. Schwyhart and Smith (1972, p227) claim that more attention has been given to the correlates of involvement than to the concept's careful conceptual and operational specification. Judging by the length and nature of Rabinowitz and Hall's (1977) review, this critique still holds. It is obvious that the concept needs further development, particularly from the organisational point of

view.

This study investigates the concept of involvement in its main empirical work. However, a different stance is taken from the general trend in the literature. Following Moch (1980) and Cook and Wall (1980) a distinction is made between organisational involvement and job involvement. Organisational involvement is included in the concept of organisational commitment, while job involvement is covered by two variables called Congruence and Satisfaction with the Working Environment. These variables are discussed in more detail in Chapter 4. It is sufficient at this stage to point out this study's position on involvement. Its treatment, confirmed by Moch and Cook and Wall, is a departure from the general trend.

### 3. Organisational Identification Studies.

A large number of studies deal with Organisational Identification. As many of these also include job involvement, they have been left to this part of the literature review.

Original notions of identification were rather simple. It was once described as a situation in which "an individual may be observed to respond to the behaviour of other people or objects by initiating in fantasy or reality the same behaviour himself...the individual strives to behave in a way that is exactly like that of the object" (Sanford, 1955,

pl09). Originating with Freud, this <u>imitative or modelling</u>
<u>side</u> and its various versions (Kelman, 1958; Kagan, 1958)
is now recognised as only one aspect of identification,
particularly in the organisational context.

Some contemporary researchers still view identification simplistically; for example, Gouldner (1957) and Lewis (1967) view it merely as loyalty. However, a multidimensional view is gaining prominence. Brown (1969) considers identification to be attraction to the organisation, compatibility of individual and organisational goals, reference of self to organisational membership and Patchen (1970) defines it as involving loyalty. similarity (sharing interests and goals), membership (a feeling of belongingness) and loyalty (supports and defends organisational goals and policies). Hall, Schneider and Nygren (1970, pl77) likewise conceive the construct as a process by "which the goals of the organisation and those of the individual become increasingly integrated or congruent".

Many of these definitions are similar to those of commitment (see page 25). In fact people like Lee (1969, 1971) often use the two concepts synonymously and interchangeably. Matters are also not improved by many a researcher's tendency to ignore the distinctions between the various targets of identification/commitment - for instance, work activities, subgroups, the organisation itself and external groups. Although the importance of

these distinctions was originally specified by March and Simon (1958), they are generally ignored and this leads to unnecessary confusion. What is needed are some substantive distinctions between targets and concepts to assist in clarifying the multidimensional nature of the concept.

Findings from organisational identification studies are many and varied. Some investigate professional and occupational versus organisational identification; others concentrate on identification correlates. Professional and managerial subjects dominate with only Rotondi (1975a, 1975b, 1976) and Long (1978) appearing to use non-managerial personnel.

Brown and Carper (1956), through interviews with graduate students, identified four work identification areas: occupational title and associated ideology; commitment to a task; commitment to an organisation; and the position's Investigating 834 skilled and professional social status. employees of the Tennessee Valley Authority, Brown (1969) found identification depended on opportunities for personal achievement, a person's power within the organisation, and the absence of competing sources of identification. Reporting on 170 scientists, Lee (1969, 1971) confirmed some of these results. He found identification depended upon perceived opportunity for achievement, perceived prestige of the profession, overall relations with management and prestige within the organisation.

Hall, Schneider and Nygren (1970) and Schneider, Hall and Nygren (1971) found identification of U.S. Forest personnel correlated with time (length of service) and commitment to a pivotal organisational goal (public service). However position, holding tenure constant, was not significant. Several personal characteristics, suggestive of a service orientation, and higher-order need satisfactions did relate. The researchers believed it was important to distinguish the identification target and their data suggest that distinctions can be made between job and organisational roles.

Hall and Schneider (1972) compared the U.S. Forest personnel findings with Roman Catholic priests and Research and Development staff. Two distinct career identification patterns emerged. The first was a single organisation career pattern (the Church and the Forest Service); the second a multi-organisation one (R and D). Both were believed to arise from differences in organisation socialisation and mobility. In the former organisational identification was related to tenure, security and affiliation needs; in the latter to a low concern with self-fulfillment. For both types identification was related to job challenge through the intervening effects of job satisfaction.

Rotondi (1975a) found that organisational identification was a non-functional concept for R and D personnel (a sample of 107 subjects). This work was confirmed by Hebden (1975) who

found varying occupational versus organisational identifications amongst data processing staff. Kronus (1976) further discovered that the day-to-day work setting was an important determinant of reference group identification for pharmacists. Her work supported that of Rotondi and Hebden.

Rotondi (1975b, 1976), investigating managers versus non-managers, found personality needs to be directly associated with identification processes. However, hypotheses inferring higher levels of identification or need for achievement among managers rather than non-managers were not supported. Nor were expected differences between the two groups on work-group identification, occupational identification and external group identification. The results suggested that organisational climate could modify conditions for identification transference.

Ventimiglia (1978), Greene (1978) and Long (1978) considered student priests, R and D personnel and transport employees respectively. Ventimiglia found identification to be a function of career progress, role practice and 'significant other' influence. Greene replicated Miller and Wager's (1971) findings of different forms of identification - professional, organisational and different combinations of these two. He also found that professional identification was associated with role conflict and alienation, while lack of professional and organisational

identification was associated with role ambiguity and alienation. Finally, Long investigated the effects of employee ownership on organisational identification, employee job attitudes and organisational performance. While his work took a new direction, his operational definitions of integration, involvement and commitment were not consistent with the literature. He defined involvement as the literature generally defines identification, while commitment was merely described as a "sense of loyalty to the organisation" (1978, p34). Such sloppy operational definition and lack of adequate literature reviews has created much of the confusion surrounding these concepts.

Most studies reveal that a number of variables are related to organisational identification. Depending on circumstances, opportunities for personal achievement, tenure, the holding of similar goals and various personal needs have all been found to have relevance. Of special interest has been the finding of a conflict between professional/occupational identification and organisational identification. This shows why some organisational socialisation attempts are unsuccessful. However, the main interest of this study is the multidimensional nature of the construct and the similarity of the research findings with those of commitment. It is time to eliminate the separate treatment of the concepts and to acknowledge their multidimensional complexity. This is the only way to avoid unrelated and parallel research and to refine the concepts.

## 4. Organisational Commitment Studies

Compared to the other two concepts, organisational commitment is the most thoroughly developed empirically. Three main approaches emerge: attempts to distinguish the 'types' of commitment; commitment as an independent variable and commitment as a dependent variable. Both the Becker/Ritzer-Trice positional difference and the development of longitudinal studies have emerged from these approaches. Because both have particular relevance to this study they are examined separately to the three main approaches.

### a) Types of Commitment

A.W. Gouldner (1957-1958) was interested in analysing latent organisational roles or identities. Believing them to influence organisational behaviour, he tested loyalty to the organisation, commitment to professional skills and values and reference group orientations. Two identities emerged, "Cosmopolitans and Locals", which differed in degrees of influence, participation, propensity to accept or reject organisational rules and informal relations. Later factor analysing these concepts, Gouldner found six versions of the two main identities. He concluded that the distinction between organisational and professional commitment reflected the tension between the organisation's need for both loyalty and expertise.

Helen Gouldner (1959-1960) found commitment to specific organisational values was quite distinct from commitment to the organisation as a whole among 60 members of a voluntary association. Also Kanter (1968), in an historical study of 20 Utopian communities, argued for three types of commitment which she called continuance, cohesion and control. These were claimed to link cognitive, cathectic and evaluative orientations to roles, relationships and norms but this has not been proved empirically.

These few research studies are the only ones dealing with types of <u>organisational</u> commitment. A body of literature exists on professional (occupational) and religious commitment, but a review of it is not considered relevant to this study (the exception being the empirical research which provides insight into the conflict between professional and organisational commitment). It is more than probable that other conflicts and 'types' of commitment exist - for instance, family versus organisational commitment. As yet these have not been examined in the literature.

# b) Commitment as an Independent Variable

No main research theme or theory dominates this area. Most studies are independent of each other, relating commitment to either central life interests, turnover or education structures.

Alutto, Hrebiniak and Alonso (1971) reported that different types of socialising agencies - that is, nursing schools - had little effect on creating differential commitment towards the profession, the organisation or clinical specialty. Instead, type of agency was related to personality differences and expectations concerning professional role conflicts. The authors concluded that self-selection was a more important variable in shaping commitment than formal professional socialisation. Alutto and Acito (1974) considered the relationship between participation in decision making and commitment, job satisfaction, job tension, trust, authoritarianism and attitude towards the company. Two groups emerged: those who felt they were decisionally-deprived and those who were at a position of decisional equilibrium. The former were negative towards their employer, less committed to their current job and employer, had greater job related tension, exhibited less interpersonal trust, were less satisfied with work, supervision and promotion, were younger, and tended to be line personnel. Interestingly, no employees were found to be decisionally saturated.

Porter, Steers, Mowday and Boulian (1974) and Porter, Crampon and Smith (1976), in two longitudinal studies of commitment and turnover, highlighted a definite decline in commitment just prior to termination. The 1974 study also found organisational commitment to be a better discriminator between stayers and leavers than the various components of job

satisfaction (these two studies are discussed more fully in a later section). Additionally, Dubin, Champoux and Porter (1975) discovered that employees with a central life interest (CLI) in work were both more organisationally committed and attracted to individual features of their organisation than workers with other CLI orientations. This finding was based on a sample of 1014 blue collar and clerical employees. Later, Kidron (1978) attempted a constructive replication of the Dubin et al (1975) analysis. Using the Protestant Ethic as the work value, and dividing commitment into moral and calculative forms, he found a slight relationship between work values and moral commitment. Actually his definition of calculative commitment is the same as the Hrebiniak and Alonso (1972) and Alutto, Hrebiniak and Alonso (1973) definition of commitment but without the calculative label, while his description of moral involvement is identical to the Hall, Schneider and Nygren (1970) definition of identification. He thus used different names for already acceptable concepts.

Finally, Morris and Koch (1979) considered the effects of role conflict and role ambiguity on organisational commitment, job involvement and work-related psychosomatic illness.

Investigating professional, clerical and manual employees,

<sup>4</sup> Kidron defined calculative commitment as the willingness to leave the organisation for more pay, better status etc, while moral involvement was defined as the identification of the individual with the goals of the organisation.

the results indicated that the two role perceptions had differing effects on the outcomes in question and the complexity of work roles.

These few studies, while examining commitment, also reflect socialisation effects: either as (1) a process - that is, type of education, or (2) as an outcome - for example, turnover. The other significant finding is that the commitment attitude declines over the first few months of employment, illustrating the difference between anticipatory socialisation (entry expectations) and reality. This is supported by the longitudinal research of Van Maanen (1972, 1973,1975) into police socialisation (discussed in a later section). More work needs to be done in this area, particularly into the shaping of commitment attitudes. According to these few investigations the socialisation process apparently plays a key role in this matter.

### c) Commitment as a Dependent Variable.

This area has spawned the Becker/ Ritzer-Trice positional difference over the determinants of commitment (see following section). Although some attempts have been made to establish other research themes (for instance, Stevens, Beyer and Trice (1978) consider Buchanan (1972, 1974) to have a psychological approach) they have received little support. Once again most studies are independent of each other, dealing mainly with the correlates of commitment.

Grusky (1966) examined the relationship between managerial career mobility and organisational commitment. He found that the greater the obstacles an individual had to overcome to obtain organisational rewards the stronger was his commitment. Thornton (1970) tried a new direction in his investigation of organisational and professional commitment. Instead of assuming a basic conflict, he looked for areas of compatibility between the two. They were found to be more compatible under conditions of professional, rather than nonprofessional, involvement. Subjects who were professionally committed were also organisationally committed - a finding not always supported in other research.

Bassis and Rosengren (1975) investigated maritime training systems and discovered an inverse relationship between commitment and length of time in training. This result was verified by Flude (1977) in a study of 147 apprentices in four trades. Wiener and Gechman (1977) found work commitment in elementary schoolteachers to be linked with identification processes and job satisfaction, while Hall and Schneider (1973) reported that organisational commitment for priests was related to tenure, position, two aspects of job satisfaction (supervision and the work itself) and the importance attached to administration (a value item).

Two other studies are of interest. Steers (1977) proposed and tested a model concerning the antecedents of employee

commitment (personal, job and work characteristics) and its outcomes (performance). He found that all three antecedents influenced commitment, but that work experiences had the greater influence. However, the link between commitment and performance (outcome) was not verified. Similarly, Card (1978) discovered a multiplicity of variables effecting the career commitment of young adults (especially those embarked on the Reserve Officer Training Corps/Army Career Path). Of particular interest were the findings that different career influences became salient at different career stages, early exposure to a career path increased commitment, and participants differed from non-participants in job attitudes, values, salient attitudes and dimensions sought in a job. It is felt the model is applicable for studying commitment to other career paths.

Additional information is provided by several other studies. For instance, Marsh and Mannari (1977) found life-long commitment (in Japanese workers) depended on the extent to which the individual derived satisfaction from his job, had cohesive relationships with fellow employees, perceived his job autonomy to be low, and had higher status in the company. Finney (1978) devised a theory of religious commitment. Investigating five dimensions - ritual practice, knowledge, experience, belief and devotional practice - the data emphasised the importance of the collective, ritualistic church setting for the generation of personal religious experience, patterns of orthodox religious belief and private religious activity.

London and Howat (1978) and Zammuto, London and Rowland (1979) were interested in the relationships between five conflict resolution strategies (withdrawing, smoothing, compromising, forcing and confronting) and three measures of employee commitment (organisation, profession and community). The first study investigated supervisorsubordinate dyads in 49 parks and recreation districts. The relationships varied between the different types of commitment and between supervisors and subordinates. example, confronting was positively related to subordinates' organisational commitment, while supervisors' professional and organisational commitment was negatively related to their use of forcing. In the second study, the impact of sex on conflict resolution and commitment was investigated. Three groups were compared: males reporting to males, males reporting to females and females reporting to females. The sexual composition of the supervisor-subordinate dyad proved to be very significant. Males reporting to females used smoothing, compromise and confrontation when they were committed to the position. Alternatively, females reporting to females avoided these strategies when they were committed.

Singh and Das (1978) found that organisational culture influenced commitment both positively and negatively. Where an individual's higher order needs were satisfied through autonomy, achievement and self-actualisation, a higher level of commitment resulted. Conversely, a coercive authoritarian culture effected commitment negatively. Bartol (1979)

(1979) investigated professionalism as a predictor of organisational commitment, role stress (conflict and ambiguity), and turnover (plus turnover expectancy). Autonomy, professional commitment and ethics (three dimensions of professionalism) influenced commitment positively; collegial maintenance of standards (another dimension) was negatively related. Overall, professional attitudes were found to be related to greater, rather than lesser, degrees of organisational commitment. The author suggested that when professionalism was operationalised as a multidimensional construct, it showed few of its usual negative outcomes. Her work supported some of the earlier directions of Thornton (1970).

Finally, Morris and Steers (1980) examined the effects of variations in organisation structure on organisational commitment. Using decentralisation, formalisation, supervisory span of control, span of subordination, perceived functional dependence and work group size as the structural variables, they discovered that they accounted for over 20 per cent of the variance in organisational commitment for the group being studied. The authors recommend that future model building attempts take organisation structure into account as one potentially important dimension of influences on organisational commitment.

This review reveals, then, that commitment is a complex facet of organisational behaviour that has many correlates.

Moreover, it is this fact that has sparked the Becker/

Ritzer-Trice positional difference. Although both viewpoints are primarily concerned with 'explaining' commitment, the argument has generally dissolved into which set of 'explaining' correlates is superior to the other. As this controversy has a bearing on this study, a review of the main issues follows.

## d) The Becker/Ritzer-Trice Controversy

Becker (1960) was mainly interested in explaining consistency in behaviour. He pointed out that previous usage of the commitment concept was full of flaws as it was portrayed as "a hypothesised event or condition whose occurrence was (sic) inferred from the fact that most people acted (sic) as though they were committed" (1960, p35). Wishing to avoid this 'tautological sin', he argued that the characteristics of 'being committed' must be specified independently of the behaviour they were supposed to explain. He then offered the notion of 'side-bets' as an explanation for 'being committed'. The philosophy behind these side-bets was that:

"The committed person has acted in such a way as to involve other interests of his, originally extraneous to the action he is engaged in, directly in that action. By his own actions prior to the final bargaining session he has staked something of value to him, something originally unrelated to his present line of action, on being consistent in his present behaviour. The consequences of inconsistency will be so expensive that inconsistency in his bargaining stance is no longer a feasible alternative" (1960, p35).

According to Becker, the side-bets included not only investments by the individual but also those created by social organisations which constrained an individual's future activity - for example, cultural expectations about roles and work behaviour and bureaucratic arrangements (pension funds, career opportunities). Usually the individual was unaware of these 'investments' until the time came to make a change. He then realised he had made a commitment "without realising it" - a condition Becker called "commitment by default" (1960, p38). Becker believed researchers should examine both types (that is, conscious and unconscious decisions) to appreciate fully the genesis of commitments. However, he asserted that this analysis should be undertaken within the prevailing system of values. By doing so:

"...we understand not only how side bets are made but the kind of counters with which they can be made; in fact, it is likely that we cannot fully penetrate the former without understanding the latter" (1960, p39)

Becker acknowledged that his conception of commitment covered a limited area, and offered no solution to the question of how people chose between conflicting commitments.

Nevertheless, he felt his idea of 'side-bets' specified the elements of commitment independently of the consistent line of activity they were used to describe. However, it is this very notion of 'side-bets' which has aroused a controversy. Commencing with Ritzer and Trice (1969) a

stream of studies have examined the legitimacy and relevancy of the side-bet idea. Their main contributions are now reviewed.

Ritzer and Trice (1969) endeavoured to operationalise Becker's notion among personnel managers. Using various background factors (age, marital status, salary etc) which they considered indicators of side-bets, they rejected Becker's theory on the basis of their findings. Because few of their correlations were statistically significant, they concluded that <u>psychological phenomenon</u>, and not structural phenomenon, were more important in determining levels of commitment. Their argument was that organisational commitment arose (1969, p478):

"...from a realisation by the individual that the occupation has little to which he can commit himself. In order to make his working life meaningful, an individual must commit himself to something. If the occupation is weak structurally, the organisation remains as the major alternative to which the individual may commit himself (one other alternative, if it exists, is a union)".

Although they proposed that commitment was basically a psychological process, they also acknowledged the role of structural factors in commitment. Their position was that (1969, p478):

"Once an individual has psychologically committed himself there are a series of structural constraints which, over time,

serve to increase that commitment. These are the side-bets Becker has talked about. However, in our theory, they are not the major determinants for commitment, they only increase commitment once it has initially been made".

Ritzer and Trice's study examined both the occupational and organisational commitment of personnel managers. Their alternative theory thus fitted neatly into the situation of this particular group. The authors recognised that personnel administration was part bureaucratic and part professional and found that personnel managers were committed, in part, to both occupation and organisation. This study feels that Ritzer and Trice should have used another group on which to test the Becker concept. professional groups do have conflicting commitments, a non-professional group may have been more preferable. Ritzer and Trice largely base their claim for rejection of the Becker theory (1969, p477) on the fact that  $\underline{\text{age}}$  did not correlate with commitment. 5 However, an inconsistency is evident in their theorising. While rejecting Becker's theory on the one hand, they then include structural factors as supportive elements of their psychological factors in their alternative theory.

The two positions of Becker and Ritzer and Trice have sparked a lot of interest. Alutto, Hrebiniak and Alonso (1973),

The authors contended that age "would be the best single indicator of the number of such prior actions an individual takes" (1960, p476). It was reasoned that the older an individual was the more likely he was to have made a large number of side-bets, thereby increasing his commitment to the employing organisation.

replicating the Ritzer-Trice study among teachers and nurses, found much stronger support for the original side-bet theory than did Ritzer and Trice. A number of researchers have also suggested refinements to the theory. Stebbins (1970) suggested differentiating between commitment due to rewards (value commitment) and that due to costs (continuance commitment). Ritzer and Trice (1970) were critical of this, but it was investigated by Hearn and Stoll (1975) in their study of cocktail waitresses. Sheldon (1971) suggested a differentiation between investments (time on the job) and involvements (social relationships with peers, supervisors etc). She found both were related to commitment, but investments were more so. Other studies included Hrebiniak and Alutto's (1972) investigation of nurses and teachers; Johnson's (1973) analysis of courtship systems; Aranya and Jacobson's (1975) look at systems analysts; Shoemaker, Snizek and Bryant (1977) with Forest and Park Rangers; and the Stevens, Beyer and Trice (1978) investigation of 634 managers in the U.S. Civil Service.

Unfortunately, different variables were used in many of these studies so that some of the conclusions must be treated with caution. However, it is the Alutto et al (1973) study mentioned above which has probably caused the most contention. They basically used the same operational measure of commitment as Ritzer and Trice with contrary results - that is, positive relationships were found between organisational

commitment and the variables of age, education, years of experience and marital status. In addition, they found a curvilinear relationship between age and years of experience and occupational commitment, interpreting this finding as supporting the side-bet hypothesis. Finally, they considered two social psychological factors - job dissatisfaction and intention to seek an advanced degree. Both were negatively related to organisational commitment while the latter was positively related to occupational commitment. Alutto et al concluded that their data offered support for Becker's original hypothesis. Alternatively, they point out that their contradiction of the Ritzer-Trice results may have been a function of a slightly more refined measure of commitment.

Shoemaker, Snizek and Bryant (1977) and Stevens, Beyer and Trice (1978) have made two more important studies in this area. Both are of interest as they used either the Ritzer and Trice or Alutto et al measure of commitment.

The first study, Shoemaker et al (1977), investigated the relationship between various social and demographic variables pertinent to Becker's theory and organisational and occupational commitment. Two attitudinal variables, job satisfaction and employee feelings of solidarity, were also included. Using Forest and Park rangers as their sample, they found partial support for Becker's side-bet hypothesis especially with respect to organisational

commitment. Stronger support, however, was found for the alternative social psychological explanation of commitment offered by Ritzer and Trice. Neither separate explanation was totally supported by the data.

The second study, Stevens et al (1978), endeavoured to explain commitment as the result of multiple forces. Both psychological and structural determinants were included thus presenting an integrated approach. Attention was given to including the full range of relevant factors that may determine the attachment of the individual to the organisation. Accordingly, their research incorporated personal, role-related and organisational variables. Interestingly, role-related factors emerged as more important predictors of commitment than the other variables. Similarly to Shoemaker et al, Stevens et al conclude that (1978, p393):

"In general, the results of the study indicate that managerial commitment has multiple positive and negative determinants. Neither side-bet nor psychological approaches alone explained the overall results; however, both can be incorporated into a role-exchange model to examine the various influences as either benefits or costs".

Both studies argue for further integrated approaches. They feel that some important variables which may have a bearing on commitment are being omitted from research while the Becker/Ritzer-Trice controversy holds sway. Certainly this

is the view of this particular research study. Becker/Ritzer-Trice issues were raised principally for two reasons. First, they must be included as they form a keystone in the literature. Secondly, it seems pointless to be continually arguing who is right when contemporary developments indicate commitment to be comprised of many elements and multiple determinants. Accordingly, this study adopts an integrated approach in its investigation of the factors effecting the organisational commitment of new employees. Although a new commitment measure is used, cognizance is made of both side-bet and social psychological factors as it is argued that both have a bearing on the development of this important attitude. The Becker/Ritzer-Trice controversy thus remains unresolved; academically, it is felt that is should be viewed merely as a stage in the development of understanding of the construct. The more appropriate position to-day appears to be the integrated approach.

# e) Longitudinal Research in Commitment.

Interest in this type of research has only just emerged in the literature. Three studies are mentioned: Porter, Steers, Mowday and Boulian (1974); Porter, Crampon and Smith (1976); and Van Maanen (1972, 1975). One other study is also considered in this section. Although actually a cross-sectional work, Buchanan's (1972, 1974) research provides insight into what might result if a longitudinal study were

undertaken. His work is further interesting because it emphasises socialisation experiences.

Porter, Steers, Mowday and Boulian (1974) investigated the relationship between commitment, job satisfaction and turnover among psychiatric technician trainees. A ten and a half month study was conducted, with attitude measures being collected at four points in time. Their primary interest was in understanding tenure. While previous research had focused on job satisfaction as a predictor of turnover, Porter et al were interested in comparing the predictive powers of both commitment and satisfaction. They found that commitment was the more important variable especially in later tenure stages. In the early stages there was no significant difference in attitudes betweeen stayers and leavers. They concluded that attitude relationships were strongest at points in time closest to when an individual left the organisation.

The 1976 study of Porter, Crampon and Smith was also interested in turnover and organisational commitment. This time the sample comprised 212 managerial trainees in a large merchandising company. A 15 month longitudinal design was implemented, with attitude data being collected from the first day of each trainee's employment. The results indicated that those trainees who voluntarily left the company during the 15 month period showed a definite decline in commitment prior to termination. Early leavers showed an

early decline and later leavers a later decline.

Unfortunately, the results of this study were eventually based on 16 leavers and 16 paired stayers. This was largely due to the turnover rate and the timing of the questionnaire administrations. Although the authors believed they had found a relationship between a decline in commitment attitude and voluntary termination, this result needs to be verified on a much larger sample.

The third study, Van Maanen (1972, 1975) had its genesis in an interest in police socialisation. Primarily, the research documented changes in the attitudes of police recruits during their first nine months of service. data was obtained by means of questionnaires and participant observation, with a follow-up at the 30 month tenure interval. The analysis concentrated on investigating the changes in police recruits' motivation, commitment and need satisfaction. The findings indicated that recruits entered the service highly motivated and committed to their newly-adopted organisation, but that their motivational attitudes declined swiftly thereafter. An interesting side result was that the less motivated patrol officers were perceived as being better policemen by their superiors than their more motivated peers. Commitment attitudes also dropped over time, despite a positive relationship with superior evaluations of performance. Need satisfactions remained fairly constant, with a similar positive relationship being found between evaluations and reported satisfaction.

Van Maanen attributed these changes in attitude to the speedy and powerful character of the police socialisation process. Successful graduates adopted a "lay low, don't make waves" approach to their jobs (1975, p207).

Van Maanen's work is of interest for two reasons: his research is the most extensive longitudinal study on commitment in the literature, and he also proposed a general theory of organisational socialisation. The latter arose out of his participant-observation role in his research. His staged socialisation model, viewing organisational entry as a process of entry, introduction, encounter and metamorphosis, is discussed in the next chapter. Maanen has also contributed significantly to the study of commitment. By recognising the importance of socialisation he helped explain the effects of 'reality shock' (Hughes, 1958) -that is, the difference between expectations and the reality of the on-the-job situation. This gives meaning to the empirical evidence on decline in attitudes after an individual enters an organisation.

The final study, Buchanan (1972, 1974), is a cross-sectional work concerned with investigating the importance of types of socialising experiences at different tenure stages. The study attempted to answer two questions: what organisational experiences had the greatest impact on managers' organisational commitment attitudes; and did the significance of such

experiences vary with organisational tenure, particularly at early career stages? To test these questions Buchanan examined managers at three 'influence susceptibility' stages: the first year of tenure, between two and four years of tenure, and at five years and beyond. He felt the last stage was the outcome stage of socialisation that is, organisational efforts to influence managers now involved "only the maintenance or alteration of existing attitudes rather than the molding of new attitudes" (1974, He found that different socialisation experiences effected organisational commitment in the three stages. For instance, group attitudes towards the organisation, first-year job challenge and loyalty conflicts were important in stage one. While group attitudes were still relevant in stage three, the other variables had been replaced by expectations realisation, work commitment norms and fear of failure.

Buchanan was content with the results for the first two stages. However, he felt that more research was needed to understand how commitment was maintained at mature career stages. This was because he found a discrepancy between reality and expectations in stage three. Although this could have been caused by the particular sample, the finding is worthy of further attention.

Buchanan and Van Maanen are important because they examined the relationship between socialisation and commitment. However, their studies are quite distinct. Buchanan used a proactive approach, attempting to identify both commitment relevant experiences and their influence at various tenure stages. Van Maanen was more reactive. His general theory of organisational socialisation arose out of his efforts to explain his research rather than being completely documented beforehand.

These two studies, along with those in the Becker/Ritzer-Trice controversy, form the main theoretical background to the empirical work of this study. However, rather than replicate their work, this research adopts and improves on some of the features of the earlier work. For instance. this research investigates a wide range of variables influencing the commitment attitude of new employees within a socialisation framework and through a longitudinal Thus, although it has some similar features to design. Buchanan and Van Maanen, this study essentially presents an integrated approach within these constraints. first study to do so. Further details of the research design are given in Chapter 4. Suffice it is to say that it is an advance on previous research. This study has the added objectives of resolving some of the inconsistencies between the side-bet and psychological theories; of exploring further the relationship between satisfaction and commitment; and of studying the multifaceted nature of the commitment construct. It is thus an attempt to draw together diverse issues. A summary of this study's main position on organisational commitment is given in the next section.

# 2.8 SUMMARY AND THIS STUDY'S THEORETICAL POSITION ON ORGANISATIONAL COMMITMENT.

This review reveals that commitment is a complex facet of organisational behaviour that is only partially explained by existing theories. For instance, the Becker/Ritzer-Trice controversy provides some information; likewise do the various empirical studies. Stevens, Beyer and Trice (1978, p394) believe that:

"A systems-oriented model that captures additional open-system factors such as socialisation, interpersonal factors, the national economic situation, the existence of feasible alternatives for the individual, and the interrelationships of these factors is needed. Ideally, additional research should also relate commitment attitudes to job search and leaving behaviours"

This study agrees that a broader approach to the study of commitment is required. In incorporating some of Stevens et al's ideas in its investigation of the organisational commitment of new employees, the following theoretical positions are adopted:

1. The study recognises both the behavioural and attitudinal approaches to commitment and agrees with Mowday and McDade (1979) that they appear to be focusing on two different stages of the same general process. Accordingly, behavioural commitment is seen as covering job

leaving behaviours, while attitudinal commitment is portrayed as referring to the change in employee attitudes after employment. The study also investigates job search, but the main interest is in attitudinal commitment - largely to understand why job leaving behaviours occur.

- 2. In investigating attitudinal commitment this study recognises a psychometric link with involvement and identification.

  Although these concepts are often treated separately in the literature, this study incorporates all three as integrated components in its measure of commitment (precedents for which have already been set).
- 3. The literature also reveals a link between commitment and satisfaction. Part of the reason for this is that affective responses to both the job and the organisation are often included in the same measure. study separates affective responses to the organisation from affective responses to The first is covered by the the job. variable organisational commitment; the other by two variables called Congruence and Satisfaction with the Working , Environment. The study adopts a new direction in this regard.
- 4. This study is also concerned with investigating the Becker/Ritzer-Trice controversy. In doing so, it adopts the

integrated approach suggested by Shoemaker et al (1977) and Stevens et al (1978) -in other words, it looks at the influence of both sidebet and psychological influences on the organisational commitment of new employees.

- 7. Previous longitudinal studies have revealed that the commitment attitude declines over time. In adopting the broader investigation of commitment, this study has also selected a longitudinal design. As one of its prime objectives is to determine what influences effect the commitment attitude it is important to discover the time frames at which these influences have effect. This is another departure from the general trend in the literature.
- 6. Finally, commitment is examined within a socialisation framework and using socialisation variables. No previous study has adopted this approach although both Buchanan and Van Maanen were concerned with the area (Buchanan considered socialisation variables; Van Maanen confirmed a socialisation framework after his study). The choice of framework is highlighted as this study considers commitment to be a socialisation outcome.

In short, then, this study draws together a number of diverse issues. Its theoretical antecedents for the study of commitment lie in the Becker/Ritzer-Trice controversy, the interest in longitudinal studies and the literature

links of commitment with the similar concepts of identification and involvement. Because of the diverse theoretical antecedents the study presents a more opensystems analysis of commitment than has previously existed in the literature. Further details of the variables and the design are given in Chapter 4. However, as the concept is investigated within a socialisation framework, with socialisation variables, a review of that particular theoretical field is now in order. This follows in the next chapter.

# CHAPTER 3: ORGANISATIONAL SOCIALISATION: REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE.

#### 3.1 INTRODUCTION.

This study's interest in the socialisation process derives from the view that organisational commitment is related to the character of socialisation experiences (Gordon et al, 1980, p481). Actually socialisation is a major field of study in its own right, with many sub-fields such as childhood socialisation, adult socialisation, professional socialisation and the fast developing area of retirement socialisation. However, the field of particular interest here is organisational socialisation as it deals with the work milieu which is the focus of this research. Accordingly, this review is restricted to the significant findings of research into organisational socialisation. Other aspects such as professional socialisation will be consulted only when relevant.

The concept of organisational socialisation remained undeveloped in the literature until the mid-1960's.

Little work was undertaken apart from Etzioni's (1961) delineation of socialisation settings in organisations, some early research studies of occupations/professions (Merton et al, 1957; Becker et al, 1961) and investigations into 'total institutions' (Dornbusch 1955; Goffman 1961).

What changed the situation was the acceptance in the late 1960's that socialisation was continuous throughout life. 1 Consequently about 1969 there was a sudden increase in the number of research studies. Another peak occurred in 1975-1976. Research developments in organisational socialisation are thus of fairly recent origin and accompany significant theoretical advances.

Three academic disciplines, psychology, sociology and anthropology, have contributed to the field. However. studies by Walker and Guest (1952), Chinoy (1955), Dubin (1956), Blauner (1964), Merton et al (1957), Becker et al (1961) and Goldthorpe (1968) in the industrial and professional or occupational arenas helped provide direction. In a seminal article Schein (1968) coined the term 'Organisational Socialisation' and defined and used it in a particular way. Explaining that values and attitudes change several times during a managerial career, he called the process of bringing about the change "Organisational Socialisation". He did this to keep the focus "clearly on the setting in which the process occurs" (1968, p2). Social scientists usually designate the social and psychological adjustment of men to their work settings as occupational socialisation (Moore, 1969). Although the two processes are

This can be attributed to the 'life-cycle' theorists. The original ones were Freud, Piaget, Bühler 1933, Jung 1933, Sullivan 1947, Miller and Form 1951, Erikson 1950. Contemporary ones include Neugarten 1968, Goulet and Baltes 1970, Levinson et al 1974, Brim 1976, Levinson 1977. Prior to their work it was believed that significant socialisation experiences occurred only in childhood.

interdependent, organisational socialisation theorists emphasise the <u>distinctive characteristics of the setting</u> believing them to be "far more crucial to the eventual outcome of the process than are the specific occupational attributes to be inculcated" (Van Maanen, 1976, p67)

To-day, organisational socialisation is an 'umbrella' term embrasing those aspects of occupational and professional socialisation relating to particular settings, and career socialisation (a generic derivative indicating an individual's progress, either vertical or horizontal, through an organisation). The latest developments in the literature concentrate on this latter process (Schein 1976, 1977, 1978; Van Maanen and Schein 1977, 1979; Van Maanen 1977a, 1977b, 1977c; Van Maanen, Bailyn and Schein 1977). However, irrespective of the emphasis organisational socialisation is now viewed as a field of study in its own right. The process is also recognised as being complex and dynamic (Mortimer and Simmons, 1978), with important implications for both organisational functioning and individual development.

#### 3.2 DEFINITIONAL ISSUES.

There are various definitions of organisational socialisation but they are largely consistent. For example, socialisation has been defined as the process by which the beliefs, norms and perspectives of participants are brought into line with those of the organisation (Etzioni, 1961); as the process of 'learning the ropes', of being taught what is important in an organisation or some organisational sub-unit (Schein, 1968); as the process by which a person learns the values, norms and required behaviour which permit him to participate as a member of the organisation (Van Maanen, 1976); and as the ways in which employees are transformed from total company outsiders to participating and effective members (Feldman, 1976a). While these definitions have slightly varying emphasis, they are basically in agreement.

The connection with organisational commitment now becomes clearer. As mentioned in Chapter 2, page 35, commitment links individual needs and organisational goals and values. Socialisation is the social mechanism which reduces any initial discrepancies between the individual's needs and the organisation's goals. This is accomplished by standardising the articulation of individual needs in such a way that the needs of most employees are met by the organisation. If commitment is an organisational goal, then, the socialisation process will be directed towards its achievement. Consequently, the development of commitment cannot be studied apart from the socialisation process.

Organisational socialisation is referenced to the work milieu to distinguish it from socialisation processes in other

settings such as the family, society in general, the education system, religious affiliations and professions. However, Hall and Schneider's (1973) study on the work lives of priests reveals that organisational socialisation is also related to these other areas. Their study was both an investigation of occupational and organisational socialisation as the occupation of priests was surveyed within its generic organisation, the Roman Catholic Church. Hence, the term organisational socialisation incorporates a multiplicity of work settings and work occupations and not just commercial and industrial ones.

Three main definitional issues are evident in the literature. They concern the object of change (the individual and/or the organisation); what is learned in the process (values and/or behaviour); and terminology. Some further discussion is needed to avoid confusion on these issues.

Organisational socialisation implies change in the individual. Although the reciprocal process is acknowledged, the organisation is considered to have the greatest influence as the new person joins a 'stable' social system (Schein, 1968, p3). Unfortunately, Bakke (1953), Schein (1971), and Porter, Lawler and Hackman (1975) have coined new terms - personalisation, innovation and individualisation respectively - to describe the individual's effect on the organisation. This study agrees with Van Maanen (1976, p110) that such distinctions unnecessarily confuse matters. In

criticising Schein, Van Maanen points out that it can become very difficult to distinguish whether a particular outcome is attributable either to innovation or socialisation.

Actually the confusion arises over the interpretation of the strength of the individual's response. Is he able to alter the organisation to his own objectives? Obviously some individuals can but this study does not deal with this issue, preferring to relegate this perspective to power and/or social influence theory. This study treats organisational socialisation in its original sense - that is, "the dominant activity mode is perceived to be learning and conditioning" (Izraeli, 1977, pl16). Thus, the effects of a powerful personality are ignored in this research. Instead, this study concentrates on the organisationally directed process "that prepares and qualifies individuals to occupy organisational positions" (Caplow, 1964, pl69).

The second issue concerns what is learned - values and/or behaviour? Sociologists (role theorists) favour overt behaviour while psychologists prefer the inculcation of values. Caplow (1964), Rosow (1965, 1974), Pavalko (1971) and Gordon (1972) believe both are involved. Rosow's socialisation typology emphasises the two with the socialised type conforming on both value and behaviour expectations, the dilettante on values only, the chameleon on behaviour only and the unsocialised on neither (1965, p36). Although

this formulation is neat, it ignores the degree of socialisation. Van Maanen sums up the matter with his comment that most adult socialisation settings lie "on a continuum from those concerned primarily with overt behaviour to those concerned with all facets of the general socialisation equation" (1976, p72). Organisations can simultaneously occupy different positions on the scale depending on the centrality or importance of particular organisational roles. Purists sometimes argue that 'internalisation' is the only true kind of socialisation. However, the alternative view is reinforced by investigations such as the HEW Report "Work in America" (1973), Emery and Phillips' (1976) "Living at Work" and Studs Terkel's (1972) collection of interviews called "Working". These are all indirect studies of the various effects of organisational socialisation. Hence, this study avoids the dichotomy, values versus behaviour, and accepts the more flexible view of socialisation as a process involving a 'variety' of learning outcomes.

The third definitional issue concerns terminology. Schein (1968, p2) originally inferred socialisation applied whenever individuals changed either hierarchical positions or organisations. However, Katz (1977) has applied the term 'resocialisation' to promotion and transfer situations, while confining the use of socialisation to the new entrant situation. This is a misinterpretation of Schein's conceptual usage. 'Resocialisation' has another meaning in

the literature - in particular, the correction of deviance or some deficiency in earlier socialisation (Wheeler, 1966; Kennedy and Kerber, 1973).

### 3.3 THE PROCESS EXPLAINED.

The diversity of material available in the field of organisational socialisation makes it difficult to isolate the salient points. Moreover, certain deficiencies exist. There is considerable criticism of the 'descriptive' nature of much of the research (Backman and Secord, 1966; Cogswell, 1968; Rafky, 1973; Van Maanen, 1976; Feldman, 1976a) while empirical studies often fail to identify the critical process variables, how or when they operate, or the outcomes of the process (Feldman, 1976a, p433). Mortimer and Simmons (1978, p241) believe this is because "investigators are more interested in the substance of what is learned than in the process of socialisation itself, so that new findings are not examined with reference to wider socialisation issues". The lack of communication between writers in the widely dispersed disciplines involved in the field also hinders theoretical and empirical integration.

Although these deficiencies exist, certain information is available on the process. A brief resume follows:

- 1. Organisational socialisation is recognised as an individual-organisation accommodation process in which the organisation has the greatest influence as the individual enters a 'stable' social system (Schein 1968; Etzioni 1961).
- During this process the individual acquires, learns and develops a number of attitudes, values, ways of thinking, need dispositions, personal and social attributes, knowledge, skills, behaviour patterns, motives, expectations, patterns of action, norms and roles (Inkeles 1968; Sewell 1963; Clausen 1968; McNeil 1969; Brim 1966; Scott 1972; Cogswell 1968)
- 3. Specific aspects learned or acquired include regular technical skills, tricks of the trade, social skills (Gross 1958); new self-image, involvements, values and accomplishments (Caplow 1964); organisational goals, means, personal responsibilities, behaviour patterns, and rules and principles which pertain to the maintenance of the identity and integrity of the organisation (Schein 1968); and pivotal, relevant and peripheral organisational norms (Schein 1971).
- 4. As a result of these acquisitions certain desirable <u>outcomes</u> are claimed to eventuate employee loyalty, commitment, productivity, low turnover, and stability and effectiveness of organisations (Schein 1968); general satisfaction, mutual influence, internal work motivation, job involvement (Feldman 1976a, 1977); and organisational co-ordination and control (Edström and Galbraith 1977)

- 5. Generally accepted means, methods, modes of assisting the acquisition process include apprenticeship, training, education, induction, debasement or 'upending' experiences, model imitation and trial and error (Caplow 1964; Schein 1961, 1967, 1968, 1976; Porter, Lawler and Hackman 1975; Van Maanen 1976; Van Maanen and Schein 1979)
- 6. Determinants of the <u>form and content</u> of the process include <u>environmental factors</u> (cultural values, economic, social and political conditions, status of the organisation in the social structure); <u>organisational factors</u> (rewards and attributes of the setting e.g. structural priorities, size, formality, processing of recruits); <u>group factors</u> (size of group, homogeneity of group, communicative isolation and conflicting loyalties); <u>task factors</u> and <u>individual</u> (personal characteristics) factors (Van Maanen 1976, 1978; Van Maanen and Schein 1977, 1979)
- 7. Socialising agents select the things to be acquired and also act as mediums of instruction. The agents or 'significant others' include superiors, peers, colleagues, union and professional group members (Cogswell 1968; Schein 1968; Mortimer and Simmons 1979)
- 8. Whilst influence is allowed and tolerated by the individual, it must be restricted to 'legitimate' work-related areas rather than personal ones (Schein and Ott 1962; Schein and Lippitt 1966; Bedeian 1976).

This summary reveals that organisational socialisation is a complex process. Because it is so complex few research studies attempt to cover the whole process and most have been conducted in tightly delimited areas (Mortimer and Simmons, 1978, p447). Nevertheless, certain approaches exist in the literature. These are now reviewed before general discussion on other issues pertinent to this study.

## 3.4 OVERVIEW OF CONVERGENT LITERATURE APPROACHES.

## 1. INTRODUCTION.

The literature in the organisational socialisation field divides into two neat categories - the <u>individual</u> who is the recipient of the socialisation process, and the particular <u>setting</u> (organisation) where the socialising takes place. The main divisions under each category are as follows:

## The Individual:

Developments can be categorised into several areas:

- a) Theoretical attempts to explain why and how the individual appears to 'change'. Perspectives include Role theory (Merton 1957; Brim 1966); Identification theory (Bandura 1969; Rosow 1974); Exchange theory (Homans 1961, Becker 1960) and Expectancy theory (Vroom 1964).
- b) Various <u>models</u> explaining the '<u>transformations</u>' experienced by individuals as they progress through the socialisation process. The models depict the phases and contigencies of the process.
- c) Contemporary emphasis on <u>career socialisation</u>
  as "one's work career from beginning to end can be used to represent a socialisation sequence"
  (Van Maanen 1977, pl5). Main interest is on

organisational entry (also the focus of this particular study).

d) Empirical evidence on the important variables in the socialisation process.

## Formal Contexts: The Organisation or Setting

Four main divisions are again discernible:

- a) Descriptions of the context itself that is, typologies of 'settings' which have various socialisation characteristics.
- b) A model of the organisation, linking structure, the individual and his career. This has become the foundation stone for the career socialisation area.
- c) Delineation of the various structural properties of organisational socialisation - for example, formality of setting, method of processing new entrants, length of socialisation period.
- d) Empirical evidence.

As each represents a tightly delimited area, they are treated separately in the following exposition.

## 2. LITERATURE APPROACHES CONCERNING THE INDIVIDUAL.

## a) Theoretical Perspectives on Individual 'Change'

Theorists in this area are mainly concerned with 'why' the individual alters his attitudes, values or behaviour; the 'extent' of change - for example, basic personality structure or overt conformity; and the 'causes' of change - whether internal, external or some combination of the two.

Role theorists primarily view socialisation as the process of acquiring appropriate norms, attitudes, self-images, values and role behaviours to "enable acceptance in the group and effective performance of new roles" (Mortimer and Simmons, 1978, p429). The individual learns through interacting with others and observing reference groups.

Leading theorists are Brim (1966), Inkeles and Levinson (1963) and Schein (1971).

Inkeles and Levinson's (1963) concept of 'the personality in action' describes how the individual interacts with others, his preferred modes of behavioural striving and his personal 'style' - whether competitive, cooperative or solitary.

Brim's (1966, 1968) 'self-other' notion is very similar as it highlights the "I-them", "they-me" relationships - namely: those social episodes involving expectations, performance and appraisals of both individuals and 'significant others'. He emphasises the importance of the reference set in socialisation -

the people with whom an individual checks his behaviour for appropriateness and value. Schein (1971) agrees, believing his 'constructed social self' concept to be the most immediate product of socialisation. This 'self' reveals how an individual presents himself to others, his self-image, his characteristic occupational and social roles, and his interaction patterns with others. According to Schein, social selves are either 'labile' or 'stable'. The stable self is rigid; the labile one is flexible and socially adjustable. Schein concludes that socialisation may involve "extensive adaptation and change on the part of the person in his 'labile' social selves without touching other more stable parts of him" (1971, p409). All three theorists thus emphasise 'self-other' or role-taking systems.

Two other theorists present a slightly different perspective. They are Korman (1970, 1976, 1977) and Hall (1970, 1971, 1976).

Korman's (1970) theory of work behaviour links role performance with self image. Individuals choose and find more satisfying those jobs and task roles which are consistent with their self-cognitions. His later work (1976, 1977) proposes that behavioural change occurs because differing attributional and socialisation tendencies are associated with different personality and environmental influences. This explains why some people become less

successful; why failures can succeed; and why some aggressive people alter. His recognition of environmental influences has important implications for long-term socialisation.

Hall (1970, 1971, 1976) postulates a 'psychological success' model. Basically it is concerned with the development of competent self-identities. For example, career subidentity growth occurs when an individual experiences psychological success in a career-relevant Psychological success is thus dependent on choice of challenging goal, effort to attain the goal and finally This in turn leads to increased self-esteem, goal attainment. a more competent identity and eventually career involvement that is, role taking (1976, p32). Hall's model can be applied to whatever sub-identity is under consideration for example, role of father, executive, defense officers (Jans, 1979). The model also illustrates how socialisation can be successfully applied.

Identification theory focuses on the affective relationships between model and identifier. Socialisation occurs when the individual has a strong emotional attachment to the model, wants to be like him, and emulates his behaviour.

Accordingly, Rosow (1974) defines three psychological elements: cathexis of the role, identification with a real or ideal model, and 'introjection' of the model's values. Bandura (1969a, 1969b, 1971) goes a little further by introducing

the notion of behaviour leading to reward. The individual examines the model for cues such as status and power which are visible signs of success (reward). The cues can influence the observer to expect that engaging in similar behaviour will lead to similar rewards. Finally, Milgram (1974) raises another perspective. He asserts that people perform certain actions, even against their moral principles, to obey authority figures. The pressures for conformity and obedience are immense. Milgram believes people are born with a "potential for obedience, which then interacts with the influence of society to produce the obedient man" (1974, pl25). Behaviour can thus be easily influenced by those in authority.

Expectancy theory is similar to identification theory. It emphasises the individual's expectations regarding the behavioural outcomes of his efforts and the group's responses to them. Vroom (1964) believes individuals are motivated to perform certain roles if they perceive themselves capable of performing them and perceive performance leading to favourable outcomes. If expectancies of obtaining rewards are sufficiently high, then the individual will be motivated to remain in the group, to contribute to it and to be socialised by it.

Exchange theory assumes the individual is an independent and active negotiator in relationships with role partners and membership groups (Mortimer and Simmons, 1978). The individual

is seen as being able to influence outcomes and strategies as he bargains for rewards in return for contributions (Homans, 1961). Becker (1960) sums it up with his 'side-bets' theory. To explain commitment (consistency of behaviour over time), he maintains individuals invest certain 'counters' (money, time, public commitment) in what they are doing. Successful socialisation thus greatly depends on the size and importance of these 'side-bets' to the individual.

These various theories have significant implications for a comprehensive theory of socialisation. Although no one group of theorists holds the 'key', collectively they provide information on how and why people change. They also provide explanations for changes in attitudes such as commitment, involvement and identification. No study of commitment and/or socialisation can thus ignore these change theorists. Their initial work is currently being translated into change 'models' which are reviewed below.

## b) Models of the Socialisation Process in Organisations.

Model-building is of fairly recent origin in the field of organisational socialisation. Essentially the models attempt to categorise the 'transformations' or changes experienced by individuals as they are socialised. Some emphasise affective states - that is, internal responses, while others promote external phases such as training periods. Most follow

Lewin's (1936) classic three-stage change model of unfreezing, changing and refreezing. In fact, Lewin is probably the change theorist with the greatest influence on contemporary socialisation investigators. Lewin thus provides the main theoretical position, while the field of professional socialisation provides the main pragmatic evidence. Sukel (1971) argues that this is because the professions have definite entry and exit points which make them more amenable to research than business organisations with their diverse entry and exit points. Generally the models can be divided into minor, major and associated types - for example, assimilation models. Although the major models are the most relevant to this study, the others are also reviewed for they provide useful information.

## Minor Models

The minor models, summarised in Table 3.1, all conceive the socialisation process in rather simple minded ways, with the main emphasis on expectations. Berlew and Hall (1966) saw a company's initial expectations having an important effect upon the later performance and success of young managers. Kotter (1973) described socialisation as a process of "matches and mismatches" in expectations between both individuals and organisation, with more 'matches' producing more favourable results. Gray (1973) confirmed this with his classification of when 'things went right' socialisation occurred and when 'things went wrong'

# TABLE 3.1

# Summary of Minor Models Depicting Aspects of Organisational Socialisation

Researcher	Emphasis	
Berlew and Hall (1966)	Expectations	
Kotter (1973)	Expectations (both Organisational and Individual	
Gray (1975)	Expectations ('matches' between Organisation and Individual)	
Ondrack (1975)	Cue consistency	
Izraeli (1977)	Negotiation (power positions)	

disillusionment, detachment and resignation eventuated.

Ondrack (1975) highlighted 'cue consistency'. If new entrants found similar attitudes and values among their socialising agents then positive socialisation resulted. Finally, Izraeli (1977) looked at <u>negotation</u>. She found that new managers had to learn not only the technology, structure and culture of an organisation, but also the political process in which to build a base of influence. She raised two points - the question of power, and that socialisation may be differentiated according to level (her research interest was the middle manager).

These models identify expectations, power and position as important variables in the socialisation process. The matter of expectations is considered in this study. One of the sub-objectives of this research is to give some empirical credence to the concept called 'reality shock' - that is, the difference between initial expectations and the reality of the on-the-job situation. The concept has its theoretical base in expectancy theory and the minor models.

## Assimilation Models

The processes of socialisation and assimilation are very akin. However, assimilation generally refers to the absorption of newcomers who are distinct from their 'host'group - for

example, migrants. The assimilation models usually deal with migrants although professional groups have been included recently. These models, like the major ones, delineate various transformation (change) stages. They are summarised in Table 3.2.

Richardson (1957, 1961, 1967, 1974) and Taft (1957) considered migrant assimilation. Richardson (1957) initially categorised three stages, isolation, accommodation and identification, but later modified these to satisfaction, identification and acculturation (1967, 1974). Taft's (1957) system was more complex as he postulated seven stages: cultural learning, attitudes to groups (two stages), role assumption or accommodation, social acceptance, group membership or 'identification' and convergence or congruence of norms.

Coulter and Taft (1973) adapted Richardson's basic model and applied it to the professional socialisation of schoolteachers. The stages became satisfaction with teaching, identification with the teaching profession and acculturation to the teaching subculture. Salas (1968) did the same thing with new Army recruits. However, the original stages remained untouched as he wanted to test their explanatory power.

Owens' (1975) has produced the most sophisticated model. He

TABLE 3.2
Summary of Assimilation Models

## Transformation Phases

Study	Stage l	Stage 2	Stage 3
Richardson (1957, 1961, 1967, 1974)	Satisfaction	Identification	Acculturation
Taft (1957)	. Cultural Learning . Attitudes to Groups . Role Assumptions or Accommodation . Social Acceptance . Group Membership or 'Identification' . Convergence or Congruence of Norms		
Coulter and Taft (1973)	Satisfaction with Teaching	Identification with Teaching prof- ession.	Acculturation to teaching sub-culture
Owens (1975)	Anticipatory Assimilation Iden	Adjust Accomo tification	

used four variables <sup>2</sup> to delineate four sequential stages in military assimilation: anticipatory assimilation, identification, adjustment-accommodation and assimilation. Although he supported his model with an extensive morphology of factors affecting assimilation, neither the model nor the classification system has any empirical support.

Assimilation models are similar to socialisation models because they essentially deal with the same process - the 'outsider-to-insider' process. However, the move into professional occupations tends to complicate the issue. As the review of major models will shortly reveal, similar descriptions are used for so-called 'different' processes. Parallel developments like these are not conducive to theoretical and empirical integration (Mortimer and Simmons, 1978). Until these similarities are recognised, or distinctive differences justified, unnecessary repetition and confusion will continue in this field.

## Major Models

These are more sophisticated than the other types of models.

They also use Lewin's basic change model and professional socialisation as generic sources and emphasise 'transformation'

The variables were called the individual system, situational control, the 'exosystem' (the outside systems to which an individual may belong) and the 'endosystem' (the military organisation).

stages. Looking at the major models collectively they represent a developmental process in themselves. They are summarised in Table 3.3.

Simpson (1967) and Scott (1972) considered affective changes in individuals. Simpson saw the socialisation process as commencing with a shift from broad societal goals to work goals, followed by the emergence of a reference group made up of 'significant others' in the work milieu and finally internalisation of the group's values by the individual and adoption of their behaviours. Scott (1972) proposed a similar 'transformation': awareness of behavioural expectations, conformity to these expectations and internalisation of the expectations into the personality. The influence of the expectations of the cultural sub-groups into which the individual was being socialised was particularly important to Scott.

Anderson and Western (1968, 1972, 1976) and Buchanan (1974) emphasised <a href="mailto:training/tenure stages">training/tenure stages</a> in their socialisation models. Anderson and Western's stages were pre-training, formal training and post-training. The changes described in these stages paralleled those of Simpson and Scott. Buchanan's (1974) orientation was towards the development of organisational commitment. His three 'influence-susceptibility' (socialisation) phases were based on length of service with the first stage covering the first year of employment ("the most critical in the managerial career", p535);

TABLE 3.3

Summary of Major Models in Organisational Socialisation

# Transformation Phases

	Study	Stage 1	Stage 2	Stage 3
1.	Simpson (1967)	Shift from Societal Goals to work task goals	'Significant' others at work become main reference group	Internalises values and adopts behaviour of group.
2.	Scott (1972)	Awareness of behavioural expectations	Conformity	Internalisation of expectations into personality
3.	Anderson and Western (1968, 1972, 1976)	Pre-Training Acquisition of general societal values and 'visible' professional values.	Training Acquisition of technical skills and substantive knowledge	Post-Training Acquisition of new specialised technical skills, values and use of these.
4.	Buchanan (1974)	Basic Training and Initiation (lst year of service)	Performance (2 to 4 years of service)	Outcome ( 5 years and beyond of service)

(cont. over)

TABLE 3.3 (cont)

	Study	Stage 1	Stage 2	Stage 3
5.	Porter, Lawler and Hackman (1975)	Pre-Arrival Anticipatory Socialisation	Encounter Entry to the Organisation	Change & Acquisition Acquisition of self- image, relationships, norms etc)
6.	Van Maanen (1972, 1975, 1976)	Pre-Entry Occupational Choice	Encounter	Metamorphosis Change
7.	Feldman (1976a)	Anticipatory Socialisation Realism Congruence	Accommodation Initiation to task Role Definition Congruence of Evaluation Initiation to Group	Role Management Resolution of outside life conflicts Resolution of conflicting demands at work
8.	Louis (1980)	Change Learning the differences between new & old settings	Contrast Contrasting features and experiences of new & old settings, letting go of old roles	Surprise Differences between an individual's anticipations and subsequent experiences plus affective responses to any differences, etc.

the second encompassing two to four years of service, and the third five years and over. Socialisation in this last period was directed towards the maintenance or alteration of existing attitudes rather than the molding of new ones (1974, p537). Buchanan's model was the first to recognise the effects of time on the organisational socialisation process.

The Porter, Lawler and Hackman (1975), Van Maanen (1972, 1975, 1976) and Feldman (1976a, 1977) versions are similar and even use identical labels (see Table 3.3). Porter et al's model appears to have developed theoretically, while Van Maanen's and Feldman's arose from empirical investigations - the former into police training and induction; the latter into hospital employees. All deal with the more salient and irreversible elements of the outsider-to-insider process rather than its complex nature but they are the most sophisticated to date. Feldman's is the most comprehensive and relevant to this study. specifies the socialisation stages, the individual's activities at each stage, the personal and organisational contingencies controlling an individual's movement through the stages and the socialisation outcomes - for example, feelings of autonomy, personal influence and general satisfaction. These findings need further verification.

Finally, the recent model of Louis (1980) takes a different perspective. Viewed from the vantage point of organisational entry Louis contends that few models give an understanding

of how a newcomer copes with or makes sense of his new environment. Her version outlines three stages - change, contrast, and surprise - which basically describe experiences encountered by the individual during the 'outsider-to-insider' process. Louis feels her model provides valuable information on how newcomers cope with entry and socialisation experiences. The model does provide a new perspective and has relevance to this study because of its emphasis on entry and socialisation.

The major models thus emphasise other variables as having an important part to play in the socialisation process.

## Summary and Relevance of Models to this Study.

The review of model development reveals that:

a) The socialisation process appears to follow three stages (based on time) with corresponding affective changes in the individual. Broadly, the time phases are entry, encounter and adjustment (different terminology is often used but essentially it condenses to this sequence). The affective changes in the individual at each phase vary but include satisfaction, identification and acculturation (acclimitisation). When acculturation is reached, socialisation is said to be successful.

- b) Although the models are conceptual frameworks they raise several questions:
  - . the length of time involved in socialisation
  - whether socialisation varies for different occupational careers, statuses or roles?
  - . whether individuals move through the process sequentially or iteratively?

These issues are largely unanswered as only a few models have been tested empirically (Berlew and Hall 1966; Ondrack 1975; Anderson and Western (in process); Van Maanen 1975; Feldman 1976a; Coulter and Taft 1973). Model-building is thus a fertile field for additional conceptualisation and research.

Similarly to these other researchers this study uses a <a href="three-stage-socialisation-model">three stage-socialisation-model</a> in its investigation of organisational commitment. For convenience the stages are called 'entry', 'encounter' and 'adjustment' to correspond with the literature. Further details of these socialisation phases are given in Chapter 4. It is sufficient at this stage to note that this aspect of this study's research design derives from these models and is an attempt to verify them. The socialisation models thus have great relevance for this research.

## c) Career Socialisation

The relationship between careers and socialisation was originally recognised by Becker and Strauss (1956) and Schein (1968, 1971). For some time careers were investigated in five separate areas: occupational choice, career development, career transitions, intracareer-role analysis and intercareer role analysis (Hall, 1976, p51). Becker and Strauss and Schein altered the direction by presenting a socio-psychological theory of career development. Viewing a career as a process over time they were concerned with identifying its transitional and terminal statuses and positions. Other more recent contributors include Hall (1976), Van Maanen (1977), Van Maanen and Schein (1977), Schein (1976, 1977) and Kolb and Plovnick (1977).

Despite this interest, a separate 'theory' of organisational career socialisation does not exist. Instead socialisation is said to occur at certain 'stages' during an individual's employment. Schein (1968) considered change in position to be the catalyst for socialisation to commence. His structural model (1971) gives three 'positional' movements for individuals in organisations: vertical (hierarchical), horizontal (changing job functions) and centripetal (nearing the heart of the organisation). A new socialisation sequence occurs as each boundary is passed. This process is considered to be perpetual (Van Maanen and Schein, 1977, p62).

Most theorists accept the <u>boundary</u> analysis. However, only Hall and Schneider (1973) and Bray, Campbell and Grant (1974) have investigated it longitudinally. Most researchers concentrate on the passage called 'organisational entry'. Brim (1968), Patten (1969), Berlew and Hall (1966), Schein (1971), Wanous (1973, 1976, 1977, 1980), Wanous <u>et al</u> (1979), Hall and Schneider (1973), Kotter (1973), Gray (1975), Porter <u>et al</u> (1975), Van Maanen (1976, 1977) and Feldman (1976a, 1976b, 1977) are prominent in this area.

Organisational entry, or 'breaking-in', is a prototypical crisis period, considered to be "a <u>breakpoint</u> in which established relationships are severed and new ones forged, old behaviour patterns forgotten and new ones learned, former responsibilities abandoned and new ones taken on" (Van Maanen, 1977, pl6). During this period the individual begins to develop attitudes and aspirations which determine his future organisational behaviour. Hall (1976, pp69-70) explains the socialising effects of entry as follows:

"When an individual first enters an organisation that portion of his life space associated with the organisation is essentially blank i.e. his sub-identity as a member of the organisation is virtually non-existent. He begins with certain (perhaps unrealistic) assumptions, but little reality in which to ground his perceptions and attitudes. For

this reason the career subidentity grows at an enormously faster rate in the first year than in subsequent years...the early years undoubtedly represent a critical period of learning (Bowlby 1951) and leave a lasting imprint on the person's attitudes and aspirations. The expectations and standards internalised at this time will probably be enduring".

These comments are supported by Porter, Lawler and Hackman (1975, p178):

"Available evidence is nearly unanimous in indicating that the very early employment period - the first year or even the first few months - is critical to the development of a healthy individual-organisational relationship"

Berlew and Hall (1966, p223) consider the first year of employment is the time "when the trainee is uniquely ready to develop or change in the direction of the company's expectations". Attitude change has actually been found by Schein (1961, 1967, 1977), Berlew and Hall (1966), Buchanan (1974), Van Maanen (1972, 1975) and Feldman (1976a, 1977). The entry period is also examined in this study - mainly because Berlew and Hall concluded that the change was in the direction of the organisation's needs. Because Van Maanen (1975) and Porter et al (1974, 1976) have found otherwise, these contradictory results hold important implications for the socialisation process in general. of the objectives of this research is to gather additional information on the direction of this attitude change.

No other organisational 'passage' has aroused the same interest as entry. Although socialisation is said to occur whenever an individual is promoted or transferred (Wheeler 1966; Schein 1968, 1971; Van Maanen and Schein 1977), few studies consider these aspects. Schein (1971) laid the foundations, but the latest literature emphasis is on career 'cubes' and career development (Van Maanen 1977; Van Maanen and Schein 1977; Schein 1976, 1977, 1978). areas opened up by Triandis (1959a, 1959b), Rosen (1961) and Porter (numerous studies between 1958 and 1964) 3 have also not been developed. Some new findings emerged with Hall and Nougaim (1968), Katz (1977) and Schein (1977). The first found managers' needs changed as they progressed up the hierarchy, while Katz found differences between 'novices' and 'veterans'. Novices emphasised task significance, overall satisfaction and integration, while veterans nominated task performance, feedback and security. Finally, Schein (1976, 1977) discovered five different career needs or 'anchors' in managers' careers. However, the implications for socialisation are unclear as the studies had different objectives. Organisational career socialisation is an area holding many opportunities for further research.

Between 1958 and 1964 Porter undertook a series of studies into differential self-perceptions, need satisfactions and job attitudes of various levels of management/non-management. The relevant studies are 1958, 1959,1961a, 1961b,1962,1963a,1963b,1963c, and Porter and Henry 1964.

d) <u>Empirical Evidence on the Individual in the Socialisation</u>
Process in Organisations.

The diversity of research evidence has led Mortimer and Simmons to comment that "relatively few investigators build upon the discoveries in other substantive or disciplinary areas" (1978, p421). A possible reason for this is the inability of most researchers to focus in on the total socialisation process. Consequently different 'points of entry' have been chosen for research purposes. Generally the empirical work divides into three areas: independent studies (or non-developed themes), assimilation studies, and professional socialisation studies. A review of each of these follows.

## Independent Studies

These concentrate on isolated but important aspects of the individual's role in the socialisation process in organisations. Several variables are emphasised: expectations, reference groups and individual characteristics such as age and values.

Berlew and Hall (1966), Patten (1969) and Kotter (1973) focused on expectations. As previously indicated Berlew and Hall found that initial company expectations had a significant socialising effect on the later success and performance of managers. Patten examined the adjustment of

students from college to first full-time employment, while
Kotter looked at both the organisational and individual side
of the 'psychological contract'. He found that both
parties had differing expectations. When there were more
'matches than mismatches', greater job satisfaction,
increased productivity and reduced turnover eventuated.

Schein and Ott (1962), Schein and Lippitt (1966) and Bedeian (1976) investigated what individuals considered as legitimate areas open to organisational influence. High legitimacy areas were found to be work related - for example, behaviour and attitudes, while low legitimacy areas involved personal affairs - that is, place of residence, political and religious views, family relationships. The closer an individual was to being a manager, however, the more these other areas were regarded as being legitimate to influence. Schein and Lippitt (1966) investigated this further with 504 managers. Rank and length of service were found to be irrelevant, but managers whose organisation and role demanded close supervision and a high degree of responsibility regarded significantly more areas as legitimate to influence. Bedeian (1976) found cultural differences between German and U.S. managers on both legitimate and non-legitimate areas.

Other researchers have examined the importance of <u>reference</u> groups or the influence of 'significant others' in organisational socialisation. Evan (1963) found a relationship between the socialising effects of peer group

interaction and employee turnover. However, the group had to contain at least three people for favourable results. Similarly, Schein (1967) discovered that managerial teaching staff had a large influence on student attitudes (they changed in the direction of the staff's); Ondrack (1975) found cue consistency amongst socialising agents in nursing schools produced positive socialisation while cue inconsistency did not; Wallace (1966) found that individuals, wanting to gain acceptance into a group, would adopt the values of that group; while Kronus (1976), in a fascinating study of practicing pharmacists, found that different reference groups emerged according to the work situation of the pharmacist. Arguing for the superiority of a situational model over a professional one, she concluded that it was only in occupation dominated settings - for example, hospital pharmacies, that identity was colleague-based. Finally, Weiss (1977) tested Bandura's notion of modelling amongst 141 dyad pairs of supervisors and their direct superiors. Behaviour similarity correlated with subordinates' perceptions of their superior's success and competence, but was unrelated to perceptions of the superior's reward power.

Several important variables emerge from other independent studies. Faulkner (1974) found that a person's <u>age</u> was a critical variable for both career status passage and socialising processes in symphony orchestra players and professional hockey players. Abrahamson (1964) discovered scientists' <u>academic socialisation</u> effected their adjustment

to industrial life (autonomy being the critical adjustment factor); Miller and Wager (1971) found professional and bureaucratic orientations among scientists and engineers were influenced by <u>length and type of training</u>; Braungart (1971) found <u>family politics</u> was the strongest predictor of student politics; while Sukel (1971) found <u>position level</u> had some effect on managers' social and community decision making.

Mortimer (1975) was interested in studying <u>values</u>. The sons of business and professional families were found to have different occupational values. However, Mortimer and Lorence (1979) discovered that occupational values could change during a career, especially if the occupational experiences did not reinforce the original values. These studies have important implications for the success of professional socialisation.

Finally, Feldman (1976a, 1977) tested his model of organisational socialisation amongst hospital employees. His unique contribution was the inclusion of socialisation outcomes, the results suggesting that socialisation variables functioned as hygiene rather than as motivator variables - that is, the quality of the work environment was seen as being more important than the quality of the work. This result needs further verification.

This review reveals little related research amongst the independent studies. However, certain studies reinforce the theoretical notions that expectations, reference groups, age

and professional versus organisational socialisation are important variables.

## Assimilation Studies

Only a few researchers are examined here as the majority have been discussed in the section on models (see pages 95-98)

Richardson (1957, 1961, 1967, 1974) and Taft's (1957) work into the assimilation of British and Dutch migrants discovered that expectations and a change, not an exchange, in identity were vital for successful socialisation. Age, sex, length of residence in Australia and occupational status emerged as further relevant variables. Although relating to migrants, these findings have implications for organisational socialisation.

Johnson and Graen (1973), Graen, Orris and Johnson (1973) and Graen and Ginsburgh (1977) followed a new direction with their interest in organisational/role assimilation. Investigating the first five months employment of 62 nonacademic staff, they found 'leavers' experienced high levels of supervisor and peer ambiguity and suffered from role conflict and lower satisfaction. The 'leavers' supervisors also lowered their expectations of their subordinates over time. These findings stressed the importance of Katz and Kahn's (1966) concepts of role set, role conflict and role ambiguity and revealed role orientation (the extent to which a new employee feels

his job is relevant to his career) to be important in assimilation. The 1977 study of 89 University employees reported that role orientation and leader acceptance had a combined interactive effect on leaving behaviour. These studies thus identified key role variables in the assimilation (socialisation) process.

## Professional and Occupational Socialisation Studies.

This section does not cover the complete field of professional socialisation but only includes those studies which are relevant to organisational socialisation.

The classic studies of Merton et al (1957) and Becker et al (1961) of medical students, by producing contradictory results, drew attention to setting as an important socialising variable. Kadushin (1969) also found setting was important in his comparative study of student musicians, as did Shuval and Adler (1979) in their investigation of professional socialisation in four health occupations.

Several other variables emerged as being important from other studies. For instance, Simpson (1967) found reference groups changed a neophyte's concept of the nursing profession while transmitting professional standards; Pease (1967) found faculty members encouraged professional behaviour in doctoral students (informal socialisation was more successful than formal); Manning and Hearn (1969) found praise and

prestige had a socialising influence on student actresses; Olesen and Whittaker (1966) assessed the influence of laughter and silence on the identity development of student nurses; while Cotgrove and Fuller (1972) discovered career commitment, not training courses, to be the major determinant of identity. Finally, Ventimiglia (1978) found professional identification as a priest to be a function of career progress (time in training), role practice (having one's counsel sought) and significant other influence. These selected studies, then, reveal setting, identity and changes in identity/commitment over time as important variables in organisational socialisation.

## Summary of Empirical Evidence.

While a great deal of research has concentrated on the individual's role in organisational socialisation, many research needs still exist. Mortimer and Simmons (1978, pp447-448) summarise them as follows:

"More empirical and theoretical integration is needed. Individual investigations are now studying the adult socialisation process in tightly delimited areas e.g. the problems of old age, the socialisation of medical students, the impacts of occupational complexity, and so on, each with their own theoretical perspectives. Attention should be focused on the commonalities and disparities in the adult socialisation process among these various contexts...Continued attention to such distinguishing features in the codification and interpretation of results may cast some light on the universality of findings and conclusions and the range of applicability of the diverse theoretical approaches".

Mortimer and Jeylan (1978, p447) add further support for this point. They believe that "significant dissimilarities in the process, depending on the adult life stage, characteristics of the socialisation setting, the socialisation outcome, or the temporal patterning of the process" are being ignored. This review reveals these needs are far from satisfied. However, the work of Van Maanen (1975), Feldman (1976a) and Schein (1978) provide some integrative links. Further efforts at bridging some of the divisions between individual and organisation, theory and empirical evidence are required. Additional theoretical contributions are emerging from the study of the formal contexts of organisational socialisation. Studies of this kind view socialisation from the organisation's point of view rather than from that of the individual being socialised. A review of this particular area now follows.

# 3. <u>LITERATURE APPROACHES CONCERNING THE ORGANISATION</u> (FORMAL CONTEXTS)

This area is less well developed, both theoretically and empirically, than the individual's role in the socialisation process. Nevertheless, some important advances have been made and these are now examined.

## a) Organisational "Settings"

Etzioni (1961), Wheeler (1966), Blau and Scott (1963), Goffman (1961), Shiloh (1971) and Janowitz (1960) are the theorists who dominate this area.

Etzioni's (1961) organisational typology is the most comprehensive and relevant to this study. While investigating compliance and control, he recognised that communication and socialisation modified the level of consensus in organisations. He distinguished 'instrumental' and 'expressive' socialisation as two methods employed by organisations to achieve compliance and control. His three organisational types, coercive, utilitarian and normative, employed different combinations of these methods of social control. For instance, coercive organisations (for example, prisons and other 'correctional' institutions)

<sup>&</sup>quot;Instrumental" socialisation was defined as formal training either by the organisation or outside vocational institutions; "expressive" socialisation was education minus training or the indoctrination undertaken by informal groups, superiors, colleagues etc (Etzioni, 1961, p141)

emphasised expressive socialisation with minimal use of instrumental socialisation. <u>Utilitarian</u> organisations (most business ventures and some public and professional bodies) favoured instrumental, while <u>normative</u> organisations (universities for example) employed both. These types revealed that organisations could be differentiated by their socialisation practices. However, Etzioni claimed their socialisation processes could not always be controlled (for example, the power of informal groups), while the amount of socialisation would depend on the type of organisation and the amount of variance existing in individuals between <u>former</u> and <u>required</u> organisational behaviour.

Wheeler's (1966) organisational socialisation typologies emphasised features of the social context. His two types were called a processing system typology and an interpersonal settings typology. The first differentiated organisations that processed people - for example, individual craftsmen or family production system, a mass production factory, a dyadic socialisation pair such as teacher-pupil, and the 'socialising' organisation - school, prison, and tradetraining centre. The second typology examined the status of individuals and the serial or disjunctive pattern of socialisation - examples being the eldest child or first occupant of a new job, a 'crash' programme such as a summer school, occupational recruitment (the individual-serial pattern), and schools and universities (the collective-

serial pattern). Only the last type in each typology occupied the same concrete social setting, which could itself be divided into <u>developmental</u> and <u>resocialisation</u> systems. The former referred to schools, colleges and universities which engaged in "training, education or more generally the further socialisation of individuals passing through"; the latter referred to mental hospitals and prisons which aimed "to correct some deficiency in earlier socialisation" (1966, p68). Wheeler was the first theorist to make this distinction. However, his typologies (unlike Etzioni's) have not been subject to empirical analysis.

Blau and Scott (1963), Goffman (1961), Shiloh (1971) and Janowitz (1960) were less directly concerned with socialisation. In fact Blau and Scott's cui bono (who benefits) classification of mutual-benefit associations, service organisations, business concerns and commonweal organisations only indirectly described selected structural properties of the socialisation process. Goffman, Shiloh and Janowitz have more relevance to socialisation in organisations. Because they were interested in 'total institutions' (total meaning degree of control over organisational members), various socialisation aspects were considered - for example, how new entrants reacted, the types of socialisation practices employed, and attempts to control a member's non-organisational life-space. These theorists have added further information on the individual-organisation accommodation process.

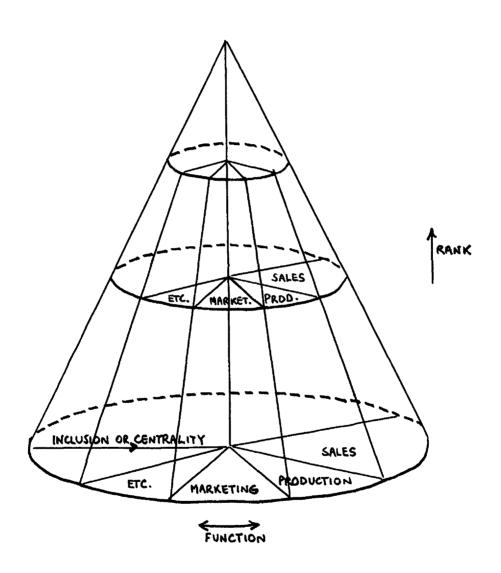
Generally speaking little work has been done in defining socialisation 'settings'. Organisational typologies exist, but the writers use objectives other than the study of socialisation to define their categorisation - for example, Etzioni's compliance and control scenario. Wheeler (1966) is the only theorist who appears to have used socialisation as a prime focus. However, the field is of interest to this study because it examines the formal contexts in which socialising takes place. As will be discussed later this is of particular relevance in describing and categorising the three organisations studied in this research.

## b) An Organisational Model.

Schein's (1971) three-dimensional model (Diagram 3.1) is an attempt to describe the movement of people through an organisation. It is thus not a general organisational model. Schematically, the organisation is seen as being conical in shape with the vertical dimension representing an individual's rank or level, the radial an assessment of a person's centrality within the organisation, and the circumferential an individual's functional responsibilities. The model can explain individual career paths by examining basic stages and transitions, various statuses and positions, and the psychological and organisational transactions occurring between individual and organisation. The model recognises the processes of socialisation (organisational influences on the individual) and innovation

## DIAGRAM 3.1

# Schein's (1971) Three Dimensional Model of an Organisation



Movement can be described in three dimension:

- a)  $\frac{\text{Vertically}}{\text{or level in the organisation}}$  increasing or decreasing one's  $\frac{\text{rank}}{\text{constant}}$
- b) Radially increasing or decreasing one's centrality , one's degree of being more of less 'on the inside'
- c) Circumferentially- changing one's function or division

Source: Schein (1971,p303)

(individual influences on the organisation). Socialisation is said to occur whenever the individual changes position, and especially through hierarchical and inclusion (centrality) boundaries. Education and training are linked to these functional boundaries. In both instances, the amount of socialisation and training effort is at a maximum just prior to boundary passage and continues for some time afterwards (1971, p414).

Schein's model and various hypotheses remain untested.

However, they raise some interesting theoretical points:

when organisational socialisation occurs and its intensity,

the continuous nature of socialisation, the organisational

areas involved - for example, hierarchical levels - and the

individual's movements through these parameters. In a

sense Schein's conceptual schema has advanced the theory

of organisational socialisation but it still has to be

made functional and operational. Contemporary developments

from this theory are in the career development field

(Schein 1976, 1977; Van Maanen 1977a, 1977b, 1977c; Van

Maanen and Schein, 1977, 1979). While providing background

on career stages, these latest theoretical contributions

have moved away from the original focus. Schein's model

thus remains promising but untested.

#### c) Structural Properties of Organisations

The paucity of research on organisations is particularly relevant in this area. Although Van Maanen (1975, 1976, 1978) and Van Maanen and Schein (1977, 1979) identify a number of structural variables or attributes influencing the socialisation process, most are theoretical postulates rather than empirical facts. The attributes are as follows:

- i) degree of formality of the socialisation process (this emphasises status specialisation and stress on changing values and attitudes -Brim 1966; Wheeler 1966; Cogswell 1968; Dornbush 1955)
- ii) length of formal socialisation period
   (often an indication of the organisation's
   desire to influence deep or surface
   characteristics of recruits Becker 1964;
   Kanter 1968)
- iii) method of processing recruits individually or collectively (collective
  gives 'support' mechanisms -Evan 1963;
  Becker 1960, 1964)
  - iv) serial or disjunctive patterns of socialisation newcomers learn from those who precede them that is, serial pattern, but this can lead to stagnation (Wheeler, 1966).
    - v) various organisation <u>selection devices</u> (preselecting those with appropriate attitudes, values and motivations -

Glaser and Strauss 1971; and whether recruits form a homogeneous or heterogeneous group).

vi) degree to which socialisation either confirms or builds on, or destroys and rebuilds, the recruit's identity ('total' institutions do the latter - Hughes 1958)

All of these attributes are interdependent - for example, recruit composition influences both setting formality and length of indoctrination. Recently Van Maanen (1978) and Van Maanen and Schein (1979) endeavoured to link these attributes theoretically to Schein's conceptual model, especially the boundary passages. This important integrative step needs further support. Van Maanen and Schein actually appeal to researchers to become more conscious of the various ramifications of 'processing' people. They assert that (1979, p255):

"Organisational results are not simply the consequences of the work accomplished by people brought into the organisation; rather they are the consequence of the work these people accomplish after the organisation itself has completed its work on them".

They believe their integrative attempt is a step in the right direction as it provides the beginnings of an analytical framework. All it requires is interest and empirical support.

# d) Empirical Evidence on the Organisation's Role in Socialisation

Apart from three studies, this section reveals a field barren of research. The studies arousing interest are those of Mulford, Klonglan and Warren (1972), Mulford, Klonglan, Warren and Schmitz (1972) and Schein (1977)

The first tested Etzioni's (1961) hypotheses concerning socialisation, communication and role performance. The authors found that socialisation and communication were independently related to role performance, while communication effected role performance regardless of the degree of socialisation. Thus, Etzioni's hypotheses were not fully supported in this study of 270 civil defense directors (a normative organisation).

The second study developed and tested a causal model of organisational effectiveness. Using normative organisations, and some of Etzioni's propositions, the model received considerable support.

Schein's (1977) study reported on some preliminary findings of a longitudinal investigation into the interaction of personal values and career events for managers. Five 'career anchors' (that is, syndromes of motives, values and self-perceived talents which guide and constrain a person's career) were identified. These were managerial competence,

technical-functional competence, security, creativity and autonomy and independence. Their socialisation generics were not outlined, but Schein believes the anchors have implications for employee contribution, multiple reward systems and career paths.

This review reveals that there is little empirical interest in the organisational side of socialisation. The reasons for this probably include the difficulty of gaining access to organisations, and the lack of definitive analytical frameworks. Nevertheless, Van Maanen and Schein (1977, p44) point out that:

"Detailed study of the individual and of individual differences within an occupation must be accompanied by detailed study of the occupational setting and of the issues that participation in the setting raises for the people who are in it".

These ideas has not yet been taken up by researchers.

Until this occurs, the organisational side of socialisation will remain undeveloped and it will be difficult to formulate a comprehensive and integrated theory.

## 3.5 SUMMARY AND THIS STUDY'S THEORETICAL POSITION ON ORGANISATIONAL SOCIALISATION.

Because Chapter 2 recognised that commitment could not be studied divorced from its socialising influences, the field of organisational socialisation is the generic source of this study's research design. Accordingly, a review of the literature in this latter field suggests the following pertinent facts for the study of commitment:

- 1. that the 'boundary passage' called 'organisational entry' is an extremely vulnerable time for individuals taking up new employment as this is when they are most open to influence. A number of research studies have shown that attitudes and aspirations developed during this period determine an individual's future organisational behaviour. Organisational 'entry' thus appears to be an appropriate time to investigate the formation of an attitude such as commitment and this is the 'passage' that is examined in this study.
- The theoretical models of socialisation suggest that the individual undergoes a number of attitudinal changes as he progresses through various 'transformation stages'. Researchers have categorised three particular stages, based on time, as having an important

impact on attitudinal change (these are 'entry, encounter and adjustment'). Accordingly, this study uses these three socialisation phases in its investigation of organisational commitment. However, in a departure from the literature, this longitudinal study nominates the time periods of the phases in an attempt to verify them.

3. Finally, the socialisation literature suggests a number of variables that appear to have relevance to the study of commitment. These include expectations, the influence of reference groups and a variety of individual/ organisational aspects such as age, length and type of training, and position level. The area of organisational 'settings' also highlights a variety of organisational practices that contribute to the 'shaping' of an employee's attitudes. These form a useful framework for analysing an organisation's treatment of its employees.

Thus, although the literature reveals organisational socialisation to be a complex and diverse field in its own right, with many research needs, this study is only interested in the three aspects enumerated above. This is because the objective was to investigate commitment within a socialisation framework and using socialisation variables. Both Buchanan and Van Maanen have made attempts but in a

more restricted fashion. This study adopts the plea of the literature for a more 'open-systems' approach. By adopting such a macro view the study aims to produce some integrative links between theory and empirical reality in both the commitment and socialisation areas. Hence, this research is not interested in organisational socialisation per se - instead, it deals only with those selected aspects which have a bearing on the study of the organisational commitment of new employees.

Accordingly, a discussion on the research design, socialisation stages, variables, definitions and hypotheses follows in the next chapter.

## CHAPTER 4: THE RESEARCH DESIGN: STUDY FRAMEWORK, VARIABLES AND HYPOTHESES.

#### 4.1 OVERVIEW OF CHAPTER.

This chapter endeavours to simplify this study's approach to commitment by using the following logical development:

- Enunciation of General Area of Interest -Organisational Commitment
- Selection of Socialising Episode -Organisational Entry
- 3. Development of Study Framework -
  - (i) Socialisation Stages
  - (ii) Four Stage Study Design
- 4. Description of the <u>Process Events</u> involved in each stage from the point of view of:
  - (i) The Organisation
  - (ii) The Individual
- 5. Selection of <u>Factors</u> important for the <u>Individual</u> at <u>each</u> stage
- 6. Selection of <u>Study Variables</u> and arrangement into variable sets or groupings.

- 7. Definitions of Variables/Concepts
  - (i) Constitutive
  - (ii) Operational



- 8. Hypotheses:
  - (i) Variable sets or groupings
  - (ii) Socialisation/Study Stages
  - (iii) General Area of Interest

9. Contribution of Research

The discussion follows this general outline.

#### 4.2 INTRODUCTION

This study's principal objective was to investigate:

"The influences effecting the organisational commitment of new employees".

To achieve this the study examined the initial four month employment period of 270 sales assistants in three large retail organisations using a longitudinal design with repeated measures. The study was also designed to investigate two subsidiary issues of theoretical importance: the multifaceted nature of commitment and the effect of socialisation on commitment. These three issues - determinants, multifaceted nature and the effect of socialisation - were drawn from the theoretical literature. The first two emerged from the literature on commitment (see summary in Chapter 2), and the other from the literature on socialisation (Chapter 3).

The issue of whether commitment has multiple determinants is emphasised because of its basic importance in current theory and the positional differences surrounding it.

Chapter 2 indicated that the leading theorists, Becker (1960) and Ritzer and Trice (1969), suggested differing determinants of organisational commitment - the former emphasising 'side-bet' (investment-type) variables, and the other social-psychological variables. Researchers such as Hrebiniak and Alutto (1972) and Alutto, Hrebiniak and Alonso

(1973) have provided evidence for one or other of these perspectives. Recently Shoemaker et al (1977) Stevens et al (1978) argued that both types of variables influenced commitment. In examining this important issue this study adopts the broader approach. investigating an 'either-or' situation, it considers numerous variables likely to influence the development of organisational commitment. Because the range includes 'side-bet', social-psychological and socialisation variables, an 'open-systems' approach is used to study commitment. Stevens, Beyer and Trice (1978, p394) argued for this in indicating a need for a greater understanding of the commitment attitude. They suggested that this understanding could best be achieved by researching interrelationships with new variables such as socialisation, interpersonal factors, the national economic situation, possible alternatives for the individual, and job search and leaving behaviours. Most studies of commitment have ignored these influences or adopted a one-to-one investigation such as the interrelationship between commitment and turnover (Porter et al, 1974, 1976). In investigating commitment, this study includes socialisation, job search and leaving behaviour in order to achieve a wider-based analysis.

The first issue examined by this study is the multifaceted nature of commitment. The latest theoretical developments indicate that the concept is comprised of many elements; yet apart from Buchanan and Porter et al few researchers have investigated this empirically. Buchanan (1972) found

relationships between the concepts of commitment, involvement and loyalty, while Porter et al (1974, 1976) adopted the concepts as the three components of their commitment scale. Porter et al (1974) also found a link between commitment and job satisfaction. However, the important implications of these findings for commitment, and several other social science theories, 1 have aroused little interest. For instance, identification and involvement are still treated separately in the literature despite the evidence that they form part of commitment. The multifaceted nature of the construct should be accepted and new developments taken from that point. This study does not provide all the answers on this issue. Rather, its contribution consists in separating affective responses towards the job from affective responses towards the organisation,  $^2$  in an endeavour to isolate definitive differences between these related concepts. However, an overall understanding of the commitment construct, especially the extent of its multifaceted nature, will require still further research.

The second issue investigated by this study comes from socialisation theory. Mortimer and Jeylan (1978, p447) point

Job satisfaction is always treated as a separate entity in the literature. Yet the interrelationship between commitment and satisfaction raises some questions: For instance, are they both the same variable? If they are related, what domain or concept are they measuring? Because little research has considered the two variables together, these issues remain unanswered.

<sup>2</sup> Most studies combine these aspects together in their measures of commitment. This could account for the interrelationship.

out that little is known of the characteristics of socialisation settings, types of socialisation outcomes or the time patterns of the socialisation process. study addresses the latter two needs. The commitment attitude is investigated as a socialisation outcome; at the same time the development of commitment is examined during the socialising passage or episode called 'organisational entry'. This approach gives a new perspective to the study of commitment. Although commitment is considered to be a socialisation outcome, the relationship between commitment and socialisation is still not clear. By using the time sequence of the organisational entry process and several socialising-type variables further information is gained on this relationship. Previous empirical work has only considered socialising experiences (Buchanan, 1972) or developed a post-hoc socialisation framework to explain commitment (Van Maanen, 1972, 1975). This study is more inclusive and is an a priori-type investigation.

Given these three salient issues, then, how are they operationalised? The particular approach, variables and hypotheses are developed in the following sections.

## 4.3 A FRAMEWORK FOR ANALYSING COMMITMENT: THE SOCIALISATION STAGES AND THE FOUR-STAGE STUDY DESIGN.

This study examines the development of the commitment attitude during the socialising episode or career 'passage' called 'organisational entry'. Chapter 3 argued that this particular period had a significant influence on individuals with Van Maanen (1975, 1977), Hall (1971), Porter, Lawler and Hackman (1975) and Berlew and Hall (1966) detailing the changes that occur. The literature recognises no other organisational 'passage' as having the same impact as entry largely because it represents a prototypical crisis period for the individual (Van Maanen, 1977). Because this period is unique in an individual's experience with an organisation, it was selected as the socialising episode for this study's examination of commitment.

Accordingly, this study examined the attitudes of 270 sales assistants in three large retail organisations during their first four months of employment. This time frame was selected for practical reasons, as an extension would have meant running into peak selling periods when no participants would have been released to answer questionnaires. In particular the study focused on investigating the commitment attitude within a socialisation framework and using socialisation variables. To achieve this a two-part

research design was implemented. The socialising effects of organisational entry were examined through (i) a three-stage socialisation model framework and (ii) a four-stage study design. An explanation of the two approaches follows.

#### 1. The Three-Stage Socialisation Model Framework

'transformations' as they become socialised into organisations. Researchers such as Buchanan (1972, 1974), Porter, Lawler and Hackman (1975), Van Maanen (1975, 1976) and Feldman (1976a) agree that socialisation involves three stages (based on time) with corresponding affective changes. Although terminology varies, the stages essentially reduce to entry, encounter and adjustment with different individual and organisational events occurring at each time phase. No time frames are specified, but most research concludes that successful socialisation depends on the extent to which the individual's and the organisation's orientations coincide (Feldman, 1976a).

In investigating commitment this study also uses three stages in its socialisation design framework. For convenience sake, the stages are called entry, 3 encounter

Two notions called 'entry' are used in this chapter. The distinction is that organisational entry refers to a socialising episode (specifically the first few months of employment), while entry (as a socialisation stage) is the term given to the first week of employment.

and adjustment to align with the model developments.

However, in a departure from the literature a timing

sequence is identified for each stage, as shown in Table 4.1.

The choice of time periods was a matter of judgement as no guidelines exist in the literature. For instance, Van Maanen (1975, 1976) and Feldman (1976a) did not specify a time period for their socialisation stages even though they were concerned with their temporal nature. has attempted a time specification because timing is a critical element in the empirical analysis.4 The defense of the particular times specified rests on the nature of the retail industry in which this study took place. Chapter 1 revealed that new employees receive a broad appreciation of their jobs, their organisation and the retail industry in the first six months of employment. The retail trade is governed by routine, repetitive events and once one six month period of employment has been experienced the cycle is repeated ad infinitum. For instance, the end of each 'half' is marked by stocktaking while sales highlight special events - for example, Christmas and Easter. the four month analysis, and its associated socialisation periods, is keyed to the every-day working processes of this particular industry. The researcher's own extensive experience in the industry suggests that these time periods are sensible hypotheses.

<sup>4</sup> The objective was to measure attitude change at certain key stages. The time sequence of these stages was thus an important part of the analytical framework.

TABLE 4.1

# Timing Sequence of Socialisation Stages

Stage	1	2	3
Socialisation Stage	Entry	Encounter	Adjustment
Time Period	Recruitment/ Selection plus first week of employment	Second to Sixth week of employment	Seventh to Sixteenth week of employment and thereafter

The operational definitions of the three stages within the socialisation framework are outlined below:

a) Entry (Variously called entry (Van Maanen, 1975); recruitment (Etzioni, 1961); anticipatory socialisation (Feldman, 1976a); "getting-on" (Feldman, 1976b); pre-arrival and encounter (Porter, Lawler and Hackman, 1975), and entry (Schein, 1978)

This period encompasses pre-arrival feelings towards the organisation (that is, anticipatory socialisation and expectations), the recruitment/selection period, and the first week of employment. In this study the term is confined to the first week of employment.

b) Encounter (Also called initial involvement (Etzioni, 1961); introduction (Van Maanen, 1975); accommodation (Feldman, 1976a), encounter (Porter et al 1975); "breaking-in" (Feldman, 1976b) and socialisation (Schein, 1978)

This stage covers the initiation or introduction of the individual to the job, the work group and the organisation. It also includes the beginnings of relationships with the person's superior. In this study it covers the second to first six weeks of employment.

Adjustment (Also called encounter (Van Maanen, 1975); accommodation (Feldman, 1976a); change and acquisition (Porter et al, 1975); "settling-in" (Feldman, 1976b); and mutual acceptance (Schein, 1978)

This is the stage where the individual begins to develop a 'feel' for the organisation. The initial introduction is over, and he can begin to appreciate other aspects - for example, career prospects, feelings towards the organisation's policies, products and practices, and adequacy of working conditions. Depending on his reactions, which can be influenced by preceding events, so he will form particular attitudes. In this study the period covers the seventh week to the end of the first four months of employment.

#### 2. The Four-Stage Study Design

To study these three socialisation stages, measures were taken of employees' attitudes on four separate occasions. The first occasion was at the entry stage, the second at the encounter stage, and the other two during the adjustment phase. The two adjustment phase measures were included to determine whether there was an attitudinal change during that period. Quite often employees progress through entry, encounter and the first period of adjustment only to discover that the 'humdrum reality' of the second adjustment phase is not as exciting or interesting as the previous experiences. Attitudes can subsequently take a turn for the worse. The second adjustment measure was designed to capture that 'turning point' if it existed.

The juxtaposition of the timing sequences of both the three socialisation stages and the four study stages is given in Table 4.2

Because there were monthly questionnaire administrations of a <u>repeated nature</u> the possibility of respondents becoming familiar with the test is acknowledged. To ameliorate this situation the study stages were timed so that no subject was re-tested within a month. In fact, most were six weeks away from their previous administration. Some considering these constraints, then, the four-stage study design is consistent with the three socialisation stages identified above.

Further development of this part of the research design is given in Chapter 6.

Retailing is such a busy, ever-changing occupation that the learning effects of primacy and recency are not considered as great a hazard as in a slower-moving profession. The six-week period was considered sufficient time for other interesting events to intervene between the effects of the questionnaires.

<u>TABLE 4.2</u>

<u>Juxtaposition of Timing Sequences of Socialisation</u>

<u>and Study Stages</u>

Stage	1	.2	3	
Socialisation Stage	Entry	Encounter	Adjustment	
Time Period	Recruitment/ Selection plus first week of employment	Second to sixth week of employment	Seventh to sixteenth we of employmen	
Study Stage	1	2	3.	4
Time Period	First week of employment	Fourth to sixth week of employment	Eighth to tenth week of employment	Twelfth to sixteenth week of employment

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# 4.4 THE THREE-STAGE SOCIALISATION FRAMEWORK DESCRIBED: THE PROCESSES INVOLVED.

The above outline of the three socialisation stages merely sets the scene as no mention has been made of the significant individual and organisational events which occur at each stage. In order to determine which of the many variables effect the development of commitment, it is necessary to understand what happens in each phase, from both the individual and organisational point of view. This study only investigates the individual's reaction, but at this point the organisation side is included in the discussion to form an integrated view. The variables considered to be significant to the individual from this analysis are summarised at the end of each stage.

#### 1. The Socialisation Stage Called "Entry".

The literature reveals that this period includes the processes of pre-entry, recruitment, selection and induction (Van Maanen, 1975; Feldman, 1976a; Porter, Lawler and Hackman, 1975; Schein 1978). However, the organisation's management is principally concerned with selection matters, in particular the quantity and quality of employees (Etzioni, 1961); initial expectations about those employees - that is, what they can do for the organisation and what it has to do for them (Feldman, 1976a; Kotter, 1973);

and the methods of induction (Wanous 1973, 1976, 1977).

Expectations play a key role for the organisation in this stage.

The <u>individual</u> is similarly involved with making decisions about joining the organisation and preparing himself for the new role (Schein 1971, 1978) - for example, reading, evaluating his previous experience, forming expectations, transmitting, receiving and evaluating information (Kotter, 1973). Moreover, he has also to form an initial level of motivation to do the job and enter into organisational events (Porter <u>et al</u>, 1975) and evaluate the organisation's handling of his initial introduction and induction.

Job search, anticipatory socialisation and expectations are recognised as important influences on the individual at this stage in the organisational entry process.

#### 2. The Socialisation Stage called "Encounter".

The organisation's <u>management</u> now becomes concerned with the type and content of training given to the new employee and the quality and quantity of supervision he receives. It also reassesses its initial expectations (positive and negative) of the individual (Porter <u>et al</u>, 1975), and reconsiders the inducements (rewards) and constraints (sanctions) needed to obtain satisfactory performance (Porter et al)

The <u>individual</u>, on the other hand, is occupied with four initiations or encounters - to his job, his work group, the organisation as a whole, and his supervisor. The nature of the training he receives thus becomes important (Van Maanen, 1975), as does acceptance by the group and the acquisition of its values and mores (Feldman, 1976a). The individual must also learn 'what's what' and 'who's who' in the organisation (Schein, 1971, 1978), and evaluate the quality and quantity of supervision he receives (Etzioni, 1961).

These events become the following important influences on the individual at this stage:

- . effect of the work group
- . effect of the supervisor
- . satisfaction with his working environment
- congruence that is, preliminary feelings as to the degree of 'fit' between the individual and the job.

These influences coincide with the particular initiations encountered by the individual.

#### The Socialisation Stage called "Adjustment".

For the organisation's <u>management</u> this stage involves a matching of expectations about the individual (Schein 1971; Kotter 1973); some aspects of job ecology - that is, the

flexibility or otherwise of rules and procedures; and environmental and industry threats (Porter and Steers, 1973). A decision must also be made on whether to retain or sever the individual's services. The employee may have already been dismissed due to poor performance, but most are given a probationary period. It is about this stage that their continued employment is reassessed.

During this stage the <u>individual</u> decides whether his needs are being met and his expectations match with reality - that is, 'reality shock' (Hughes, 1958; Van Maanen, 1975; Feldman, 1976a). He also forms opinions about the job's ecology - in his case, the immediate environment or climate that surrounds the job (Porter and Steers, 1973), and considers involvements external to the organisation - that is, unions and professional associations. Influences considered to be important for the individual at this stage then include:

- expectations (to be called Realism in this study)
- . effect of the work group
- effect of the supervisor
- satisfaction with the working environment
- congruence or the degree of 'fit'
- and the emergence of job leaving behaviour (that is, if the individual's expectations are not met he may begin a search for alternative employment either in or out of the organisation).

A short resume of these significant individual and organisational issues is given in Table 4.3.

#### 4. Summary

The review of individual and organisational issues reveals that various influences are important to the individual as he progresses through the three socialisation stages. These influences translate into certain critical variables which significantly effect the formation of the individual's attitudes. The variables are summarised in Table 4.4.

As already indicated in the description of the 'encounter' and 'adjustment' stages the individual is exposed to similar influences during these two periods. They are thus seen as having a continuous 'on-going' effect with only their emphasis changing according to the needs of the individual. This finding is important for the study research design as the timing of the influences effects when they can be measured. Accordingly, the first three variables of Job Search, Anticipatory Socialisation and Realism are measured during the entry stage, while the others (Realism to Job Leaving intentions) are measured during the encounter and adjustment stages. Further details of the procedure are given in Chapter 6. Section 4.5, which follows, deals with the operationalisation of the variables which have emerged from the examination of the three socialisation stages.

TABLE 4.3

Individual and Management's concerns During
Organisational Entry

Organisational Entry				
STAGE 1	STAGE 2	STAGE 3		
ENTRY	ENCOUNTER	ADJUSTMENT		
Management:		149		
<ul> <li>Selection: decisions about quality and quantity</li> </ul>	<ul> <li>Type and content of training</li> </ul>	• Matching of expectations . •		
<ul> <li>Forming expectations, transmitting and receiving</li> </ul>	<ul> <li>Quality &amp; quantity of supervision</li> </ul>	<ul> <li>Job ecology - flexibility/inflexibility</li> </ul>		
<ul><li>information</li><li>Induction, preparing the organisation, group</li></ul>	<ul> <li>Reinforcements &amp; confirm- ations of expectations</li> </ul>	mths of conflict resol- ution		
	<ul><li>Inducements &amp; constraints (rewards) (sanctions)</li></ul>	environmental threats		
Individual:				
• Making decisions about employment/new job	<ul> <li>Introduction to job, group and organisation</li> </ul>	• Satisfaction of needs		
<ul> <li>Forming expectations, trans- mitting &amp; receiving information</li> </ul>	<ul> <li>Quality &amp; quantity of super- vision.</li> </ul>	<ul><li>Matching of expectations 'reality shock'</li></ul>		
<ul> <li>Preparing for the role, introductions &amp; induction</li> </ul>	• Initial degree of motivation	<ul><li>Job ecology</li><li>Other involvements</li></ul>		

#### TABLE 4.4

# Summary of Variables Important for the Individual during progress through the socialising episode called

Entry

ENTRY

ENCOUNTER

ADJUSTMENT

- . Job Search
- Anticipatory Socialisation
- Expectations (Realism)

- Expectations (Realism)
- . Work Group Affect
- . Supervisor Affect
- Satisfaction with the Working Environment
- . Congruence
- . Job Leaving Intentions

#### 4.5 OPERATIONALISING THE STUDY FRAMEWORK: THE VARIABLES

Chapter 2 revealed that determinants of commitment include both 'side-bet' and social-psychological influences.

Chapter 3 further revealed that socialisation plays a part.

The variables depicted in Table 4.4 come from all three sources. This section operationalises the determinants/ variables by giving both their constitutive and operational definitions. The constitutive definition is presented first, followed by the operational definition. However, the exact composition of the scales used to measure these variables, and their assessed validity and reliability, is left to Chapters 5 and 6.

The variables selected for study form a number of categories or sets. Generally they follow the segmentation given in Table 4.4, although there is an occasional variation – for example, demographic variables. Before discussing the sets in detail and their definitions, however, a brief overview follows:

#### Overview of Variables Selected for Study.

a) <u>Demographic</u>: the ten measures of interest are employment status (permanent or casual), age, sex, marital status, number of financially dependent children, whether husband or wife works, education level, father's occupation (socioeconomic

status), length of absence from the work force, and length of company tenure.

#### b) Anticipatory Socialisation

This notion is measured through two categories called 'significant other' influence and similar work experience. "Significant other" influence indicates the presence of relatives or friends in the company (either now or in the past); the similar work experience category covers previous retail experience, previous company experience, previous sales experience, and the employment status in each - that is, either permanent of casual status.

#### c) Realism (Expectations)

Comprises a summary score of employee reactions to 12 items measuring expectations towards the job and the organisation.

#### d) Job Search Behaviour

Three categories are used:

i) Pre-employment behaviour: the individual's assessment of the time taken to find the new job, the number of job applications made, the number of job interviews granted, the number of job offers received, and the method of applying to the company.

- ii) <u>Search</u>: a summary score of employee reactions to 12 items measuring the individual's subjective feelings towards seeking the new role.
- iii) <u>Need Dispositions</u>: the individual's assessment of his main reason for working and his main reason for joining the particular company.

#### e) Socialising Influences within the Organisation

Two influences are examined:

#### i) Work Group:

- (i) Size of Work Group: the number of people in the individual's work group.
- (ii) <u>Interaction Number</u>: the number of people the individual has most contact with.
- (iii) Work Group Affect: a summary score of employee reactions to 8 items measuring the influence of the group on the individual.

#### ii) The Supervisor:

<u>Supervisor Affect:</u> a summary score of employee reactions to 8 items measuring the influence of the supervisor upon the individual.

#### f) Congruence

A summary score of 12 items measuring the employee's affective reactions to various aspects of the job.

g) Satisfaction with the Working Environment

An employee's reactions to ten specific characteristics of the job or work situation.

h) Job Leaving Behaviours (Intentions)

Three indicators are used:

- i) <u>Intention to leave job</u>; the individual's attempts to change either his job or his department within the same company.
- ii) <u>Intention to leave company</u>: the individual's attempts to change employers.
- iii) Absenteeism: the number of days the individual has been absent from work and the reason.
- Organisational Commitment (the dependent variable)

  A summary score of 14 items measuring the employee's affective reactions to the organisation

A more complete description of the variable sets and their respective constitutive and operational definitions now follows:

#### 2. Demographic Background of Employees/Subjects

Although not enumerated above, some demographic items are of interest because they describe key individual attributes. The ten used in this study are employment status (permanent or casual), age, sex, marital status, number of financially dependent children, whether wife or husband works, education level, father's occupation (socioeconomic status), length of absence from work force, and length of company tenure.

These are standard variables used in most research to determine the difference between personal (demographic) and other situational influences. In this study two relate specifically to the retail industry - that is, employment status and absence from work force. These variables constitute some of the 'side-bet' (personal) factors in this study.

#### 3. Anticipatory Socialisation

Anticipatory socialisation was omitted from Chapter 3 and only briefly mentioned in Section 4.4 of this chapter when process issues were discussed. However, the literature indicates that anticipatory socialisation plays an important part in an individual's adjustment to a new role. Basically it means that individuals rehearse appropriate feelings,

values and actions before entering new statuses or adopting new roles (Brim 1966; Sewell 1963; Elkin and Handel 1972). Translated into the work situation it also means gathering information from others and anticipating the nature of the new job from previous experience (Van Maanen, 1975; Anderson and Western, 1976; Owens, 1975; Schein, 1971). Buchanan (1972, pl6) further asserts that most employees select their new organisation through a sense a personal consonance with that organisation's aim or image. This view is supported by Vroom (1964) and Hall (1970). Hence, people arrive with definite expectations of what they will find. Anticipatory socialisation thus directly effects the level of expectations and 'reality shock' (mismatch of expectations with reality) and the later formation of attitudes such as commitment.

There are few precedents for quantifying the concept of anticipatory socialisation. This study attempts to measure it by using the following measurement categories:

- the socialising effect of people close to the individual ('significant other' influence) and
- previous experience (similar work experience)
- A. <u>Constitutive Definitions</u>: the two measurement categories were defined as follows:

- a) 'Significant Other' Influence the presence of absence of either relatives or friends in the company (either now or in the past)
- b) <u>Similar Work Experience</u> an indication of previous retail experience, any previous company experience, any other previous sales experience and the employment status in each that is, permanent or casual.
- B. Operational Definitions: the above categories are operationalised as follows:
  - a) 'Significant Other' Influence single item scores indicating the degree of agreement-disagreement with four statements about whether relatives and friends currently work for the company or have worked in the past.
  - b) Similar Work Experiences single item scores indicating the length of previous retail experience, length of previous company experience and length of any other previous sales experience and a score indicating the degree of agreement-disagreement on the employment status (permanent versus casual) in each previous work experience.

This set of variables falls into the <u>socialisation category</u> of determinants of organisational commitment.

## 4. Realism (Expectations)

Several researchers highlight the importance of 'reality shock' (the mismatch of expectations with reality) in influencing the formation of attitudes (Hughes, 1958; Kotter, 1973; Van Maanen, 1975; Feldman, 1976a; Schein, 1978). Yet apart from Buchanan's (1972) attempt, the concept has not been measured. The <a href="L2-item scale">12-item scale</a> constructed for this research gives an indication of how expectations change as the individual becomes integrated into the organisation. Information on its development is given in Chapter 5.

A. <u>Constitutive Definition</u>: the concept is defined as follows:

Realism is the extent to which the individual feels he has (or had) accurate expectations about his role and the organisation.

#### B. Operational Definition:

The sum of scores on 12 Likert-type items which ask the extent of the difference between an individual's expectations about his job and the organisation and what he finds in practice.

The scale has an internal consistency (alpha) reliability coefficient of 0.84 on repeated measures.

This variable belongs to the <u>social-psychological group</u> of influences on organisational commitment.

#### 5. Job Search Behaviour

As mentioned earlier this study examines a new interrelationship between job search behaviour and employee commitment. The need was suggested by Stevens et al (1978). However, because measurement precedents are non-existent, this study uses both single item measurements and an eight-item scale to measure the phenomenon. The two approaches yield three different categories of information: pre-employment behaviour, subjective feelings towards employment seeking (called Search), and an indication of need motivation. The development of the Search scale is given in Chapter 5.

- A. <u>Constitutive Definitions</u>: the variables are defined as follows:
  - a) Pre-employment behaviour: an indication of the
    extent to which the individual actively
    sought the job or had difficulty in finding
    employment.
  - b) <u>Search</u>: an individual's feelings on the extent to which he found it easy or difficult to find employment, actively sought the role or took the first job that was offered.
  - c) <u>Need Motivation</u>: an individual's expression of his main reason for working and his main reason for joining his particular organisation.
- B. Operational Definitions: the above variables were then defined operationally as follows:

- a) Pre-employment behaviour: single item scores indicating the length of time taken to obtain a new employment position, the number of job applications made, the number of job interviews granted, the number of job offers received, and the method of applying to the company for example, advertisement, personal call.
- b) <u>Search</u>: the sum of scores indicating the individual's degree of agreement-disagreement with twelve Likert-type statements about his ease or difficulty in finding employment, amount of activity used in seeking the new role, and preference for the new role.

The scale has an internal consistency (alpha) reliability coefficient of 0.72.

c) <u>Need Dispositions</u>: the categorisation of the various expressions of individuals main reasons for working and main reasons for joining their particular company.

This variable set is considered to belong to the 'side-bet' group of determinants of organisational commitment.

Chapter 2 argued that the amount of effort put into finding a job (pre-search behaviour and search) was an indication of behavioural commitment or investment-type decisions, while need dispositions also fell into this category. This variable set, along with the demographic variables, constitutes this study's measurement of Becker's 'side-bet' hypothesis.

## 6. Socialising Influences within the Organisation.

Chapter 3 indicated that socialising influences upon the individual are many and varied. However, both the work group and the supervisor are considered to have a significant influence on the attitudes of new employees (Cartwright and Zander, 1960; Evan, 1963; Sukel, 1971; Buchanan, 1972; Porter and Steers, 1973; Porter et al, 1975; Feldman, 1976a, 1977). Both are treated separately in this study although their interrelationship in the work place is acknowledged. The influence of the work group is measured by both single items and an eight-item scale; the effect of the supervisor is measured by a similar eight-item scale. The development of the two scales is given in Chapter 5.

A. <u>Constitutive Definitions</u>: the effects of these variables are defined as follows:

#### i) Work Group:

- a) Size of Work Group: the number of people who constitute the individual's immediate work group. It includes the supervisor.
- b) <u>Interaction number</u>: the number of people in the work group with whom the individual has the closest contact and feels most closest to.
- c) Work Group Affect: the extent to which the individual feels he is liked and accepted as a fully trusted group member

and is influenced by the opinions and attitudes of the group.

#### ii) Supervisor:

- a) Supervisor Affect: the extent to which the individual feels he has established good relations with his supervisor (in terms of quality and quantity of supervision), there is mutual agreement on performance standards, and is influenced by the opinions and attitudes of the supervisor.
- B. Operational Definitions: The variables are defined operationally as follows:

## i) Work Group:

- a) Size of Work Group: a single item score indicating the number of people in the individual's immediate work group.
- b) Interaction number: a single item score indicating the number of people the individual considers he interacts closely with during the course of his working day.
- c) Work Group Affect: the sum of scores indicating the individual's degree of agreement-disagreement with eight Likert-type statements about whether he feels accepted by the group and is influenced by their attitudes and opinions towards the organisation.

The scale has an internal consistency (alpha) reliability coefficient of 0.76 over

repeated measures.

#### ii) Supervisor:

a) Supervisor Affect: the sum of scores on eight Likert-type statements which ask how an individual feels about his relations with his supervisor, the quality of supervision received, and whether he is influenced by the supervisor's opinions and attitudes towards the organisation.

The scale has an internal consistency (alpha) reliability coefficient of 0.81 over repeated measures.

As indicated a psychometric link is expected between the Work Group Affect and Supervisor Affect scales because the two variables are interrelated in the work place. However, they are treated separately in later analysis to ascertain the unique contribution of each to socialisation. Both groups of variables are categorised as socialisation determinants of organisational commitment.

#### 7. Congruence.

Chapter 2 indicated that this study would separate an individual's affective responses towards the job from those directed towards the organisation. This was due to the need to keep the concept of commitment referenced solely to the source of interest - the organisation. Other definitions and measures of commitment have mixed responses towards

the job with those of the organisation.

In this study <u>congruence</u> is the affective variable dealing with responses towards the job and <u>commitment</u> is the affective variable covering responses towards the organisation. Support for such a job-type variable comes from Lodahl and Kejner (1965), Etzioni (1961), Buchanan (1972) and Feldman (1976a, 1977). In this study congruence is measured by a <u>12-item scale</u>, the development of which is given in Chapter 5.

#### A. Constitutive Definition:

Congruence is defined as the extent to which the individual feels a 'good', 'efficient' or 'adequate' adjustment, adaptation, 'fit' or 'integration' applies between himself and the job.

#### B. Operational Definition:

Congruence is the sum of scores on 12 items of a Likert format which ask the extent to which the individual feels he is 'involved' with his work, effectively participates in his job, and makes the best use of his abilities in his current position.

The scale has an internal consistency (alpha) reliability coefficient of 0.87.

This variable is part of the <u>social-psychological group</u> of determinants of organisational commitment.

## 8. Satisfaction with the Working Environment.

This variable set is similar to congruence as it deals with affective responses towards the job. However, instead of a general scale the set of single item measures indicate the degree to which employees are satisfied with particular aspects of their job. The items range from 'very dissatisfied' (scored 1) to 'very satisfied' (scored 7). The 10 items are both summed to give a measure of total satisfactiondissatisfaction and retained as separate indicators of specific satisfactions/characteristics of the job. items, selected from the pilot work, query how satisfied employees are with: variety in the job, freedom in the job, job challenge, the supervisor's attitude, the attitude of management, management decisions, physical working conditions, pay, travelling time and job security. Support for these characteristics comes from Herzberg (1966), Turner and Lawrence (1965), Hackman and Lawler (1971), Porter and Steers (1973) and Stone and Porter (1975). They represent a mixture of 'extrinsic' and 'intrinsic' job satisfactions.

- A. <u>Constitutive Definitions</u>: the variables are defined as follows:
  - a) <u>physical working conditions</u> the perceived nature of conditions surrounding the job - that is, light, ventilation, temperature, noise, space, tidiness.

- b) pay the perceived equity of rewards compared to expended effort.
- c) <u>travelling time</u> the perceived length of time taken to travel twice a day between residence and place of work.
- d) job security the perceived degree of security from sudden loss of job and arbitrary decisions.
- e) variety in the job the perceived amount of variety in the job, the perceived opportunity to do a number of different things.
- f) <u>freedom in the job</u> the perceived opportunity for independent thought and action that is, the freedom to do what the individual wants to do in the job.
- g) job challenge the perceived degree of participation in meeting goals, setting targets, determining methods and procedures, coping with new and difficult ('stretching') assignments.
- h) <u>supervisor's attitude</u> the perceived nature of the supervisor's attitude towards the individual, degree of friendliness, help and quidance.
- i) <u>attitude of management</u> the perceived nature of management's general attitude towards the individual, degree of friendliness, help and guidance.

- j) management decisions the perceived quality and quantity of decisions in relation to company policies and treatment of individuals.
- B. Operational Definitions: the variables are defined operationally as follows:
  - a) physical working conditions a single score
    indicating the extent of the individual's
    degree of satisfaction or dissatisfaction with
    the conditions surrounding the job.
  - b) pay a single score indicating the degree of the individual's satisfaction or dissatisfaction with rewards in relation to effort.
  - c) travelling time a single score indicating the extent of the individual's degree of satisfaction or dissatisfaction with the time taken to travel to and from work each day.
  - d) job security a single score indicating the individual's degree of satisfaction or dissatisfaction with his perceived security from sudden loss of job and arbitrary decisions.
  - e) variety in the job a single score indicating the individual's degree of satisfaction or dissatisfaction with his perceived opportunity to do a number of things in his job.
  - f) <u>freedom in the job</u> a single score indicating the individual's degree of satisfaction or dissatisfaction with his freedom to do what he wants to do in his job.

- g) job challenge a single score indicating the individual's degree of satisfaction or dissatisfaction with the extent of challenge in his job.
- h) <u>supervisor's attitude</u> a single score indicating the individual's degree of satisfaction or dissatisfaction with his supervisor's attitude.
- i) attitude of management a single score indicating the individual's degree of satisfaction or dissatisfaction with the management's general attitude towards the individual, degree of friendliness, help and guidance.
- j) management decisions a single score indicating the individual's degree of satisfaction or dissatisfaction with the decisions taken by management.

All work satisfaction variables thus involve a single score expressing degree of satisfaction or dissatisfaction with a Likert-type statement. The variables have high internal consistency (alpha) reliability coefficients either taken separately on repeated measures or as a total degree of satisfaction scale (the relevant alpha coefficients are presented in Table 6.1, Chapter 6). These variables are considered to form part of the social-psychological determinants of organisational commitment.

## 9. <u>Job Leaving Behaviour</u> (Intentions)

This set of predictor variables constitutes the last part of this study's 'open-systems' approach to organisational commitment. Several studies have examined turnover and commitment (Porter et al, 1974, 1976) but usually as a one-to-one relationship. As mentioned previously Stevens et al (1978) suggested the relevance of both job search and job leaving behaviours to commitment. The former has already been included as predictors; this sub-section deals with the latter. Three types of job-leaving behaviour are itemised.

- A. <u>Constitutive Definitions</u>: the variables are defined as follows:
  - a) <u>Intention to leave job</u>: the extent of the individual's attempts to change either his job or department within the same company.
  - b) <u>Intention to leave company</u>: the extent of the individual's efforts to change his employer
  - c) Absenteeism: the nature and reason for the employee's absences from work between questionnaire administrations.
- B. Operational Definitions: the variables are defined operationally as follows:
  - a) <u>Intention to leave job:</u> single item scores indicating the individual's intention to change

either his job or department within the same company, and the number of times he has attempted to change.

- b) Intention to leave company: single item scores indicating the individual's intention to change employers and the number of times he has attempted to change.
- Absenteeism: the number of days the individual states he has been absent from work between questionnaire administrations on the grounds of illness, accidents, compassionate leave, study leave, transport strike, strike or work stoppage, leave without pay or any other reason not already nominated. The score is measured in two days number of days between questionnaire administrations and total number of days over the whole four month study period.

Absenteeism is included in this section as it often indicates a degree of employee dissatisfaction (Hackman and Lawler, 1971) with either the job or the company. The three variables are expected to relate to each other. This set of predictor variables is designated a measure of behavioural commitment as opposed to attitudinal commitment. The justification for this was outlined in Chapter 2.

#### 10. Organisational Commitment: the Dependent Variable

As mentioned in Chapter 2 a new commitment scale is used in this research. The scale comprises three dimensions involvement, identification and commitment - with a balance of positive and negative items. The three dimensions have been identified as belonging to the same construct (Buchanan, 1972, 1974; Porter et al, 1974, 1976), a finding confirmed by the pilot study (Chapter 5). A balanced scale was created as it is a preferred psychometric approach to lessening response bias (Ray, 1970). The dimensions are represented by a number of 7-point statements requesting the individual to nominate the extent of this disagreement (scored 1) or agreement (scored 7) with the statement concerned. The commitment score is the sum of the individual's responses on all fourteen items. The commitment scale includes only the individual's affective responses towards the organisation.

- A. <u>Constitutive Definitions</u>: the dimensions are defined as follows:
  - a) <u>Involvement</u> (+) the extent to which the individual feels he is involved in the organisation's activities or contributes towards its objectives.

In the <u>negative sense</u> it is the extent to which the individual feels indifferent to the organisation's activities and has a general sense of non-excitement, lack of interest or concern about the extent of his current involvement.

- b) Identification (+): extent to which the individual feels he has accepted the values and goals of the organisation as his own and feels a 'part of' the organisation (a similarity and membership component).
  - (-): extent to which the individual feels he is unable to accept or adopt the values and goals of the organisation and does not feel a 'part of' the organisation.
- (c) Commitment (+): extent to which the individual desires to maintain membership in the organisation is prepared to make personal sacrifices on behalf of the organisation and ceases his search for other alternatives.
  - (-): extent to which the individual feels a low expectancy that his own behaviour can determine the occurrence of the goals and rewards he seeks (Powerlessness-Seeman, 1959) and continues his search for other alternatives.
- B. Operational Definition: Because the scores on these three dimensions are summed to form a total commitment scale, only the operational definition for that variable is given:

<u>Commitment</u>: the sum of scores on fourteen Likerttype statements asking the individual's agreement or disagreement about the extent of his feelings of involvement in the organisation, his acceptance of the values and goals of the organisation and his desire to maintain membership in the organisation.

The scale has an internal consistency (alpha) reliability coefficient of 0.90. Additional information on its development is given in Chapter 5.

## 11. Summary of Variables.

This study examines a large number of variables as being possible determinants of organisational commitment.

Commitment and socialisation theory contribute three types - 'side-bet', social-psychological and socialisation variables. However, for ease of analysis the predictors are arranged into nine variable sets. The sets and their measures were summarised at the beginning of this section.

As mentioned previously this study has a two-part research design - a three-stage socialisation framework and a four-stage measurement framework. The variables emerged from an analysis of the individual and organisational issues in each of the three socialisation stages. Table 4.5, overleaf, presents the timing of the measurement of the variables in relation to the socialisation and study stages. The Table is positioned here to give logical meaning to the study's hypotheses which follow in the next section.

## TABLE 4.5

# The Study Variables and their Location in the Study Framework

(Note: x denotes the stage at which the variable is measured)

Variable/Stage	Entry	Encount.	Adj.1	Adj.2
1. Demographic				
Employment Status	x			
Age	x			
Sex	x			
Marital Status	x			
Number of children	x			
Working partner	x			
Education	х			
Father's Occupation	x			
Absence from work force	х			
Length of company tenure	х			
2. Anticipatory Socialisation  a) 'Significant others'  Relatives in the company now . past  Friends in the company . now . past	x x x			·
b) Experience				
Previous retail experience	х			
Previous sales experience	х			
Previous company experience	х			
Previous company status	х			
Previous retail status	x			

Variable/Stage	Entry	Encount.	Adj.l	Adj. 2
3. Realism (Scale)	x	x	x	x
(expectations)				
4. Job Search Behaviour:				
a) Pre-employment:				
Time taken to get job	х			
No. of job applications	х			
No. of job interviews	x			
No. of job offers	x		l i	
Method of application	x			
b) <u>Search</u> (8 item scale)	х			
C) Need Dispositions				
Main reason for working	x			
Main reason for joining	x			
5. Socialising Influences				
Within the Organisation				
a) Work Group				
Size of work group		x		
Interaction number		x		
Work Group Affect (8 item				
scale)		x	x	x
b) Supervisor:				
			-	
Supervisor Affect (8 item				
scale)		х	x	х
6. Congruence				
(12 item scale)		x	x	x

Variable/Stage	Entry	Encount.	Adj.1	Adj.2
7. Satisfaction with the Working Environment 10 items		x	х	х
8. Job Leaving Behaviours:  a) Intention to leave job  b) Intention to leave company  c) Absenteeism		x x x	x x x	x x x
9. Organisational Commitment: (Dependent Variable) 12 item scale		х	x	x

#### 4.6 THE STUDY'S HYPOTHESES

The previous sections have outlined the research design, the major sets of variables used in this study and the operational definitions of the variables. The specific hypotheses tested in relation to these variables now follow:

## 1. HYPOTHESES EMERGING FROM EACH SET OF VARIABLE CATEGORIES

For ease of exposition each set of variables is taken in turn. The hypotheses relating to each category are:

### a) Demographic ('Side-Bet')

- H1: Employees with permanent employment status will express higher levels of organisational commitment than casual employees.
- H2: Employees who are <u>older</u> will express higher levels of organisational commitment than younger employees.
- H3: There will be no significant difference between male and female employees in levels of organisational commitment.
- H4: Married employees will express higher levels of organisational commitment than those who are not married.
- H5: Employees with <u>financially dependent children</u> will express higher levels of organisational commitment than those with no such responsibilities.
- H6: Employees whose wife and husband works will express higher levels of organisational commitment than those with no working partner.

- H7: Employees with <u>lower educational</u>
  <u>attainments that is, School Certificate</u>
  or below, will express higher levels of
  organisational commitment than those with
  more educational opportunity Higher School
  Certificate or above.
- H8: Employees who have been absent from the work force for some time will express higher levels of organisational commitment than those who have not been absent.

These hypotheses align with the theoretical arguments made in Chapter 2. Becker (1960) asserted that commitment was mainly a matter of accrued investments: the more side-bets being at stake the greater the commitment. The demographic variables outlined above constitute one group of 'side-bet' variables in this study and their hypotheses are framed to accord with theoretical expectations. One surprise is included: the assumption that there will be no difference between male and female employees in regard to commitment. This aspect has been ignored in previous investigations and so is framed in terms of a null hypothesis.

Because these hypotheses emphasise 'side-bet' variables, two summary-type hypotheses are generated:

H9: Employees expressing higher levels of organisational commitment will be permanently employed, older, married, with financially dependent children, have had less educational opportunity, come from a lower socio-economic background as represented by their father's occupation and (may) have been absent from the work force for periods of time.

H10: Employees expressing lower levels of organisational commitment will be casually employed, younger, unmarried, with no financially dependent children, have had more educational opportunity, come from a higher socio-economic background as represented by their father's occupation, and have had few absences from the work force.

Socio-economic background is not treated separately in the previous hypotheses as it is a nominal-type variable.

## b) Anticipatory Socialisation

As mentioned earlier this notion is investigated through the examination of two areas called 'significant other influence' and similar work experience. The relevant hypotheses are as follows:

- Hll: Employees with relatives in the company will express higher levels of organisational commitment than those without relatives.
- H12: Employees with friends in the company will express higher levels of organisational commitment than those without friends.
- H13: Employees with relatives in the company in the past will express higher levels of organisational commitment than those without.
- H14: Employees with friends in the company in the past will express higher levels of organisational commitment than those without.
- H15: Employees with previous retail experience will express higher levels of organisational commitment than those with none.

- H16: Employees with <u>previous company experience</u> will express higher levels of organisational commitment than those with none.
- H17: Employees with previous sales experience will express higher levels of organisational commitment than those with none.
- H18: Employees who were permanently employed in their previous retail experience will express higher levels of organisational commitment than those who were casually employed.
- H19: Employees who were permanently employed in their previous company experience will express higher levels of organisational commitment than those who were casually employed.

Accordingly, the two summary-type hypotheses are:

- H20: Employees expressing higher levels of organisational commitment will have friends or relatives in the company (either now or in the past), will have either previous retail, company or sales experience, and been permanently employed during that experience.
- H21: Employees expressing lower levels of organisational commitment will be without friends or relatives in the company (either now or in the past), and will have little or no previous retail, company or sales experience.

#### c) Realism:

This variable examines the 'matching' of the individual's expectations with reality. The relevant hypothesis is:

H22: The greater the individual's scores on Realism the greater will be his expressed levels of organisational commitment. This relationship will hold

during the entire socialising episode - that is, on four separate measuring occasions.

#### d) Job Search Behaviour:

The following hypotheses apply in this category:

- H23: Employees who took a long time to find employment will express higher levels of organisational commitment than those who did not.
- H24: Employees who submitted many job applications before gaining new employment will express higher levels of organisational commitment than those who did not.
- H25: Employees who went for many job interviews before gaining new employment will express higher levels of organisational commitment than those who did not.
- H26: Employees who received few job offers will express higher levels of organisational commitment than those who received a number.
- H27: The greater the individual's scores on Search the greater will be his expressed levels of organisational commitment. This relationship will hold during the entire socialising episode that is, on three separate measuring occasions.

The two summary-type hypotheses are:

- H28: Employees expressing higher levels of organisational commitment will have taken a long time to find employment, submitted many job applications, attended many job interviews, received few job offers and have used self-initiating approaches to gaining new employment.
- H29: Employees expressing lower levels of organisational commitment will have spent little time in finding new employment, submitted few job applications, attended

few interviews, received several job offers and used few self-initiating approaches to gain new employment.

Similarly to a previous section no separate hypothesis has been formulated for methods of attaining employment because of the nominal nature of the variable.

#### e) Socialising Influences within the Organisation

Although socialising influences upon the individual are recognised as being many and varied, this study concentrates on the two believed to be most important in the workplace - the effect of the work group and the supervisor. The relevant hypotheses are as follows:

- H30: Employees who perceive themselves as 'fitting-in' with their work group will express higher levels of organisational commitment than those who do not. This relationship will hold during the entire socialising episode that is, on three separate measuring occasions.
- H31: Employees who perceive themselves as having established good relations with their supervisor will express higher levels of organisational commitment than those who do not. This relationship will hold during the entire socialising episode that is, on three separate measuring occasions.

Two other variables are also measured in this section -namely: the size of the work group and the number of people the

employee interacts with. However, as both are of a nominal nature no separate hypotheses have been formulated. Instead, they are included in the summary-type hypothesis:

H32: Employees expressing higher levels of organisational commitment will have established good relations with their supervisor, perceive themselves as 'fitting-in' with their work group, work with a small group, and feel closest to a small number of people. Those expressing lower levels of organisational commitment will be the opposite.

#### f) Congruence:

This variable separates the individual's affective responses towards the job from those towards the organisation. However, because both types of responses are interdependent, the following hypothesis is thought to apply:

H33: Employees who express high levels of congruence will also express high levels of organisational commitment. This relationship will hold during the entire socialising episode - that is, on three separate measuring occasions.

#### g) Satisfaction with the Working Environment

This category measures an individual's feelings of satisfaction or dissatisfaction with specific characteristics of the job or work situation. The following hypotheses apply:

- H34: Employees who express feelings of satisfaction towards the variety in their jobs will express higher levels of organisational commitment than those who are dissatisfied with the level of variety.
- H35: Employees who are satisfied with their job security will express higher levels of organisational commitment than those who are dissatisfied.
- H36: Employees who are satisfied with their physical working conditions will express higher levels of organisational commitment than those who are dissatisfied.
- H37: Employees who are satisfied with the level of freedom in their jobs will express higher levels of organisational commitment than those who are not satisfied.
- H38: Employees who are satisfied with their pay will express higher levels of organisational commitment than those who are dissatisfied.
- H39: Employees who are satisfied with their supervisor's attitude towards them will express higher levels of organisational commitment than those who are dissatisfied.
- H40: Employees who are satisfied with their degree of job challenge will express higher levels of organisational commitment than those who are dissatisfied.
- H41: Employees who are satisfied with the <u>friendly</u> attitude of management will express higher levels of organisational commitment than those who are dissatisfied.
- H42: Employees who are satisfied with management decisions will express higher levels of organisational commitment than those who are dissatisfied.
- H43: Employees who are satisfied with the time taken to travel to work will express higher levels of organisational commitment than those who are dissatisfied.

These variables are then incorporated into the following summary-type hypothesis:

H44: Employees who are satisfied with the level of variety in their jobs, their job security, their physical working conditions, the level of freedom in their jobs, their pay, their supervisor's attitude, job challenge, friendly attitude of management, management decisions and travelling time will express higher levels of organisational commitment than those who are not. This relationship will hold during the entire socialising episode - that is, on three separate measuring occasions.

#### h) Job Leaving Behaviours:

The relevant hypotheses for this final variable set are as follows:

- H45: Employees who attempt to change their jobs or departments will express <u>lower</u> levels of organisational commitment than those who do not.
- H46: Employees who attempt to change employers will express <u>lower</u> levels of organisational commitment than those who do not.
- H47: Employees who have higher levels of absenteeism will express <u>lower</u> levels of organisational commitment than those who have low absentee records.

#### i) Hypotheses between Predictor Variables

This section contains hypotheses dealing with relationships between several of the predictor variables. It thus does not look specifically at organisational commitment. Rather its main concern is with the relationship between the independent variables.

- H48: Employees who engage in high levels of Search will express higher levels of Realism than those who do not.
- H49: Employees who engage in high levels of Search will express more Satisfaction with their Working Environment than those who do not.
- H50: Employees who express high levels of Realism will express more Satisfaction with their Working Environment than those who do not. This relationship will hold during the entire socialising episode that is, on three separate measuring occasions.
- H51: Employees who engage in high levels of Search will express higher levels of Congruence than those who do not.
- H52: Employees who express high levels of Realism will express higher levels of Congruence than those who do not. This relationship will hold during the entire socialising episode that is, on three separate measuring occasions.

H50 and H52 contain the expression 'this relationship will hold during the entire socialising episode' because they have repeated measures. The expression is omitted from H48, H49 and H51 because the variable called Search is

measured on only one occasion - that is, during entry.

2. HYPOTHESES EMERGING FROM PARTICULAR SOCIALISATION AND STUDY STAGES.

Similarly to the particular variable sets, hypotheses have been generated from the type of analytical framework used in the study. The hypotheses align with the theoretical arguments which anticipate a decline in employee attitudes after entry. Increasing experience in a new organisation is apparently associated with a less favourable view of it (Van Maanen, 1975; Wanous, 1977; Hackman and Lawler, 1971) The appropriate hypotheses are:

- H53: Employee scores on the attitude measure of Realism will decline between Tl and T4 (the four measuring occasions). Similarly, employee scores on the attitude measures of Commitment and the ten facets of the Working Environment will decline between T2 and T4 (their three measuring occasions). Supervisor Affect and Work Group Affect will reveal little change over time.
- H54: The greatest change in employee scores will occur in attitude measures for Realism and the ten facets of the Working Environment. Commitment will reveal less change over time.6

Van Maanen (1975) and Porter et al (1974) suggest that commitment is a more stable attitude than some of the other attitudes and less subject to day-to-day fluctuations.

H55: For Realism there will be less change in employee scores between Tl and T2, T2 and T3, T3 and T4. The main attitude change will occur between Tl and T4. Similarly, for the other attitude variables of Commitment and the ten facets of the Working Environment there will be less attitude change between T2 and T3 and T3 and T4 - the main attitude change will occur between T2 and T4.

As the individual progresses further along the path from outsider-to-insider (or from entry to adjustment), it is expected that different variables will become important for organisational commitment at different stages. For instance, Van Maanen (1975) found that demographic variables were initially important but their significance faded as time passed. This finding generates the following hypothesis:

H56: Different variables will be significant predictors of organisational commitment at different stages of the organisational entry process

This study also compares sample populations from three organisations in the same industry. Because the occupational duties are essentially the same in each organisation, the following hypothesis is posed:

H57: There will be no difference between the samples on (i) the main attitude variables at the various study stages, and (ii) the main attitude variables between the study stages.

3. MAIN AND CONCLUDING HYPOTHESIS EMERGING FROM GENERAL AREA OF INTEREST.

The main proposition that emerged from Chapters 2 and 3 was that the development of organisational commitment was a function of both 'side-bet', social-psychological and socialising variables. In other words, no one set or type of variable was solely responsible for, or had precedence over others, in effecting the development of the commitment attitude. Accordingly, the main hypothesis for this study is:

H58: The development of, or predisposition towards, organisational commitment is the result of a mixture of 'side-bet', social-psychological variables and socialisation influences.

The results of the hypotheses testing are given in Chapter 6.

## 4.7 SUMMARY AND POTENTIAL CONTRIBUTION OF THIS RESEARCH TO THE STUDY OF ORGANISATIONAL COMMITMENT.

The development of this study's research design is now complete. In investigating the influences effecting the development of organisational commitment of new employees the study takes these new directions:

- The study attempts an 'open-systems' a) approach to the study of commitment. Not only is the attitude examined within a socialisation framework (using socialisation time phases and selected socialisation variables) but job search and job leaving behaviours are also included. This is the first time this has occurred in a study, and especially within a longitudinal design. Buchanan's (1972) work on socialising experiences used a cross-sectional approach; Van Maanen's (1975) model of organisational socialisation emerged post-hoc from his commitment study. This study's approach is both longitudinal and 'open-systems,'
- b) This study's predictors of organisational commitment include both socialisation variables and a mixture of 'side-bet' and social-psychological variables. Consequently, an integrative approach is made to the Becker/ Ritzer-Trice controversy. However, instead of adopting the usual cross-sectional method of analysis (see the appropriate

studies in Chapter 2), the appropriate influences are examined, for the first time, within a longitudinal design. This should reveal the stages at which selected variables become important, thereby adding information on the behaviour of these influences.

- c) This study's design and use of a new commitment scale (measure) illuminates and clarifies the multifaceted nature of the concept. Buchanan (1972) found this to be so, but he lacked support. The new scale, for the first time, separates the individual's affective response towards the organisation from his affective response towards the job and contains a balance of negative and positive items. The former is intended to quantify the global nature of the concept; the latter to avoid response bias and acquiescent response. previous measure (scale) had these objectives.
- d) Finally, this study endeavours to isolate the important influences effecting the organisational commitment of new employees. The time frame of the organisational entry period is used for this purpose, because this is the socialisation stage where the individual is most vulnerable to the influence of the organisation. Previous research, by concentrating on the merits of 'side-bets' versus social-psychological

influences has ignored the changes in attitudes and important determinants in the initial employment period. Although Porter et al (1974, 1976) and Van Maanen (1975) found that commitment declined in this period, they were not concerned with the issues dealt with here. Thus, this study examines the commitment significance of a large number of variables. By investigating them within a particular employment period, it should contribute to an understanding of the workings of the socialisation process.

A description of the research methods adopted in this study follows in the next chapter.

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#### CHAPTER 5: THE RESEARCH METHOD.

#### 5.1 INTRODUCTION.

As shown in the preceding chapters there were few measurement precedents for the variables in this study apart from the development of a commitment scale and Buchanan's (1972) work on socialising experiences (including expectations). Because of this deficiency, this research was approached in two stages:

1) Pilot Study:

Refinement of terminology, development and testing of measurement scales for predictor and criterion variables and development and testing of appropriate questionnaire designs.

2) Main Study:

Measurement of predictor and criterion variables in a repeated measures design over a period of four months.

The significant features of each stage are outlined in the following sections.

#### 5.2 THE PILOT STUDY.

### 1. Procedure

Prior to the formulation of a research design and the development of scales, retailing had been chosen as the setting for this study. Two reasons influenced this decision: the industry was characterised by extensive socialisation practices to support its profit and customer orientation, and the researcher had worked in the industry for many years. A third feature was also important. Traditionally, employees were socialised to be 'committed' to a 'family owned and managed firm' rather than an anonymous organisation. This tradition is not so strong today because of take-overs and company failures, but certain practices persist suggesting retailing to be an excellent choice for the study of organisational commitment.

Despite the researcher's extensive experience in retailing, as both a manager and consultant, she had not been involved in the induction period ('organisational entry') for some years. In order to devise effective scales a 'refresher' programme was required. Accordingly, research entry was gained to a large department-store chain <sup>1</sup> and the researcher participated as a new employee in a three-day sales assistants' induction training programme. The experience, combined with

This organisation, apart from being the host for the pilot study, was also one of the participating companies in the main study. Henceforth, it is known as Company A.

discussions with training staff and management personnel, enabled the observation of <u>formal socialisation practices</u> and the acquisition of appropriate terminology/situations for questionnaire and scale design.

Because a large number of variables and scale items were to be pre-tested, methodology was restricted to questionnaires and some group interviews at the time of testing. The nature of retailing (the necessity to 'man the floor') allows people to be released for short periods of time to answer questionnaires but precludes lengthy interviews or group discussions. Continuing absences of sales staff disrupt departmental routines and interfere with morning tea, lunch and afternoon tea rosters. When a five-day working week roster is superimposed on a six-day trading week (Thursday night and Saturday morning), the problems are multiplied. Hence, the operational nature of the industry imposes severe limitations on the methodology that can be employed in a research study.

These restrictions were particularly evident during the pilot study. Because the variables for the pilot work were arranged into three questionnaires (to correspond with the three stage socialisation framework), three separate samples had to be used. This was because staff were unable to be released for the time needed to simultaneously answer the three questionnaires. This restriction prevented the use of certain analytical procedures – for example, correlation analysis amongst all of the pre-tested variables (only those

in the same questionnaire could be so analysed).

The pilot study took <u>five months</u> to complete. A summary of the time apportionment was as follows:

1. February 19th March,1979

Negotiated entry to Company A

2. 26th-28th March Attended three-day formal induction training programme for sales assistants.

3. April 1979

Constructed three attitude questionnaires covering the variables in the study.

4. lst May - 26th June

Pilot-tested Questionnaire 1 this took some time as it was
administered each week during
induction training until there
were 115 respondents ( the
weekly intake varied between 4
to 30 new sales assistants. In
some weeks only casuals were
inducted while in others it was
a mixture. Permanents took the
longest to obtain because of their
lower employment rate).

Pilot testing of <u>Questionnaire 3</u> at <u>two</u> locations. Testing was carried out early each morning until there were <u>96 respondents</u>. Subjects were permanent staff.

6. June 1979

Pilot testing of <u>Questionnaire 2</u> to two separate groups:

- (i) 60 Retailers
- (ii) 63 Others (a mixture of finance, insurance and hospital benefit fund employees.

The latter were needed to test the generality of the findings. All subjects were permanent employees.

7. June-July

Analytical procedures and construction of scales.

8. August 1979

Finalisation of:

- (i) Questionnaire and general research design
- (ii) Entry gained to the other participating organisationsCompany B and Company C
- 9. 14th August

Commencement of Main Study.

## 2. The Pilot Study Samples (Total N=334)

The three different samples used in the pilot study comprised a total of 271 subjects from the retail industry and 63 finance, insurance and hospital-benefit fund 'white-collar' employees. All subjects were volunteers <sup>2</sup> and represented a heterogeneous mixture of sexes, age groupings, tenure and management/non-management levels. The only restriction concerned the retailer: non-selling staff (for example, administration personnel) were excluded from the sample because the main study was aimed at sales assistants. The relevant biographical details of the samples are given in Tables 5.1 to 5.3 (each table corresponds to a separate questionnaire administration). Questionnaire 2 was given to two groups (60 Retailers and 63 Others) to test the generality of the predictor variables.

#### 3. The Three Pilot Questionnaires.

The three questionnaires followed the 'organisational entry' sequence - that is, the variables being tested in each questionnaire described the socialisation stages from entry to adjustment. The particular variable inclusions, gathered

The four companies participating in the pilot study insisted that the respondents be volunteers. They were concerned about a union backlash ('invasion of privacy'), while one insisted on a written quarantee that the name of the organisation would remain confidential (it had received some unfortunate publicity from a previous study). The companies comprised a retailer, an insurance company, a hospital-benefits fund, and a finance company.

# TABLE 5.1 Testing of Pilot Questionnaire 1. Descriptive Statistics of Sample (N = 115 Retailers)

Biographical Detail	Number	Per Cent
Employment Status: Casual	59	51.3
Permanent	56	48.7
Age: 20 or under	45	39.1
21 to 35	34	29.6
Over 35	36	31.3
Sex: Male	13	11.3
Female	102	88.7
Marital Status: Single	67	58.3
Married	48	41.7
Children: None	83	72.2
Children	32	27.8
Tenure: Not Applicable - respondent	ts were all in	their
Education: Below School Cert- ificate	20	17.4
School Certificate	40	34.8

32

23

27.8

20.0

Higher School Certificate

Above Higher School

ificate

TABLE 5.2

Testing of Pilot Questionnaire 2

Descriptive Statistics of Sample

(N = 113 respondents)

	Reta	ailers	Oth	ers	Ţ.	otal
Biographical Detail	N	%	'n	<b>-</b> 96	N	8
Employment Status:						
Casual	<i>_</i> -	-	<u> </u>	-	_	44
Permanent	60	100.0	63	100.0	123	100.0
Age: 20 or under	15	25.0	2	3.2	17	13.8
21 to 35	23	38.3	46	73.0	69	56.1
Over 35	22	36.7	15	23.8	37	30.1
Marital: Single	45	75.0	21	33.3	66	53.7
Married	15	25.0	42	66.7	57	46.3
Sex: Male	25	41.7	47	74.6	72	58.5
Female	35	58.3	16	25.4	51	41.5
Children: None	54	90.0	40	63.5	94	76.4
Children	6	10.0	23	36.5	29	23.6
Tenure: Under 1 year	19	31.7	5	7.9	24	19.5
l to 5 years	13	21.7	17	26.9	30	24.4
6 to 10 years	19	31.7	22	34.9	41	33.3
Over 10 years	9	15.0	19	30.3	28	22.8
Education:						
Below School Cert.	14	23.3	-	-	14	11.4
School Certificate	27	45.0	21	33.3	48	39.0
Higher School Cert.	13	21.7	20	31.7	33	26.8
Above Higher S.C.	6	10.0	22	35.0	28	22.8

Retailers = 60

Others = 63

TABLE 5.3

Testing of Pilot Questionnaire 3

Descriptive Statistics of Sample

(N = 96 Retailers)

Biographical Detail	Number	Per cent
Employment Status: Casual	_	_
Permanent	96	100.0
Age: 20 or under	22	22.9
21 to 35	35	36.5
Over 35	39	40.6
Sex: Male	21	21.9
Female	75	78.1
Marital Status: Single	48	50.0
Married	48	50.0
Children: None	80	83.3
Children	16	16.7
Tenure: Under 1 year	28	29.2
One to 5 years	40	41.6
Six to 10 years	20	20.8
Over 10 years	8	8.4
Education: Below School Cert.	18	18.8
School Certificate	37	38.5
Higher School Cert.	23	23.9
Above Higher S. Cert.	18	18.8

from Table 4.4 (Chapter 4, p150), were as follows:

a) Pilot
 Ouestionnaire 1:

Contained 44 items and biographical data. The objective was to devise two scales called Search and Realism (expectations)

b) Pilot
 Ouestionnaire 2:

Contained <u>116 items</u> and biographical data. Its objective was to construct four scales called <u>Work Group Affect</u>,

<u>Supervisor Affect</u>, Congruence and <u>Satisfaction with the Working Environment</u> (all predictor variables).

c) Pilot
 Questionnaire 3:

Contained 116 items and biographical data. Its aim was to produce the Commitment scale (the dependent variable). A large selection of items was used to measure the components of involvement, identification and commitment (both positive and negative aspects).

The items for all scales were either newly devised or taken from the literature - for example, items were selected from the scales of both Lodahl and Kejner (1965) and Buchanan (1972). However, as there were few relevant precedents the majority of items were new. They were written in a Likert-type format

with an interval scale ranging between one (1) and seven (7) - the score of one (1) indicating strong disagreement and the score of seven (7) indicating strong agreement. large number of items were reverse scored to lessen acquiescent response. Most items were also adjudicated by fellow academics and retailing personnel before being administered to the respondents. All administrations were conducted during working hours, although not necessarily store hours. 3 The questionnaires were administered to groups of people followed by short 'feed-back' sessions on the respondent's feelings towards the good and bad points of the instrument. This technique resulted in the personal (biographical) items being expanded from 14 to 23 items and general improvements to questionnaire layout and approach.

## 4. Measurement of Organisational Commitment.

The purpose of the pilot study was to develop reliable and valid criterion and predictor scales for the main study.

Of special interest was the <u>organisational commitment scale</u> as this was to be the measuring instrument from the dependent variable. A review of the appropriate literature revealed that most previous measurement efforts of this variable ranged from the simplistic (a single item) to a fully developed scale (with attendant validation studies). However,

In some suburban locations the store did not open until 9 a.m. However, owing to the 5-day roster system staff were required to be on duty at 8.30 a.m. Administrations were often conducted at this 'quiet' hour.

only two (the measures of Hrebiniak and Alutto 1972 and Porter et al 1974 - originally developed by Porter and Smith, 1970) had regular use. The rest were isolated to specific studies, with no attempt being made to prove their generality.

This study rejected the use of most previously developed organisational commitment scales because of their lack of psychometric qualities. Included in this decision were the scales of Grusky (1966), Gouldner (1959-1960), Lee (1971), Thornton (1970), Sheldon (1971), Hall, Schneider and Nygren (1970), Schneider, Hall and Nygren (1971), Hall and Schneider (1972), Marsh and Mannari (1971) and London and Howat (1978). The Wiener and Gechman (1977) use of diaries was considered unsuitable for a different reason: theirs was a behavioural (not attitudinal) measure and used a coding procedure to estimate commitment.

Three other more well known measures were also considered unsuitable. These were the measures of Buchanan (1972), Hrebiniak and Alutto (1972) and the Porter et al (1974, 1976) organisational commitment scale.

Buchanan's (1972) attitudinal scale was not selected for use because its components varied slightly from those considered to comprise organisational commitment in this study. For instance, his scale consisted of Hall <u>et al</u>'s identification scale, some items from Lodahl and Kejner's (1965)

involvement scale (which dealt with job involvement and not organisational commitment) and a newly devised loyalty scale. Apart from the Buchanan research the scale had not been verified by any other work.

Hrebiniak and Alutto (1972) devised a four-item scale which asked what it took for an employee to leave an organisation. The scale, or versions of it, was used by Alutto, Hrebiniak and Alonso (1973), Alutto and Acito (1974), Aranya and Jacobson (1975), Shoemaker, Snizek and Bryant (1977) and Wiener and Vardi (1980). However, apart from the initial Spearman-Brown reliability results of .79 no additional validity or reliability data was presented by these researchers. The nature of the scale precluded its use in this study.

The Porter et al (1974, 1976) Organisational Commitment
Questionnaire (OCQ) was the most developed in the literature
and the closest to this study's needs. Consisting of 15
items it measured three related factors: "(1) a strong
belief in and acceptance of the organisation's goals and
values; (2) a willingness to exert considerable effort on
behalf of the organisation; and (3) a strong desire to
maintain membership in the organisation" (Porter et al, 1976,
p91). This instrument had been administered to some 2563
employees in a variety of jobs in nine organistions (Mowday,
Steers and Porter, 1979, summarised the stream of research
aimed at developing and validating the scale). The published

results revealed it had good internal consistency reliability (coefficient alpha was consistently high, ranging from .82 to .93 with a median of .90); a test-retest reliability of from .53 to .72; a convergent validity range from .63 to .74; and some evidence of both discriminant and predictive validity. Yet, as Mowday, Steers and Porter (1979, p234) pointed out, the scale was by no means perfect. Responses to the scale could be easily dissembled by respondents and care had to be taken to avoid acquiescent response.

Another scale, with attendant psychometric and standardisation data, recently appeared in the literature but was too late to be considered in this research. Cook and Wall (1980) devised a new measure to test the organisational commitment of British blue-collar workers. The scale's internal homogeneity, reliability and factor analytic data revealed it to be psychometrically adequate and stable, but it has not been generalised to other populations - for example, managerial groups.

This study rejected the use of the Buchanan and Porter et al scales because it felt the phrasing of some of the items were inappropriate for the target population of sales assistants. The Porter et al scale was further deemed unsuitable because it was wordy, had an American cultural bias, and mixed affective responses towards the job with those

directed towards the organisation. As a major objective of this study was to separate these two aspects, and it was also desired to produce a balanced scale (to avoid response bias and acquiescent response - Ray, 1970, p253), a new organisational commitment measure was developed. Consisting of 14 items the attitudinal scale was found to have good psychometric qualities. These details are given later in this Chapter and in Chapter 6 where the main study is discussed.

## 5. Analytical Procedures.

As mentioned, the purpose of the pilot study was to develop reliable and valid criterion and predictor scales for the main study. Two principal statistical techniques were used to achieve this - Cronbach's (1951) 'alpha' reliability coefficient, the procedures for which give an indication of the scale's internal consistency, stability and reliability; and factor analysis which was used to demonstrate the construct validity of the measuring scales (Nunnally, 1967; McKennell, 1970). Both techniques were computed using programmes from the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (Nie, Hull, Jenkins, Steinbrenner and Brent, 1975) available on the University computer. The relevant programmes were called SPSS "Reliability" and SPSS "Factor Analysis". However, because Questionnaires 2 and 3 each comprised 116 items a Fortran language programme (Ray, 1979) was used to perform their principal factor analysis with

Varimax rotation (SPSS is not capable of factor-analysing more than between 62 and 100 variables - Nie et al, 1975, p490). Ray's (1972) "ITRA" programme was also used to assist with item reduction in the scale development.

This Fortran language programme is the computerised version of the manual method of scale reduction based on 'itemstrength'. Finally, as a measure of discriminant validity the relationships between the scales were examined by means of the Pearson product moment correlation coefficient (Mowday et al, 1979, p236). However, because three distinct samples were used in the pilot study each questionnaire was analysed separately. This meant that the interrelationship pattern between all scales was thus not possible in the pilot study.

# 6. Results of Pilot Testing.

The construct validity of potential items was investigated by factor-analytic procedures (Guilford, 1954, 1956; Guion, 1965; Nunnally, 1967; McKennell, 1970). The general technique employed was principal factor analysis with varimax rotation because it generated orthogonal (uncorrelated) factors. Any item that had been designed to measure a given variable was regarded as displaying good construct validity if:

(i) the item had a factor loading greater than 0.30 (in absolute magnitude) on a factor defined only by items designed to measure the given variable; and Pilot Ouestionnaire 1

(ii) the item did not load higher than 0.30 (in absolute magniture) on any other factor.

This process resulted in the following potential scale lengths:

Realism - 13 items

Pilot Questionnaire 2 Work Group Affect - 11 items

Supervisor Affect - 11 items

Congruence - 10 items

Search - 11 items

Work Environment - 10 items

Pilot Questionnaire 3 Organisational

Commitment - 20 items

These potential scales were then subjected to the analytical procedures involved in SPSS "Reliability".

Although factor analysis resulted in the selection of a number of items this did not guarantee their placement in the final scale. Decisions about exclusion of items were principally based on inter-item and item-whole correlations (desired to be whole within a scale), mean scores (desired to be away from the end point), standard deviations (desired to be high) and the meaning of each item (excessive redundancy within a scale was considered undesirable) (McKennell, 1970; Nunnally, 1967). A balanced representation of both negative and positive items was also desired to lessen response bias

and acquiescent response (Ray, 1970, p253). The first four criterion were provided by SPSS "Reliability"; the other by face examination of the final items. Ray's (1972) "ITRA" programme was also run to test the redundancy of the items. 4

The results of the scale development are presented in Table 5.4. The factor analysis results are not given as face analysis of the content of the items and reliability analysis reduced the number of items that were finally used in the main study.

An unexpected feature of this programme is that by reducing the items to their best length i.e. when coefficient alpha is no longer increasing, it gives an indication of the content of the items.

TABLE 5.4

Psychometric and Normative Data for Scales
in the Pilot Study.

Scale	Mean Item- whole correl.	Coeff. Alpha	Mea Tot.		Standard Deviation
Pilot Questionnaire 1: Realism (9 items)	0.41	.74	48.22	5.36	9.19
Search (9 items)	0.34	.67	40.63	4.51	10.04
Pilot Questionnaire 2:**					
Supervisor Affect (8)*	0.61	.86	40.48	5.06	11.02
Work Group Affect (8)	0.52	.81	42.22	5.28	9.22
Congruence (8 items)	0.61	.86	40.07	5.01	11.37
Working Environment (10)	0.55	.85	48.18	4.82	11.52
Pilot Questionnaire 2:**					
Supervisor Affect	0.57	.83	38.84	4.86	10.45
Work Group Affect	0.50	.79	40.90	5.11	8.89
Congruence	0.56	.83	41.51	5.19	9.65
Working Environment	0.51	.82	49.35	4.93	10.02
Pilot Questionnaire 3:					
Commitment (15 items)	0.53	.88	74.42	4.96	15.41

<sup>\*\*</sup> The first pilot questionnaire 2 was administered to 60 Retailers. It was repeated again to another sample comprising 63 Finance, Insurance and Hospital-Benefit Fund employees.

<sup>\*</sup> Refers to the number of scale items - that is, (8) equals eight items.

#### 5.3 THE MAIN STUDY.

The pilot study produced credible scales for the main predictor variables and the criterion variable of organisational commitment. The exception was the Search scale, whose relatively lower internal consistency was attributed to the fact that the respondents were all new to the company. 5 However, because the scale produced an internal consistency (alpha) reliability coefficient of o.67 a decision was made to proceed with a view to adding further items in the main study administration. 6 Whilst further pilot testing was technically desirable, two reasons prevented it: it would have taken two to three months to obtain another 60 'inductees' (longer if more casuals than permanents were being employed); and the main study had to commence in August to avoid postponement until February 1980. A third contributing factor was that Company A had already been a research 'host' for five As it had also contracted to participate in the main study (an additional eight months), it was felt that a lengthy delay would strain a good researcher-host relationship. Since these relationships are difficult to obtain, the calculated risk was taken to proceed.

Being anxious to please, many were hesitant to commit themselves on some of the items because they "weren't nice". This was a pure value judgement, but one which the researcher could not overcome.

When a scale has a low alpha coefficient one solution is to increase the number of items.

No subjects would have been released from the floor in the peak selling time of late November-Christmas. Also if a delay had occurred the researcher would have been a constant member of Company A for about 18 months - too long a period for any good host.

## 1. Procedure

Because of the problems in obtaining the release of subjects for interviews, methodology was limited to questionnaires. As the subjects were to be followed-up on three separate occasions, it was important to retain both management and participant co-operation by minimising disruption. Hence, while interviews would have provided significant qualitative information, a quantitative design was implemented accompanied by the occasional qualitative 'snapshot'. The methodology was thus essentially questionnaire instrumentation supported by some qualitative material.

To effectively study the organisational entry process a repeated measures design was implemented. A model of the organisational socialisation process was keyed in to this design through the longitudinal time-frame and the sectioning of the study into three main stages. The juxtaposition of the questionnaire administrations to the socialisation and study stages (outlined in Chapter 4) is given in Table 5.5

The table shows that <u>two separate questionnaires</u> were used, with the second being administered on <u>three occasions</u>. The first questionnaire dealt with the variables pertinent to the

Occasionally subjects either had the time or went out of their way to provide additional background information. The researcher was always prepared for these opportunities and by continually moving around the stores was often subjected to informal discussions.

TABLE 5.5 Juxtaposition of Questionnaire Administrations to Socialisation and Study Stages

Socialisation Stage	Stage Entry Encounter		Adjustment		
Study Stage	1	2	3	4	
Time Period	Recruitment/ selection plus first week of, employment	Fourth to first six weeks of employment	Eighth to tenth week of employment	Twelfth to sixteenth week of employment	
Questionnaire Administration	Quest. 1	Quest. 2	Quest. 2 (called 3)	Quest. 2 (called 4)	

entry stage (to be discussed in the next subsection), while the second contained the variables relating to attitude change and covering the socialisation stages called encounter and adjustment. As this was a four-month study, the repeated measures design was necessary to measure attitudinal change. Although a single <a href="before">before</a> and <a href="after">after</a> measure could have sufficed, the theoretical base of socialisation theory required an additional measure to monitor events <a href="during">during</a> the entry process. It was important to determine at what <a href="stage">stage</a> attitudes began to change, the degree of change, and the influencing factors. A <a href="before">before</a> and after design would not have provided this information.

## 2. The Instruments.

Both questionnaires comprised Likert-type statements with the response scales ranging between one (1) (strongly disagree) to seven (7) (strongly agree). The first questionnaire took 15 minutes to complete; the other about 30 minutes. The following variables (scales) were included in each:

Questionnaire 1: Ten personal (biographical) variables, anticipatory socialisation variables, job search variables and the scales of Search, Realism and Social

Desirability. The three scales combined totalled 38 items with a balance of positive and negative items.

<sup>9</sup> The latter was included to determine the extent of 'yea-saying' (Greenwald and Satow, 1970)

Questionnaire 2: Comprised the measures on the work
group and job leaving behaviours, the
ten job characteristics (Satisfaction
with the Working Environment scale),
and the scales of Realism, Congruence,
Work Group Affect, Supervisor Affect,
and Commitment. The latter scales
totalled 62 items with a balance of
positive and negative items.

Appendix A lists the various items in the scales, while Appendices I and J contain copies of the two main questionnaires as actually administered to the participants.

## 3. The Sample

The experimental population comprised 270 newly-employed sales assistants from three retailing organisations (90 from Company A, 90 from Company B and 90 from Company C). With a few exceptions, 10 this number represented the total population of new inductees joining the three firms over the four-month period. 11 The relevant biographical details of the samples and total study population are given in Table 5.6 Examination of this table reveals the typical

The exceptions were casual staff. As many were only employed irregularly they were not included in the study. Those casuals who were included were 'regulars' - that is, they worked consistently each week/day. However, all casuals, irrespective of their employment regularity, were put through the induction programme.

It was hoped to have at least 100 from each company. This proved to be impractical because of high turnover and the time involved in securing a total of 90.

Biographical Details of Three Samples and
Total Study Population

Factors:	Gompa	any A	Comp	any B	Compa	any C		l Study lation
	N	્ર	N	ે	Ŋ	્યું	Ň	-00
Status: Casual	28	(31.1)	7	(7.8)	50	(55.6)	85	(31.5)
Permanent	62	(68.9)	83	(92.2)	40	(44.4)	185	(68.5)
Age: 20 or under	28	(31.1)	25	(27.8)	61	(67.8)	114	(42.2)
21 to 35	34	(37.8)	38	(42.2)	19	(21.1)	91	(33.7)
Over 35	28	(31.1)	27	(30.0)	10	(11.1)	65	(24.1)
Sex: Male	15	(16.7)	21	(23.3)	23	(25.6)	₃59	(21.9)
Female	75	(83.3)	69	(76.7)	67	(74.4)	211 '	(78.1)
Marital Status:				· · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · ·				
Single	50	(55.6)	53	(58.9)	68	(75.6)	171	(63.3)
Married	40	(44.4)	37	(41.1)	22	(24.4)	99	(36.7)

TABLE 5.6 (Continued)

Compa	any A	Compa	ny B	Comp	any C	Total :	Population
N	9	N	8	N	90	N	8
58	(64.4)	65	(72.2)	71	(78.9)	194	(71.9)
32	(35.6)	25	(27.8)	19	(21.1)	76	(28.1)
	· ·						
41	(45.6)	51	(56.7)	64	(71.1)	156	(57.8) &
49	(54.4)	39	(43.3)	26	(28.9)	114	(42.2)
68	(75.6)	71	(78.9)	74	(82.2)	213	(78.9)
22	(24.4)	19	(21.1)	16	(17.8)	57	(21.1)
	N 58 32 41 49	58 (64.4) 32 (35.6) 41 (45.6) 49 (54.4)	N % N  58 (64.4) 65 32 (35.6) 25  41 (45.6) 51 49 (54.4) 39	N % N %  58 (64.4) 65 (72.2) 32 (35.6) 25 (27.8)  41 (45.6) 51 (56.7) 49 (54.4) 39 (43.3)	N % N % N  58 (64.4) 65 (72.2) 71 32 (35.6) 25 (27.8) 19  41 (45.6) 51 (56.7) 64 49 (54.4) 39 (43.3) 26	N % N % N %  58 (64.4) 65 (72.2) 71 (78.9) 32 (35.6) 25 (27.8) 19 (21.1)  41 (45.6) 51 (56.7) 64 (71.1) 49 (54.4) 39 (43.3) 26 (28.9)	N % N % N % N  58 (64.4) 65 (72.2) 71 (78.9) 194 32 (35.6) 25 (27.8) 19 (21.1) 76  41 (45.6) 51 (56.7) 64 (71.1) 156 49 (54.4) 39 (43.3) 26 (28.9) 114

N=90

N=90

N = 90

N = 270

sales assistant participating in this study to be permanently employed, 20 years of age or under, single without children, female, and to have up to a School Certificate standard of education. This profile coincides with the industry average (norm).

The original intention was to restrict the study to <a href="permanent">permanent</a> and <a href="female">female</a> staff only. However, as the pilot study revealed no significant difference between the sexes on the main attitude variables, males were included to give true population representation. The 'permanents only' restriction also proved to be impractical for three reasons. First, the firms' employment policies dictate a high proportional usage of casuals (in Company C they comprise the <a href="total">total</a> operational staff on a Thursday night and Saturday morning); secondly, the casuals used in this study were <a href="permanent">permanent</a> casuals (see footnote 10); and thirdly, the study would have taken much longer to complete with permanents only - that is, their employment intake is not as great as that of casual staff.

The three samples comprised newly employed sales assistants. With the exception of Company C,  $^{12}$  all were approached to

<sup>12</sup> Company C's sample was drawn from one location only - a newly opened supermarket. Because of the intensive trading period associated with a new store, no questionnaire administrations were allowed in the first five weeks of operation. This was not considered detrimental to the study as participants were sufficiently close to entry to give reliable results. Thereafter, the study proceeded as normal.

enter the study in their first three days of employment while undergoing centralised induction training. The first questionnaire administrations took place at that time. The later three administrations occurred at the participant's work place - that is, the particular store to which they had been assigned. The samples were thus followed-up at the appropriate three socialisation stages in the organisational entry process.

# 4. The Setting and Organisations

Sales assistants were selected as the focus of this study because they represent a large homogeneous occupational group and operate in an industry characterised by numerous formal and informal socialisation measures. Some important background to the setting is as follows:

#### The Industry:

Retailing in Australia, prior to 1970, was an industry marked by slow rates of change. Although certain significant events did occur - for example, the advent of shopping centres and discount trading, most change was able to be contained and accommodated by the trade without great disruption.

Overall the industry was controlled by the 'families' and in New South Wales by the 'big Six' (quite often the same

personalities). Considerable emphasis was placed on working for the family who were visible identities surrounded by appropriate norms and legends. Although turnover was high in some employment areas (retailing being considered as an employer of 'last resort'), the majority of employees were loyal, dedicated and long-term organisational members. They prided themselves on being 'retailers' and 'company people', these attitudes being reinforced by organisational practices and traditions. Both formal and informal socialisation methods were extensively used.

Vast change has occurred in the industry since 1970. Technological change, in the form of computerisation, has radically altered the nature of buying, selling, inventory recording and warehousing. The industry has become unionised, while wage rises have led to reductions in floor personnel, introduction of self-selection merchandising and a change in the senior/junior employee ratios. Operational changes to a five day working week and Thursday night shopping have meant the increased employment of casual and part-time employees, many of whom lack product knowledge and real contact with the organisation. To meet the changing conditions, people with new skills - either graduates or 'imports' from overseas - have been recruited. These newcomers owe little allegiance to the system and are often critical of the general conservatism and antiquated methods of these firms. Simultaneously, many old firms have been taken over or simply disappeared (the 'family' importance is diminishing). Competition has become fiercer, margins have been squeezed, costs esculated, and traditional growth patterns disrupted. Different forms of merchandising have eventuated with 'trendy' promotional gimmicks being used to lure the customer dollar.

Significantly, the industry is now considered to be 'overshopped' - that is, there are too many stores for the number of consumers and their dollars. Virtually every suburb has a 'centre' irrespective of proximity to other areas. Recent unemployment/inflation trends have contributed to a change in consumer demand. The growth areas in retailing are now entertainment, travel and liquor supplies, the traditional areas being either stagnant or suffering decline. The 1980's should see further changes to the industry as some of these effects work their way through the cycle.

The changes have also had a significant impact on the socialisation practices and policies of retail organisations. Instead of using more permanent employees the trend is towards large numbers of casuals - that is, a 'pool' that may be called on according to circumstances. Degrees of permanency thus exist among the part-time workers with some being employed regularly and other irregularly. The casuals are usually rotated amongst departments which makes it difficult for them to identify with either a particular department, product line, supervisor or staff member.

Management complains that the part-timers, although competent

in many ways, are 'difficult to motivate', 'do not care about the job or company', 'do not follow things up and make sure goods are delivered' and 'are only in it for the 'money'. They project permanent-type employee expectations onto the casuals when they have been principally employed as a cost-saving measure.

Socialisation practices have become fragmented because of the changing employment policies. Although all sales employees undergo a formal induction programme, a network of permanent employees no longer exists to give informal socialisation. In fact in some departments the staff consists entirely of a 'floating' staff of casuals. In others a high labour turnover means new permanents are often the 'old hands'. The supporting systems, once so skillfully used by retailers, are slowly breaking down.

This background makes retailing an interesting field in which to study the development of commitment. Other benefits are that the nature of the industry renders the 'outsider-to-insider' process easy to assess. The trade has a definite entry point at sales assistant level; industry events occur at regular intervals - for example, sales and stocktaking; operations are highly systematised and regular - that is, the same events occur year after year, half-year after half-year; and new employees receive a broad overview of the industry within six months of employment. Hence, the research design of repeated measures for four months is sufficient for all participants to have experienced the socialisation stages

of entry, encounter and adjustment. Consequently, the industry provides a rare opportunity for a large number of participants from the same occupational group to be examined during the organisational entry process and monitored during the first stages of organisational socialisation.

## The Companies and their Training/Selection Methods

The three organisations in this study come from the 'big Six' in New South Wales. Two are department store chains (Companies A and B), the other a variety store/supermarket chain (Company C). All have outlets (stores) in other states, and are following expansion paths. Owing to the complexity of modern retailing the three have also diversified into areas away from their traditional orientations. While originally family companies, all are now listed on the stock exchange.

Companies A and B follow a centralised approach to the training of their sales staff. New employees, both permanent and casual, are required to attend a three-day formalised induction training programme at the main City store. Because the companies are examples of Etzioni's (1961) utilitarian category of organisations, they engage in 'instrumental-type' socialisation - that is, the organisation provides the training, the new staff being inducted formally and collectively (Van Maanen and Schein, 1977,1979). During the three days of induction considerable emphasis is placed on

rules and regulations, cash register and docket procedures, customer approach, and organisational values and traditions. The new employee is then released for duty in his or her relevant department and store. Although routine follow-up is laid-down policy it occurs rather irregularly in fact. The new employee is generally left to fend for himself once the induction training is completed.

In Company C the formal training is briefer, occurs at the local workplace, and follows a routine laid down by Head Office. New staff are given a familiarisation tour of the store, its layout, key people and organisation, and undertake both fire and customer courtesy training programmes. Follow-up video training programmes and questionnaires are then administered to the new staff on a regular schedule. Should a staff member 'fail' a programme, it is repeated until performance is satisfactory. A 'sponsor' programme -nominated people to whom new employees can address questions - is also implemented.

In all three companies the individual stores select their own permanent and casual staff according to guidelines given them by their central personnel departments. Companies A and B have Personnel Managers in the stores; in Company C the selection is done by the female supervisor (Head Girl) and occasionally the Store Manager. However, only Company C uses selection devices such as numerical, abstract and personal values tests. The other two have tried various

methods and are currently developing new techniques (neither was using formal selection measures at the time of the study). Company C is by far the most sophisticated in its selection aids. Not only are there job descriptions for the various sales-level jobs (such as checkout operator, stockkeeper and packer), but man specifications also exist outlining the most common job difficulties and errors, the most common job likes and dislikes, and the specific age, educational, health/physique, personality and specific aptitude requirements for the job. The initial interview also follows a standard format with suggested questions, points of assessment and evidence for rating.

The three companies follow the Shop Employees (State) Interim Award 1977 for the general employment conditions of their sales assistants. This award specifies the prescriptions for classifying an employee as either permanent, part-time or casual. Permanent employees are defined as those who work a regular 40 hour week, part-time as those who work more than 20 hours a week, and casual as those working a minimum of four hours a day. In this study permanent and permanent part-timers are combined to form a permanent category while casuals are treated as a separate category for analysis.

<sup>13</sup> Shop Employees (State) Interim Award, 1977, clause 6.

## 5. Questionnaire Administration

Four questionnaire administrations occurred during the study. As indicated in Table 5.5, number 1 was in the first week of employment, number 2 between the fourth and sixth week of employment, number 3 between the eighth and tenth week and number 4 between the twelfth and sixteenth week. the exception of questionnaire 1, all other administrations were conducted at the work place during working hours. study commenced in August 1979 and was completed in April 1980, a total of eight months. Although questionnaire administrations ceased over the Christmas/New Year period, this did not interfere with the research design as few participants were due for re-testing at that time. distribution of the subject numbers over the four questionnaires is given in Table 5.7. The final sample of 270 represents a response rate of 75.8 per cent. 24.2 per cent was the combined turnover rate (there was no 'drop-out' rate) during the study.

With the exception of Company C (as explained in footnote 12), subjects were approached to participate in the study during their induction training. Because companies A and B had regular weekly induction schools, the approach was made at a set time each week. Subjects were initially told the nature of the study, the amount of participation required, the volunteer nature of participation and the confidentiality of responses. Each subject was then given an official letter from the University (on appropriate letter-head) confirming

TABLE 5.7 Sample Distributions Across the Four Questionnaires.

Questionnaire	Company A	Company B	Company C	Total
1	118	128	110	356
2	110	108	103	321
3	100	98	97	295
4	90	90	90	270

Final Response Rate:

76.3% 70.3%

81.8%

75.8%

the authenticity of the study (Appendix E) and a research guarantee outlining the confidentiality of the respondent's answers (Appendix G ). In the case of Company A a letter from the company, welcoming the subject's participation, was also included (Appendix F). Upon agreement to participate, each subject completed the first questionnaire and then received a reminder note detailing the date of the next questionnaire administration (Appendix H). occasions the questionnaires were administered personally by the researcher. Of the 356 sales assistants approached only two refused to participate. Both were friends and claimed their husbands would not 'allow them' because it was an invasion of privacy. Once committed, there was no 'drop-out' rate from the participants. The 24.2 percent (86 in total) who did not complete the four questionnaires were either dismissed or left their employers voluntarily.

Questionnaire 2 was administered a month to six weeks after the completion of the first. Questionnaires 3 and 4´ followed in similar order. This meant the researcher was involved in travelling around seven locations in Company A,

This 'low commitment' group proved impossible to follow-up. Quite often they 'disappeared' after the induction training period or the first week of employment. Sometimes management did not realise they had left until some days later. Because of the nature of the study, the researcher herself did not often realise she had lost respondents until six weeks had passed - that is, when the next questionnaire was due. By that time the respondent had been replaced and there was not record of where the original had gone.

two in Company B and one in Company C. 15 Great care was taken to ensure that participants were re-tested at their appropriate time. 16 The ten stores received a letter a week before each questionnaire administration period listing the names of the relevant personnel. A the store personnel managers assisted in ensuring that staff were available at the appropriate time; in the other two organisations the researcher did most of the arranging. 17 Once again all questionnaires were administered personally by the researcher to guarantee the confidentiality of the respondent's answers. individuals were missed because of illness or rostered day off, they were scheduled for the following week. each questionnaire was checked by both the respondent and the researcher there was no missing data. The equal sample sizes also simplified some of the analytical procedures - for example, analysis of variance. A review of these follows in the next section. Diagram 5.1 illustrates the scheduling of the questionnaire administrations over the eight-month study period.

In the eight months of the study a total of 4873 kms were travelled in administering questionnaires. The field covered most of the metropolitan area with the perimeters being Gordon, Baulkham Hills, Blacktown, Penrith, Campbelltown and Miranda.

<sup>270</sup> participants times four questionnaires meant 1080 completed questionnaires. The recording system had to be very accurate!

<sup>17</sup> Even to using the public address system! Towards the end of the study there were some communication breakdowns and the researcher had to physically locate participants in their departments on the floor. This by-passed the whole store supervisory system. Only the fact that the researcher had retailing experience, and was now a familiar face, made this possible.

<u>DIAGRAM 5.1</u>
Schedule of Questionnaire Administrations in Main Study

	August	September	October	November	December	January	February	March	April	
Question- naire 1.		////								
Question- naire 2						22	777			231.
Question- naire 3				///	Z		////			-
Question- naire 4				22	ZI					

#### 6. Analytical Procedures.

The large number of hypotheses (some 58 in total), and their particular connotations, necessitated the use of the following analytical procedures.

#### a) Means and Standard Deviations

The SPSS 'Breakdown' programme was used to calculate the means and standard deviations for all the variables in the study. Although low level data, they served three important functions: they documented the extent of response differences between the various samples; they allowed basic comparisons to be made over the four measuring occasions of the study; and they permitted additional analysis of the data.

## b) Reliability and Validity of Predictor and Criterion Variables.

The data for the 270 sales assistants was subjected to the SPSS programme called 'Reliability' and 'Factor Analysis'. This was a further check on the internal consistency reliability of all the multiple-response item scales, and their construct validity, using a different sample population. The pilot study criterion for selection of items was also adopted in the main study - that is, items had to have a factor loading greater than 0.30 in absolute magnitude to demonstrate construct validity, while final item scale selection rested on inter-item and item-whole correlations

(within the scale) and the meaning of each item. A scale was considered to be reasonably reliable if its 'alpha' coefficient was greater than 0.70. A further reliability index was given by 'test-retest' indices. Because most scales were measured on three occasions within the repeated measures design (the exceptions being Realism which was measured 4 times, and Search and Social Desirability which were once only), the ideal situation was provided for 'test-retest' reliability. 18 Finally, all scales were subjected to correlation analysis as an indication of discriminant validity. Where correlations were too high for instance, greater than 0.60 - partial correlation analysis was employed to remove spurious relationships between the variables.

#### c) Tests of Association

Several tests of assocation were employed for the hypotheses. Because the variables represented a mixture of nominal, ordinal, interval and ratio-level scales, the tests ranged from the simple contingency table with its associated chisquare statistic through to multiple regression and analysis of variance. The particular tests, by hypotheses, were as

The most obvious method for determining reliability of a test calls for administering it to the same sample on two different occasions, then defining reliability as the Pearson product-moment correlation between the two sets of scores (Roscoe, 1975, pl32)

Partial correlation analysis is often used to examine whether the relationship between variables is caused by spuriousness or common method variance. The latter is quite common when similar multiple-response formats are used for the various scales.

#### follows:

#### GROUP ONE

H1, H3 to H8
H11 to H14
H18 to H19
H23
H45 to H46

These hypotheses dealt with two or more classificatory (dichotomous) variables - for example, high and low commitment for males and females.

SPSS 'CROSSTABS' gives both the contingency table and the chi-square test of statistical significance between the two sets of variables. The chi-square statistic helps determine whether or not the variables are statistically independent.

#### GROUP TWO

H2
H15 to H17
H22
H24 to H27
H30 to H31
H34 to H43
H47 to H50

These hypotheses concerned two interval-level variables. appropriate test of association was the Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient provided by SPSS 'PEARSON Where the resultant interrelationship was too high (say over 0.60), this suggested that either a spurious relationship or common method variance existed and SPSS 'PARTIAL CORR' was employed. This statistical technique provides a single measure of association describing the relationship between two variables while adjusting for the effects of one or more additional variables. Partial correlation is a simple correlation between two residuals, the residual of Y and the residual of X, from both of

which the effects of X2 have been taken out. Control is statistical rather than literal.

#### GROUP THREE

H9 to H10 H20 to H21 H28 to H29 H32 H44 H56

These hypotheses involved one criterion variable (interval scaled) and numerous predictor variables (both nominal and interval scaled). The appropriate statistical technique was SPSS 'REGRESSION' to find the linear combination of predictor variables that 'best' accounted for the variance in the criterion variable. Stepwise regression procedures were used so that the linear combination of the predictors was developed in discrete steps, with one additional predictor being included in each step. The increase in predicted criterion variance was examined at each step and the analysis terminated when the addition of further predictors failed to increase significantly the proportion of criterion variance predicted.

The regression weights reported in this study were the 'standardised regression coefficients' or 'beta weights'. In each stepwise analysis, statistics and significance levels have only been reported for the regression equation defined in the step immediately preceding the first step characterised

by a non-significant increase in the proportion of predicted criterion variance (R<sup>2</sup>). Thus, the reported regression equations in Chapter 7 contain only those variables which significantly contribute to the prediction of the criterion.

#### GROUP FOUR

H53 to H55

These hypotheses concerned the degree of change in a number of interval level variables over time - that is, the same individuals were given the same test on a number of occasions, the objective being to determine whether there was any change in attitude between time period 1 and time period 4 and also within the intervening time periods (2 and 3). appropriate analytical technique was analysis of variance with repeated measures because of the repeated measures design. The computer programme used to provide this test of association was the BMDP-77 (P2V) PROGRAMME of the Health Sciences Computing Facility, University of California (Dixon et al, 1977). particular repeated measures programme selected for use was the design giving one grouping factor and one trial factor. The subjects were divided into three groups to correspond with their companies (the grouping factor), and were crossed with the time period (the trial factor). Grouping factors

referred to 'between subject' effects and trial factors referred to 'within subject' effects. The design was thus that of a two factor experiment with repeated measurements of one factor (Ferguson, 1976, p314)

#### GROUP FIVE

H57

This hypothesis concerned the degree of change between the three samples on the main attitude variables (i) at the various study stages, and (ii) between the study stages. For the second part of the hypothesis the analytical procedure of analysis of variance with repeated measures (the BMDP-77 (P2V) PROGRAMME) applied. For the first part of the hypothesis the SPSS 'ONEWAY' analysis of variance programme was used. The basic principle of this analysis is to determine whether the mean variable scores for each sample vary further from the total sample mean than would be expected in view of the variations of single cases from their means (Guilford and Fruchter, 1973).

The F test, used to assess the statistical significance of the two types of analysis of variance results, rests on the following assumptions: that sampling within sets will be random, that variances from within sets will be approximately equal, that

observations within homogeneous sets will be normally distributed, and that contributions to total variance will be additive (Guilford and Fruchter, 1973). For analysis of variance involving repeated measures, assumptions are made for both the homogeneity of variance and the homogeneity of covariance (Ferguson, 1976, p320). If the homogeneity of variance-covariance assumption is not satisfied in a repeated measures design the F test is positively biased. This means that "more significant differences will be found, and more null hypotheses rejected, than would have been the case had the F test not been biased" (Ferguson, 1976, p321). Ferguson suggests a procedure for testing the homogeneity of the variance-covariance assumption. However, the F test in simple analysis of variance is said to be fairly robust to violations of the normality assumption and to all but marked differences in variations in variance of populations (Guilford and Fruchter, 1973).

d) <u>Assumptions underlying the use of the selected Statistical</u>
Procedures.

With the exception of the chi-square analysis (SPSS 'CROSSTABS') each of the statistical techniques described above have traditionally been based on the assumption that the measures involved are at least intervally scaled. assumption ensures that the means, variances and correlations indicate something in terms of meaningful concepts and not just in terms of numbers. A second assumption is that the observed values of the experimental variables represent a random sample of observations from the same normal (or multivariate -normal) universe. Although both of these assumptions may have been violated by some of this study's measures, it must be remembered that assumptions of normality apply only to tests of statistical significance such as the F test and the t test. Factor analysis, multiple linear regression and analysis of variance provide meaningful descriptions of the sample data independently of any assumption about the shape of population distribution. As Guilford and Fruchter (1973, p276) have already indicated that the F test is fairly robust to violations of the normality assumption, it is felt that the particular statistical techniques used in this study are justified as the over-or-underestimation due to failure of these assumptions will be minor (Cohen and Cohen, 1975). A description of the psychometric qualities of the criterion and predictor variables used in the main study follows in the next chapter.

# CHAPTER 6: RESEARCH FINDINGS 1: RELIABILITY AND VALIDITY ANALYSIS.

#### 6.1 INTRODUCTION

The testing of the 58 hypotheses generated such a large number of tables that their results are examined separately in Chapter 7. This chapter deals exclusively with the reliability and validity analysis of the criterion and predictor variables used in the eight month study. The chapter is divided into two main sections:

- a) Examination of the reliability of the criterion and predictor variables
- b) Discriminant validity of the variables

As subjects were categorised both as a total sample and in three sub-samples, the analysis is also handled at two levels. The results of the total sample (N=270) are presented first, followed by the three samples (each N=90). The relevant biographical details of the sample(s) were given in Chapter 5, Table 5.6

The final response rate for the study represents 76 per cent of initial respondents. The other 24 per cent were either dismissed or left their employers voluntarily (demographic analysis revealed that there were no differences between this

group and those who remained for the duration of the study). An analysis of the total sample (N=270) reveals that the study's subjects are mainly permanently employed (68%), aged 20 years or under (42%), female (78%), single (63%), without children (72%) or working partner (58%) and with an education level of up to School Certificate (79%). three samples, representing different companies, generally follow this trend. However, Company C has more younger employees (68%) and casuals (65%), while Company B employs more people within the 21 to 35 age range (42%). other figures follow the industry trend for sales assistants that is, employment status is approximately 1:2 between permanents and casuals, younger employees predominate (over 70 per cent), the ratio of male to female sales assistants is approximately 1:5, while employees are generally single with a School Certificate level of education. The study's sample thus closely aligns the industry norm and is an excellent representation of the sales assistant population employed in large retail stores. The study findings now follow.

# 6.2 <u>CONSTRUCT VALIDITY OF THE CRITERION AND PREDICTOR</u> ATTITUDE SCALES.

As indicated above, the pilot study produced credible scales for all attitude variables with the exception of the attitude called Search. As mentioned in Chapter 5, a decision was made to proceed with a view to improving the internal

consistency (alpha) reliability coefficient of the Search scale in the main study. On examining the other scales it was also decided to add some new items with a view to extending the length of the scales. Accordingly, additional items (not previously tested) were included in Questionnaires 1 and 2 and the resulting scales subjected to reliability and factor analysis. The results are presented in Tables 6.1 to 6.4

The Tables give the psychometric and normative data for the total sample and the three sub-samples on all the attitude variables (21 in total over four measuring occasions). can be seen that the coefficients of internal homogeneity (mean item-whole r and alpha coefficients) are substantial in all cases. They also closely align the results obtained in the pilot study (Chapter 5) indicating high test-retest reliability. The tendency for coefficients to be slightly lower in the main study than in the pilot version (notably those of Supervisor Affect and Work Group Affect) is to be expected since the final form of each scale was compiled from an originally larger pool of items by selecting items with relatively good scaling properties. Internal homogeneity figures could have been augmented by chance factors to a spuriously high level in the pilot study. point is endorsed by Nunnally (1967) and Ray (1970) who explain that results are often lower for the retest group than the group on whom the test is normed. It must also be remembered that the pilot study contained both new and longterm employees while the main study comprises new employees

TABLE 6.1

Psychometric and Normative Data for the

Total Sample (N=270)

			Mea	an	Stand.
Scale	Mean Item- whole corr.	Coeff. alpha	Tot.	Av.	Deviat
Realism 1 (10 items)	0.42	0.75	48.95	4.89	8.37
Realism 2	0.58	0.87	49.03	4.90	11.33
Realism 3	0.59	0.87	48.67	4.87	11.01
Realism 4	0.61	0.88	48.08	4.81	11.48
Search (12 items)	0.35	0.72	53.58	4.46	10.52
Social Desirability	0.40	0.73	51.39	5.14	9.08
Supervisor Affect (8 items)	0.45	0.75	41.62	5.20	7.69
Supaff 2	0.55	0.83	40.80	5.10	8.57
Supaff 3	0.59	0.85	41.20	5.15	8.99
Work Group Affect (8 items)	0.44	0.74	39.56	4.94	7.45
Wkgpaff 2	0.45	0.76	39.57	4.95	7.30
Wkgpaff 3	0.46	0.77	39.57	4.95	7.69
Congruence (10 items)	0.56	0.85	46.66	4.66	11.98
Congruence 2	0.58	0.87	45.21	4.52	12.11
Congruence 3	0.62	0.88	44.05	4.40	13.12
Commitment 1 (14 items)	0.57	0.89	65.07	4.65	15.09
Commitment 2	0.59	0.90	63.28	4.52	15.60
Commitment 3	0.61	0.91	62.29	4.45	16.11
Work Environment (10 items)	0.51	0.82	52.76	5.28	10.19
Work Environment 2	0.55	0.85	50.76	5.07	10.97
Work Environment 3	0.62	0.88	48.89	4.89	12.50

TABLE 6.2

Psychometric and Normative Data for

Company A (N=90)

	1		<u> </u>		1
Scale	Mean item whole corr.	Coeff. alpha	Mea Tot.	n Av.	Stand. Deviat
Realism 1	0.44	0.77	49.55	4.95	8.09
Realism 2	0.58	0.87	50.87	5.09	11.19
Realism 3	0.66	0.90	51.03	5.10	11.50
Realism 4	0.66	0.90	50.77	5.08	11.75
Search	0.38	0.75	54.60	4.55	10.79
Social Desirability	0.32	0.65	51.02	5.10	8.46
Supervisor Affect 1	0.48	0.78	41.30	5.16	7.62
Supervisor Affect 2	0.55	0.83	40.89	5.11	8.16
Supervisor Affect 3	0.57	0.84	41.04	5.13	8.67
Work Group Affect 1	0.54	0.82	39.95	4.99	8.54
Work Group Affect 2	0.55	0.83	40.47	5.06	8.46
Work Group Affect 3	0.53	0.81	40.37	5.04	8.27
Congruence 1	0.55	0.84	49.29	4.93	11.21
Congruence 2	0.60	0.88	47.65	4.76	11.87
Congruence 3	0.65	0.89	45.98	4.59	13.20
Commitment 1	0.55	0.88	67.85	4.85	14.63
Commitment 2	0.56	0.89	65.63	4.69	14.87
Commitment 3	0.60	0.90	63.33	4.52	15.59
Work Environment 1	0.54	0.85	54.70	5.47	10.12
Work Environment 2	0.49	0.81	52.31	5.23	9.83
Work Environment 3	0.59	0.87	50.34	5.03	11.67

Psychometric and Normative Data for

Company B (N=90)

Scale	Mean item whole corr.	Coeff. alpha	Mea Tot.	Av.	Stand. Deviat
Realism 1	0.33	0.67	47.08	4.71	7.25
Realism 2	0.54	0.85	46.89	4.69	11.41
Realism 3	0.56	0.85	46.40	4.64	10.98
Realism 4	0.60	0.88	45.63	4.56	11.67
Search	0.33	0.70	55.18	4.59	9.90
Social Desirability	0.46	0.79	51.83	5.18	9.58
Supervisor Affect 1	0.46	0.76	40.65	5.08	8.15
Supervisor Affect 2	0.59	0.85	38.90	4.86	9.65
Supervisor Affect 3	0.63	0.87	39.98	4.99	9.68
Work Group Affect 1	0.44	0.75	39.49	4.94	7.49
Work Group Affect 2	0.44	0.74	38.91	4.86	7.32
Work Group Affect 3	0.49	0.79	39.59	4.94	7.90
Congruence 1	0.58	0.87	46.47	4.65	12.35
Congruence 2	0.61	0.88	44.40	4.44	12.86
Congruence 3	0.65	0.89	43.44	4.33	13.96
Commitment 1	0.61	0.91	63.24	4.52	15.95
Commitment 2	0.66	0.92	60.82	4.34	17.30
Commitment 3	0.66	0.92	60.62	4.33	17.85
Work Environment 1	0.49	0.81	51.42	5.14	10.19
Work Environment 2	0.59	0.87	48.21	4.82	12.34
Work Environment 3	0.64	0.89	46.37	4.64	13.28

TABLE 6.4

Psychometric and Normative Data for

### Company C (N=90)

	1				
Scale	Mean item whole corr.	Coeff. alpha	Mea Tot.	n Av.	Stand. Deviat
Realism 1	0.47	0.79	50.21	5.02	9.40
Realism 2	0.61	0.88	49.34	4.93	11.15
Realism 3	0.56	0.85	48.58	4.85	10.14
Realism 4	0.56	0.85	47.85	4.78	10.50
Search	0.33	0.70	50.97	4.25	10.45
Social Desirability	0.41	0.74	51.32	5.13	9.26
Supervisor Affect 1	0.42	0.73	42.90	5.36	7.17
Supervisor Affect 2	0.42	0.78	42.62	5.32	7.41
Supervisor Affect 3	0.49	0.83	42.57	5.32	8.49
Work Group Affect 1	0.31	0.61	39.23	4.90	6.19
Work Group Affect 2	0.33	0.64	39.33	4.92	5.89
Work Group Affect 3	0.38	0.69	38.77	4.84	6.82
Congruence 1	0.55	0.84	44.22	4.42	11.94
Congruence 2	0.54	0.84	43.59	4.36	11.30
Congruence 3	0.56	0.85	42.85	4.28	12.06
Commitment 1	0.55	0.88	64.10	4.58	14.40
Commitment 2	0.56	0.89	63.39	4.53	14.25
Commitment 3	0.57	0.89	62.93	4.49	14.79
Work Environment 1	0.51	0.82	52.17	5.22	10.07
Work Environment 2	0.54	0.84	51.77	5.18	10.23
Work Environment 3	0.63	0.89	49.98	4.99	12.25
	1				

only. Under these circumstances the scales reveal a high degree of internal homogeneity.

The research design of four measuring occasions meant that additional checks could be made on the <u>stability of the scales</u> over time. The results from these repeated measures are presented in Tables 6.5 and 6.61 to 6.62 as test-retest reliability data. Information on the Realism scale is given separately as it is the only attitude scale to be measured on four occasions - the other attitudes were measured at <u>three</u> separate times. (Note: the tables in this case apply to N=270 <u>only</u> and not to the sub-samples).

TABLE 6.5

Test-retest Data for Realism Scale

(N=270)

Scale	Test (time 1) Mean	Retest (time 2) Mean	Correlatio test-rete Pearson	· · · ·
Realism 1 & 2	48.95	49.03	0.44	p≤0.001
		Retest (time 3) Mean		
Realism 1 & 3	48.95	48.67	0.43	p <b>€</b> 0.001
		Retest (time 4) Mean		
Realism 1 &4	48.95	48.08	0.41	p <b>≤</b> 0.001

TABLE 6.61

Test-retest Data for other Attitude

Scales (N=270)

Time 2 and Time 3 Comparison\*

Scale	Test (time 2) Mean	Test (time 3) Mean		ion between and time 3
Commitment	65.07	63.28	0.84	p≤0.001
Congruence	46.66	45.21	0.79	11 11
Supervisor Affect	41.62	40.80	0.67	11 11
Work Group Affect	39.56	39.57	0.71	11 11
Work Environment	52.76	50.76	0.73	11 11
Variety in Job	5.19	4.93	0.64	11 11
Security	5.57	5.44	0.51	11 11
Physical Work. Cond.	5.13	4.85	0.61	n n
Freedom in Job	5.10	5.15	0.54	11 11
Pay	4.76	4.65	0.70	n n
Supervisor' Attitude	5.84	5.62	0.41	11 11
Challenge in Job	5.00	4.64	0.68	11 11
Management's Attitude	5.65	5.29	0.49	11 11
Management Decisions	5.12	4.80	0.56	11 11
Travel Time	5.39	5.38	0.73	11 11
		:		

<sup>\*</sup> These scales were measured at time periods 2,3 and 4 in the four-stage study design. They were omitted from time period 1 (entry) as respondents had not had any experience in the organisation.

TABLE 6.62

Test-retest Data for other Attitude Scales  $(\underline{N=270})$ 

### Time 2 and Time 4 Comparison

	7			
Scale	Test (time 2) Mean	Test (time 4) Mean	1	cion between 2 and time 4 3 Sig
•				
Commitment	65.07	62.30	0.72	p <b>≼</b> 0.001
Congruence	46.66	44.05	0.68	11 11
Supervisor Affect	41.62	41.20	0.56	11 II )
Work Group Affect	39.56	39.57	0.65	11 11
Work Environment	52.76	48.90	0.67	11 11
Variety in Job	5.19	4.71	0.57	11 11
Security	5.57	5.23	0.46	11 11
Physical Work. Cond.	5.13	4.78	0.60	11 11
Freedom in Job	5.10	4.83	0.46	11 11
Pay	4.76	4.29	0.65	11 15
Supervisor's Attitude	5.84	5.41	0.38	11 11
Challenge in Job	5.00	4.39	0.56	17 11
Management's Attitude	5.65	5.30	0.41	17 11
Management Decisions	5.12	4.65	0.50	11 11
Travel Time	5.39	5.27	0.65	11 11

All scales show an acceptable level of association on the repeated measures. The internal homogeneity data together with the test-retest data substantiate the claim that the scales are psychometrically adequate, stable and reliable. Some scales altered in length between pilot and main study; however, all final scales are balanced with an equal number of positive and negative items. The differences in scale length between the two studies are given in Table 6.7 while the particular items comprising the scales are presented in Appendix A.

#### Factor Analysis

While the concepts which the various scales measure can be conceptually distinguished and the measures themselves are structurally quite sound, it is necessary to demonstrate that the scales are also factorially sound even though in correlation analysis they may be in association. Tables 6.8 to 6.92 give the results of the principal component factor analysis conducted on the item contents of Questionnaires 1 and 2 of the main study.

Table 6.8 reveals the results of the analysis for Questionnaire 1. Because the results are very clear <sup>1</sup> - that is, the items readily fell into three distinguishable factors,

The initial solution produced twelve factors with an eigenvalue greater than 1.0. Because these were not readily interpretable, a three-factor solution was chosen which produced highly interpretable factors. All had an eigenvalue greater than 1.0, with factor 1 (Social Desirability) explaining 49% of the variance, factor 2 explaining 30% (Realism), and factor 3 (Search) 21%.

TABLE 6.7

Differences in Length of Scales between

Pilot and Main Study on Main Attitude Variables

	Item	Length	
Scale	Pilot Study	Main Study	Difference
Realism	9	10	+ 1
Commitment	15	14	- 1
Congruence	8	10	+ 2
Search	9	12	+ 3
Work Group Affect	8	8	, 0
Supervisor Affect	8	8	0
Work Environment	10	10	0
Social Desirability		10 (new sc	ale)

TABLE 6.8

Varimax-Rotated Factor Loadings on Three

Factors for Questionnaire 1

(N=270)

Scale items	Factor 1	Factor 2	Factor 3
Social Desirability			
5	37		
8	53		
11	35		
14	50		
17	29		
20	44		
23	39		
26	61		
29	41		
32	48		
Realism			
1*		35	
3*		40	
6*		47	
9*		38	
12*		53	
15*		30	
18		38	
21		-07	
24*		49	
30*		34	
33*	j	42	
36		-26	
38*		61	

<sup>\*</sup> Denotes inclusion in final scale

TABLE 6.8 (cont)

		<del>,</del>	
Scale	Factor 1	Factor 2	Factor 3
<u>Search</u>			
2*			33
4 *	,	,	54
7			-13
10*			56
13			13
16*			54
19*			30
22*			32
25*			71
27*			55
28*			42
31*			33
34			33
35*			31
37*			39
	1	l i	

<sup>\*</sup> Denotes inclusion in final scale.

Not: decimal points have been omitted.

TABLE 6.91

Varimax-Rotated Factor Loadings on Five Factors

for Questionnaire 2

### N=270

Scale	Items	Factor <sub>.</sub> l	Factor 2	Factor 3	Factor 4	Factor 5
V49		61*		, <u>, , , , , , , , , , , , , , , , , , </u>		
50	Ì			34		
51		75				
52	İ			47*		
53	ĺ	67				
54					52*	
55		64*				
56	Ì		42*			
57			}		59*	
58		52*				
59				47*		
60		47*				
61			54*			
62		59*				
63				53*		
64				45		
65						38
66			44*	İ		
67		50*				
68				40*		
69		53				
70				49		
71					53*	
72						
73		67				
74		54*				
75			58*			
76					46*	
77						47
78		37*				

TABLE 6.91 (cont)

			<del></del>		
Scale Item	Factor 1	Factor 2	Factor 3	Factor 4	Factor 5
79		49*			
80			30		İ
81	64*		į		
82				44*	
83	]	40			
84	54				
85					
86					
87		37			
88	,	54*			
89				40*	
90	53*				
91		57			
92				40*	
93	53*				
94			30*		
95	72*				
96	63				
97				65*	
98	61*				
99		30*			
100					
101	63*				
102			35*		
103				67*	
104	51				
105			36*		
106	70				
107			50*		
108		39*			
109	53				
110				67*	

<sup>\*</sup> Denotes inclusion in final scale (Note: decimal points have been omitted)

Factor 1 = Commitment/Congruence; Factor 2 = Supervisor
Affect; Factor 3 = Work Group Affect; Factor 4 =
 Realism

 $\frac{\text{TABLE 6.92}}{\text{Oblique-Rotated Factor Loadings on Five Factors}}$   $\frac{\text{for Questionnaire 2}}{\text{N=270}}$ 

Scale Item	Factor 1	Factor 2	Factor 3	Factor 4	Factor 5
V49	58*				
50	İ	26			
51	79				
52		40*			
53	69				
54				-55*	
55	65*				
56					
57	]			-61*	
58	38*				
59		42*	<u> </u>		
60	49*				
61			55*		
62	61*				
63	<u> </u>	56*			
64					
65	:				37
66			45*		
67	49*				
68		35*			
69					
70		47			
71				-53*	
72			35		
73	67*				
74	45*				
<b>7</b> 5			61*		
76					
77					
78	31*				
79			53*		,
80					
				(con	t. over)

TABLE 6.92 (cont)

		· · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · ·		<u> </u>		
Scale	Item	Factor 1	Factor 2	Factor 3	Factor 4	Factor 5
81	,	63*				
82					50* -	
83		32*				
84		56*				
85				ĺ		
86		35*				
87				36		
88				58*	;	
89		33				
90		57*				
91				59		
92						
93		41*				
94						
95		74*				
96		67*				
97					71*	
98		61*				
99						
100						
101		47*		•		
102			35*			
103					69*	
104		55*				
105			36*			
106		74*				
107			50*			
108						
109		51				
110					72*	

<sup>\*</sup> Denotes inclusion in final scale (Note; decimal points have been \_Omitted )

Factor 1 = Commitment/Congruence; Factor 2 = Work
Group Affect; Factor 3 = Supervisor Affect;
Factor 4 = Realism.

only varimax (orthogonal) rotation was used. For Questionnaire 2, however, both varimax (Table 6.91) and oblique (Table 6.92) rotations were used to provide a solution. <sup>2</sup> This arose because of the unexpected convergence of the items representing the variables called Commitment and Congruence into one factor. The pilot study was unable to reveal this possibility as both variables were tested on two separate occasions to two different samples. When the varimax solution failed to show them as two separate (orthogonal) factors, the oblique solution was used to examine the relationship between the underlying dimensions.  $^3$  Table 6.92 (the oblique solution) confirmed that items purporting to measure Commitment and Congruence came from the same dimension or had the same factorial content. 4 Subjects in this study, then, did not distinguish between their affective responses towards the job and those directed towards the organisation.

The initial solution produced 15 factors with an eigenvalue greater than 1.0. Examination of the eigenvalues revealed that 5 were greater than 2.0 and explained some 44% of the variance (the 15 only explaining 64%). Accordingly, a 5 factor solution was chosen and this produced clear and interpretable results with the first four factors explaining 94 per cent of the variance.

Nie et al, 1975, p483 says that the oblique rotation method is more flexible because the factor axes need not be orthogonal (uncorrelated) and is more realistic because the theoretically important underlying dimensions are not assumed to be unrelated to each other.

<sup>4</sup> Lodahl and Kejner (1965) found that, for a sample of engineers, job involvement had roughly the same factorial content as job satisfaction. However, they were loathe to conclude that they were the same construct even though they had some of the same determinants.

An examination of the items purporting to measure Congruence (Appendix A) revealed that they were similar to many job involvement items contained in the literature (cf. Lodahl and Kejner, 1965). Although originally intended as a construct to measure the perceived degree of 'fit' between an individual and his job, Congruence was in reality more oriented to job involvement. On reflection, then, it was not surprising that the two constructs, Congruence and Commitment, merged into the one dimension under factor analysis. This finding confirms the work of Buchanan (1972, 1974) and Porter et al (1974, 1976) where job involvement is included as a component of both the definition and measurement of organisational commitment. Wiener and Gechman (1977, p47) also view job involvement and commitment as "interchangeable labels for the same job behaviour" because they focus on intrapersonal, attitudinal processes. The findings of the factor analysis thus align with those of the literature by confirming that job involvement and organisational commitment are perceived as the same construct by the subjects in this study (Nunnally, 1967)

This finding meant a revision of some of the hypotheses.

Because a major objective of this study was to separate affective responses towards the job from those directed towards the organisation, Congruence was eliminated as an independent variable. This led to hypotheses 33, 51 and 52 (Chapter 4) being declared redundant. However, because of the factorial link between Congruence and Commitment, partial correlation analysis was then employed to examine the

relationship between Commitment and other attitudinal (affective response) type variables. By controlling for the effects of Congruence (job involvement), the intention was to determine the <u>unique contribution</u> (if any) of affective responses towards the organisation. <sup>5</sup> The original objective was thus not destroyed by the factor analysis findings. The research design was also not effected by the elimination of Congruence as an independent variable as a number of other variables, purporting to measure aspects of the work environment, were included in the study.

Both the Varimax and Oblique solutions presented in Tables 6.91 and 6.92 reveal that the items in Questionnaire 2 fell into four main factors: Commitment/Congruence, Work Group Affect, Supervisor Affect and Realism. Not all items, however, were included in the final scales. As indicated in Chapter 5, items had to meet certain selection criteria before being considered for inclusion. The principal criteria were that the item had to have a factor loading greater than 0.30 in absolute magnitude to demonstrate construct validity, sufficient inter-item and item-whole correlations (within the scale) and fit the meaning of the construct. The first criterion was met by factor analysis; the remaining criteria by reliability analysis and content examination of items. Thus no item was selected on the basis of one test alone. The items which

<sup>5</sup> This method was preferred rather than developing a composite index because of the study's objective.

were finally selected for inclusion in scales are marked by an asterix (\*) in Tables 6.8 to 6.92, while their specific wording is presented in Appendix A.

# 6.3 EVIDENCE OF DISCRIMINANT VALIDITY OF THE CRITERION AND PREDICTOR ATTITUDE VARIABLES.

The preceding analysis revealed a number of factors which gave credence to the existence of several constructs or variables. The task was now to determine whether these constructs, all measuring particular attitudes, demonstrated acceptable levels of disciminant validity when compared to each other. Although it was expected that certain job related attitudes would interrelate - for example, Work Group Affect and Supervisor Affect 6 - a certain level of discriminant validity was required if the unique contribution of each variable was to be assessed. Accordingly, Tables 6.10 to 6.13 give the intercorrelations between the main attitude variables on Questionnaires 1 to 4. questionnaire administration is presented separately to illustrate the relationship between the variables on the four separate measuring occasions.

The Tables reveal a high proportion of strong intercorrelations between the variables. Because of the size of some of

<sup>6</sup> The literature suggests relationships between many of the variables in this study.

TABLE 6.10

Intercorrelations between Main Attitude

Variables on Questionnaire 1

N = 270

	Realism 1	Search	Socdesir
Realism l			
Search	.13*		
Social Desirability	.24***	.23***	

\*\*\* p **\** 0.001

\* p **< 0.**05

TABLE 6.11

ZERO-ORDER CORRELATIONS BETWEEN THE MAIN VARIABLES ON QUESTIONNAIRE (2)

	R2	W	S	V	S	P	F	P	S	С	М	М	T	С
Realism 2														
Work Group Affect	.45							Ke	y: <b>&gt;</b> .18	•				
Supervisor Affect	.47	.57							•	but>.	·	.01 .05		
Variety	.36	.28	.29						<b>\.</b> .23	Duc , .	ro p	.03		
Security	.32	.22	.30	.39										
Physical	.18	.23	.26	.18	.15									
Freedom	.33	.44	.43	.55	.44	.24								
Pay	.38	.38	.34	.46	.29	.22	.46							
Super. Attitude	.22	.43	.63	. 29	.34	.19	.40	.24						
Challenge	.32	.37	.36	.67	.37	.18	.55	.37	.34					
Management Att.	.33	.40	.39	.27	.35	.20	.41	.32	.40	.37				
Management Dec.	.30	.47	.42	.38	.24	.32	.40	.39	.40	.38	.57			
Travel	.09	.09	.12	.23	.12	.07	.14	.22	.22	.17	.21	.22		
Congruence	.58	.53	.53	.64	.41	.22	.60	.52	.36	.65	.46	.47	.18	
Commitment	.59	.55	. 53	.57	.37	.26	.55	.56	.31	.59	.47	.50	.18	.83
	ł													

1	R	W	S	V	S	Р	F	Р	S	С	М	M	T	С
Realism 3									<b>&gt;</b> 10	Ja				
Work Group Affect	.39							Key:	<b>\( \).</b> 18 bu	<b>≼</b> 0.001 <b>t).</b> 13	p <b>《.</b> 01			
Supervisor Affect	.39	.60							<b>\( \).</b> 13 but	•	p <b>≼.</b> 05			
Variety	.34	.31	.31											
Security	.33	.28	.31	.50										
Physical	.23	.28	.35	.18	.14									
Freedom	.28	.42	.39	.62	.42	. 27								
Pay	.41	.35	.31	.42	.35	.26	.47							
Supervisor's Att.	.25	.44	.66	.43	.35	.21	.53	.33						
Challenge	.31	.35	.35	.69	.39	.22	.56	.39	.45					
Management Att.	.42	.40	.42	.42	.38	.22	.43	.41	.45	.44				
Management Dec.	.44	.44	.45	. 47	.36	.34	.47	.50	.40	.42	.63			
Travel	.20	.15	.17	.20	.21	.11	.10	.30	.11	.21	.19	.24		
Congruence	.59	.54	.48	.64	.45	.28	.60	.54	.42	.68	.55	.58	.26	
Commitment	.56	.54	.49	.59	.40	.34	.52	.57	.44	.52	.56	.60	.30	.83

R W S V S F S С M Ρ P  $\mathbf{T}$ С M Realism 4 Key: >.18 p ≤0.001 Work Group Affect .48 ∠.18 but > .13 p ≤ 0.01 Supervisor Affect .42 .65 ∠.13 but >.10 p ≤ 0.05 Variety .46 .39 .37 Security .43 .34 .40 .51 Physical .27 .26 .30 .29 .28 Freedom .44 .36 .46 .41 .61 .48 .35 Pay .41 .36 .52 .44 .30 .52 Supervisor's Att. .38 .55 .68 .44 .41 .27 .57 .40 Challenge .40 .42 .42 .28 .63 .55 .76 .43 .49 Management's Att. .45 .48 .52 .55 .33 .50 .53 .59 .48 .51 Mangement Dec. .49 .48 .50 .58 .38 .52 .54 .48 .58 .71 .45 Travel .26 .22 .22 .32 .28 .23 .27 .26 .28 .32 .34 .23 Congruence .61 .60 .52 .74 .51 .32 .66 .59 .48 .72 .57 .61 .32 .57 Commitment .60 .62 .67 .32 .58 .58 .62 .35 .48 .48 .60 .61 .85

the relationships, and bearing in mind the lack of discrimination between Commitment and Congruence (as revealed in the factor analysis), the results suggest the existence of either common method variance or spurious relationships. 8 When the latter is suspected the usual treatment is to use partial correlations in all subsequent analysis (House and Dessler, 1974). Partial correlation analysis is a method of statistical, rather than literal, control and is based on simplifying the assumptions of linear relationships between the variables. In essence, "partial correlation enables the researcher to remove the effect of the control variable from the relationship between the independent and dependent variables without physically manipulating the raw data" (Nie et al, 1975, p302)

Because one of the study's objectives was to separate affective responses towards the job from those directed towards the organisation to determine the unique contribution of organisational commitment, partial correlation analysis was performed on Questionnaires 2, 3 and 4, controlling for the effects of Congruence. The results are presented in Tables 6.14 to 6.16. No such analysis was performed on

For exmple, Table 6.11 reveals a total of 23 relationships with a correlation greater than 0.50 out of a possible 105 relationships, and Table 6.12 a total of 26 relationships greater than 0.50.

Common method variance arises when similar methods are used to measure scales. This was the situation in this study as all attitude variables were measured by Likert-type formats. The rationale is that some portion of the reported relationships is probably common variance due to measurement effects. Spurious relationships can arise when several variables are highly correlated - for instance, Commitment and Congruence.

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PARTIAL-CORRELATIONS BETWEEN MAIN ATTITUDE VARIABLES ON QUESTIONNAIRE 2

PARTIALLING FOR CONGRUENCE (N= 270)

	R	W	S	٧	S	P	F	P	S	С	М	M	Т	С
Realism 2														
Work Group Affect	.20							Ke	ey: <b>&gt;</b> .:	18 p <b></b>	0.001			
Supervisor Affect	.24	.40								18 but	_			
Variety	01	08	07						ζ	13 but 🕽	•.10 p	₹ 0.05		
Security	.11	.00	.11	.19										
Physical	.06	.13	.18	.04	.06									
Freedom	03	.18	.16	. 27	.26	.14								
Pay	.11	.14	.08	.10	.09	.12	.21							
Supervisor's Att.	.01	.30	.55	.08	.22	.13	.25	.06						
Challenge	10	.03	.03	.44	.15	.04	.26	.04	.15					
Management's Att.	.08	.20	.20	03	.20	.12	.18	.10	.28	.11				
Management Dec.	.03	.29	.23	.12	.06	.25	.17	.19	.28	.10	.45			
Travel	01	00	.03	.15	.05	.03	.04	.14	.16	.17	.14	.15		
Commitment	.23	.22	.19	.09	.05	.14	.11	.26	.02	.10	.18	.23	.05	

TABLE 6.15

PARTIAL-CORRELATIONS BETWEEN MAIN VARIABLES ON QUESTIONNAIRE 3

### PARTIALLING FOR CONGRUENCE (N=270)

	R	W	S	V	S	P	F	P	S	С	M	M	T	С
Realism 3				***										
Work Group Affect	.09								кеу: >	.18 p	<b>≼</b> 0.001			
Supervisor Affect	.14	.45								.18 but		p <b>≼</b> ,01		
Variety	07	06	00						<	.13 but	> .10	20 <b>, )</b> q		
Security	.09	.04	.12	.31										
Physical	.07	.16	.25	.00	.02									
Freedom	11	.14	.14	.38	.21	.13								
Pay	.13	.07	.07	.11	.14	.13	.21							
Supervisor's Att.	.01	.28	.57	. 23	.19	.11	38	.14						
Challenge	<b></b> 15	04	.04	.45	.12	.04	.26	.04	.26					
Management's Att.	.14	.14	.22	.10	.18	.08	.15	.16	.29	.12				
Management Dec.	.15	.19	.24	.16	.13	.23	.19	.27	.22	.04	.46			
Travel	.07	.01	.06	.04	.11	.04	07	.20	.00	.05	.07	.11		
Commitment	.15	.19	.19	.14	.05	.20	.06	.26	18	.06	.22	26	.15	

TABLE 6.16

PARTIAL-CORRELATIONS BETWEEN MAIN VARIABLES ON QUESTIONNAIRE 4

PARTIALLING FOR CONGRUENCE (N=270)

	R	W	S	V	S	P	F	P	S	С	М	М	Т	С
Realism 4														
Work Group Affect	.18							:	кеу: >.					
Supervisor Affect	.15	.49									.13 p.			
Variety	.02	.08	02						ζ	is but,	).10 p	₹.05		
Security	.18	.06	.18	.23										
Physical	.10	.09	.17	.08	.15									
Freedom	06	.08	.18	.25	.23	.28								
Pay	.08	01	.08	.16	.21	.15	.21							
Supervisor's Att.	.12	.37	.57	.14	.21	.14	.37	.17						
Challenge	07	02	07	.48	.11	.07	.29	.22	.24					
Management's Att.	.16	.20	.32	.22	.26	.19	.19	.29	.32	30				
Management Dec.	.19	.18	.26	.24	.20	.25	.19	.28	.26	.25	.56			
Travel	.08	.03	.07	.13	.14	.14	.08	.09	.14	.13	.20	.05		
Commitment	.20	.25	.29	.12	.11	09	.04	.20	.16	.01	.26	.20	.15	

Questionnaire 1 as the relationships between the three attitude variables, although significant, were deemed to be moderate.

An examination of the Tables reveals that Congruence did have a mediating effect on the other variables. All intercorrelations were reduced, with a large percentage becoming non-significant. Consequently, for all future analyses, especially in the hypotheses testing, partial correlations were used rather than zero-order correlations.

As a further check on the intercorrelations, another partial correlation analysis was performed, this time controlling for the effects of Commitment. Table 6.17 reveals that different intercorrelations were achieved suggesting that both Commitment and Congruence have different effects upon the variables. Appendix D also gives the results of the multiple regression analysis performed on the relationship between Congruence and the study's demographic variables. The results suggest that Congruence, when compared to Commitment (see Chapter 7, Tables 7.60 to 7.63) has some different demographic determinants which confirms Lodahl and Kejner's (1965) finding of the interrelationships between job involvement and job satisfaction. However, as already

<sup>9</sup> Cheloha and Farr (1980) found a similar effect in their examination of the relationship between job involvement, job satisfaction and absenteeism. They discovered that while job involvement and job satisfaction were highly related, job involvement had a mediating influence on the relationship between absenteeism and job satisfaction. They concluded that the relationships were not as simple as might be concluded from zero-order correlational analysis.

TABLE 6.17

INTERCORRELATIONS OF COMMITMENT AND CONGRUENCE WITH MAIN ATTITUDE VARIABLES AFTER PARTIALLING

FOR THE EFFECTS OF EACH OTHER (N=270)

		•														
	S	R	W	SU	WE .	SD	V	SE	PH	FR	PA	SA	СН	MA	MD	T
Congruence 1 (controlling for Commitment 1)	.15	.21	.17	.19	.37	.04	.36	.21	.01	.31	.19	.20	.37	.14	.10	.06
Commitment 1 (Controlling for effects of Congruence 1)		.23	.22	.19			.09	.05	.14	.11	.26	.02	.10	.18	.23	.05 <sup>2</sup> /la
Congruence 2 (controlling for Commitment 2)		.28	.20	.15			.33	.23	.00	.34	.14	.10	.42	.18	.19	.02
Commitment 2 (controlling for Congruence 2)	· · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · ·	.15	.19	.19			.14	.05	.20	.06	.26	.18	.06	.22	.26	.15
Congruence 3 (controlling for Commitment 3)		.26	.17	.07			.43	.21	.09	.39	.21	.15	.47	.14	.23	.05
Commitment 3 (controlling for Congruence 3)		.20	.25	.29			.12	.11	.09	.04	.20	.16	.01	.26	.20	.15

Key provided on p271b.

#### Index to Table 6.17

### Abbreviations key:

S Search scale

R Realism scale

W Work Group Affect scale

SU Supervisor Affect scale

WE Working Environment scale

SD Social Desirability scale

V Variety in Job

SE Job security

PH Physical working conditions

FR Freedom in the job

PA Pay

SA Supervisor's attitude

CH Job challenge

MA Management's attitude

MD Management decisions

T Travel time to work

### Significance levels:

Any correlation over .18 p $\le 0.001$  Correlation between .18 and .13 p $\le 0.01$  Correlation below .13 p $\le 0.05$ 

mentioned these researchers were loathe to conclude that the variables were the same despite high intercorrelations and similar factorial content. As Cheloha and Farr (1980, p472) phrase it, further conceptual and empirical work delineating the constructs is warranted if the complex relationships between job-organisation variables are to be understood. In this study it appears that Congruence (job involvement) has a mediating effect on the relationship between organisational commitment and its many determinants.

Partial correlation analysis thus revealed that sufficient discriminant validity existed among the variables. Although some correlations were still at a moderate level (r's of 0.40 to 0.50), they were between variables where such interrelationships were expected - for example, between management decisions and management attitude. All other correlations were now below a moderate level (and in many cases orthogonal) suggesting evidence of discriminant validity and the mediating effect of Congruence (job involvement).

#### 6.4 CONCLUSION

The construct and discriminant validity analysis revealed that several variables shared significant variance. This is not uncommon in attitudinal research and especially in the field of organisational commitment. As stated in Chapter 2, significant relationships have been found between commitment,

involvement, identification and even satisfaction. For instance, Marsh and Mannari (1977) observed a correlation of 0.27 between lifetime commitment and job satisfaction, Martin (1978) reported a correlation of 0.51 between job satisfaction and organisational commitment in several teacher samples, while Porter et al (1974) found average correlations ranging from 0.40 to 0.55 between commitment and job satisfaction.

Stone and Porter (1975, p57) believe that jobs are the means by which individuals are linked to their employing organisations. In fact, they found high correlations ranging from 0.50 to 0.70 between commitment and a range of job aspects. Buchanan (1974) also found one-third of his measured relationships with commitment were higher than 0.50. He felt this was caused by the substantive content of his scales and some common method variance. The fact that the scales' intrascale reliability estimates (Cronbach's alpha) were of greater magnitude than the interscale Pearson correlations was evidence of at least a tolerable level of discriminant validity, according to Buchanan.

Mowday et al (1979), in reviewing a number of studies using the Porter et al (1974, 1976) organisational commitment scale, found high relationships with job involvement, career satisfaction and aspects of job satisfaction. Cook and Wall (1980) also reported relationships between job satisfaction, work involvement and perceived intrinsic job characteristics with organisational

commitment, identification, involvement and loyalty. Numerous other studies - for instance, Gechman and Wiener (1975), Weissenberg and Gruenfeld (1968), Saal (1978), Lodahl and Kejner (1965), Shoemaker et al (1977), Stevens et al (1978), Steers (1977), Wiener and Vardi (1980), Cheloha and Farr (1980) - to name but a few - have found high relationships between either job involvement and job satisfaction, commitment and job satisfaction, or various combinations of these variables. As Cheloha and Farr (1980) state, the individual-job-organisation relationship is thus very complex and perhaps not sufficiently understood. method variance could account for some part of the common relationship, enough evidence exists to suggest that many of these concepts share sufficient variance to be perhaps measuring different aspects of the same conceptual domain (Nunnally, 1967). On the other hand, when the effects of some of the variables are partialled out and/or multiple regression is performed on the variables separately different results emerge suggesting that they do disciminate between aspects of the individual-job-organisation environment. Obviously more work needs to be done on both conceptualising and operationalising these various concepts. While this future work is outside the realms of this study, the significant finding is that while several variables are highly related they also appear to be related to different variables suggesting evidence of disciminant constructs. Hence, researchers need to fully appreciate the nature of their data before drawing conclusions from zero-order correlations.

Thus, preliminary psychometric analysis of the variables in the main study reveals that they have acceptable construct and discriminant validity. Internal homogeneity data, together with test-retest data, substantiates the claim that the scales, purporting to measure these variables, are also psychometrically adequate, stable and reliable. The only variation is the merging of the Commitment and Congruence (job involvement) scales into one factor construct by the subjects in this study. This result lends support to other literature findings that the two concepts are highly related. However, as an objective of this study was to separate affective responses towards the job from affective responses towards the organisation, the effects of the Congruence (job involvement) variable are partialled out from further analysis. This does not effect the research design as other variables measure aspects of the individual's response towards the job.

This chapter has examined the reliability and validity of this study's criterion and predictor scales mainly using the total sample (n=270) although on occasions the sub-sample results are also presented. Part 2 of this study's results - the hypotheses testing - follows in the next chapter. Where relevant the two main results are given - the total sample (N=270) and the individual companies (each N=90). General discussion on the two results chapters follows at the conclusion of the hypotheses testing.

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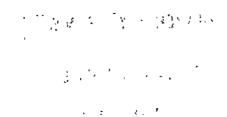


# CHAPTER 7: RESEARCH FINDINGS 2: HYPOTHESES TESTING.

#### 7.1 INTRODUCTION.

Chapter 4 outlined the various hypotheses which this study aimed to test and arranged them into several logical 'sets' or categories for ease of analysis. Because a large number of Tables were generated by the hypotheses the following format has been adopted for the presentation of the results:

- A. To align with Chapter 4, the results of the hypotheses testing are arranged into the categories of:
  - 1. Hypotheses emerging from the variable
     categories or 'sets':
    - a) Demographic
    - b) Anticipatory Socialistion
    - c) Realism
    - d) Job Search Behaviour
    - e) Socialising Influences within the Organisation
    - f) Satisfaction with the Working Environment
    - g) Job Leaving Behaviours
  - 2. Hypotheses between Predictor Variables
  - 3. Hypotheses emerging from particular Socialisation and Study stages
  - 4. Concluding Hypotheses



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- B. The data is also treated in two parts as a total sample (N=270) and three separate sub-samples (each N=90). In each table the result of the total sample is presented first, followed by the separate sub-samples. Where a hypothesis applies to the total sample only this particular circumstance is highlighted at the appropriate time. The tables are arranged at the end of each category section for ease of comprehension.
- C. In a departure from the usual study result presentation the results of the relevant hypotheses testing are itemised in each category section. This is considered to be an appropriate method because of the large number of hypotheses and the many research roots of this study. As far as possible both hypothesis and table are aligned together. A brief discussion of the general findings of the various hypotheses follows at the end of each section. Some discussion is also given during the result itemisation but this is mainly to highlight any variances between N=270 and the three separate sub-samples.

The results now follow.

#### 7.2 HYPOTHESES EMERGING FROM VARIABLE CATEGORIES OR "SETS"

#### a) Demographic Variables

This section deals with the relationship between organisational commitment and the demographic variables of employment status, age, sex, marital status, number of financially dependent children, working partner, educational attainments and absence from the work force. variables were identified in Chapter 2 as being the centre of the Becker/Ritzer-Trice controversy, with Becker (1960) maintaining that they were indicators of his 'side-bet' hypothesis and Ritzer and Trice (1969) maintaining otherwise. Accordingly, this section provides further evidence on this issue. With the exception of age, the relationship between the other variables and commitment was subjected to chi-square analysis (the variables being either of a dichotomous or nominal nature), while the relationship between age and commitment was subject to Pearson productmoment correlation analysis (the variables were interval-level). Multiple regression analysis was used to analyse the amount of variance in commitment contributed by this particular 'set' of variables. The results of the analysis are presented in Tables 7.1 to 7.10(d).

For ease of comprehension the relevant hypotheses are repeated at the beginning of each new table, while the total sample (N=270) result precedes the sub-sample results. Each

table also contains three separate results - that is, the independent variable's relationship with commitment is analysed three times to correspond with the three separate measures of commitment. The intention is to illustrate whether there has been any change over time in the relationship being examined. For convenience the tables are presented at the end of each sub-section, while a general interpretation of each set of variable findings follows at the end of each section.

Tables 7.1 to 7.10(d) reveal the following results:

H1: (Table 7.1) - "Employees with <u>permanent employment</u> status will express higher levels of organisational commitment than casual employees"

Not supported (3 occasions) for N=270
Company B
Company C

(2 occasions)

Conclusion: The relationship is <u>not supported</u> in either the total sample or the three subsamples.

Company A

H2: (Table 7.2) - "Employees who are older will express higher levels of organisational commitment than younger employees",

Supported (3 occasions) for N=270 p  $\leqslant$  0.001 (1 tailed test) Company A p  $\leqslant$  0.01 Company B p  $\leqslant$  0.01 Company C p  $\leqslant$  0.001

Conclusion: The relationship <u>is supported</u> in both the total sample and the three subsamples.

H3: (Table 7.3) - "There is no significant difference between male and female employees in levels of organisational commitment".

Supported: (3 occasions) Company B
Company C
(2 occasions) N=270
Company A

Conclusion: The relationship <u>is supported</u> overall in both the total sample and the three subsamples.

H4: (Table 7.4) - "Married employees will express higher levels of organisational commitment than those who are not married".

Supported: (3 occasions) N=270 p  $\leqslant$  0.01 (1 tailed test) Company C p  $\leqslant$  0.05

Not supported: (2 occasions) Company A
Company B

Conclusion: This hypothesis elicits mixed results.

While it is supported by both the total sample and Company C, it is only supported on the third occasion in Company A (p≤0.01) and on the second occasion in Company B (p≤0.05). The reasons for this result amongst the Department stores are unknown although it could be speculated that their employees have more opportunities to find alternative employment. Company C is so placed that its employees have few other options unless they are prepared to travel long distances. As many of Company C's married employees are casuals, they prefer local employment. This helps explain the difference between their result and the other two companies.

The hypothesis is only <u>partially supported</u> overall by the data.

H5: (Table 7.5) - "Employees with financially dependent children will express higher levels of organisational commitment than those with no such responsibilities".

Supported: (3 occasions) N=270  $p \le 0.05$  (1 tailed test) Company C  $p \le 0.01$ 

Not supported: (3 occasions) Company A
Company B

Conclusion: Partially supported. Once again Company C influences the result and it is felt that this is due to the particular local environment in which the firm operates. Married women find it difficult to obtain employment in the area because there are few opportunities and firms tend to employ younger people. Those who are in employment are most anxious not to lose their jobs.

H6: (Table 7.6) - "Employees whose wife or husband works will express higher levels of organisational commitment than those with no working partner".

Supported: (2 occasions) Company C p € 0.05 (1 tailed test)

Not supported: (3 occasions) Company A
Company B
N=270

Conclusion: Not supported overall despite the influence of Company C (its relationship with working partner falls into the same category as H4 and H5. An added reason is that the store is located in an 'upwardly mobile' area and many couples are paying off very expensive homes).

H7: (Table 7.7) - "Employees with lower educational attainments - that is, School Certificate or below, will express higher levels of organisational commitment than those with more educational opportunity - that is, Higher School Certificate or above".

Not supported: (3 occasions)

N=270

Company A

Company B

Company C

Conclusion: The hypothesis is not supported

H8: (Table 7.8) - "Employees who have been absent from the work force for some time will express higher levels of organisational commitment than those who have not been absent".

Supported: (3 occasions) N=270 p $\leqslant$ 0.05 (1 tailed test)

Company C p $\leqslant$ 0.05

Not supported: (3 occasions) Company A
Company B

Conclusion: Partially supported owing to the influence of Company C. Once again local circumstances have relevance here as it is difficult for most employees (whether married or single, younger or older) to obtain alternative employment.

This does not apply in the case of Companies A and B whose employees have more options.

#### H9 and H10 (Tables 7.9 and 7.10)

These are two summary type hypotheses which combine all the demographic variables in stepwise multiple regression analysis to determine the best predictors of organisational commitment. In the resulting multiple regression equation the variable that explains the greatest amount of variance in the dependent variable (commitment) enters first; the variable that explains the greatest amount of variance in conjunction with the first enters second and so on. Thus the variable that explains the greatest amount of variance unexplained by the variables already in the equation enters the equation at each step (Nie et al, 1975). The procedure assesses the relative importance of each of the variables.

Two separate regression analyses were run. The first (Table 7.9) contains the variables in the first eight hypotheses — that is, employment status to absence from the work force. The second run (Table 7.10) contains these variables, plus a number of nominal variables depicting father's occupation (an indication of socio-economic level). Multiple regression permits nominal variables to be included in analyses through the inclusion of 'dummy' variables (Nie et al, 1975, p373). This facility is not possible in other statistical techniques. Regression analyses were run for both N=270 and the individual samples.

Both groups of tables [Tables 7.9 (a-d) and 7.10 (a-d)] reveal that amongst the <u>demographic variables for N=270</u> one variable - namely, age - is the best positive predictor of organisational commitment. In Table 7.10(a) employees whose fathers were from the professional occupations and semi-skilled manual occupations emerge as the best negative predictors but for one measure only - that is, the effect of these variables fail to carry over past the initial encounter stage (commitment 1). Age is the only variable to be a consistent predictor of organisational commitment for N=270.

For the three samples age is also a consistent predictor in Tables 7.9 (b-d) and 7.10 (b-d). However, other demographic variables also emerge reflecting differences amongst the companies. For example, for Company A being female and having a father with a semi-skilled occupational background are consistent negative predictors of commitment in Table 7.10 (b) while being married is a positive predictor for Company C in Table 7.10(d). Having up to a School Certificate level of education is a positive predictor for Company A [Table 7.10(b)] and absence of a working partner is an important positive predictor for Company C (Table 7.10d). With the exception of age, however, no variable is consistent across the three samples.

The multiple regression findings thus support the results obtained in bivariate analysis. Because of the results obtained in hypotheses 4,5 and 8 (these indicated partial

support only and mainly at the 0.05 significance level), the summary hypotheses 9 and 10 are also not supported. The conclusion for this particular hypothesis testing then is:

H9 and H10: Not supported overall

Conclusion: Age is the only demographic variable to be a consistent predictor of organisational commitment for both N=270 and the three samples.

# Summary and Interpretation:

This section tested the relationship between eight demographic variables and organisational commitment. The results are as follows:

Hl:	(Employment status)	Not supported overall
н2:	(Age)	Supported overall
н3:	(Sex)	Supported overall
н4:	(Marital status)	Partially supported
н5:	(Dependent children)	Partially supported
н6:	(Working partner)	Not supported overall
н7:	(Educational level)	Not supported overall
н8:	(Absence from work)	Partially supported
н9:	(Summary)	Not supported
H10:	(Supported)	Not supported

These results favour Becker, rather than Ritzer and Trice, in the matter of the Becker/Ritzer and Trice controversy.

For instance, the finding that age is significantly related to organisational commitment supports Becker (1960), Sheldon (1971), Hrebiniak and Alutto (1972), Alutto, Hrebiniak and Alonso (1973) and Shoemaker et al (1977).

Becker's theory also receives some support from the results pertaining to marital status, number of dependent children and absence from the work force. Although only partially supported in this study, the results confirm the findings of Hrebiniak and Alutto (1972) and Alutto, Hrebiniak and Alonso (1973). This study thus virtually supports the Becker proponents as opposed to the Ritzer and Trice advocates in the matter of 'side-bet' variables. (Note: a discussion on social-psychological variables takes place in another section).

This section also reveals two other interesting results. The first is the lack of a significant difference between males and females in levels of organisational commitment; similarly permanent and casual employees fail to reveal differences in commitment attitudes. A common assumption in the retail industry is that casuals and females are generally 'less committed' employees. This finding has implications for personnel and training policies, a feature which will be discussed in the concluding chapter.

# Chi-square analysis of the relationship between Employment Status and Organisational Commitment

H1: Employees with permanent employment status will express higher levels of organisational commitment than casual employees.

	Commitment 1	Commitment 2	Commitment 3
N=270	l df	x <sup>2</sup> = .000 l df sig = .99	x <sup>2</sup> = 1.28 1 df sig = .26
Company A	l df	$x^{2} = .007$ 1 df sig = .93	x <sup>2</sup> = 4.80 1 df sig = .02*
Company B	1 df,	x <sup>2</sup> = .619 1 df sig = .43	x <sup>2</sup> = 2.29 1 df sig .13
Company C	x <sup>2</sup> = 1.56 1 df sig <b>=</b> .211	x <sup>2</sup> = .001 l df sig = .98	x <sup>2</sup> .045 1 df sig = .83

<sup>\*</sup> p≤0.05

# Zero-order Correlation Analysis between Age and Commitment

H2: Employees who are older will express higher levels of organisational commitment than younger employees.

	Commitment 1	Commitment 2	Commitment 3
N=270	.30***	.33***	.33***
Company A	.26**	.39***	.43***
Company B	.34***	.31***	.26**
Company C	.33***	.36***	.42***

<sup>\*\*\*</sup>  $p \le 0.001$ \*\*  $p \le 0.01$  (1 tailed test)

# Chi-square analysis of the relationship between Sex and Organisational Commitment.

There is no significant difference between male and female employees in levels of organisational н3: commitment.

	Commitment 1	Commitment 2	Commitment 3
N=270	$x^2 = 4.96$ 1 df sig = .026*	$x^2 = 2.78$ 1 df sig = .09	x <sup>2</sup> = 0 1 df sig = 1.000
Company A	$x^2 = 1.50$ 1 df sig = .220	$x^2 = 8.55$ 1 df sig = .003**	$x^2 = 2.57$ 1 df sig = .109
Company B	$x^2 = .776$ 1 df sig = .378	$x^2 = 0$ 1 df sig = 1.000	$x^2 = 0$ 1 df sig = 1.000
Company C	$x^2 = .129$ 1 df sig = .719	x <sup>2</sup> = 0 1 df sig = 1.000	$x^2 = .234$ 1 df sig = .629

<sup>\*\*</sup> p<0.01 \* p<0.05

# Chi-square analysis of the relationship between Marital Status and Organisational Commitment.

Married employees will express higher levels of H4: organisational commitment than those who are not married.

	Commitment 1	Commitment 2	Commitment 3
N=270	$x^2 = 8.09$ 1 df sig = .004**	x <sup>2</sup> = 7.86 l df sig = .005**	x <sup>2</sup> = 15.59 1 df sig = .0001***
Company A	$x^2 = .681$ 1 df sig = .409	$x^2 = 1.56$ 1 df sig = .211	x <sup>2</sup> = 6.60 1 df sig = .01**
Company B	x <sup>2</sup> = 1.23 1 df sig = .267	x <sup>2</sup> = 4.59 1 df sig = .032*	$x^2 = 2.14$ 1 df sig = .144
Company C	$x^2 = 9.42$ 1 df sig = .002**	$x^2 = 5.42$ 1 df sig = .02*	$x^2 = 10.17$ 1 df sig = .001***

<sup>\*\*\*</sup> p \left 0.001 \*\* p \left 0.01 \* p \left 0.05

# Chi-square analysis of the relationship between Number of Financially Dependent Children and Organisational Commitment

Employees with financially dependent children will express higher levels of organisational commitment than those with no such H5: responsibilities.

	Commitment 1	Commitment 2	Commitment 3
	COMMITTMENT	COMMIT SINGS OF	
	,	2	2,
	$x^2 = 7.23$	$x^2 = 3.95$	$x^2 = 7.65$
N=270	l df	l df	l df
	sig = .007**	sig = .047*	sig = .006**
	$x^2 = .668$	$x^2 = .254$	$x^2 = 1.92$
G	1 df	1 df	1 df
Company A	sig = .414	sig = .614	sig = .166
	$x^2 = .657$	$x^2 = 1.99$	$x^2 = .362$
Company B	l df	1 df	l df
	sig = .417	sig = .158	sig =.547
	$x^2 = 12.30$	$x^2 = 7.25$	$x^2 = 9.607$
Company C	1 df	l df	1 df
	sig = .001***	sig = .007**	sig = .002**

<sup>\*\*\*</sup> p \left 0.001 \*\* p \left 0.01

<sup>\*</sup> p ≤ 0.05

# Chrsquare analysis of the relationship between existence of Working Partner and Organisational Commitment

Employees whose wife or husband works will express higher levels of organisational commitment than those with no working partner. H6:

	Commitment 1	Commitment 2	Commitment 3
N=270	$x^2 = 3.56$ 1 df sig = .059	$x^2 = 2.02$ 1 df sig = .155	x <sup>2</sup> = 7.45 1 df sig = .006**
Company A	$x^2 = 0$ . 1 df sig = 1.000	$x^{2} = 0$ 1 df sig = 1.000	$x^2 = 3.56$ 1 df sig = .059
Company B	$x^2 = .058$ 1 df sig = .809	$x^2 = 2.89$ 1 df sig = .089	$x^2 = 1.072$ 1 df sig = .3004
Company C	$x^2 = 3.84$ 1 df sig = .05*	$x^2 = 3.11$ 1 df sig = .078	$x^2 = 4.38$ 1 df sig = .036*

<sup>\*\*</sup> p ≤ 0.01 \* p ≤ 0.05

# Chi-square analysis of the relationship between level of educational attainments and Organisational Commitment

H7: Employees with lower educational attainments - that is, School Certificate or below, will express higher levels of organisational commitment than those who have had more educational opportunity - that is, Higher School Certificate or above.

	Commitment 1	Commitment 2	Commitment 3
N=270	$x^2 = .522$ 1 df sig = .470	X <sup>2</sup> = 1.69 1 df sig = .193	$x^{2} = .004$ 1 df sig = .950
Company A	$x^2 = 2.55$ 1 df sig = .110	x <sup>2</sup> = 2.55 l df sig = .110	$x^2 = .133$ 1 df sig = .715
Company B	$x^2 = .0119$ 1 df sig = .913	$x^2 = .267$ 1 df sig = .605	$x^2 = 1.305$ 1 df sig = .253
Company C	$x^2 = .139$ 1 df sig = .708	x <sup>2</sup> = 1.64 1 df sig = .200	$x^2 = .684$ 1 df sig = .408

# Zero-order correlation analysis between length of absence from work and Organisational Commitment

H8: Employees who have been absent from the work force for some time will express higher levels of organisational commitment than those who have not been absent.

•	Commitment 1	Commitment 2	Commitment 3
N=270	.12*	.15**	.15**
Company A	00	.07	.04
Company B	.16	.14	.12
Company C	.21*	.25**	.31***

<sup>\*\*\*</sup> p \left\( 0.001 \)

<sup>\*\*</sup> p \left\( 0.01 \)

<sup>\*</sup> p < 0.05 (1 tailed test)

# TABLE 7.9(a)

# Three Stepwise Multiple Regressions Depicting the Impact of Demographic Variables on

# Organisational Commitment

# Age to Work Absence

N = 270

# Standardised Coefficients

Variable	Commitment 1	Commitment 2	Commitment 3
Age	.30***	.33***	.33***
·Constant	53.86	50.82	49.41
	$R^2 = .09$ $df = (1,268)$	$R^2 = .11$ $df = (1,268)$	$R^2 = .11$ $df = (1,268)$
	F=27.16 p≤0.001	$F = 31.93$ $p \le 0.001$	$F = 32.02$ $p \le 0.001$

\*\*\* p **<**0.001

# TABLE 7.9(b)

# Three Stepwise Multiple Regressions Depicting impact of Demographic Variables on Organisational Commitment

### Age to Work Absence

## Company A

# Standardised Coefficients

Variable	Commitment 1	Commitment 2	Commitment 3
i i			
Male sex	.28**		
Age	.30**	.39***	.43***
Female sex		28**	23*
School Certificate level of education	'	.18*	
Constant	53.36	51.52	51.05
		$R^2 = .26$ $df = (2, 87)$ $F = 10.37$ $p \le 0.001$	

### TABLE 7.9(c)

## Three Stepwise Multiple Regressions Depicting the impact of Demographic Variables on Organisational Commitment.

### Age to Work Absence

### Company B

#### Standardised Coefficients

Variable	Commitment 1	Commitment 2	Commitment 3
Age	.34***	.31**	.26*
Constant	49.88	47.32	49.09
		1	
	$R^2 = .11$	$R^2 = .09$	$R^2 = .07$
	df = (1,88)	df = (1,88)	df = (1,88)
	F = 11.21	F = 9.57	F = 6.33
	p <b>4</b> 0.001	p <b>≰</b> 0.003	p <b>&lt;</b> 0.01

\* p≤0.05

<sup>\*\*</sup> p **<** 0.01

### TABLE 7.9(d)

## Three Stepwise Multiple Regressions Depicting impact of Demographic Variables on Organisational Commitment

### Age to Work Absence

### Company C

#### Standardised Coefficients

Variable	Commitment 1	Commitment 2	Commitment 3
Age	.33***		
Permanent Status	27**		
Married		.36***	.45***
Casual Status			.19*
No working partner	c		.35***
Constant	53.65	60.48	47.27
	$R^2 = 1.8$	$R^2 = .13$	$R^2 = .26$
	df = (2,87)	df = (2,87)	df = (2,87)
	F = 9.54	F = 13.12	F = 10.84
	p <b>≤</b> 0.001	p <b>≰</b> 0.001	p <b>≰</b> 0.001

\* p \ 0.05

### TABLE 7.10(a)

### Three Stepwise Multiple Regressions Depicting

### impact of Demographic Variables on

### Organisational Commitment

### Age to Father's Occupation N=270

Variable	Commitment 1	Standardised (Commitment 2	
Age	.30***	.33***	.33***
Semi-skilled professions	12*		
Professional occupations	12*		
Constant	55.96	50.82	49.41

$$R^2 = .12$$
  $R^2 = .11$   $R^2 = .11$   $df = (3,266)$   $df = (1,268)$   ### TABLE 7.10(b)

### Three Stepwise Multiple Regressions Depicting the impact of Demographic Variables on Organisational Commitment.

### Age to Father's Occupation

### Company A

#### Standardised Coefficients

Variable	Commitment 1	Commitment 2	Commitment 3
Semi-skilled occupations	29**	23*	20*
Male	.26*		
Age	.25*	.39***	.43***
Intermediate Certificate		.22*	.21*
Female		28**	23*
Constant	56.47	53.31	47.50
	<u> </u>	!	<u> </u>

$$R^2 = .21$$
  $R^2 = .33$   $R^2 = .32$   
 $df = (3,86)$   $df = (4,85)$   $df = (4.85)$   
 $F = 7.81$   $F = 10.61$   $F = 10.13$   
 $p \le 0.001$   $p \le 0.001$ 

<sup>\*</sup> p **(**0.05

### TABLE 7.10(c)

# Three Stepwise Multiple Regressions Depicting impact of Demographic Variables on Organisational Commitment.

### Age to Father's Occupation

### Company B

	Standardised Coefficients			
Variable	Commitment 1	Commitment 2	Commitment 3	
Age	.34***	.31**	.26*	
Constant	49.88	47.32	49.09	
	$R^2 = .11$	$R^2 = .10$	$R^2 = .07$	
	df = (1,88)	df = (1,88)	df = (1,88)	
	F = 11.21	F = 9.57	F = 6.33	

p **≤** 0.001 p **≤** 0.003 p **≤** 0.014

### TABLE 7.10(d)

### Three Stepwise Multiple Regressions Depicting

### the impact of Demographic Variables on

Organisational Commitment.

### Age to Father's Occupation

### Company C

### Standardised Coefficients

Variable	Commitment 1	Commitment 2	Commitment 3
Age	.33***		
Permanent Employment Status	27**		
Married		.36***	.45***
Casual status			.19*
No working partner		.40*	.35*
Constant	53.65	57.48	47.27
	$R^2 = .18$	2 R = .16	$R^2 = .27$
	df = (2,87)		df = (2,87)
	F = 9.54	F = 8.37	F = 10.84
	p <b>≤</b> 0.001	p <b>≤</b> 0.001	p <b>≪</b> 0.001

\* p \ 0.05

### b) Anticipatory Socialisation

This section tests the relationship between anticipatory socialisation-type variables and organisational commitment. The need for this arose in Chapter 2 when Stevens et al (1978) argued that commitment had multiple positive and negative determinants. However, with the exception of Buchanan (1972) no researcher has considered socialisation determinants. Stevens et al believe these variables need to be included if this complex facet of organisational behaviour is to be understood. This section deals exclusively with pre-organisation socialisation variables a feature so far ignored in the study of commitment. The variables considered are the presence or absence of either friends or relatives in the company (either currently or in the past), the extent of any previous retail, sales or company experience, and whether that experience was in a permanent or casual capacity. Socialisation influences encountered after the individual joins the organisation are included in another section.

Because the variables are mainly of a dichotomous nature
the data was subjected to chi-square analysis for the
relationship between commitment and the presence of friends
and relatives and type of previous employment status.

Product moment correlation analysis examined the relationship
for previous retail, company and sales experience. Finally,
multiple regression analysis was performed on all the
variables to determine (i) which were the best predictors

and (ii) explained most of the variance in organisational commitment. The results of the hypotheses testing are presented in Tables 7.11 to 7.21(d) at the end of this sub-section and are summarised below:

Hll: (Table 7.11) - "Employees with relatives in the company will express higher levels of organisational commitment than those without".

Not supported: (3 occasions) N=270

Company A

Company B

Company C

Conclusion: The hypothesis is <u>not supported</u> by the data.

H12: (Table 7.12) - "Employees with friends in the company will express higher levels of organisational commitment than those without".

Not supported: (3 occasions) N= 270

Company A

Company B

Company C

Conclusion: The hypothesis is not supported.

H13: (Table 7.13) - "Employees with relatives in the company in the past will express higher levels of organisational commitment than those without".

Not supported: (3 occasions) N=270

Company A

Company B

Company C

Conclusion: The hypothesis is not supported.

H14: (Table 7.14) - "Employees with friends in the company in the past will express higher levels of organisational commitment than those without".

Not supported: (3 occasions) N=270

Company A
Company B
Company C

Conclusion: The hypothesis is not supported.

H15: (Table 7.15) - "Employees with previous retail experience will express higher levels of organisational commitment than those with none".

Supported: (3 occasions) N=270 p ≤0.001 (1 tailed test)

Company A  $p \le 0.001$ Company B  $p \le 0.05$ Company C  $p \le 0.05$ 

Conclusion: the hypothesis is supported.

H16: (Table 7.16) - "Employees with previous company experience will express higher levels of organisational commitment than those with none."

Not supported: (3 occasions) Company B

Company C

(2 occasions) Company A

N = 270

Conclusion: The hypothesis is not supported.

H17: (Table 7.17) - "Employees with previous sales experience will express higher levels of organisational commitment than those with none".

Supported: (3 occasions) N=270 p  $\leqslant$  0.001 (1 tailed test) Company A p  $\leqslant$  0.01

Company B p **≤** 0.05

H17(Cont): Supported: Company C p ≤0.05

Conclusion: The hypothesis is supported

H18: (Table 7.18) - "Employees who were permanently employed in their previous retail experience will express higher levels of organisational commitment than those who were casually employed".

Not supported: (3 occasions) Company B
Company C
(2 occasions) Company A

N = 270

Conclusion: The hypothesis is not supported

H19: (Table 7.19) - "Employees who were permanently employed in their previous company experience will express higher levels of organisational commitment than those who were casually employed".

Not supported: (3 occasions) N=270

Company B

Company C

(2 occasions) Company A

Conclusion: The hypothesis is not supported.

### Hypotheses 20 and 21 [Tables 7.20 (a-d) and 7.21(a-d)]

These two summary type hypotheses deal with the impact of the combined anticipatory socialisation variables on organisational commitment. Two stepwise multiple regression analyses were performed. The first (Table 7.20) comprises the equation for the variables covering the extent of previous retail, sales and company experience and nature of employment status in that previous experience. The second (Table 7.21) contains the above, with the addition of the variables measuring the effect of the presence of friends or relatives in the company (either currently or in the past). These were omitted from the previous regression analysis to examine the impact of 'significant other' influence upon commitment. The Tables contain the results for N=270 (a) and the three samples (b-d).

Both analyses reveal that for N=270 only one variable, previous retail experience, is a consistent predictor of organisational commitment. In fact, adding in the friends and relatives variables adds little to the result. The amount of variance explained by the variables in the equation remains at six per cent ( $R^2 = .06$ ) in all three-stage regressions.

Slightly different results emerge for the samples. While previous retail experience is again a consistent predictor for Companies A and C it has no impact at all in Company B; instead previous sales experience (which may not have included retail sales) is the consistent predictor. Again, the fact that relatives worked in the company in the past is also an important predictor for Company A. It is felt that both results reflect the nature of the particular companies. Company A has a reputation for being a 'family' company, while Company B had and still has a strong 'image' reputation -

that is, people are attracted to work for it because of its name.

The low amount of variance explained by anticipatory socialisation type variables in Tables 7.20 and 7.21 suggests that other variables, not included in this section, are better predictors of organisational commitment. Surprisingly, previous sales experience does not enter the equation for N=270 possibly because of its high relationship with previous retail experience. As far as the hypothesis testing for H20 and H21 is concerned, then, the conclusion is:

H20 and H21: Not supported overall

Conclusion: Previous retail experience is the only anticipatory socialisation variable to be a consistent predictor of organisational commitment.

### Summary and Interpretation:

This section explored the relationship between commitment and nine anticipatory socialisation variables. The results are as follows:

Hll: (Relatives in Company) Not supported overall

H12: (Friends in Company) Not supported overall

H13: (Relatives in past) Not supported overall

H14: (Friends in past) Not supported overall

H15: (Previous retail experience) Supported H16: (Previous company experience) Not supported H17: (Previous sales experience) Supported (Previous retail status) H18: Not supported (Previous company status) Not supported H19: H20: (Summary) Not supported H21: (Summary) Not supported

The results reveal that pre-organisation socialisation variables have little impact on employee levels of organisational commitment. In fact they are so unimportant that they explain only six per cent  $(R^2 = .06)$  of the variance in commitment in the regression analysis. Previous retail experience emerges as the only variable of any significance. This finding has implications for the selection policies of firms in the retail industry. However, as far as this study is concerned other variables are obviously better predictors of commitment than anticipatory socialisation-type variables. Nevertheless, a word of caution is warranted: the result may have been influenced by the measurement technique adopted for the influence of friends and relatives. Retailing is an industry in which friends and relatives play a large role and it seems unusual that they have not emerged as significant variables. any general conclusions can be drawn, then, other measurement techniques such as interval-level scales seem desirable. This part of the results thus deserves further investigation.

# Chi-square analysis of the Relationship between Relatives in the Company and Organisational Commitment

Hll: `Employees with relatives in the company will express higher levels of organisational commitment than those without.

	Commitment 1	Commitment 2	Commitment 3
N=270	$x^2 = .012$ 1 df sig = .911	$x^2 = .225$ 1 df sig = .63	x <sup>2</sup> = .003 1 df sig = .96
Company A	$x^2 = 0$ 1 df sig = 1.000	$x^2 = .007$ 1 df sig = .931	2 X = .471 1 df sig = .492
Company B	$x^2 = .40$ 1 df sig = .527	x <sup>2</sup> = 0 1 df sig = 1.000	x <sup>2</sup> = 0 1 df sig = 1.000
Company C	$x^2 = 1.642$ 1 df sig = .20	x <sup>2</sup> = .116 l df sig = .734	x <sup>2</sup> = .886 1 df sig = .346

## Chi-square analysis of the relationship between presence of friends in the company and Organisational Commitment

H12: Employees with friends in the company will express higher levels of organisational commitment than those without.

,	Commitment 1	Commitment 2	Commitment 3
			~
N=270	$x^2 = .019$ 1 df sig = .890	x <sup>2</sup> = .501 1 df sig = .479	x <sup>2</sup> = .548 1 df sig = .459
Company A	$x^2 = 1.097$ 1 df sig = .295	$x^2 = 2.247$ 1 df sig = .134	$x^2 = 0$ 1 df sig = 1.000
Company B	$x^2 = .668$ 1 df sig = .414	$x^2 = .048$ 1 df $sig = .826$	$x^2 = .142$ 1 df $\sin = .706$
Company C	$x^2 = .017$ 1 df sig = .896	x <sup>2</sup> = .116 1 df sig = .734	$x^2 = 0$ 1 df sig = 1.000

### <u>Ch-square analysis of the relationship between</u> presence of relatives in the company in the past and Organisational Commitment

H13: Employees who had relatives working in the company in the past will express higher levels of organisational commitment than those without.

,	Commitment 1	Commitment 2	Commitment 3
N=270	$x^2 = 1.74$ 1 df sig = .187	$x^2 = .933$ 1 df sig = .334	x <sup>2</sup> = 1.89 1 df sig = .169
Company A	$x^2 = 2.38$ 1 df sig = .122	$x^2 = 2.39$ 1 df sig = .122	$x^2 = 3.78$ 1 df sig = .052
Company B	$x^2 = 1.46$ 1 df sig = .226	$x^2 = .414$ 1 df sig = .519	$x^2 = .006$ 1 df sig = .937
Company C	$x^2 = .015$ 1 df sig = .902	x <sup>2</sup> = 0 l df sig = 1.000	$x^2 = .234$ 1 df sig = .629

## Chi-square analysis of the relationship between presence of friends in the company in the past and Organisational Commitment

H14: Employees who had friends working in the company in the past will express higher levels of organisational commitment than those without.

	Commitment 1	Commitment 2	Commitment 3
N=270	$x^2 = .275$ 1 df sig = .600	x <sup>2</sup> = .132 1 df sig = .716	$x^{2} = 0$ 1 df sig = 1.000
Company A	$x^2 = 1.91$ 1 df sig = .167	$x^2 = 0$ 1 df sig = 1.000	x <sup>2</sup> = 0 1 df sig 1.000
Company B	$x^2 = 0$ 1 df sig = 1.000	$x^2 = 2.40$ 1 df sig = .121	x <sup>2</sup> = .392 1 df sig = .531
Company C	x <sup>2</sup> = .366 l df sig = .545	x <sup>2</sup> = .031 1 df sig = .860	x <sup>2</sup> = .734 1 df sig <sub>2</sub> = .391

### Zero-order Correlation Analysis between Previous Retail Experience and Organisational Commitment

H15: Employees who have had previous retail experience will express higher levels of organisational commitment than those with none.

	Commitment 1	Commitment 2	Commitment 3
			,
N=270	.27***	.25***	.26***
Company A	.35***	.33***	• 35***
Company B	.22*	.24*	.19*
Company C	. 25**	.21*	.28**

<sup>\*\*\*</sup> p \ 0.001 \*\* p \ 0.01 \* p \ 0.05 (1 tailed test)

Zero-order correlation analysis between previous company experience and Organisational Commitment.

H16: Employees who have had previous company experience will express higher levels of organisational commitment that those with none.

	Commitment 1	Commitment 2	Commitment 3
N=270	. 09	.08	.10*
Company A	. 09	.21*	.15
Company B	. 03	.01	.11
Company C	. 16	.09	.11

<sup>\*.</sup>  $p \leqslant 0.05$  (1 tailed test)

# Zero-order correlation analysis of the relationship between extent of previous sales experience and Organisational Commitment

H17: Employees who have had previous sales experience will express higher levels of organisational experience than those with none.

	Commitment 1	Commitment 2	Commitment 3
, <del></del>			
N=270	.24***	.24***	.24***
Company A	.27**	.32***	.31**
Company B	.25**	.25**	.20*
Company C	.22*	.18*	.26**

<sup>\*\*\*</sup> p \le 0.001

<sup>\*\*</sup> p \le 0.01

<sup>\*</sup>  $p \le 0.05$  (1 tailed test)

# Chi-square analysis of the relationship between type of employment status in previous retail experience and Organisational Commitment

H18: Employees who have been permanently employed in their previous retail experience will express higher levels of organisational commitment than those who have been casually employed.

	Commitment 1	Commitment 2	Commitment 3
N=270	$x^2 = 6.59$ 1 df $sig = .04*$	$x^2 = 4.44$ 1 df sig = .11	$x^{2} = 4.80$ 1 df sig = .09
Company A	$x^2 = 7.05$ 1 df sig = .03*	$x^2 = 5.86$ 1 df sig = .06	$x^2 = 3.65$ 1 df sig = .16
Company B	$x^2 = .89$ 1 df sig = .64	$x^2 = 2.00$ 1 df sig = .37	$x^2 = 1.76$ 1 df sig = .42
Company C	$x^2 = 1.13$ 1 df sig = .57	x <sup>2</sup> = 1.13 1 df sig = .57	$x^2 = 1.03$ 1 df sig = .59

<sup>\*</sup> p \(0.05

Chi-square analysis of the relationship between type of employment status in previous company experience and Organisational Commitment

H29: Employees who had been permanently employed in their previous company experience will express higher levels of organisational commitment than those who had been casually employed.

	Commitment 1	Commitment 2	Commitment 3
		,	
N=270	$X^2 = 3.08$ 1 df sig = .214	$x^2 = 5.92$ 1 df sig = .052	x = 3.05 l df sig = .218
Company A	$x^2 = 3.32$ 1 df sig = .19	$x^2 = 7.40$ 1 df sig = .025*	$x^2 = 2.23$ 1 df sig = .317
Company B	$x^2 = 1.08$ 1 df sig = .583	$x^2 = 1.23$ 1 df sig = .541	$x^2 = 8.31$ 1 df sig = .016
Company C	$x^2 = 4.03$ 1 df sig = .133	x <sup>2</sup> = 1.19 1 df sig = .551	$x^2 = .29$ 1 df sig = .865

<sup>\*</sup> p<0.05

### TABLE 7.20(a)

## Three Stepwise Multiple Regressions Depicting the impact of Anticipatory Socialisation Variables on Organisational Commitment

### Retail Experience to Sales Experience N=270

	Standardised Coefficients			
Variable	Commitment 1	Commitment 2	Commitment 3	
Retail Exper- ience	.27***	.25***	.26***	
Constant	62.09	60.40	59.26	
	$R^2 = .07$	$R^2 = .06$	$R^2 = .06$	
	df = (1,268)	df = (1,268)	) $df = (1,268)$	
	F = 20.78	F = 18.08	F = 18.82	
	p <b>≪</b> 0.001	p <b>≰</b> 0.001	p <b>€</b> 0.001	

\*\*\* p \ 0.001

### TABLE 7.20(b)

# Three Stepwise Multiple Regressions Depicting the impact of Anticipatory Socialisation Variables on Organisational Commitment

### Retail Experience to Sales Experience Company A

### Standardised Coefficients

Variable	Commitment 1	Commitment 2	Commitment 3
Retail			
Experience	.35***	.33***	.35***
Constant	63.87	61.74	59.09

$$R^2 = .12$$
  $R^2 = .11$   $R^2 = .12$   
 $df = (1.88)$   $df = (1.88)$   $df = (1.88)$   
 $F = 12.21$   $F = 11.19$   $F = 12.21$   
 $p \le 0.001$   $p \le 0.001$ 

\*\*\* p **<** 0.001

### TABLE 7.20(c)

# Three Stepwise Multiple Regressions Depicting the impact of Anticipatory Socialisation Variables on Organisational Commitment

### Retail Experience to Sales Experience Company B

#### Standardised Coefficients

Variable	Commitment 1	Commitment 2	Commitment 3
Sales Experience	. 25*	.23*	
Constant	59.64	56.96	

$$R^2 = .07$$
  $R^2 = .07$   
 $df = (1,88)$   $df = (1,88)$   
 $F = 5.84$   $F = 5.69$   
 $P \le 0.01$   $P \le 0.01$ 

\* p≤0.05

### TABLE 7.20(d)

### Three Stepwise Multiple Regressions Depicting the impact of Anticipatory Socialisation Variables on Organisational Commitment

### Retail Experience to Sales Experience (Company C)

#### Standardised Coefficients

Variable	Commitment 1	Commitment 2	Commitment 3
Retail Experience	.25*	.21*	.28**
Constant	62.14	61.71	60.64
	2	2	2
	$R^2 = .06$	$R^2 = .04$	$R^2 = .08$
	df = (1,88)	df = (1,88)	df = (1,88)
	F = 5.69	F = 4.16	F = 7.51
	p <b>€</b> 0.01	p <b>&lt;</b> 0.04	p <b>€</b> 0.007

### TABLE 7.21 (a)

# Three Stepwise Multiple Regressions Depicting the impact of Anticipatory Socialisation Variables on Organisational Commitment.

### Current Relatives to Sales Experience N = 270

### Standardised Coefficients

Variable	Commitment 1	Commitment 2	Commitment 3
Retail Experience	.27***	.25***	.26***
Constant	62.09	60.40	59.26

$$R^2 = .07$$
  $R^2 = .06$   $R^2 = .06$   
 $df = (1,268)$   $df = (1,268)$   $df = (1,268)$   
 $F = 20.78$   $F = 18.07$   $F = 18.82$   
 $p \le 0.001$   $p \le 0.001$ 

### TABLE 7.21 (b)

## Three Stepwise Multiple Regressions Depicting the impact of Anticipatory Socialisation Variables on Organisational Commitment

### Current Relatives to Sales Experience (Company A)

' 1 7	Standardised Coefficients			
Variable	Commitment 1	Commitment 2	Commitment 3	
Retail Experience	.35***	.33***	.35***	
Relatives in Past	. 30**	.27**	.28**	
Previous retail status -casual	19*			
Previous company status-casual			22*	
Constant	63.65	60.01	57.27	
	$R^2 = .25$	$R^2 = .18$	$R^2 = .24$	
	df = (3,86)	df = (2,87)	df = (3,86)	
	F = 9.56	F = 9.86	F = 9.20	
	p <b>≤</b> 0.001	p <b>≼</b> 0.001	p <b>≰</b> 0.001	

<sup>\*\*\*</sup> p \ 0.001

\*\* p \ 0.01

\* p \ 0.05

### TABLE 7.21(c)

# Three Stepwise Multiple Regressions Depicting the impact of Anticipatory Socialisation Variables on Organisational Commitment

### Current Relatives to Sales Experience (Company B)

Variable	Sta Commitment l	ndardised Coeffic	cients Commitment 3
Sales Experience	.25*	.25*	
Constant	59.64	56.96	
	$R^2 = .06$	$R^2 = .06$	
	df = (1,88)	df = (1,88)	
	F = 5.84	F = 5.69	
	p <b>≤</b> 0.18	p <b>《</b> 0.19	

\* p \ 0.05

### TABLE 7.21 (d)

# Three Stepwise Multiple Regressions Depicting the impact of Anticipatory Socialisation Variables on Organisational Commitment

### Current Relatives to Sales Experience

### (Company C)

	Standardised Coefficients				
Variable	Commitment 1	Commitment 2	Commitment 3		
Retail Experience	.25*	.21*	.28**		
Constant	62.14	61.71	60.64		
	$R^2 = .06$	$R^2 = .04$	$R^2 = .08$		
	df = (1,88)	df = (1,88)	df = (1,88)		
	F = 5.69	F = 4.16	F = 7.51		
	p <b>≰</b> 0.01	p <b>≤</b> 0.04	p <b>≰</b> 0.007		

#### c) Realism

This section examines the 'matching' of individuals' job expectations with reality and their levels of organisational commitment. Chapter 3 revealed that individuals often enter organisations with unrealistic assumptions. Although this matter was raised by Berlew and Hall (1966), Gray (1973). and Kotter(1973), only Buchanan (1972) and Feldman (1976a) have empirically investigated the concept of a change in expectations. Other researchers such as Schein (1961, 1967, 1977), Van Maanen (1973, 1975) and Feldman (1976a,1977) have documented changes in attitudes and attributed these to the consequences of 'reality shock'. This study advances Buchanan's work by developing a 12-item scale to measure employee reactions to the differences between their expectations and actual experience. Data was subjected to partial correlation analysis because (i) both the variables Realism and Commitment were interval-type and (ii) previous psychometric analysis of the nature of the variables (Chapter 6) revealed that the variable called Congruence had a spurious effect upon the other variables. The results for both N=270 and the three samples are presented in Table 7.22.

H22: (Table 7.22) - "The greater an individual's score on Realism the greater will be his expressed level of Organisational Commitment. This relationship will hold during the entire socialising episode - that is, on four separate measuring occasions".

Supported: (4 occasions) N=270 p $\leqslant$ .01 (1 tailed test) (2 occasions) Company A p $\leqslant$ 0.05 Company B p $\leqslant$ 0.05 Company C p $\leqslant$ 0.05

Conclusion: The hypothesis is supported for N=270 and partially supported for the three samples.

The results reveal only partial support for a relationship between expectations and levels of organisational commitment. The study does not unequivocably support the notion amongst the samples that the 'more matches than mismatches' (Kotter, 1973) the better will attitudes be towards the organisation. This study is the first time that the relationship between expectations and commitment has been investigated in a longitudinal manner. The results suggest that the relationship may be a fluctuating one and subject to the interference of other more important variables as time progresses. This would require further investigation in another longitudinal study.

### Partial-correlation analysis between Realism and Organisational Commitment

H22: The greater the individual's scores on Realism
the greater will be his expressed levels of
Organisational Commitment. This relationship
will hold during the entire socialising episode
that is, on four separate measuring occasions.

		Commitme	ent l	Commitment 2	Commitment 3
R	ealism	1	2	3	4
•	N=270	.25***	.23***	.15**	.20***
	Company A	.39***	.22*	.17	.14
	Company B	.22*	.16	.14	.24**
-	Company C	.15	.26**	.07	. 24*

<sup>\*\*\*</sup> p \left\cdot 0.001

(Controlling for the effects of Congruence with the exception of Realism 1 - these two variables were measured on two different occasions)

<sup>\*\*</sup> p \le 0.01

<sup>\*</sup>  $p \leqslant 0.05$  (1 tailed test)

#### d) Job Search Behaviour

The variables contained in this section constitute part of this study's measurement of Becker's (1960) 'side-bet' hypothesis. Representing an indication of the amount of effort an individual is prepared to exert in finding a job, they fall into Becker's 'investment-type' proposals. variables are length of time taken to obtain employment, the number of job applications made, the number of job interviews granted, the number of job offers received and an attitude variable called "Search". Other variables of interest concern the method of approaching job search - for example, letters, personal calls - and the reasons given by employees for (i) working and (ii) joining the company. This strategy of relating job search behaviour to organisational commitment was recommended by Stevens et al (1978). Prior to this it was ignored in the literature even by those researchers who were interested in the Becker/Ritzer and Trice controversy. This study is the first piece of research to examine the relationship.

Pearson product-moment correlation analysis was used to investigate the relationship between Commitment and "Search", and the number of job applications made, job interviews

It was decided to examine the relationship by Pearson product-moment correlation analysis rather than partial correlation analysis because Search and Commitment were measured on different occasions.

granted and job offers received. Chi-square analysis dealt with the relationship between the length of time taken to find employment and commitment. Finally, all variables were subjected to multiple regression analysis. This latter analysis includes the nominal-type variables called working, joining and method of company application. The results are presented in Tables 7.23 to 7.29(d) at the end of this sub-section. The significant findings are as follows:

H23: (Table 7.23) - "Employees who took a long time to find employment will express higher levels of organisational commitment than those who did not"

Not supported: (3 occasions) N = 270

Company B

(2 occasions) Company A

Company C

Conclusion: The hypothesis is not supported. The two exceptions to this finding are Company C in period 1 (their result appears to reflect local conditions initially but is not sustained) and Company A in period 3. This latter result is interesting as, just after the survey concluded, a large number of employees, including many from the sample, were dismissed because of poor company performance. It is felt that this event is reflected in Company A's results - that is, the 'grapevine' had begun to work foreshadowing the prospect of unemployment.

H24: (Table 7.24) - Employees who submitted many job applications before gaining new employment will express higher levels of organisational commitment than those who did not.

Not supported: (3 occasions) Company C
(2 occasions) Company A
Company B

Inverse support: (3 occasions) N=270 p ≤ 0.05 (1 tailed test)

Conclusion: The hypothesis is not supported overall.

The exceptions are an inverse relationship at the 0.05 level for N=270 and at one period only for Companies A and B. It is felt that the N=270 result is caused by the weight of the combined samples while Companies A and B result are due to the nature of their samples.

Many of their employment intake applied to these companies only (hence the inverse relationship), being attracted by the company name.

Interestingly, both these companies have a higher turnover rate than Company C, although B is higher than A.

H25: (Table 7.25) - Employees who went for many job interviews before gaining new employment will express higher levels of organisational commitment than those who did not.

Not supported: (3 occasions) Company A
Company B
(2 occasions) Company C

Inverse support: (3 occasions) N=270 p $\langle 0.05 \rangle$  (1 tailed test)

Conclusion: The hypothesis is <u>not supported</u> overall.

The exception if N=270 where on three occasions

an inverse relationship is found at the 0.05 significance level. This means that respondents who went for many job interviews actually have <u>lower</u> levels of organisational commitment, suggesting they may have 'taken the job' and then become disillusioned as they became more integrated into the job and the company. This finding suggests avenues for further research.

H26: (Table 7.26) - Employees who received few job offers will express higher levels of organisational commitment than those who received a number.

Not supported: (3 occasions) Company A
Company B
Company C

Supported: (2 occasions) N=270 p $\leqslant$ 0.05 (1 tailed test)

Conclusion: The hypothesis is generally <u>not supported</u> overall. The exception is N=270 where a relationship exists at the 0.05 significance level. It is felt that this result is due to the combined weight of the samples.

H27: (Table 7.27) - The greater the individual's scores on Search the greater will be his expressed levels of organisational commitment. This relationship will hold during the entire socialising episode - that is, on three separate measuring occasions.

Supported: (3 occasions ) N=270 p $\leqslant$  0.001 (1 tailed test)

Company A p $\leqslant$  0.001

Company B p $\leqslant$  0.001

(2 occasions) Company  $C \geqslant p \leqslant 0.05$ 

Conclusion: The hypothesis is supported overall.

### Hypotheses 28 and 29 [Tables 7.28(a-d) and 7.29(a-d)]

These are two summary-type hypotheses which assess the relative importance of job search behaviour variables on organisational commitment. Two stepwise multiple regression analyses were performed. The first (Table 7.28) contains the variables just discussed above. The second (Table 7.29) contains those, with the addition of 'dummy' variables depicting the employee's method of applying to the company (for example, advertisements, through relations), and the employee's reason for (i) working and (ii) reason for joining his particular company. Results are given for both N=270 (a) and the three samples (b-d).

The results reveal that for N=270 a number of variables are consistent predictors of organisational commitment. In Table 7.28(a) the variable Search emerges as the positive predictor while the number of job interviews granted is the negative predictor. In Table 7.29 (a) other variables enter the equation. Company name and reputation becomes a positive predictor along with Search, while the number of job offers received and Commonwealth Employment Office applicants are the best negative predictors.

For the individual samples, <u>Search</u> is again the most consistent predictor of commitment across the three regression stages [Tables 7.28 (b-d) and 7.29(b-d)]. However, the fact that a short time was taken to obtain

employment is important for Company C in Table 7.28 (d), while company name and reputation is an important positive predictor for Company A in Table 7.29 (b). On the negative side, the number of job interviews received emerges as important for Company A [Table 7.29 (b)], while CES applicants emerge from Company C [Table 7.29 (d)]. Other variables also enter the equation from time to time but are not consistent over more than one stage.

Overall the inclusion of the 'dummy' variables measuring method of company application, reason for working and reason for joining the company improves the predictions for both N=270 and the three samples (the improvement is revealed when comparing Table 7.28 (a-d) with Table 7.29 (a-d). However, company name and reputation and CES applicants emerge as positive and negative predictors respectively a finding not anticipated owing to the inability to test their significance previously because of their nominal nature. Bearing this difference in mind, the correlation analysis agrees with the multiple regression analysis. Altogether job search behaviour variables explain some 15 per cent of the variance'in commitment in Table 7.28 ( $R^2 = .15$ ) and 20 per cent  $(R^2=.20)$  in Table 7.29(a). For the individual samples the results are much higher, while the inclusion of the dummy variables also adds significantly to the results. Overall, however, hypotheses 28 and 29 are not supported. because of the findings emerging from hypotheses 23 to 26.

H28 and H29: Generally not supported.

Conclusion: Of the many job search behaviour variables only Search, company reputation and name (positive) and Commonwealth Employment Service applications (negative) emerge as consistent predictors of organisational commitment.

# Summary and Interpretation:

This section examined the relationship between variables measuring job search behaviour and organisational commitment. The results are as follows:

H23:	(Time taken to gain employment)	Not supported
н24:	(Number of job applications)	Not supported
н25:	(Number of job interviews)	Not supported
н26:	(Number of job offers)	Not supported
н27:	(Search)	Supported
н28:	(Summary)	Not supported
н29:	(Summary)	Not supported

These variables represent the other half of this study's measurement of Becker's (1960) 'side-bet' hypothesis. Collectively, they explain more variance in commitment ( $R^2$ =.15) in the multiple regression analysis than the demographic variables (section (a) -  $R^2$ =.11), but only the variable called Search supports Becker's hypothesis. However, this does not mean that his hypothesis should be

rejected - rather it suggests that the 'investment-type'
proposal needs to be investigated by variables other than
those included in this section.

Chi-square Analysis of the Relationship Between
Length of Time Taken to Obtain Employment and
Organisational Commitment.

H23: Employees who took a <u>long time to find</u>
employment will express higher levels of
Organisational Commitment than those who
did not.

	Commitment 1	Commitment 2	Commitment 3
N=270	$x^2 = 2.79$ 2 df sig = .42	$x^2 = 2.79$ 2 df sig = .42	$x^{2} = 3.39$ 2df sig = .33
Company A	$x^2 = 4.56$ 2 df sig = .10	$x^2 = 2.73$ 2 df sig = .25	$x^2 = 8.74$ 2 df sig = .013*
Company B	$x^2 = 2.79$ 2 df sig = .42	$x^2 = 2.4$ 2 df sig = .49	x <sup>2</sup> = 2.16 2 df sig = .54
Company C	x <sup>2</sup> = 5.87 2 df sig = .05*	$x^2 = 2.43$ 2 df sig = .29	$x^2 = 4.77$ 2 df sig = .09

<sup>\*</sup> p ≤ 0.05

Zero-order Correlation Analysis betweeen the Number of Job Applications and Organisational Commitment.

Employees who submitted many job applications before gaining new employment will express higher levels of organisational commitment than those who did not.

	Commitment 1	Commitment 2	Commitment 3
,			
N=270	11*	1-2*	10*
Company A	11	19*	14
Company B	<b></b> 25**	16	<b></b> 12
Company C	09	06	06

<sup>\*\*</sup>  $p \le 0.01$ \*  $p \le 0.05$  One-tailed test

# Zero-order Correlation Analysis between Number of Job Interviews Received and Organisational Commitment

H25: Employees who went for many job interviews before gaining new employment will express higher levels of organisational commitment than those who did not.

	Commitment 1	Commitment 2	Commitment 3
N=270	12*	13*	13*
Company A	06	16	17
Company B	15	09	06 ·
Company C	17*	15	16

<sup>\*</sup>  $p \leqslant 0.05$  One-tailed test

Zero-order Correlation Analysis between Number of Job Offers Received and Organisational Commitment.

H26: Employees who received few job offers will express higher levels of organisational commitment than those who received a number.

Commitment 2 Commitment 3 Commitment 1 N = 270-.01 -.12\* -.11\* Company A -.02 -.13 -.11 Company B -.08 -.14 **-.**10 Company C -.01 -.10 -.11

<sup>\*</sup> p \leftrightarrow 0.05 One-tailed test

# TABLE <u>7.27</u>

# Zero-order correlation analysis of the relationship between Search and Organisational Commitment.

H27: The greater the individual's scores on Search the greater will be his expressed level of Organisational Commitment. This relationship will hold during the entire socialising episodethat is, on three separate measuring occasions.

	Commitment 1	Commitment 2	Commitment 3
N=270	.35***	.29***	.31***
Company A	.40***	.36***	.40***
Company B	.40***	.37***	.42***
Company C	.25**	.17*	.14

<sup>\*\*\*</sup> p \left\( 0.001

<sup>\*\*</sup> p \le 0.01

<sup>\*</sup>  $p \le 0.05$  (One-tailed test)

# TABLE 7.28(a)

# Three Stepwise Multiple Regressions Depicting the impact of Job Search Behaviours on Organisational Commitment.

# Time taken to obtain employment to Search N=270

	Standardised Coefficients		icients
Variable	Commitment 1	Commitment 2	Commitment 3
Search	.35***	.29***	.31***
Number of job interviews	17**	17**	17**
Constant	37.64	39.49	35.94
	$R^2 = .15$	$R^2 = .11$	$R^2 = .13$
	df = (2,267)	df = (2,267)	df = (2,267)
	F = 23.67	F = 17.40	F = 19.79
	p < 0.001	p <b>(</b> 0.001	p <b>&lt; 0.001</b>

\*\* p \ 0.01

### TABLE 7.28(b)

# Three Stepwise Multiple Regressions Depicting the impact of Job Search Behaviours on Organisational Commitment.

# Time taken to obtain employment to Search (Company A)

Variable	Standardised Coefficients Commitment 1 Commitment 2 Commitment 3			
Search	.40***	.36***	.40***	
Number of job interviews		<b></b> 25*	26**	
Constant	38.07	36.90	29.57	
	$R^2 = .16$	$R^2 = .18$	$R^2 = .23$	
	df = (1,88)	df = (1,88)	df = (1,88)	
	F = 16.99	F = 9.88	F = 12.75	
	p <b>&lt;</b> 0.001	p <b>≼</b> 0.001	p <b>€</b> 0.001	

\* p \( 0.05

TABLE 7.28(c)

# Three Stepwise Multiple Regressions Depicting the impact of Job Search Behaviours on Organisational Commitment

# Time taken to obtain employment to Search

# (Company B)

	Standardised Coefficients		
Variable	Commitment 1	Commitment 2	Commitment 3
Search	.40***	.37***	.42***
Constant	27.31	24.88	18.57
	$R^2 = .16$	$R^2 = .14$	$R^2 = .18$
	df = (1,88)	df = (1,88)	df = (1,88)
	F = 17.21	F = 14.21	F = 19.16
	p 🔇 0.001	p < 0.001	p <b>≤</b> 0.001

\*\*\* p **(**0.001

# TABLE 7.28(d)

# Three Stepwise Multiple Regressions Depicting the impact of Job Search Behaviours on Organisational Commitment

# Time taken to obtain employment to Search (Company C)

	Standardised Coefficients		
Variable	Commitment 1	Commitment 2	Commitment 3
Less than one week to obtain employment	.27*	. 24*	.24*
Search	.25*		.24*
Constant	37.14	43.23	41.95
	$R^2 = .13$	$R^2 = .08$	$R^2 = .11$
	df = (2,87)	df = (1,88)	df = (2,87)
	F = 6.68	F = 4.02	F = 5.27
	p <b>≪</b> 0.01	p <b>≤</b> 0.05	p <b>≰</b> 0.01

\* p \( 0.05

# TABLE 7.29 (a) Three Stepwise Multiple Regressions Depicting the impact of Job Search Behaviours on Organisational Commitment

# Time taken to obtain employment to reason for working N=270

Commitment 2 Commitment 3 Variable Commitment 1 .29\*\*\* .35\*\*\* .31\*\*\* Search Number of job -.16\*\* -.15\*\* offers Company name .22\*\*\* .15\*\* .12\* and reputation Number of job -.15\*\* interviews -.17\*\* -.17\*\* CES applicants .12\* Hours of work 36.20 38.39 40.78 Constant

$R^2 = .19$	$R^2 = .17$	$R^2 = .18$
df = (3,266)	df = (4,265)	df = (5,264)
F = 20.85	F = 11.26	F = 11.69
p <b>&lt; 0.001</b>	p 🔇 0.001	p≤0.001

<sup>\*\*\*</sup> p < 0.001

<sup>\*\*</sup> p \ 0.01

<sup>\*</sup> p < 0.05

### TABLE 7.29(b)

# Three Stepwise Multiple Regressions Depicting the impact of Job Search Behaviours on Organisational Commitment

## Time taken to obtain employment to reason for working

# (Company A)

Variable	Commitment 1	Commitment 2	Commitment 3
Search	.40***	.36***	.40***
Company name and reputation	.31***	.29**	.22*
Money	.20*		
Number of job interviews		22*	26**
Constant	34.14	35.74	24.81
	$R^2 = .30$	$R^2 = .26$	$R^2 = .37$
	$df = (4,85)^{3}$	df = (3,86)	df = (5,84)
	F = 12,34	F = 10.15	F = 9.11
	p <b>≼</b> 0.001	p <b>≰</b> 0.001	p <b>≰</b> 0.001

<sup>\*\*</sup> p \ 0.01

<sup>\*</sup> p < 0.05

# TABLE 7.29(c)

# Three Stepwise Multiple Regressions Depicting the impact of Job Search Behaviours on Organisational Commitment

# Time taken to obtain employment to reason for working

# (Company B)

<u>Variable</u>	Commitment 1	Commitment 2	Commitment 3
Search	.40***	.37***	.42***
Friends inside company	19*		
Constant	30.52	24.88	18.57
	$R^2 = .19$	$R^2 = .14$	$R^2 = .18$
	df = (2,87)	df = (1,88)	df = (1,88)
	F = 10.87	F = 14.21	F = \19, 15
	p <b>(</b> 0.001	p <b>&lt; 0.001</b>	p <b>≤</b> 0.001
	_		

<sup>\*</sup> p≤0.05

# TABLE 7.29(d)

# Three Stepwise Multiple Regressions Depicting the impact of Job Search Behaviours on Organisational Commitment

# 

Variable	Commitment 1	Commitment 2	Commitment3
Company name and reputation	.29**		
CES applicants	24*	28**	27**
Search	.23*		
Less than one week to find employment	.21*		
Location	22*		23*
Job/work			33***
Rang for appointment			25*
Constant	42.13	64.87	72.14
	$R^2 = .28$	$R^2 = .07$	$R^2 = .29$
	df = (5,84)	df = (1,88)	df = (4,85)
	F = 6.53	F = 7.53	F = 8.55
	p <b>≰</b> 0.001	p <b>≰</b> 0.01	p <b>≪0.00</b> 1

<sup>\*\*\*</sup> p \ 0.001

\*\* p \ 0.01

\* p \ 0.05

# e) Socialising Influences within the Organisation

Chapter 3 argued that reference groups, or 'significant other' influence, play a large part in the formation of attitudes. This section studies the effect of the work group and the supervisor on employee levels of organisational commitment. In this study these two groups represent the socialisation influences encountered by the individual after he joins the organisation. The socialising influences likely to influence an employee's attitudes before he joins the organisation were covered in section (b) anticipatory socialisation.

The relationship between commitment and work group affect and supervisor affect was subject to partial correlation analysis (this controlled for the spurious effect of the redundant variable called Congruence). Two other variables - namely, the number of people the individual works with (work group size) and the number of people the individual feels closest to (interaction number) - are also of interest in this section. However, because of their nominal nature they were included as 'dummy variables' in the multiple regression analysis. The results of the hypothesis testing are presented in Tables 7.30 to 7.32.

H30: (Table 7.30) - Employees who perceive themselves as 'fitting-in' with their work group will express higher levels of organisational commitment than those who do not. This relationship will hold during the entire socialising episode - that is, on three separate measuring occasions.

Supported: (3 occasions) N=270 p $\leqslant$ 0.001 (1 tailed test) Company B p $\leqslant$ 0.05 Company C p $\leqslant$ 0.01

Not supported: (3 occasions) Company A

Conclusion: Overall the hypothesis is supported. The exception is Company A where no relationship was observed. A possible explanation for this is that A has less people on the floor per department than either B or C, making it difficult for people to identify with a work In Company C the nature of the jobs requires that people work side by side in a comparatively confined space while they also take their lunch/tea break periods in a common area (a nicely appointed lunch/common room). Company B has more the old fashioned departmental idea with a number of permanent staff to 'man the floor'. In contrast Company A has a high proportion of 'cash and wrap' centres with limited staff - that is, often the 'cash and wrap' centres are manned by one person until casuals arrive to service the busy periods. Company A also rotates its casuals amongst departments and as a consequence they have few stable 'points' with which they can identify. Even friendships are slow to develop. researcher observed in the eight month study that the few friendships that did emerge had their genesis during the three day induction period, and continued to flourish even though the people concerned were in different departments/sections/floors. There appears to be little integration of the sample into their immediate work group, a fact which is reflected in Company A's result.

H31: (Table 7.31) - Employees who perceive themselves as having established good relations with their supervisor will express higher levels of organisational commitment than those who do not. This relationship will hold during the entire socialising episode - that is, on three separate measuring occasions.

Supported: (3 occasions) N=270 p $\leqslant$  0.001 (1 tailed test) Company C p $\leqslant$  0.001

Not supported: (3 occasions) Company B
(2 occasions) Company A

Conclusion: The hypothesis is only partially supported by the data. The exceptions are Companies A and B. Both groups of respondents especially complained to the researcher about 'cliques' and supervisory displays of favouritism. The orthogonal relationships depicted in Table 7.31 could be a reflection of these sentiments. By the time of the second adjustment period in Company A, however, respondents were perceiving a more positive relationship suggesting that initial misgivings were being overcome.

Company C's result appears again to be a reflection of the local situation. Because of the nature of the work layout in a supermarket most employees are in eye contact with the supervisor, the 'Head Girl', who directs customer traffic. Employees receive immediate feedback on their performance constantly throughout the day. Those employees who are away from the immediate 'front counter' operation also have close contact with their supervisors. This contact is reflected in the company result.

## Hypothesis 32 [Table 7.32 (a-d)]

The multiple regression analysis reveals work group affect and supervisor affect to be the best positive predictors of organisational commitment while an interaction number of from 2 to 4 people emerges as the best negative predictor. The amount of variance explained by these variables varies between  $R^2 = .34$  and  $R^2 = .44$  over the three stages for N=270, indicating that this particular 'set' of variables is a good predictor of commitment. The three samples follow the general findings for N=270, although size of work group between 16 to 20 people emerges as a positive predictor The interesting result of this multiple for Company B. regression, however, is the negative result experienced for variable I3. It seems that interacting with a small number of people (2 to 4) creates less favourable feelings towards commitment. As most sales assistants now work in small groups (especially at cash-wrap centres), this finding has import for the turnover problem experienced by retailers. They could be creating an environmental situation conducive to the encouragement of disaffected feelings.

#### H32: Partially supported

Conclusion: Both work group affect and supervisor affect are consistent positive predictors of organisational commitment, while a small interaction number is the most consistent negative predictor.

# Summary:

This section explored the relationship between commitment and socialising influences within the organisation. The results are as follows:

H30:	(Work group affect)	Supported
н31:	(Supervisor affect)	Partially supported
н32:	(Summary)	Partially supported

It is felt that the H3l result reflects the particular organisational situation. Overall, however, the results confirm the general literature findings on the importance of reference groups in the formation of attitudes.

# Partial-correlation analysis of the relationship between Work Group Affect and Organisational Commitment

H30: Employees who perceive themselves as 'fitting-in' with their work group will express higher levels of organisational commitment than those who do not. This relationship will hold during the entire socialising episode - that is, on three separate measuring occasions.

	Commitment 1	Commitment 2	Commitment 3
		,	
N=270	.22***	.19***	.25***
Company A	.08	.06	.10
Company B	.22*	.23*	.42***
Company C	.39***	.32***	.28**

<sup>\*\*\*</sup> p\$ 0.001

(Controlling for the effects of Congruence)

<sup>\*\*</sup> p < 0.01

<sup>\*</sup> p≤ 0.05 (1 tailed test)

# Partial-correlation analysis of the relationship between Supervisor Affect and Organisational Commitment

H31: Employees who perceive themselves as having established good relations with their <u>supervisor</u> will express higher levels of organisational commitment than those who do not. This relationship will hold during the entire socialising episode - that is, on three separate measuring occasions.

	Commitment 1	Commitment 2	Commitment 3
			,
N=270	.19***	.19***	.29***
Company A	.06	.09	.26**
Company B	.07	.06	.15
Company C	.36***	.35***	.41***

<sup>\*\*\*</sup> p \ 0.001

(Controlling for the effects of Congruence)

<sup>\*\*</sup> p≤0.01

<sup>\*</sup>  $p \le 0.05$  (1 tailed test)

# TABLE 7.32(a)

# Three Stepwise Multiple Regressions Depicting the impact of internal socialising influences on Organisational Commitment

# Size of Work Group to Supervisor Affect

N = 270

#### Standardised Coefficients

Variable	Commitment 1	Commitment 2	Commitment 3
Work Group Affect	.55***	.54***	.62***
Supervisor Affect	.32***	.26***	.30***
Size of work group from 2 to 4 people	12*		13**
Constant	10.18	11.21	5.99

$$R^2 = .39$$
  $R^2 = .34$   $R^2 = .45$   
 $df = (3,266)$   $df = (2,267)$   $df = (3.266)$   
 $F = 55.75$   $F = 68.37$   $F = 71.85$   
 $p \le 0.001$   $p \le 0.004$   $p \le 0.001$ 

\* p≤ 0.05

# TABLE 7.32(b)

# Three Stepwise Multiple Regressions Depicting the impact of internal socialising influences on Organisational Commitment

# Size of Work Group to Supervisor Affect

### Company A

#### Standardised Coefficients

Variable	Commitment 1	Commitment 2	Commitment 3
Supervisor Affect	.49***	.51***	. 64***
Work Group Affect	.28*		
Size of work group from 2 to 4 people	23*		20)
Constant	24.41	27.34	17.05

$$R^2 = .34$$
  $R^2 = .26$   $R^2 = .44$   $df = (3,86)$   $df = (1,88)$   $df = (2,87)$   $f = 14.85$   $f = 31.61$   $f = 34.93$   \* p \ 0.05

# TABLE 7.32(c)

# Three Stepwise Multiple Regressions Depicting the impact of internal socialising influences on Organisational Commitment

# Size of work group to Supervisor Affect

# Company B

Variable	Commitment 1	Commitment 2	Commitment 3
Work Group Affect	.57***	.58***	.71***
Supervisor Affect	.28*	,	
Size of work group (2 to 4)	18*		
(5 to 10)	23*		
(16 to 20)		.18*	.16*
Work with one other person			.21**
Constant	14.12	4.04	-7.90
	$R^2 = .44$ $df = (4.85)$ $F = 16.78$ $p \le 0.001$	$R^2 = .37$ $df = (2,87)$ $F = 25.49$ $p \le 0.001$	$R^2 = .57$ $df = (3,86)$ $F = 38.99$ $p \le 0.001$

<sup>\*\*\*</sup> p \le 0.001 \*\* p \le 0.01 \* p \le 0.05

# TABLE 7.32(d)

# Three Stepwise Multiple Regressions Depicting the impact of internal socialising influences on Organisational Commitment

# Size of work group to Supervisor Affect

# Company C

Variable	Commitment 1	Commitment 2	Commitment33
Work group affect	.63***	.63***	.61***
Supervisor affect	.42***	.29**	.32**
Constant	-11.81	-7.18	4.19
	$R^2 = .53$ $df = (2,87)$ $F = 50.18$ $p \le 0.001$	$R^2 = .47$ $df = (2,87)$ $F = 38.35$ $p < 0.001$	$R^2 = .44$ $df = (2,87)$ $F = 33.84$ $p \le 0.001$

<sup>\*\*\*</sup> p \left 0.001

\*\* p \left 0.01

\* p \left 0.05

### f) Satisfaction with the Working Environment

This section is concerned with the relationship between organisational commitment and an individual's feelings of satisfaction or dissatisfaction with specific characteristics of the job or work situation (representing a mixture of intrinsic and extrinsic factors). The particular characteristics of interest are:

- . Variety in the job
- . Job security
- . Physical working conditions
- . Freedom in the job
- . Pay
- . Supervisor's attitude towards respondent
- . Job challenge
- . Friendly attitude of management
- . Travelling time to work
- . Management decisions

Interest in these variables arose out of this study's need to separate an individual's affective responses towards the job from his affective responses towards the organisation (represented in this study by commitment). Further interest was created by the fact that these variables were considered to form part of the <a href="mailto:social-psychological determinants">social-psychological determinants</a> of organisational commitment (the interpretation of the other half of the Becker/Ritzer and Trice controversy). The ten

hypotheses were subject to partial correlation analysis (to control for the spurious effect of the variable called Congruence), and a multiple regression analysis was performed to determine the amount of variance in commitment which was explained by these variables. The results are presented in Tables 7.34 to 7.44(a-d) at the end of this section.

H34: (Table 7.34) - Employees who express feelings of satisfaction towards the <u>variety in their jobs</u> will express higher levels of organisational commitment than those who are dissatisfied with the level of variety.

Not supported: (3 occasions) Company A
Company B
(2 occasions) Company C

Supported: (2 occasions) N=270 p $\leqslant$ 0.05 (1 tailed test)

Conclusion: The hypothesis is <u>not supported</u> overall

The exceptions are the two adjustment periods

for N=270, a result which appears to have been
influenced by the weight of the combined samples.

H35: (Table 7.35) -Employees who are satisfied with their job security will express higher levels of organisational commitment than those who are dissatisfied.

Not supported: (3 occasions) Company A
Company B
Company C

(2 occasions) N=270

Conclusion: The hypothesis is not supported.

H36: (Table 7.36) -Employees who are satisfied with their physical working conditions will express higher levels of organisational commitment than those who are dissatisfied.

Supported: (2 occasions) N=270 p  $\leqslant$  0.05 (1 tailed test) Company C p  $\leqslant$  0.05

Not supported: (3 occasions) Company B
(2 occasions) Company A

Conclusion: The hypothesis is partially supported

Company C is in support on two occasions mainly because it is a brand new store with very pleasant working conditions. However, by the third occasion the effect has obviously worn off (Company C has a large number of young casuals who are having their first taste of employment and this could have effected the results - they could have been impressed by the surroundings). The Department stores (Companies A and B), on the other hand, express no support. This is surprising because employees once again work in pleasant surroundings - in fact, one of the stores in Company B is also newly constructed although the researcher heard nothing but complaints about 'conditions' whenever she visited. Apparently working conditions do not effect employees' levels of organisational commitment. The significant result for N=270 appears to be the result of the combined weight of the samples.

H37: (Table 7.37) - Employees who are satisfied with the level of freedom in their jobs will express higher levels of organisational commitment than those who are not satisfied.

Not supported: (3 occasions) Company A

Company B

Company C

(2 occasions) N=270

Conclusion: The hypothesis is not supported.

H38: (Table 7.38) - Employees who are satisfied with their pay will express higher levels of organisational commitment than those who are not satisfied.

Supported: (3 occasions) N=270 p < 0.001 (1 tailed test)

Company A p < 0.05

(2 occasions) Company B p < 0.01

Not supported: (2 occasions) Company C

The hypothesis is supported overall. Conclusion: The exception is Company C where the researcher heard a lot of dissension over wage payments. The last two questionnaire administrations were undertaken during pay weeks, immediately before or after the 'pick up' of pay. Most dissension came from the young casuals who quite vocally disputed their wage calculations (disagreement appeared to stem from birthday and overtime As the pay office and the lunchroom payments). were in immediate proximity, any disputes were overheard by any other staff in the vicinity. General discussion then took place (out of hearing of management) in the tea-break. time the company was proved correct but this did not absolve the difference in the employee's It is felt that these undercurrents effected the result for Company C.

H39: (Table 7.39) - Employees who are satisfied with their supervisor's attitude towards them will express higher levels of organisational commitment than those who are dissatisfied.

Not supported: (3 occasions) Company A
Company B

Supported: (2 occasions) N=270 p $\leq$ 0.01 (1 tailed test) Company C p $\leq$ 0.01

Conclusion: The hypothesis is partially supported overall. This finding supports that of Hypothesis 31 which also refers to the supervisor. Once again the same dichotomy emerges between significance and non-significance for the samples concerned. Company C's result appears to be due to local conditions: similarly with A and B.

H40: (Table 7.40) - Employees who are satisfied with their degree of job challenge will express higher levels of organisational commitment than those who are not satisfied.

Not supported: (3 occasions)

Company A

Company C

(2 occasions)

Company B

N=270

Conclusion: The hypothesis is not supported overall.

H41: (Table 7.41) - Employees who are satisfied with the friendly attitude of management will express higher levels of organisational commitment than those who are dissatisfied.

Supported: (3 occasions) N=270 p $\leqslant$  0.001 (1 tailed test)

Company A p $\leqslant$  0.05

Company B p $\leqslant$  0.05

Not supported: (3 occasions) Company C

Conclusion: The hypothesis is supported overall

The exception if Company C where no relationship is recorded. It is felt that this was the result of the circumstances prevailing at the time of the survey. Company C was a new store, in a new area, operating to beat Head Office The manager was a driving personality with a reputation for getting a good "dollar and people" result. From an office on a mezzanine level he was able to watch operations on the trading floor and used the public address system to 'summon' employees for meetings or Employees were often put off misdemeanours. by his manner which was interpreted as being 'unfriendly'. Even though he mixed with them at lunch and tea breaks and was often on the floor, a barrier existed between the 'boss' and the The manager, however, had problems general staff. unknown to most of the staff. Head Office policy was to allow a new store a more lenient budget and more staff for the first six weeks of operation - thereafter, there was no 'slack' The manager was thus in the system. endeavouring to achieve increasing figures with less staff and money for advertising etc. However, in the minds of the staff he was synonymous with company policy - Head Office decisions were thus interpreted as 'his' decisions and policies, an erroneous conclusion that none cared to examine.

H42: (Table 7.42) - Employees who are satisfied with management decisions will express higher levels of organisational commitment than those who are dissatisfied.

Supported: (3 occasions) N=270 p  $\leqslant$  0.001 (1 tailed test)

Company A p  $\leqslant$  0.01

Company B p  $\leqslant$  0.01

Not supported: (3 occasions) Company C

Conclusion: The hypothesis <u>is supported</u> overall.

The exception is Company C, the reason for their result being explained in Hypothesis 41 above.

H43: (Table 7.43) - Employees who are satisfied with the time taken to travel to work will express higher levels of organisational commitment than those who are dissatisfied.

Supported: (2 occasions) N=270 p $\leq$  0.01 (1 tailed test) Company B p $\leq$  0.05

Not supported: (3 occasions) Company A
(2 occasions) Company C

Conclusion: The hypothesis is <u>partially supported</u> by the data.

The interesting feature of this result is that the relationship appears to be related to free choice - that is, it could be expected that sales assistants would prefer to work locally in view of the large number of outlets now in the suburbs. However, this is not necessarily the case. Some prefer to travel long distances to work in town, others have to work in other suburbs because there are no employment prospects. These idiosyncracies appear to have effected the result for H43.

# Hypothesis 44 [Table 7.45 (a-d)]

Table 7.44 (a) for N=270 reveals that a number of variables in the Working Environment group are consistent predictors of organisational commitment. These are Pay, Variety in the Job, Friendly Attitude of Management and Management Decisions. The emergence of Variety in the regression equation confirms the relationship found under bivariate analysis for N=270. Other predictors at various regression stages include Job Challenge and Freedom in the Job. However, none are consistent over the three regression equations. The data indicates that the significant variables, when combined, explain 56 per cent of the variance in commitment ( $R^2$ =.56) in equation 1, 59 per cent ( $R^2$ =.59) in equation 2 and 58 per cent ( $R^2$ =.58) in equation 3.

The results for the three samples [Tables 7.44(b-d)] generally follow those of N=270. Pay and Friendly Attitude of

Management emerge as positive predictors but some minor variations are experienced in other variables. For example,

Job Challenge and Management Decisions are important in

Company A, Job Challenge and Variety in Company B and Physical Working Conditions, Freedom in the Job and Supervisor Attitudes for Company C. It is felt that these results reflect the different organisational situations.

## H44: Partially supported overall

Conclusion: Of the ten working environment variables, four (Variety in the Job, Pay, Friendly Attitude

of Management and Management Decisions) emerge as consistent predictors of organisational commitment.

## Summary and Interpretation:

This section was concerned with the relationship between variables purporting to measure aspects of the work environment and organisational commitment. The results are as follows:

н34:	(Variety in the job)	Not supported overall
н35:	(Job security)	Not supported overall
н36:	(Physical Conditions)	Partially supported
н37:	(Freedom in the job)	Not supported overall
н38:	(Pay)	Supported overall
н39:	(Supervisor's attitude)	Partially supported
н40:	(Job challenge)	Not supported overall
H41:	(Attitude of management)	Supported overall
H42:	(Management decisions)	Supported overall
н43:	(Travel time)	Partially supported
н44:	(Summary)	Partially supported

Actually these variables form a mixture of <u>socialisation-type</u> influences and <u>social-psychological</u> determinants (Ritzer and Trice's hypothesis). Hypotheses relating to either the supervisor's or management's attitude are supported, confirming the results obtained in section (e). The other variables elicit mixed results. Those of a 'hygiene' nature

(Herzberg, 1966) - for example, pay, physical working conditions and travelling time - are supported, while those of a motivator nature (variety, freedom, job challenge) are This finding confirms the work of Feldman (1976a) that hygiene variables are more important than motivator variables in influencing employee attitudes towards the organisation. It also confirms that Congruence (job involvement) has a mediating effect on the relationship between commitment and the motivator-type variables. section thus produces mixed findings for the Ritzer and Trice hypothesis. While social-psychological variables are found to be important determinants of organisational commitment, not all such variables meet this criterion. In their original work Ritzer and Trice did not specify any particular variables - rather their concept was that commitment was basically a psychological phenomenon, arising mainly when the individual had no other meaningful base to which to commit himself (1969, p478). Instead, it was researchers such as Sheldon (1971), Hrebiniak and Alutto (1972) and Shoemaker et al (1977) who introduced the notion of social-psychological variables. Obviously more research needs to be done for the 'residual category' notion of Ritzer and Trice (1969, p478) has not been proven by any researcher in this controversial area; nor have the types of relevant social-psychological variables themselves (suggested as an interpretation of the R-T position) been specified. This study contributes findings in regard to a number of Herzberg 'hygiene'-type variables confirming that

other variables are important determinants of commitment. However, it has not contributed proof as to the Ritzer and Trice position. Rather, like Stevens et al (1978) it has shown that commitment has multiple positive and negative determinants. Just where the influence of these determinants becomes important is explained in a later section.

Partial-correlation Analysis between Variety in the Job and Organisational Commitment.

H34: Employees who express feelings of satisfaction towards the <u>variety in their jobs</u> will express higher levels of organisational commitment than those who are dissatisfied with the level of variety.

•	Commitment 1	Commitment 2	Commitment 3
N=270	.09	.14**	.12**
Company A	.16	.04	.16
Company B	.11	.27**	.07
Company C	.01	.08	.11

\*\* p  $\leqslant$  0.01 One-tailed test. (Controlling for the effects of Congruence)

# Partial-correlation analysis of the relationship between Job Security and Organisational

### Commitment

H35: Employees who are satisfied with their job security will express higher levels of organisational commitment than those who are dissatisfied.

	Commitment 1	Commitment 2	Commitment 3
N=270	.05	.05	.11*
Company A	.14	.13	. 09
Company B	.09	01	.17 ·
Company C	06	.04	.03

<sup>\*</sup> p < 0.05 (1 tailed test)

# Partial-correlation analysis of the relationship between Physical Working Conditions and Organisational Commitment

H36: Employees who are satisfied with their physical working conditions will express higher levels of organisational commitment than those who are dissatisfied.

	Commitment 1	Commitment 2	Commitment 3
N=270	.14*	.20***	. 09
Company A	.10	.21*	.06
Company B	.08	.11	.07
Company C	.18*	.18*	.01

<sup>\*\*\*</sup> p \le 0.001

<sup>\*\*</sup> p≤ 0.01

<sup>\*</sup> p≤0.05 (1 tailed test)

# Partial-correlation analysis of the relationship between Freedom in the Job and Organisational Commitment

H37: Employees who are satisfied with the level of freedom in their jobs will express higher levels of organisational commitment than those who are not satisfied.

	Commitment 1	Commitment 2	Commitment 3
,			
N=270	.11*	.06	.04
Company A	.17	.04	.07
Company B	.12	01	.05
Company C	.07	.15	.03

<sup>\*</sup>  $p \leqslant 0.05$  (1 tailed test)

# Partial-correlation analysis of the relationship between Pay and Organisational Commitment

H38: Employees who are satisfied with their pay will express higher levels of organisational commitment than those who are not satisfied.

	Commitment 1	Commitment 2	Commitment 3
			,
		,	
N=270	.26***	.26***	.20***
Company A	.29**	.26**	.22*
Company B	.16	.30**	.40***
Company C	.27**	.17	.001

<sup>\*\*\*</sup> p < 0.001

<sup>\*\*</sup> p < 0.01

<sup>\*</sup>  $p \leq 0.05$  (1 tailed test)

# Partial-correlation analysis of the relationship between Supervisor's Attitude and Organisational

## Commitment

H39: Employees who are satisfied with their supervisor's attitude towards them will express higher levels of organisational commitment than those who are dissatisfied.

•	Commitment 1	Commitment 2	Commitment 3
			<u>.</u>
N=270	.02	.19***	.16**
Company A	06	.13	.06
Company B	.04	.16	.14
Company C	.09	.34***	.27**

\*\*\* p \left\ 0.001

\*\* p \ 0.01 (1 tailed test)

# Partial-correlation analysis of the relationship between Job Challenge and Organisational Commitment

H40: Employees who are satisfied with their degree of job challenge will express higher levels of organisational commitment than those who are not satisfied.

·	Commitment 1	Commitment 2	Ćommitment 3
N=270	.10*	.05	.01
Company A	.14	05	.09
Company B	.15	.20*	00
Company C	01	03	09

\*  $p \leqslant 0.05$  (1 tailed test)

# Partial-correlation analysis of the relationship between Friendly Attitude of Management and Organisational Commitment

H41: Employees who are satisfied with the friendly attitude of management will express higher levels of organisational commitment than those who are dissatisfied.

	Commitment 1	Commitment 2	Commitment 3
N=270	.18***	.22***	.26***
Company A	.27**	.22*	.23*
Company B	.29**	.23*	.39***
Company C	005	.14	.17

<sup>\*\*</sup> p < 0.01

<sup>\*</sup> p≤0.05 (1 tailed test)

# Partial-correlation analysis of the relationship between Management Decisions and Organisational Commitment

H42: Employees who are satisfied with management decisions will express higher levels of organisational commitment than those who are dissatisfied.

	Commitment 1	Commitment 2	Commitment 3
N=270	.23***	.26***	.20***
Company A	.29**	.31**	.25**
Company B	.29**	.25**	.29**
Company C	.08	.12	.02

<sup>\*\*\*</sup> p < 0.001

<sup>\*\*</sup> p≤ 0.01 (1 tailed test)

# Partial-correlation analysis of the relationship between Time Taken to Travel to Work and Organisational Commitment

H43: Employees who are satisfied with the time taken to travel to work will express higher levels of organisational commitment than those who are dissatisfied.

•	Commitment 1	Commitment 2	Commitment 3
N=270	.05	.15**	.15**
Company A	02	• <u>(Ö</u> 8	03
Company B	.09	.22*	.19*
Company C	.06	.11	.23*

<sup>\*\*</sup> p≤0.01

<sup>\*</sup>  $p \le 0.05$  (1 tailed test)

## TABLE 7.44(a)

# Three Stepwise Multiple Regressions Depicting the impact of Working Environment Influences on Organisational Commitment

# $\begin{tabular}{lll} \hline \textbf{Variety in the Job to Time taken to Travel} \\ \textbf{N=270} \\ \end{tabular}$

Variable	Stand Commitment 1	ardised Coeffic Commitment 2	ients Commitment 3
Variable	COMMIT CINCITE I	COMMITCHICITE 2	COMMITTEMENT 5
Job challenge	.59***	.41***	
Pay	.40***	.28***	.24***
Management decisions	.23***	.60***	.12*
Freedom in job	.16**		.14**
Friendly attitude of management	.13*	.16**	.34***
Variety in job	.14*	.19***	.67***
Physical working conditions		.11*	
Constant	18.28	16.35	21.71
	R <sup>2</sup> =.56	R <sup>2</sup> =.59	$R^2 = .58$
,	df = (6,263)	df = (6,263)	df = (5,264)
	$F = 55.58$ $p \le 0.001$	$F = 63.88$ $p \le 0.001$	$F = 74.11$ $p \le 0.001$
*** p 0.001  ** p 0.01  * p 0.05			

# TABLE 7.44(b)

# Three Stepwise Multiple Regressions Depicting the impact of Working Environment Variables on Organisational Commitment

# Variety in the Job to Time taken to Travel Company A

#### Standardised Coefficients

Variable	Commitment 1	Commitment 2	Commitment3
Pay	.64***	.38***	.42***
Friendly attitude of management	.42***	.18*	.21*
Job challenge	.25**	.25***	
Management decisions		.69***	.33***
Physical working conditions		.14*	
Variety in job			.66***
Constant	18.69	10.71	13.86

$R^2 = .59$	$R^2 = .70$	$R^2 = .66$
df = (3,86)	df = (5,84)	df = (4,85)
F = 42.87	F = 38.55	F = 41.73
p <b>《</b> 0.001	p <b>≰</b> 0.001	p <b>≼</b> 0.001

<sup>\*\*\*</sup> p \le 0.001 \*\* p \le 0.01 \* p \le 0.05

# TABLE 7.44(c)

# Three Stepwise Multiple Regressions Depicting the impact of Working Environment Variables on Organisational Commitment

# Variety in the Job to Time taken to Travel

# Company B

Wariahla	Standardised Coefficients Commitment 1 Commitment 2 Commitment 3			
Variable	COMMITCHERE	COMMITCHIEFIC Z	COMMIT CHICITE 5	
Job challenge	.62***	.23*		
Pay	.38***	.45***	.43***	
Friendly attitude of management	.26**		.16*	
Variety in job	.27**	.73***	.74***	
Constant	15.20	19.94	19.46	
	$R^2 = .59$	$R^2 = .71$	$R^2 = .70$	
	df = (4,85)	df = (3,86)	df = (3,86)	
	F = 31.43		F = 67.56	
	p <b>≪</b> 0.001	p <b>≼</b> 0.001	p <b>≼</b> 0.001	

<sup>\*\*</sup> p\left\( 0.01 \)
\* p\left\( 0.05 \)

# TABLE 7.44(d)

# Three Stepwise Multiple Regressions Depicting the impact of Working Environment Variables on

# Organisational Commitment

# Variety in Job to Time taken to Travel to Work

# Company C

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Standardised	COCTTTCTCTICS

Variable	Commitment 1	Commitment 2	Commitment 3
Variety in job	.54***		.60***
Pay	.30***		
Job challenge	.30**		
Physical working conditions	.18*	.24**	
Freedom in job		.57***	.34***
Supervisor's attitude		.25*	.23*
Friendly attitude of management		۰	.20*
Constant	25.68	21.14	24.59
	2	2	2
	$R^2 = .45$	$R^2 = .42$	$R^2 = .50$
	df = (4,85)		df = (4,85)
	F = 17.14		F = 21.76
	p <b>≪</b> 0.001	p <b>≼</b> 0.001	p <b>≪</b> 0.001

<sup>\*\*\*</sup> p \left 0.001 \*\* p \left 0.01 \* p \left 0.05

#### g) Job Leaving Behaviours

This section considers the relationship between indicators of job leaving behaviour and organisational commitment. The necessity for this was suggested by Stevens et al (1978). Although Porter et al (1974, 1976) examined turnover and commitment, no previous research has considered the other element in the triangle - that is, job search behaviour. This study is the first to do so, thereby presenting a more macro approach to commitment. The findings of job search behaviour were presented in section (d).

The variables selected to represent job leaving behaviour in this study are efforts of employees to change either their (i) job/department, and (ii) their company, and their rate of Data was subjected to chi-square analysis absenteeism. for the first two relationships, and to Pearson product-moment correlation analysis for absenteeism. The results are summarised in Tables 7.45 to 7.47.

H45: (Table 7.45) - Employees who attempt to change their jobs or departments will express lower levels of organisational commitment than those who do not.

> Not supported: (3 occasions) Company C

(2 occasions) Company B

Company A

 $p \leqslant 0.05$  (1 tailed test) Supported: (2 occasions) N = 270

Conclusion: The hypothesis is not supported overall the exceptions are the last adjustment period for Companies A and B and the two adjustment

periods for N=270. These exceptions appear to reflect the local situation - that is, at this stage in the socialising episode employees are beginning to request change and voluntary resignations have commenced. This process is much more marked in the Department stores (A and B) than the supermarket (C). The results bear witness to the difference.

H46: (Table 7.46) - Employees who attempt to change employers will express <u>lower</u> levels of organisational commitment than those who do not.

Supported: (3 occasions) N=270 p $\leq$ 0.05 to p $\leq$ 0.001 Company B p $\leq$ 0.05 to p $\leq$ 0.001 (2 occasions) Company A p $\leq$ 0.01

Not supported: (2 occasions) Company C

Conclusion: The hypothesis is supported overall

H47: (Table 7.47) - Employees who have higher levels of absenteeism will express <u>lower</u> levels of organisational commitment than those with <u>low</u> absentee records.

Not supported: (3 occasions) Company B
Company C
(2 occasions) Company A
N=270

Conclusion: The hypothesis is not supported overall.

#### Summary and Interpretation:

The results of the hypothesis testing between indicators of job leaving behaviours and organisational commitment are as follows:

H45: (Change job/department) Not supported

H46: (Change company) Supported

H47: (Absenteeism) Not supported

These variables constitute this study's measurement of behavioural commitment. While mixed results eventuate, the findings do confirm a link between behavioural and attitudinal commitment (Mowday and McDade, 1979) in the efforts to change employers. This finding, although not expressed in terms of types of commitment, is also detailed by Porter et al (1974, 1976). However, neither efforts to change job/department or level of absenteeism are linked to commitment in this study. The latter result may have been influenced by the fact that retail employees work a nine-day fortnight. This result requires further investigation.

# Chi-square Analysis of the Relationship between Attempts to Change Either Job or Department and Organisational Commitment

Employees who attempt? to change their jobs or departments will express  $\underline{lower}$  levels of organisational commitment than those who do H45: not.

	Commitment 1	Commitment 2	Commitment 3
N=270	$x^2 = 1.59$ 1 df sig = .45	$x^2 = 8.89$ 1 df sig = .012*	x <sup>2</sup> = 25.07 l df sig = .000***
Company A	x <sup>2</sup> = .134 1 df sig = .714	$x^2 = 3.43$ 1 df sig = .06	$x^2 = 10.87$ 1 df sig = .001***
Company B	$x^2 = .471$ 1 df sig = .492	$x^2 = .414$ 1 df sig = .520	x <sup>2</sup> = 18.97 1 df sig =.0001***
Company C	$x^2 = 1.06$ 1 df sig = .588	$x^2 = 4.58$ 1 df sig = .10	$x^2 = 1.60$ 1 df sig = .205

<sup>\*\*\*</sup>  $p \le 0.001$ \*\*  $p \le 0.01$ \*  $p \le 0.05$ 

# Chi-square Analysis of the Relationship Between Attempts to Change Employers and Organisational Commitment

Employees who attempt  $\bigcirc$  to change employers will express lower levels of organisational commitment than those who do, not. H46:

	Commitment 1	Commitment 2	Commitment 3
		,	
N=270	$x^2 = 5.42$ 1 df sig = .019*	$x^2 = 27.19$ 1 df sig = .000***	x <sup>2</sup> = 35.24 1 df sig = .000***
Company A	$x^2 = 1.29$ 1 df sig = .256	$x^2 = 7.34$ 1 df sig = .007**	x <sup>2</sup> = 14.99 1 df sig = .0001***
Company B	$x^2 = 5.87$ 1 df sig = .016*	$x^2 = 11.52$ 1 df sig = .0007***	$x^2 = 13.62$ 1 df sig = .0002***
Company C	$x^2 = 1.47$ 1 df sig = .225	$x^2 = 2.22$ 1 df sig = .136	x <sup>2</sup> = 6.72 l df sig = .009**

p \le 0.001

 $p \leqslant 0.01$   $p \leqslant 0.05$ 

# Zero-order correlation analysis of the relationship

## between Absenteeism and Organisational

## Commitment

H45: Employees with higher levels of absenteeism will express <u>lower</u> levels of organisational commitment than those with low absentee records.

,	Commitment 1	Commitment 2	Commitment 3
N=270	06	03	15**
Company A	12	17	19*
Company B	09	01	13
Company C	.03	.05	12

<sup>\*\*</sup> p \ 0.01

<sup>\*</sup> p\le 0.05 (1 tailed test)

#### 7.3 HYPOTHESES BETWEEN PREDICTOR VARIABLES

This section moves away from considering interrelationships with organisational commitment and examines instead the relationship between several predictor variables. Of particular interest are the interrelationship between search and realism, search and satisfaction with the working environment (the composite score), and realism and satisfaction with the working environment (the composite score). Two other hypotheses, outlined in Chapter 4 and involving the variable congruence, no longer apply. Data was subject to partial correlation analysis (controlling for congruence), and the results are presented in Tables 7.48 to 7.50.

H48: (Table 7.48) - Employees who engage in high levels of search will express higher levels of realism than those who do not.

Inverse support: (3 occasions) N=270 p $\leq$  0.01 (1 tailed test)

Company A p $\leq$  0.05

(2 occasions) Company C p $\leq$  0.05

Not supported: (3 occasions) Company B

Conclusion: The data was <u>inversely supported</u> -that is, employees with high levels of search had low levels of realism and vice versa.

H49: (Table 7.49) - Employees who engage in high levels of search will express more satisfaction with their working environment than those who do not.

Not supported: (3 occasions) N=270

Company B

Company C

(2 occasions) Company A

Conclusion: The hypothesis is not supported

H50: (Table 7.50) - Employees who express high levels of realism will express more satisfaction with their working environment than those who do not. This relationship will hold during the entire socialising episode - that is, on three separate measuring occasions.

Not supported: (4 occasions) Company C

(3 occasions) Company B

N = 270

Supported: (2 occasions) Company A p 

√ 0.05 (1 tailed test)

Conclusion: The hypothesis is not supported overall.

#### Summary and Interpretation:

The hypothesis testing for this set of variables resulted in the following conclusions:

H48: (Search and Realism) Inversely supported

H49: (Search and Working

Environment) Not supported

H50: (Realism and Working

Environment) Not supported

The first is in an unexpected direction indicating that employees who exert considerable effort in finding employment are less realistic in their expectations, perhaps suggesting that they are prepared to take any job to gain employment or overevaluate the job when they obtain it. The other two results are also not in the predicted direction. Apparently exerting effort to find a job and having more realistic assumptions does not make employees more satisfied with aspects of their working environment. This finding requires verification with other groups.

# Partial-correlation analysis of the relationship between Search and Realism

H48: Employees who engaged in high levels of Search will express higher levels of Realism than those who did not.

	Realism 1	Realism 2	Realism 3	Realism 4
<b>a.</b> 1				
Search				
				1
N=270	.13*	19***	22***	16**
Company A	.07	22*	28**	17*
				4
Company B	.35***	16	22*	23*
T.	.55	10	22	25"
Company C	.09	14	23*	20*
<u>.</u> <u>-</u>		- <del></del>		1

<sup>\*\*\*</sup> p \le 0.001

(Controlling for the effects of Congruence - the exception is period 1, where zero-order correlations are recorded because Congruence was not measured at that time)

<sup>\*\*</sup> p \ 0.01

<sup>\*</sup> p < 0.05 (1 tailed test)

# Partial correlation analysis of the relationship between Search and Working Environment

H49: Employees who engage in high levels of search will express high levels of satisfaction with their working environment than those who did not.

	Working Environment 1	Working Environment 2	Working Environment 3
·			
N=270	.04	.03	.03
Company A	.15	.18*	.17
Company B	.11	.11	.14
Company C	09	08	08

<sup>\*</sup>  $P \le 0.05$  (1 tailed test) (Controlling for the effects of Congruence)

# Partial-correlation analysis of the relationship

### between Realism and Satisfaction with the

#### Working Environment

H50: Employees who express high levels of Realism will express more Satisfaction with their Working Environment than those who do not. This relationship will hold during the entire socialising episode - that is, on three separate measuring occasions.

Working Working Working Environment 1 Environment 2 Environment 3 Realism 2 3 4 1 N = 270.06 .06 .07 .15\*\* .32\*\*\* .17\* .14 .14 Company A Company B .13 **-.23**\* -.15 .02 .17 Company C .14 .10 .25

(Controlling for the effects of Congruence - the exception is period 1 where zero-order correlations are recorded in the table because Congruence was not measured on that occasion).

<sup>\*\*\*</sup> p \ 0.001
\*\* p \ 0.01

<sup>\*</sup> p ≤ 0.05 (1 tailed test)

# 7.4 HYPOTHESES EMERGING FROM PARTICULAR SOCIALISATION AND STUDY STAGES.

This section is interested in testing the following hypotheses:

- H53: Employee scores on the attitude measure of Realism will decline between Tl and T4 (the four measuring occasions). Similarly, employee scores on the attitude measures of Commitment and the ten facets of the Working Environment will decline between T2 and T4 (the three measuring occasions).

  Supervisor Affect and Work Group Affect will reveal little change over time.
- H54: The greatest change in employee scores will occur in attitude measures of Realism and the ten facets of the Working Environment. Commitment will reveal less change over time.
- H55: For Realism, there will be less change in employee scores between Tl and T2, T2 and T3, T3 and T4. The main attitude change will occur between Tl and T4. Similarly, for the other attitude variables of Commitment and the ten facets of the Working Environment there will be less attitude change between T2 and T3 and T3 and T4 the main attitude change will occur between T2 and T4.
- H56: Different variables will be significant predictors of organisational commitment at different stages of the organisational entry process.

H57: There will be no difference between the samples on (i) the main attitude variables at the various study stages, and (ii) the main attitude variables between the study stages.

Hypotheses 53 to 55 were subjected to the analytical procedure of analysis of variance with repeated measures; hypothesis 56 was dealt with by multiple regression; while both analysis of variance with repeated measures and simple analysis of variance covered hypothesis 57. The full results are presented in Tables 7.53 to 7.74. However, to simplify matters summary versions of each particular type of result are given at the beginning of each set of tables.

The first summary table, Table 7.53 for H53 to H55, reveals that:

- i) there is no significant change in Realism over time with the exception of the T2 to T4 period (F=3.91, p  $\leq$  0.05)
- ii) there is no significant change in <u>Work</u>

  <u>Group Affect and Supervisor Affect</u> over

  time with the exception of the period

  between T2 and T3 for Supervisor Affect

  (F=4.11, p \ 0.05)
- iii) the variable <u>Commitment</u> shows a significant change over time on all time periods  $(p \le 0.001)$

the working environment variables of

Variety in the Job, Supervisor's Attitude
towards the employee, and Job Challenge
also show a significant change over time
on all time periods. The other working
environment variables of Job Security,
Physical Working Conditions, Freedom in
the Job, Pay, Attitude of Management,
and Management Decisions are
significantly different over time on three
occasions. However, the variable called
Travelling Time is not effected by change
over time.

Conclusion: H53: Supported except for variable called Realism

- H54: Partially supported: the exceptions are
  Realism (which does not decline over time)
  and Commitment (which shows considerable
  change not less- over time)
- H55: Not supported for Realism
  Supported for Commitment and nine of the ten
  facets of Working Environment.

The result for Realism is unexpected as most previous studies show that new employees usually experience the phenomenon called 'reality shock' in the first few months of employment. This does not occur in this study. Instead, it seems that the everyday visibility of the job prior to employment results in reasonable overall expectation levels amongst new employees which are not challenged by later experience.

However, when it comes to the various aspects of the working environment, there are considerable changes in employee attitudes over time. The changes occur in both intrinsic and extrinsic aspects of the job. The same phenomenon is experienced for Commitment. It appears, then, that the new employees in this study entered their organisations with certain attitude levels, predispositions or expectations about facets of their working environment which altered significantly as they became more familiar with reality. further they were away from entry, the greater the change in These variables thus give a better indication attitudes. of how the new employees are thinking than the Realism scale. In other words, the more general Realism scale does not produce a change in attitude like the more specific scales. The fact that these variables have altered suggests evidence of 'reality shock'.

Tables 7.59 to 7.68 present the multiple regression results for the hypothesis that different variables will be significant predictors of organisational commitment at different stages of the organisational entry process. Because the variable Congruence (job involvement) proved to be highly related to Commitment, and would therefore substantially influence the regression results, two steps were taken to enable the assessment of the hypothesis. First, regressions were run for the relationship between Commitment and demographic variables only (Tables 7.60 to 7.63). Secondly, another regression analysis was run (Tables 7.64 to

of Congruence and some other job involvement related variables — that is, the facets of the working environment describing variety in the job, job challenge and freedom in the job. While theoretically these variables would have been partialled out in the multiple regression analysis, the existence of the high correlation between Congruence and Commitment meant that most of the variance in Commitment would have been explained by Congruence. The effects of any other variables would have been so diminished that they would have failed to enter the equation. The regressions were run for N=270 only because of the large number of variables.

The <u>first summary table</u>, Table 7.59 for demographics only, reveals that <u>age</u>, and <u>company name and reputation</u> remain consistent predictors of organisational commitment across the four measuring occasions. The fact that individuals are <u>satisfied with the company</u> is a consistent predictor on three occasions. Other variables enter the equation but are mainly significant for one period only. The demographic variables account for 15 per cent of the variance in commitment in Stage 1 (R<sup>2</sup>=.15), 38 per cent in Stage 2, 44 per cent in Stage 3 and 45 per cent in Stage 4.

The <u>second summary table</u>, Table 7.64 for all variables except Congruence and three related variables, reveals that <u>Search</u>, <u>age and Realism</u> remain consistent positive predictors of organisational commitment across all four study stages, while

being female is a consistent negative predictor. Other variables entering the equation at Stage 2 (when they were first measured), and remaining consistent predictors, are Pay, Work Group Affect and being satisfied with the company. Numerous other variables are predictors of commitment at various study stages. In Stage 1 a total of eight variables explain 30 per cent of the variance in commitment; in Stage 2 ten variables are predictors (R<sup>2</sup>=.69); in Stage 3 ten variables explain 71 per cent of the variance; and in 13 variables account for 73 per cent of the variance. It seems then that for the subjects in this study the variables chosen for examination explain a large proportion of the variance in organisational commitment in three of the four study stages. Study stage 1 explains less variance as a smaller number of variables are measured in that period. Moreover, a comparison of summary tables 7.59 and 7.64 reveals that demographic and social-psychological variables each account for about 50 per cent of the explained variance. Both appear to be equally important in the adaptation of the individual to the organisation.

H56 (Tables 7.59 to 7.68) Supported

Conclusion: Different variables are significant predictors of organisational commitment at different stages of the organisational entry process.

Finally, hypothesis 57 postulates no difference between the three samples on (i) the main attitude variables at the

between study stages. The results are presented in Tables
7.69 to 7.74. The information contained in summary Table 7.69
is drawn from Tables 7.54 to 7.58 (these tables contain
the results of the analysis of variance with repeated
measures for both time and samples - the summary version of
the time information was presented earlier in Table 7.53).

Summary Table 7.69 reveals that there are consistent differences amongst the samples between time periods for the variables of Realism, Variety in Job, and Physical Working Conditions. Considerable differences are also experienced on the variables Supervisor Affect, Freedom in the Job, Pay and Attitude of Management. The other variables are either non-significant or significant at one time difference only. The results suggest that the differences are due to the fundamental nature of the samples <sup>1</sup> and the effects of differences in organisational functioning.

Summary Table 7.70 reveals the simple analysis of variance results for comparisons between the three samples at the various study stages. The samples differ on both Realism and Physical Working Conditions for three study stages; on Variety in Job and Job Security for two study stages; and on six other variables for one stage only. Hence, there are fewer

Appendix C presents the results of an analysis of variance of the three samples on the main demographic variables. The three samples differ in respect to age, extent of previous retail experience, extent of previous sales experience, and extent of present company experience.

differences between the groups <u>at</u> particular study stages than <u>between</u> study stages. However, it is felt that the differences that exist are due to the same reasons effecting Table 7.69.

H57 (Tables 7.69 to 7.74); Generally not supported

Conclusion: Differences do exist between the samples on both (i) the particular study stage and (ii) between study stages. It is felt these differences arise because of fundamental differences in the samples themselves and the effects of organisational functioning.

### Summary:

The results of the hypotheses testing in this section are as follows:

н53:	(Decline in Variables over time)	Supported
н54:	(Which variables decline)	Partially supported
н55:	(Extent and time of decline)	Generally supported
H56:	(Predictors of commitment)	Supported
н57: /	(Differences between samples)	Not supported

These results are perhaps the most important in the study as they reveal what happens to the various predictors of commitment over time. Only two previous studies (Buchanan, 1972;

Van Maanen, 1972, 1975) have actually produced information in this area. This study advances their work by longitudinally examining at what stages certain variables become important and various attitudes change. These findings, which have implications for personnel and training policies, are discussed in more detail in the concluding chapter.

TABLE 7.53

SUMMARY TABLE OF CHANGE IN MAIN ATTITUDE VARIABLES

### OVER TIME (N=270)

### Time Period

Variable	l and 2	l and 3	1 and 4	1 to 4 combined
Realism				
	2 and 3	3 and 4	2 and 4	2 to 4 combined
****	z and 3	J and 4	Z dild 4	Z CO 4 COMDINEC
Realism			3.91*	
Work Group Affect				
Supervisor Affect	4.11*			
Commitment	11.10***	4.15***	15.41***	11.61***
Variety	8.46**	6.12*	21.92***	13.191***
Job Security		6.74**	11.94***	8.31***
Physical	8.67**	,	13.52***	8.33***
Freedom in Job		13.10***	5.95*	7.13***
Pay		18.53***	22.35***	16.46***
Supervisor's Atti.	5.24*	6.48*	17.08***	12.53***
Job Challenge	16.91***	9.24**	34.38***	23.64***
Att. of Management	14.75***		12.42***	11.26***
Management Dec.	14.48***		25.51***	15.64***
Travel Time				

All F values

\*\*\* p **(**0.001

\*\* p **(**0.01

\* p **(**0.05

TABLE 7.54

ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE WITH REPEATED MEASURES

### FOR REALISM

### Time 1 and Time 2

Effect	SS	Df	MS	F
Realism				
Group	1104.91	2	552.46	4.00*
Time	.98	1	.98	.02
G x T	111.78	2	55.89	.97
	<del></del>			
		<u>Time l</u>	and Time 3	
Realism				:
Group	1230.24	2	615.12	4.67**
Time	10.42	1	10.42	.19
G ж Т	228.58	2	114.29	2.06
		Time 1		
Realism				
Group	1375.48	2	687.74	5.03**
Time	100.53	1	100.53	1.66
G x T	309.05	2	154.52	2.56

<sup>\*\*\*</sup> p 0.001

<sup>\*\*</sup> p 0.01

<sup>\*</sup> p 0.05

TABLE 7.55

ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE WITH REPEATED MEASURES FOR

INDEPENDENT VARIABLES ON TIME 2 and TIME 3

EFFECT	SS	df	MS	F
Realism				
Group	1671.63	2	835.81	3.81*
Time	17.78	1	17.78	.68
G ж Т	20.67	1	10.33	.39
Work Group Affect				
Group	113.40	2	56.70	.61
Time	.02	1	.02	.00
G x T	27.21	2	13.60	.87
Supervisor Affect				
Group	804.70	2	402.35	3.71*
Time	89.63	1	89.63	4.11*
G x T	60.14	2	30.09	1.38
Commitment				
Group	2047.35	2	1023.67	2.39
Time	430.23	1	430.23	11.10***
G x T	78.77	2	39.38	1.02
Variety in Job				
Group	63.21	2	31.60	6.54**
Time	9.33	1	9.33	8.46**
G x T	2.71	2	1.36	1.23
Job Security				
Group	28.18	2	14.09	4.29*
Time	2.26	1	2.26	2.06
G x T	.92	2	.46	.41

### TABLE 7.55 (cont.)

EFFECT	SS	df	MS	F
Physical Working Cond.				
Group	93.41	2	46.70	10.06***
Time	`10.42	1	10.42	8.67**
G x T	2.34	2	1.17	.97
Freedom in Job				
Group	43.11	2	21.56	4.98**
Time	.27	1	.27	.20
G x T	3.70	2	1.85	1.39
Pay				
Group	57.80	2	28.90	5.13**
Time	1.45	1	1.45	1.42
G x T	5.82	2	2.91	2.84
Supervisor's Attitude				
Group	3.14	2	1.57	.54
Time	6.45	1	6.45	5.24*
G x T	2.94	2	1.46	1.19
Job Challenge				
Group	10.80	2	5.40	1.02
Time	17.07	1	17.07	16.91***
G x T	.40	2	.20	.20
Att. of Management			V	
Group	12.22	2	6.11	1.74
Time	17.78	1	17.78	14.75***
G x T	10.25	2	5.12	4.24*
Management Decisions				
Group	13.51	2	6.75	1.94
Time	14.01	1	14.01	14.48***
G x T	8.13	2	4.07	4.20*
Travel time				
Group	29.03	2	14.52	2.42
Time	.02	1	.02	.02
G x T	.41	2	.20	.22

ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE WITH REPEATED MEASURES FOR INDEPENDENT
VARIABLES BETWEEN TIME 3 AND TIME 4

EFFECT	SS	df	MS	F
Realism				
Group	2153.23	2	1076.62	4.73**
Time	46.23	1	46.23	2.38
G x T	6.89	2	3.45	.18
Work Group Affect				
Group	196.13	2	98.07	.97
Time	.01	1	.01	.00
G x T	35.57	2	17.78	1.54
Supervisor Affect				
Group	896.48	2	448.24	3.28*
Time	20.81	1	20.81	1.37
G x T	32.69	2	16.35	1.07
Commitment				
Group	1310.54	2	655.27	1.39
Time	131.03	1	131.03	4.15*
G x T	118.16	2	59.08	1.87
Variety in Job				
Group	50.71	2	24.36	4.50*
Time	6.45	1	6.45	6.12*
G x T	.91	2	.46	.43
Job Security		<b>\</b>		
Group	17.62	2	8.81	2.18
Time	5.81	1	5.81	6.74*
G <b>х</b> Т	5.25	2	2.62	3.05*
Physical Work. Cond.				
Group	120.84	2	60.42	12.62***
Time	.82	1	.82	.75
G x T	.40	2	.20	.18
	.1	<u>.L</u>	<u> </u>	<u> </u>

<u>TABLE 7.56 (cont.)</u>

EFFECT	SS	df	MS	F
Freedom in Job				
Group	19.74	2	9.87	1.92
Time	13.69	1	13.69	13.10***
G x T	1.07	2	.53	.51
Pay				, , , , , , , , , , , , , , , , , , , ,
Group	35.09	2	17.55	2.89
Time	17.42	1	17.42	18.53***
G x T	1.02	2	.51	.54
Supervisor's Attitude				
Group	9.48	2	4.73	1.11
Time	5.60	1	5.60	6.48*
G x T	.07	2	.03	.04
Job Challenge				
Group	7.82	2	3.91	.64
Time	8.31	1	8.31	9.24**
G x T	1.02	2	.51	.57
Atti. of Management				
Group	35.96	2	17.98	4.42*
Time	.03	1	.03	.03
G x T	2.11	2	1.06	1.16
Management Decisions				
Group	25.42	2	12.72	3.46*
Time	2.82	1	2.82	3.43
G х Т	3.34	2	1.67	2.03
Travel time				
Group	19.62	2	9.81	1.46
Time	1.45	1	1.45	1.95
G x T	.34	2	.17	.23
	<u>                                     </u>	L	l	<u> </u>

ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE WITH REPEATED MEASURES FOR INDEPENDENT VARIABLES BETWEEEN TIME 2 AND TIME 4

Realism Group Time	1868.22			
	1868.22			1
mi		2	934.11	4.17*
Time	121.36	1	121.36	3.91*
G x T	49.78	2	24.89	.80
Work Group Affect				<del>                                      </del>
Group	121.54	2	60.77	.64
Time	.03	1	.03	.01
G x T	17.82	2	8.91	.44
Supervisor Affect				
Group	540.56	2	270.28	2.51
Time	24.07	1	24.07	.77
G x T	4.54	2	2.27	.07
Commitment				
Group	1213.67	2	606.83	1.45
Time	1036.12	1	1036.12	15.41***
G x T	254.83	2	127.41	1.89
Variety in Job				
Group	49.26	2	24.63	4.85**
Time	31.29	1	31.29	21.92***
G x T	4.55	2	2.27	1.59
Job Security				
Group	13.51	2	6.75	1.92
Time	15.33	1	15.33	11.94***
G x T	8.28	2	4.14	3.22*
Physical Work. Cond.				
Group	90.14	2	45.07	9.53***
Time	17.07	1	17.07	13.52***
G x T	1.88	2	.94	.74

TABLE 7.57 (cont)

EFFECT	SS	df	MS	F
Freedom ın Job				
Group	30.71	2	15.35	3.33*
Time	10.14	1	10.14	5.95*
G x T	7.04	2	3.52	2.06
Pay				
Group	66.18	2	33.09	5.67**
Time	28.93	1	28.93	22.35***
G x T	2.85	2	1.43	1.10
Supervisor's Att.				
Group	3.84	2	1.92	.62
Time	24.07	1	24.07	17.08***
G x T	2.71	2	1.35	.96
Job Challenge				
Group	6.62	2	3.31	.66
Time	49.20	1	40.20	34.38***
G x T	2.22	2	1.11	.78
Att. of Management				
Group	24.41	2	12.20	3.84*
Time	16.36	1	16.36	12.42***
G x T	11.82	2	5.91	4.48*
Management Decisions				
Group	8.23	2	4.12	1.19
Time	29.30	1	20.40	25.51***
G x T	1.88	2	.94	.81
Travel time				
Group	23.88	2	11.94	1.95
Time	1.78	1	1.78	1.36
GxT	1.48	2	.74	.57

TABLE 7.58

ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE WITH REPEATED MEASURES FOR INDEPENDENT VARIABLES - TIMES 1 to 4 COMBINED.

EFFECT	SS	df	MS	F
Realism				
Group	3013.45	2	1506.72	4.75**
Time	148.65	3	49.55	1.19
G x T	363.37	6	60.56	1.45
	TIMES	2 to 4 COM	BINED.	
Work Group Affect				
Group	202.11	2	101.05	.74
Time	.03	2	.02	.01
G x T	53.74	4	13.43	.85
Supervisor Affect				
Group	1104.64	2	552.32	3.35*
Time	89.67	2	44.83	1.97
G x T	64.92	4	16.23	.71
Commitment				
Group ,	2210.49	2	1105.24	1.74
Time	1064.92	2	532.46	11.61***
G x T	301.17	4	75.29	1.64
Variety in Job	8920.07	2	4490.03	5.75**
Time	3589.16	2	1794.58	13.91***
G x T	676.59	4	169.15	1.31
Job Security				
Group	2598.76	2	1298.38	2.51
Time	1889.16	2	944.58	8.31***
G x T	1039.89	4	259.97	2.29
Physical Work. Cond.				
Group	14686.96	2	7343.48	10.45***
Time	2100.51	2	1050.26	8.33***
GxT	400.83	4	100.21	.79
		I	<u> </u>	<u> </u>

TABLE 7.58 (cont)

EFFECT	SS	df	MS	F
Freedom in Job				
Group	5443.87	2	2721.93	3.77*
Time	2064.86	2	1032.43	7.13***
GxT	822.37	4	205.59	1.42
Pay				
Group	8255.20	2	4127.60	4.72**
Time	3755.85	2	1868.93	16.46***
GxT	593.59	4	148.40	1.31
Supervisor's Att.		+		
Group	924.58	2	462.29	.89
Time	3147.03	2	1573.51	12.53***
GxT	411.05	4	102.76	.82
Job Challenge				
Group	1610.44	2	805.22	.96
Time	5598.88	2	2799.44	23.64***
GxT	322.77	4	.80.69	.68
Att. of Management	<del></del>			
Group	3707.58	2	1853.79	3.34*
Time	2808.45	2	1404.22	11.26***
G x T	1811.49	4	452.87	3.63**
Management Decisions	* *			
Group	2235.45	2	1117.73	2.13
Time	3214.24	2	1607.12	15.64***
GxT	910.15	4	227.53	2.21
Travel Time				
Group	3589.88	2	1794.94	2.01
Time	216.54	2	108.27	1.09
GxT	148.64	4	37.16	.37

TABLE 7.59

SUMMARY TABLE OF DEMOGRAPHIC VARIABLES IN REGRESSION

EQUATION OVER FOUR STUDY PERIODS ( N= 270)

VARIABLE	11	2	3	4
Age	x	х	х	x
Company Name & reputation	x	x	×	х
Job Satisfaction (reason for working)	x	x		
Satisfied with company		x	х	x
Changing jobs/department		x(-)		
No relatives in past		x (-)		
Friends in past	,		х	
Satisfied with job			х	
Haven't tried to change company				x
Size of work group (2 to 4 people)				x(-)
	<u> </u>			

 $R^2$ =.15  $R^2$ =.38  $R^2$ =.44  $R^2$ =.45

TABLE 7.60

Stepwise Multiple Regression Depicting Impact of

Demographic Variables only on Organisational

Commitment

### Questionnaire 1 only

Variable	Standardised Coefficient	Change in R <sup>2</sup>
Age	.30***	.09
Company Name & Reputation	.21***	.04
Job Satisfaction (reason for working)	.13*	.02
Constant	53.29	
	R <sup>2</sup> =.15	
	df = (3,266)	
	F = 15.84	
ı	p <b>≤</b> 0.001	

TABLE 7.61

# Stepwise Multiple Regression Depicting Impact of Demographic Variables only on Organisational Commitment

### Time Periods 1 and 2 (No attitude variables)

Variable	Standardised Coefficient	Change in R <sup>2</sup>
Satisfied with company	.49***	.24
Age	.26***	.07
Company name & reputation	.18***	.03
Job Satisfaction (reason for working)	.3**	.02
Changing job/department	12*	.01
No relatives in past	12*	.01
Constant	45.55	

$$R^2 = .38$$
 $df = (6,263)$ 
 $F = 27.87$ 
 $p \le 0.001$ 

**TABLE 7.62** 

### Stepwise Multiple Regression Results depicting the

### Impact of Demographic Variables only on

### Organisational Commitment

### Time Periods 1 and 3 only

Variable	Standardised Coefficient	Change in R <sup>2</sup>
Satisfied with company	.59***	.35
Age	.25***	.05
Friends in past	.11*	.02
Company name and reputation	.10*	.01
Satisfied with job	.13*	.01
Constant	34.24	

$$R^2 = .44$$
 $df = (5,264)$ 
 $F = 41.88$ 
 $p \le 0.001$ 

TABLE 7.63

### Stepwise Multiple Regression Results depicting the Impact of Demographic Variables only on

### Organisational Commitment

### Time Periods 1 and 4 only

58*** .33	
24*** .04	
24*** .03	
10* .01	
36	
	24*** .03 16*** .03

$$R^2 = .45$$
 $df = (5,264)$ 
 $F = 43.69$ 
 $p \le 0.001$ 

SUMMARY OF ALL VARIABLES ENTERING THE MULTIPLE REGRESSION EQUATION

FOR ORGANISATIONAL COMMITMENT OVER FOUR STUDY PERIODS (n=270)

(Congruence and three Working Environment variables omitted)

VARIABLE	1	2	3	4
Search	x	x	x	x
Age	x	x	x	x
Realism	x	×	x	x
Company name & reputation	x		x	
Permanent status	x (-)			
Professional occupations	x (-)		<u>.</u>	
Female	x (-)	x(-)	x(-)	x(-)
Social Desirability	x			
Pay		x	x	x
Management Decisions		x	x	
Satisfied with company		х	x	x
Work Group Affect		x	x	x
Supervisor Affect		x		x
Supervisor's Attitude		x (-)		
Long time to find job			x	İ
Friendly attit.of management			x	x
Tried to change company				x(-)
Work with one other person				x
Hours (reason for joining)		:		x

 $R^2 = .30$   $R^2 = .69$   $R^2 = .71$   $R^2 = .73$ 

(-) denotes negative relationship

TABLE 7.65

## Stepwise Multiple Regression Depicting impact of combined variables on Organisational Commitment Time Period 1

### (Congruence and three other variables omitted)

Variable	Standardised Coefficient
Search	.35***
Age	. 27***
Realism 1	.18***
Company name & reputation	.15**
Permanent status	13*
Professional occupations	12*
Female	12*
Social Desirability	.11*
Constant	24.63

$$R^2 = .30$$
 $df = (8,261)$ 
 $F = 14.06$ 
 $p \le 0.001$ 

TABLE 7.66

Stepwise Multiple Regression Equation Depicting impact
of combined variables on Organisational Commitment
Time Period 2

(Congruence and three other variables omitted)

tandardised cefficient	Change in R <sup>2</sup>
.59***	.35
.39***	.13
.25***	.06
.25***	.05
.18***	.02
.19***	.02
.14***	.02
.12*	.008
09*	.008
11*	.006
-11.44	
	.59*** .39*** .25*** .25*** .18*** .19*** .14*** .12*09*11*

$$R^2 = .69$$
 $df = (10,259)$ 
 $F = 56.79$ 
 $p < 0.001$ 

<sup>\*\*</sup> p**<**0.01

<sup>\*</sup> p < 0.05

**TABLE** 7.67

## Stepwise Multiple Regression Equation depicting impact of combined variables on Organisational

### Commitment (n=270)

Time Period 3

### (Congruence and three other variables omitted)

Variable	Standardised Coefficient	Increase in R <sup>2</sup>
Management Decisions	.60***	.36
Satisfied with company	.42***	.15
Work Group. Affect	.31***	.08
Realism 3	.29***	.04
Search	.22***	.02
Pay	.19***	.02
Age	.14***	.02
Long time to find job	.07*	.006
Female	08*	.006
Friendly attitude of management	.11*	.006
Constant	.22	

$$R^2 = .73$$
 $df = (10,259)$ 
 $F = 63.57$ 
 $p < 0.001$ 

**TABLE 7.68** 

## Stepwise Multiple Regression Equation depicting impact of combined variables on Organisational

### Commitment (N=270)

### Time Period 4

(Congruence and three other variables omitted)

Variable	Standardised Coefficient	Change in R <sup>2</sup>
Work group affect	.62***	.38
Satisfied with company	.43***	.17
Pay	.30***	.07
Realism 4	.23***	.04
Company name & reputation	.13***	.02
Search	.12***	.02
Tried to change company	16***	.01
Female	10**	.01
Friendly attitude of management	.13**	.01
Age	.10**	.01
Supervisor Affect	.11*	.005
Work with one other person	.07*	.004
Hours (reason for joining)	.07*	.004
Constant	3.05	
	$R^2 = .73$	

$$R^{2}=.73$$

$$df = (13, 256)$$

$$F = 55.79$$

$$*** p \le 0.001$$

$$** p \le 0.001$$

\* p **≤**0.05

TABLE 7.69

SUMMARY TABLE OF ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE RESULTS OF

COMPARISONS BETWEEN GROUPS BETWEEN STUDY STAGES

Time Periods VARIABLE l and 2 l and 3 l and 4 1 to 4 Realism 4.00\* 4.67\*\* 5.03\*\* 4.75\*\* 2 and 3 3 and 4 2 and 4 2 to 4 Realism 3.81\* 4.73\*\* 4.17\* Work Group Affect Supervisor Affect 3.71\* 3.28\* 3.35\* Commitment Variety in Job 6.54\*\* 4.50\* 4.85\*\* 5.75\*\* Job Security 4.29\* Physical Work. 10.06\*\*\* 12.62\*\*\* 9.53\*\*\* 10.45\*\*\* Freedom in job 4.98\*\* 3.33\* 3.77\* Pay 5.13\*\* 5.67\*\* 4.72\*\* Supervisor's Att. Job Challenge

4.42\*

3.46\*

3.84\*

3.34\*

Att. of Manag.

Management Dec.

Travel Time

<sup>\*\*\*</sup> p \left\( 0.001 \)

<sup>\*\*</sup> p < 0.01

<sup>\*</sup> p \( 0.05

TABLE 7.70

SUMMARY TABLE OF ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE RESULTS OF

COMPARISON BETWEEN GROUPS AT THE MAIN STUDY STAGES

Variable	Stage l	Stage 2	Stage 3	Stage 4
Realism	3.57*		4.08*	4.65*
Search	4.34*			
Social Desir.				
Commitment				
Work Group Affect				
Supervisor Affect			4.36*	
Variety in Job		5.92**	5.22**	
Job Security		3.27*	3.37*	:
Physical Work.		5.58**	10.91***	9.76***
Freedom in Job		5.52**		
Pay		7.10***		
Supervisor's Att.				
Job Challenge				
Att. of Manag.				5.45**
Management Dec.			4.65*	
Travel time				

TABLE 7.71

ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE RESULTS FOR COMPARISON BETWEEN

GROUPS ON STUDY VARIABLES AT STAGE 1

SOURCE	SS	đf	MS	F
Realism				
Between Groups	491.61	2	245.80	3.57*
Within Groups	18369.67	267	68.80	
,				
Search			į	
Between Groups	938.05	2	469.02	4.34*
Within Groups	28825.66	267	107.96	
Social Desirability				
Between Groups	30.27	2	15.14	.18
Within Groups	22168.11	267	83.03	

TABLE 7.72

ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE RESULTS FOR COMPARISON BETWEEN

GROUPS ON STUDY VARIABLES AT STAGE 2 (TIME 2)

SOURCE	ss	df	MS	F
Realism				
Between Groups	725.09	2	372.54	2.86
Within Groups	33785.61	267	126.54	
Commitment				
Between Groups	1982.95	2	541.48	2.40
Within Groups	60153.84	267	225.29	2.40
within Groups	00155.84	207	223.29	
Work Group Affect	•			
Between Groups	24.14	2	12.07	.22
Within Groups	14904.41	267	55.82	
Supervisor Affect				
Between Groups	240.38	2	120.19	2.05
Within Groups	15671.32	267	58.69	
Variety in Job				
Betweeen Groups	34.05	2	17.03	5.92**
Within Groups	767.93	267	2.88	
Job Security				
Betweeen Groups	14.01	2	7.01	3.27*
Within Groups	572.01	267	2.14	
Physical Work. Cond.				
Between Groups	33.27	2	16.63	5.58*
Within Groups	795.93	267	2.98	
William Of Oupp	, 33.33	20,		
Freedom in Job				
Between Groups	31.87	2	15.94	5.52**
Within Groups	771.22	267	2.98	
		1		

TABLE 7.72 (cont)

SOURCE	SS	đf	MS	F
Pay				
Between Groups	48.27	2	24.14	7.10***
Within Groups	907.08	267	3.40	
Supervisor's Att.				
Between Groups	1.54	2	.77	.44
Within Groups	465.29	267	1.74	
Job Challenge				
Betweeen Groups	5.60	2	2.80	.96
Within Groups	776.40	267	2.91	
*,				
Att. of Management		1		
Between Groups	10.32	2	5.16	2.44
Within Groups	564.96	267	2.11	
Management Decisions				
Between Groups	1.49	2	.74	.33
Within Groups	609.48	267	2.28	
Travel time				
Between Groups	17.42	2	8.71	2.53
Within Groups	920.74	267	3.45	

TABLE 7.73

ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE RESULTS FOR COMPARISON BETWEEN

GROUPS ON STUDY VARIABLES FOR TIME 3.

2 267 2	483.60 118.55	4.08*
267		4.08*
267		4.08*
	118.55	
2		
2		
1	521.58	2.16
267	241.22	
2	58.24	1.09
267	53.29	
2	312.22	4.36*
267	71.60	
2	15.94	5.22**
267	3.05	
•		
2	7.54	3.37*
267	2.24	
2	31.24	10.91***
267	2.86	
2	7.47	2.71
267	2.76	
	2 2 2 6 7 2 2 2 6 7 2 2 2 2	2 58.24 267 53.29 2 312.22 267 71.60 2 15.94 267 3.05 2 7.54 267 2.24 2 31.24 267 2.86

TABLE 7.73 (cont)

SOURCE	SS	df	MS	F
Pay				
Between Groups	15.35	2	7.68	2.35
Within Groups	871.61	267	3.26	
Supervisor's Att.				
Between Groups	4.54	2	2.27	.96
Within Groups	633.17	267	2.37	
Job Challenge				
Between Groups	5.60	2	2.80	.82
Within Groups	906.27	267	3.39	
Att. of Management				
Between Groups	12 <b>.1</b> 5	2	6.08	2.33
Within Groups	695.31	267	2.60	
Management Decisions				
Between Groups	20.15	2	10.08	4.65*
Within Groups	579.04	267	2.17	
Travel Time				
Between Groups	12.02	2	6.01	1.73
Within Groups	929.44	267	3.48	
		<u></u>	1	<b></b>

ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE RESULTS FOR COMPARISON BETWEEN
GROUPS ON STUDY VARIABLES FOR TIME 4

SOURCE	SS	df	MS	F
Realism				
Between Groups	1192.92	2	596.47	4.65*
Within Groups	34242.12	267	128.25	
Commitment				
Between Groups	385.54	2	192.77	.74
Within Groups	69474.75	267	260.20	
Work Group Affect				
Between Groups	115.23	2	57.61	.97
Within Groups	15794.79	267	59.16	
Supervisor Affect	_			
Between Groups	304.72	2	152.36	1.89
Within Groups	21435.88	267	80.28	
Varıety in Job				
Between Groups	19.75	2	9.88	2.70
Within Groups	969.71	267	3.63	
Job Security				
Between Groups	7.78	2	3.89	1.46
Within Groups	709.04	267	2.66	
Physical Work. Cond.				
Between Groups	58.75	2	29.38	9.76***
Within Groups	803.91	267	3.01	
Job Challenge				
Between Groups	5.87	2	2.94	.86
Within Groups	914.28	267	3.42	

436.
TABLE 7.74 (cont)

SOURCE	SS	đf	MS	F
Pay				
Between Groups	20.76	2	10.38	2.78
Within Groups	995.53	267	3.73	
Supervisor's Att.				
Between Groups	5.01	2	2.50	.90
Within Groups	740.53	267	2.77	
Job Challenge				
Between Groups	3.25	2	1.63	.46
Within Groups	951.34	267	3.56	
Att. of Management				
Between Groups	25.92	2	12.96	5.45**
Within Groups	635.18	267	2.38	
Management Decisions				
Between Groups	8.62	2	4.31	1.85
Within Groups	622.34	267	2.33	
Travel Time				,
Between Groups	7.94	2	3.97	.98
Within Groups	1063.78	267	3.98	
	<u> </u>		<u>t</u>	<u> </u>

#### 7.5 CONCLUDING HYPOTHESIS

Although expressed as the concluding hypothesis, H58 is actually the main interest and objective of this study. Specifically it states that:

"The development of, or predisposition towards, organisational commitment is the result of a mixture of 'side-bet' (personal) variables, social-psychological influences and socialisation influences".

No special statistical analysis was conducted for this hypothesis - instead, its results are drawn from the multiple regression analysis performed for hypothesis 56. However, to answer H58 the results are arranged under variable categories rather than in standardised tabular form.

Table 7.64 reveals that a number of variables emerge as predictors of organisational commitment in the four study stages. These are presented in Tables 7.75 to 7.78 in the new form.

The new tables reveal that, with the exception of socialisation variables in Study Stage 1 (Table 7.75), a number of 'side-bet!, socialisation and social-psychological influences are predictors of organisational commitment. Thus, it can be concluded that:

H58 is <u>supported</u> by the data

Moreover, the hypothesis is supported across the whole four study stages despite the fact that some variables alter across the stages. Interestingly no anticipatory socialisation variables emerge as being significant, confirming the results obtained under bivariate analysis. demographic variables are important at all stages (supporting Becker thesis), they appear to be more so at entry while various socialisation and social-psychological variables (supporting the interpretation of the Ritzer and Trice thesis) become more prominent after entry. This study thus concludes in favour of both theoretical positions and also indicates when the variables become important. Another significant finding is that the study refutes Ritzer and Trice's view that commitment is due to psychological phenomena with 'side-bets' becoming important after considerable experience. Rather, this study has found the reverse position - 'side-bet' variables are important at entry, while psychological phenomena emerge after This finding has emerged because of the longitudinal nature of the study, the first one to examine the Becker/Ritzer and Trice controversy under such conditions. Finally, Tables 7.75 to 7.78 reveal that both attitudinal and behavioural variables are important determinants of commitment, confirming the views in Chapter 2 that both types are separate aspects of the same process.

Hypothesis 58 has thus revealed that a major proportion of the variance in commitment (up to 73 per cent in Stage 4) is explained by the variables in this study. While a complete understanding apparently depends on other variables outside the scope of this research, the new variables that have been included (notably socialisation ones) explain a substantial part of the influences on individuals. This is a major step forward as previous research has either been of a univariate nature or concerned with a few variables. The fact that Tables 7.75 to 7.78 reveal a number of variables as being important at different stages in the organisational entry process (a summary of these was given in Table 7.64), has import for organisational functioning, the implications of which will be discussed in the next chapter. At this stage it is sufficient to acknowledge that it is a significant step to find support for both the Becker and the interpretation of the Ritzer and Trice theories, and to show that the development of commitment is due to a number of influences, many of which have been identified here.

### **TABLE 7.75**

# Study Stage 1 - Entry of Individual to Organisation Variables Emerging as Predictors of Organisational Commitment

### 1. 'Side-bet' (Personal) Variables

Search (Job Search Behaviour)

Age (Demographic)

Company Name and Reputation (Demographic)

Female (Demographic - nega tive)

Permanent Status (Demographic - negative)

Professional occupations (Demographic - negative)

### 2. Socialisation Variables

Nil

### 3. Social-Psychological Variables

Realism

Social Desirability

#### TABLE 7.76

# Study Stage 2 - Encounter of Individual to Organisation Variables Emerging as Predictors of Organisational Commitment

#### 1. 'Side-bet' (Personal) Variables

Search (Job Search Behaviour)

Age (Demographic)

Female (Demographic - negative)

#### 2. Socialisation Variables

Work Group Affect (Socialising Influences inside Company)
Supervisor Affect (Socialising Influences inside Company)

#### 3. Social-Psychological Variables

Realism

Pay (Working Environment)

Management Decisions (Working Environment)

Supervisor's Attitude (Working Environment - negative)

#### 4. Behavioural

Satisfied with Company (Job Leaving Behaviour)

#### **TABLE** 7.77

# Study Stage 3 - Adjustment of Individual to Organisation (1) Variables emerging as predictors of Organisational Commitment

#### 1. 'Side-bet' (Personal) Variables

Search (Job Search Behaviour)

Age (Demographic)

Female (Demographic - negative )

Long time to find job (Job Search Behaviour)

#### 2. Socialisation Variables

Work Group Affect (Socialising Influences inside Company)

#### 3. <u>Social-Psychological Variables</u>

Realism

Management Decisions (Working Environment)

Pay (Working Environment)

Friendly attitude of Management (Working Environment)

#### 4. Behavioural

Satisfied with Company (Job Leaving Behaviour)

#### TABLE 7.78

### Study Stage 4 - Adjustment of Individual to Organisation (2) Variables emerging as predictors of Crganisational

#### Commitment

#### 1. 'Side-bet' (Personal) Variables

Company Name and Reputation (Job Search Behaviour)

Search (Job Search Behaviour)

Hours (Demographic)

Age (Demographic)

Female (Demographic - negative)

#### 2. Socialisation Variables

Work Group Affect (Socialising Influences inside Company)

Supervisor Affect (Socialising Influences inside Company)

Work with one other person ( " " " " " )

#### 3. Social-Psychological Variables

Realism

Pay (Working Environment)

Friendly Attitude of Management (Working Environment)

#### 4. Behavioural

Satisfied with company (Job Leaving Behaviour)

Tried to change company (Job Leaving Behaviour - negative)

#### 7.6 GENERAL SUMMARY

This study examined a total of 58 hypotheses pertaining to the influence of a large number of predictors upon commitment. The overall hypothesis, that commitment was due to multiple positive and negative predictors, was confirmed. However, a number of variable categories were not in the predicted direction. Their general findings are summarised below:

1.	Demographic Variables (Becker's theory)	Supported
2.	Anticipatory Socialisation	Not supported
3.	Realism (expectations)	Partially supported
4.	Job Search Behaviour (Becker's theory)	Generally not supported - the exception was Search
5.	Socialising Influences within the organisation	Supported
6.	Satisfaction with Working Environment (Social- Psychological Variables)	Partially supported
7.	Job Leaving Behaviours	Partially supported
8.	Hypotheses between predictor Variables	Partially supported
9.	Hypotheses emerging from particular socialisation and study stages.	Generally supported

10. Concluding Hypothesis

Supported

The implications of these results are discussed in the concluding chapter.

#### CHAPTER 8: DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

#### 81. INTRODUCTION

This study arose out of the researcher's professional interest into the ways employees became 'committed' to organisations. The interest had developed through a career involvement in inducting new entrants to company policies and practices, and her personal experiences of the socialisation process whenever she changed employment. The catalyst for interest, however, arose from a strongly contested argument with a colleague that she (the researcher) would never be 'Company X-ised' (meaning socialised). When, two years later, she found herself giving the 'doctrine' to a group of new entrants and actually believing what she said, she realised she had become the "very model of a modern major general". 1

This personal metamorphosis was especially interesting to the researcher, as on her very first day of employment in that particular company she had gone home to resign. Somewhere in that passage of time from the resignation attempt to the company 'pep-talks', a combination of external and internal forces had produced a 'committed' employee. What had caused the change? Some early articles by Schein (1968, 1971) provided some insight while knowledge was also gained through observation in situ of the behaviour patterns of

From Gilbert and Sullivan's Operetta "The Pirates of Penzance".

similarly 'committed' employees and a heightened interest in the researcher's own daily work activities. The question began to form that if some 'committed' employees could be produced by or in an organisation, why weren't all employees committed? As the researcher's daily work involved personnel and training duties, the question had both practical and academic relevance. From a company viewpoint employee turnover and low productivity were a major hindrance to the achievement of objectives; from an academic perspective the individual's satisfactory integration into his working environment was a vital consideration. How could the two viewpoints be meshed to achieve a reasonable individualorganisation accommodation? The study of commitment appeared to offer a direction, with the new entrant the focus of interest.

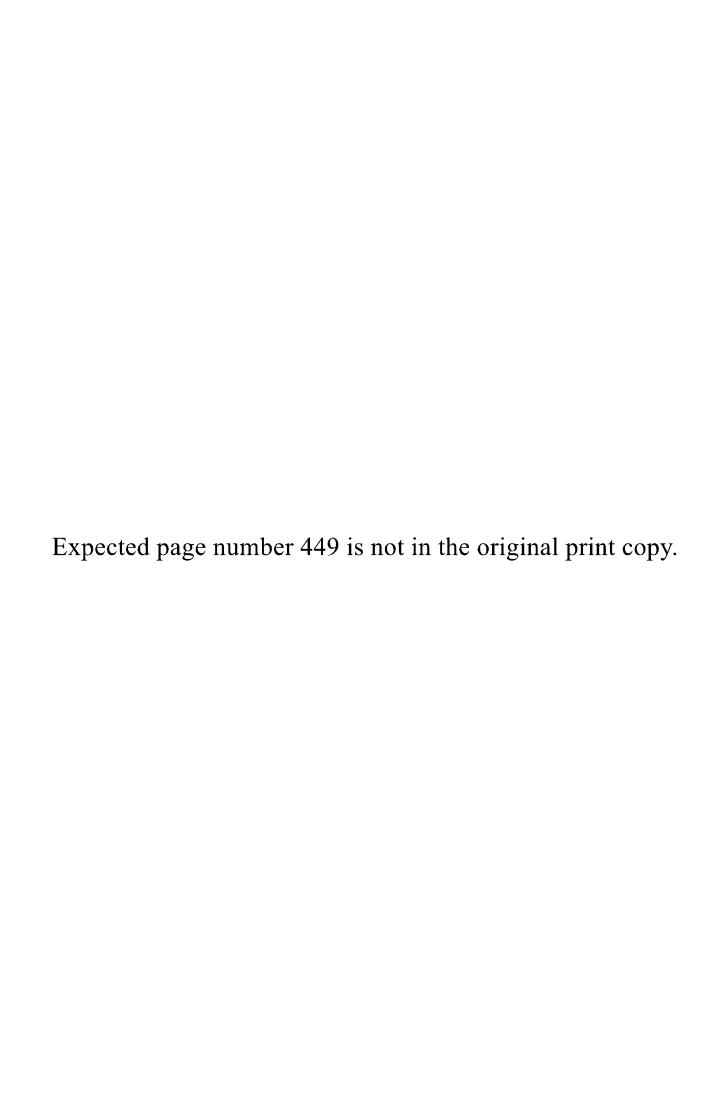
Chapter 2 revealed that the first few months were critical in the formation of the new employee's attitudes (Brim, 1968; Patten, 1969; Berlew and Hall, 1966; Schein, 1971; Wanous, 1973, 1976, 1979; Hall and Schneider, 1973; Van Maanen, 1975). This was because organisational entry was a period where "established relationships were severed and new ones forged, old behaviour patterns forgotten and new ones learned, former responsibilities abandoned and new ones taken on" (Van Maanen, 1977, pl6). Whilst a number of studies had investigated this period, only a few had considered it from a commitment viewpoint - these being Buchanan (1972, 1974), Van Maanen (1972, 1975) and Porter et al (1974, 1976). Van Maanen also

attempted to investigate the socialisation influences by studying new police recruits in situ, while Buchanan drew socialisation inferences from his combined cross-sectional and temporal work on business and government managers. However, no study had previously attempted the systematic investigation of the many variables hypothesised as influencing commitment during the first few months of employment. These variables included not only socialisation influences, demographics and psychographics, but also job search and job leaving behaviours. This study had this objective and the results of the findings are now discussed.

#### 8.2 GENERAL OVERALL FINDINGS.

Accordingly, this study investigated the organisational commitment of 270 new employees within three large retail organisations over their first four months of employment. The data assessment of the 58 hypotheses reveals the following main results:

- Result 1: the development of, or predisposition to, organisational commitment is the result of a mixture of 'side-bet', social-psychological and socialisation variables.
- Result 2: different variables appear to influence the organisational commitment of new retail employees at different stages of the organisational entry process. Although



some variables such as age are consistent over time, other variables become important at different socialisation stages.

- Result 3: 'Side-bet' variables appear to be the most important influences at entry. After entry social-psychological and socialisation variables become more dominant.
- Result 4: Evidence is provided in support of the Becker hypothesis. The literature interpretation of the Ritzer and Trice hypothesis into social-psychological variables also receives support. However, the Ritzer and Trice hypothesis that psychological phenomena come first is refuted by this study.
- Result 5: The attitude variables measuring an individual's affective response towards Realism (expectations), Supervisor Affect and Work Group Affect, remain stable over time. The attitude measures of Commitment and certain aspects of the working environment fluctuate or decline over the four month investigation. Commitment thus appears to be a less stable attitude than some others (a finding contrary to that of Porter et al, 1974)
- Result 6: The variables measuring Job Search Behaviour appear to bear little relationship to Commitment after an individual is employed.

  Instead, variables pertaining to the individual's participation in the organisation are the key factors in influencing attitudes.

  This suggests that variables such as Commitment are largely subject to 'situational' influences.

- Result 7: Anticipatory Socialisation variables appear to have little influence on levels of employee commitment in this study. This could be due to the measuring devices. However, socialising influences within the organisation such as the Work Group and the Supervisor have a great impact. This result is reinforced by the finding that socialising aspects of the work environment (Supervisor's attitude, Management Decisions etc) are also related to Commitment.
- Result 8: There is some evidence to suggest that 'hygiene' aspects of the working environment (such as pay, travelling time, physical working conditions) are more important indicators of organisational commitment than 'motivators' such as variety in the job, freedom in the job and job challenge. This finding is analogous to Feldman's (1976a) conclusions.
- Result 9: Lack of commitment is related to efforts to change employers but not to measures of absenteeism or efforts to change organisational job or department.
- Result 10: Differences exist between the three samples in both the variables effecting commitment and the changes experienced in attitudes between the study stages. These differences suggest particular organisational (or situational) influences, an issue noted but not examined in detail in this study.

The study thus provides evidence on the feelings of new employees as they progress through the various hypothesised socialisation stages of the organisational entry process. While

the socialisation process itself is difficult to quantify, the 'snapshots' of expressed attitudes and any changes at key phases illuminate the <u>outcome</u> of the socialisation process at that time. The interesting finding is that changes in employees' attitudes during the entry stages are not necessarily consistent - for instance, steady decline. While decline in attitudes is certainly in evidence (see Appendix B), sufficient fluctuations exist to suggest that attitude formation is <u>situational</u> and subject to <u>day-to-day influences</u>. Hence, it could be assumed that effective socialisation practices, applied at the appropriate time, could easily change attitudes.

The study also provides evidence on employee commitment attitudes right from the first stages of employment. While Van Maanen (1972, 1975) and Porter et al (1974, 1976) also measured commitment from the commencement of employment, one possible conclusion was not examined -namely, that commitment does not necessarily develop during an individual's participation in an organisation. Rather, this study indicates that individuals arrive with either favourable or unfavourable predispositions to their jobs and employers, and what happens to them afterwards either reinforces or negates these dispositions. This more natural explanation of the formation of the commitment attitude helps explain why some attitudes decline in the first few months of employment - that is, unrealistic or enthusiastic expectations mellow as individuals integrate into the organisation. However, one question is not

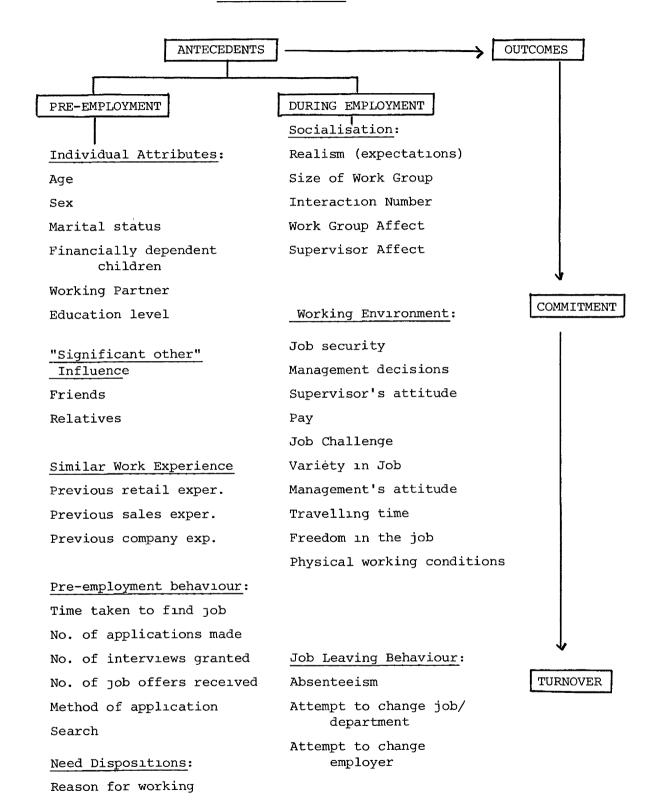
answered -namely, how far do individual attitudes decline over periods of time? Do they keep declining, level out or rise again at a later time? Only a future long term study will provide this information on the commitment attitude.

This study, then, not only successfully achieves its objective of investigating the organisational commitment of new employees but provides additional evidence on, and understanding of, the events and influences that effect them during their first four months of employment. The study commenced with a theoretical model of the influences effecting the formation of the commitment attitude (Diagram 8.1) and concludes with the empirical model depicted in Diagram 8.2 The significance of the major findings and their relevance to the theoretical literature are discussed in the next section.

#### DIAGRAM 8.1

#### MODEL OF THE DEVELOPMENT OF THE COMMITMENT ATTITUDE

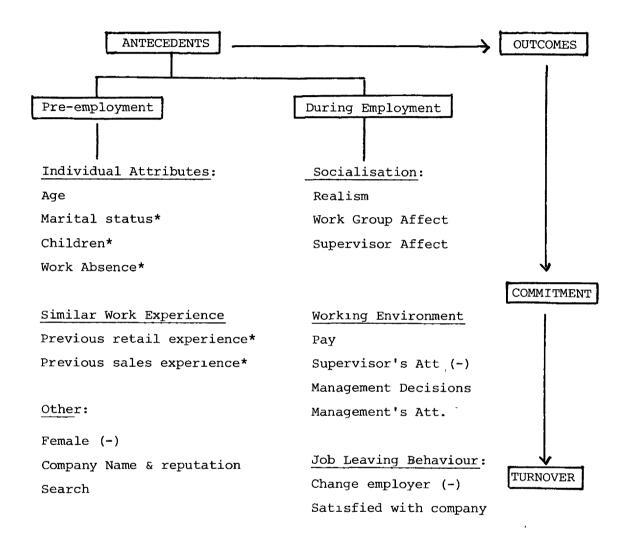
#### IN ORGANISATIONS



Reason for joining company

#### DIAGRAM 8.2

### VARIABLES ACTING AS PREDICTORS OF THE COMMITMENT ATTITUDE AMONGST 270 SALES ASSISTANTS IN THREE RETAIL ORGANISATIONS



<sup>\*</sup> Emerged under bivariate analysis and some variable 'set' multiple regressions but not in the final grand multiple regression equations for the various stages.

#### 8.3 SIGNIFICANCE OF THE MAJOR FINDINGS

One of the major concerns of this study was to provide further evidence on the Becker/Ritzer and Trice controversy. study found that contrary to the Ritzer and Trice results, the Becker hypothesis was supported; similarly, the socialpsychological interpretation of the Ritzer and Trice hypothesis was also supported. Hence, in this study both types of variables emerge as important determinants of organisational commitment. However, no evidence was found in support of the Ritzer and Trice psychological theory of commitment. Although not specifically studied in this research, being somewhat difficult to quantify, some significant findings might have emerged from the consideration of the 'side-bet' and social-psychological variables. The closest finding to the Ritzer and Trice theory is the evidence on the decline of attitudes after entry. It is felt that employees may have been 'psychologically committed' at entry only to find nonreinforcement of their feelings after entry. On the other hand, the Ritzer and Trice assumption that employees would be 'psychologically committed' to give 'meaning to their work lives' (1969,p478) is not supported.

This study feels that the Becker/Ritzer and Trice controversy is somewhat inconsequential. It originally arose from Ritzer and Trice's rejection of the Becker theory and their substitution of an alternative theory. However, the Ritzer

and Trice alternative theory has never been adequately tested. Most researchers have concentrated on proving the validity or otherwise of the Becker structural variables as it was on these grounds that Ritzer and Trice made their original rejection. This study is no exception - the Becker variables were again subject to empirical examination - this time producing evidence (but not total support) of the Becker hypothesis. Similarly, the current literature interpretation of the Ritzer and Trice theory as being represented by social-psychological variables is also supported. study feels that there is no real theoretical difference between the two. Rather, each position deals with a different situational set of variables effecting the development of organisational commitment. An examination of Tables 7.75 to 7.78, Chapter 7, tends to support this view. At the time of entry to the organisation, 'side-bet' variables emerge as better predictors of organisational commitment than social-psychological variables. At the time of encounter and initial adjustment (study stages 2 and 3), social-psychological variables emerge as being more influential than 'side-bet' variables. Finally, in the last adjustment stage (study stage 4), 'side-bet' variables have re-emerged as being more important. This tends to lend credence to the thought that commitment is a variable which is subject to situational influences; it also tends to support the view of the non-importance of the Becker/Ritzer and Trice controversy. In fact, this study's assessment of the Becker/ Ritzer and Trice controversy is similar to Mowday and McDade's

(1979) assessment of the behavioural versus attitudinal commitment debate - namely: they are not alternative theories - rather they are two explanations of different aspects of the same general process. This assertion will need further testing with a different population.

This study makes a further theoretical contribution with its discovery that different variables influence organisational commitment at different stages of the organisational entry process. Previous empirical work has either been concerned with a cross-section 'snap-shot' or a study of only the commitment attitude over time. This study's finding has great practical relevance as few organisational policies allow for the maintenance of commitment. Instead, management : usually assumes that commitment will develop over time, supported by consistent organisational policies. This study's finding suggests that varying organisational policies will be required if commitment levels are to be prevented from declining in the first few months of employment. As this period is when most turnover occurs a more adaptable approach on the part of management seems Instead of the current utilitarian approach (that essential. is, a few days of 'rules and regulations' followed by the usual 'sink or swim' introduction to the job or department), it would appear that organisations need to be more flexible in their approach to new employees and more vigilant in their monitoring of the socialisation process. High turnover, high dissatisfaction and low productivity are expensive for

companies. However, each company's action will ultimately be determined by their particular philosophy on employee relations. The three companies in this study apparently did not have appropriate policies or practices to maintain employee commitment.

This study also confirms that socialisation plays a role in the development of organisational commitment. However, it is current socialisation influences and ones which imply some influence or power over the individual which have the greatest effect - for example, the work group or the supervisor. Friends or relatives, examples of anticipatory socialisation influences, are not important. This finding needs verification in another study and with different measurement techniques.

The study makes another theoretical contribution when it confirms the viability of the organisational socialisation models. Not only is the three-stage socialisation framework operational, but it gives meaning to the findings on commitment. Previous studies such as Buchanan (1972, 1974) and Porter et al (1974, 1976) have linked commitment to tenure stages. Van Maanen (1975) was the first theorist to link commitment to socialisation stages, while this study was the first attempt to operationalise the investigation of commitment within a a priori socialisation framework. Further work needs to be done in this area to trace what happens to commitment in other socialisation stages (or further adjustment ones) and to determine the length of socialisation stages in other industries.

Finally, the study makes a number of important conceptual and psychometric contributions. A large number of scales were developed which reveal significant psychometric qualities. Moreover, the measure of commitment separates organisational aspects from affective responses towards the job. It also recognises that commitment is a multidimensional construct by incorporating aspects of organisational involvement and identification. The scales need to be generalised to other groups (similar to the work done by followers of Porter et al - see Mowday et al's (1979) review article), while more work needs to be done on the separation of the job and organisational aspects. Only when this is done will a complete understanding of the commitment concept be achieved.

#### 8.4 SIGNIFICANCE OF FINDINGS TO RETAIL INDUSTRY

The retail industry was chosen as the site for this study because of its tradition of socialisation practices and development of 'committed' employees. The occupational group of sales assistants was selected for specific examination because they represented a large homogeneous group with consistent duties across organisations. Whilst the findings enumerated above have significance for all organisations, the following pertain specifically to retailing within the metropolitan area of Sydney.

The first significant finding is that sales assistants, as a group, do not reveal high and consistent levels of organisational commitment. However, this study feels that this is not entirely the fault of the type of person employed by retailers -rather the organisations themselves have played a large role. They essentially adopt a utilitarian approach (Etzioni, 1961) towards their new sales staff and apart from some rudimentary training in the necessary procedures take little futher interest. The fact that a high turnover was underway in most firms was dismissed by one organisation as "that's people". One of the contributing features of the creation of negative commitment, however, was the fact that employees worked in small groups of from two to four people. Retailers are currently adopting the practice of using 'cash and wrap' centres as a cost-saving measure. These centres are small work stations employing between two to four people. Thus, the retailers themselves are contributing to lower levels of employee commitment.

Another significant finding for retailers is the influence of the supervisor. Most repondents in the study demonstrated vacilating attitudes towards their superior. Realising the supervisor's potential for arbitrary and discriminating decisions, the new employees generally felt that the supervisors favoured longer-term employees and did nothing to discourage 'cliques' (a common complaint amongst the new employees). As this study has shown that the supervisor plays

a significant role in socialising the new employee (and that the supervisor's attitude emerges as a negative predictor), it would seem that retailers should pay more attention to the role of their supervisory staff.

A common assumption encountered by this researcher during the four month study was that both female and casual employees were 'less committed' than male and permanent employees. In fact, one senior store executive even attempted to stop the researcher from studying casuals because "we all know why they're here- they're only in it for the money and that's all -they wouldn't even be interested in the study". A significant finding of this research (see Tables 7.1 and 7.3) was that there was no difference in commitment attitudes between males and females or between casuals and permanents. In fact, the researcher found that many of the female respondents in the study were desirous of careers, and had taken casual employment because they either couldn't get another job or hoped that this was the way to permanent employment. While some still fell into the traditional mould of 'less committed' and 'only in it to pay off a house etc', the majority did not. In fact, some were quite vocal about the lack of opportunities from the viewpoint of a sales assistant's position. The more ambitious readily perceived that if a career was to be made in retailing, a new employee should enter the organisation either as a management trainee or something similar. The picture painted at induction time of career potentialities by earnest and

sincere training staff was simply not believed. Thus, it would appear that retail management is still tending to judge their current sales assistants by old value systems. While their new staff are still drawn from the same demographic categories, their values have changed. Ιt would appear that retail organisations need to revise their personnel and training policies and their management's attitudes if they wish to retain their sales employees. The fact that being female emerged as a consistent negative predictor of commitment in the multiple regression analysis conducted for hypothesis 56 (different variables are important at different entry stages) gives credence to this The usual interpretation of such a finding is that females are 'less committed'. Because of the nature of this study and the fairly long contact with the subjects, the researcher believes the contrary interpretation is correct that is, females emerge as being negative because they quickly realise that the sales assistant's role does not offer the career of job opportunities they imagined it to possess. 2 Males employees did not emerge as being negative possibly because they can readily perceive (and in fact receive -many were promoted during the study) more advantages in the job. The female 'disenchantment' theory is supported by another fact - the study was conducted during a period of high unemployment and economic recession where job opportunities were fewer than normal. This did not prevent employees from

Being female only emerged in the reqression equations for <u>all</u> the variables - it did not emerge when demographics only were considered. This gives further support to the statements expressed above.

leaving once they had appraised the situation.

Finally, the study reveals that the employees most likely to be committed to the organisation are older and have either previous retail or sales experience. This tends to cut across current employment policies. Most firms are employing younger employees as a cost saving measure. this study and others have revealed that they are less likely to be 'committed'. Retailers are consequently faced with a choice: either to employ older workers at a higher immediate cost but with less disruption to normal everyday functioning and less turnover costs; or to employ younger employees at a lower cost but with ever increasing disruption to the values of service, product knowledge and efficiency. This issue is currently being faced by a number of retailers. The current solution has been to introduce more technology to overcome the disruption problems. the same time some well established firms are either being taken over or being declared bankrupt. A revision of policies and thinking seems in order as the sales staff represent the 'front line' of a retail business. Unless this is done, the current practices will prevail and retailers will continue to suffer the consequences of 'less committed' employees.

#### Suggestions for Retail Action

The findings of this study suggest that apart from employing older and more experienced employees, firms should forget about trying to improve their selection devices to produce committed employees. If a retail organisation wishes to retain its sales assistants for longer periods of time, cognisance should be made of some of the variables highlighted in this study. While some pre-entry variables are important - for example, age and company name and reputation - it is what happens to an employee after employment that influences commitment. In fact the interpretative diagram 8.3, produced from the consistent predictor findings in Tables 7.75 to 7.78, illustrates the situation.

Box No. 1 represents what the individual brings with him to the organisation and over which the organisation has little control. In other words, the individual makes pre-judgements about his endeavours to find a job and his level of expectations. These affective feelings remain with the individual during the first few months of employment, and while subject to influence after entry, the organisation can do little to effect the pre-entry level of feelings (other sources such as friends and relatives help to form these opinions). All the organisation can do is to attempt to counter these opinions - that is, by providing realistic job previews (Wanous, 1976, 1977, 1980; Wanous et al, 1979) and explaining the disadvantages of the job. Currently,

#### DIAGRAM 8.3

What individual brings to the organisation on entry and remains throughout the first few months of employment.



- . Age
- . Search (subjective feelings about how hard it was to get a job)
- . Realism (subjective feelings about whether overall expectations, if any, are being met)



What organisation offers to the individual on entry and remains throughout the first few months of employment

Company name and reputation

What organisation offers or does to the individual after entry which effects levels of commitment.



- Influence of the work group (whether 'fit in', are accepted etc)
- Influence of Supervisor (whether he gets along with other departments, helps the individual)
- Attitude of management is it friendly towards the individual
- Attitude of supervisor is he friendly and accepting towards the individual
- Management decisions do they disadvantage the individual in his job
- . Pay



- Outcomes if the former are satisfactory, the individual feels satisfied with company and feels 'committed'.
  - if the former are unsatisfactory, the individual begins the search for another employer.

retailers favour the 'promotional' approach in the belief that any other would discourage potential employees.

However, it may be preferable to have a high wastage prior to entry than to suffer the consequences after entry. Wanous provides evidence that such techniques produce less turnover.

Box No. 2 represents what the organisation offers the individual on entry and influences his feelings throughout the first few months of employment. In other words, the individual is attracted or predisposed to the organisation because of its name and reputation. While retail organisations recognise the potential of this and use it effectively in customer advertising, they apparently fail to realise its power in attracting employees. In fact, it is possibly the disillusionment experienced by employees after they join (that is, the 'gap' between the image of the company and reality) which creates the turnover situation. If more efforts were directed at establishing what the organisation 'stands for' and supports in its employee relations, and promoting this amongst the staff, improvements may be seen in this area.

Box No.3 is the critical action zone for retailers. The variables listed here represent what the other members of the organisation do to the individual after he joins thereby directly influencing his level of commitment. The variables can be interpreted as falling into several categories:

- Managment decisions and Supervisor Affect directly concern the individual's functioning in the job. As used in this study, the variables describe whether the decisions taken by others disadvantage the employee; whether the employee receives support in the job; whether his supervisor is able to get people to work together and obtain co-operation from other departments; and assists the employee when needed.
- b) Variables describing the Work Group Affect and the Attitude of the Supervisor and Management have more a personal orientation. Both imply an acceptance or rejection of the individual as a person. They thus represent the emotional aspect of the job, while the variables in (a) concern more the technical aspects.
- The variable called pay represents the tangible evidence of the 'psychological contract'. Interestingly other 'hygiene' variables such as physical working conditions, benefits etc. did not emerge as being important in this study.

  Apparently if organisations are perceived as being equitable and fair in their remuneration policies this is a major factor in producing 'committed' employees.

Box No. 4 is the <u>outcome stage</u> of the previous three dimensions. Two outcomes eventuate: if the employee is content with the variables described in box 3 then this will

lead him to be satisfied with the company and to feel 'committed'. If the employee is dissatisfied, this triggers the search for another employer. While the issues contained in boxes 1 and 2 are important, it seems it would be more productive for retailers to concentrate on those described in box 3. This study has shown that these issues play a significant role in influencing the levels of employees' organisational commitment. The following steps are offered as suggested lines of action for retailers to overcome the decline in employee commitment during the first few months of employment:

- a) Retailers should tailor their entry interviews to include both the 'good' and 'bad' points of the job to prepare the potential employee for some of the problems faced in the initial period. It appears that this technique would be more effective than improving application forms or other selection devices.
- b) The induction training programme should also cover the points raised in (a). At present emphasis is placed on learning the systems and customer orientation. No attention is paid to the actual interpersonal or stuctural (organisational) problems that are faced by new employees in the job. The training staff should include socialisation aspects in their training programmes.

- c) Management and supervisory training, if it exists, needs to be revamped to include the part these people play in the socialisation process. For too long management training has concentrated on the technical aspects of 'planning, organising, controlling and leading'. Virtually no emphasis is given to the impact of supervisors on the turnover problem. Management tends to hide behind the policy that if an employee is 'unsatisfactory' they can always dismiss him (the researcher, during the course of the study, was witness to several altercations and 'haranging' sessions with staff - fear and threats were the principal tactics used by the management to get their message across). An understanding of the socialisation process, particularly during the critical entry stage, could help establish more harmonious relations between management and staff. Supervisors needs to become aware that their actions, or lack of them, contribute to poor productivity and high turnover.
- d) Finally, retailers could benefit from re-establishing the 'sponsor' system - that is, a nominated person to whom the new employee can turn for advice and help. Although some retailers have tried this in the past, with varying degrees of success, the emphasis has been on systems orientation. With the employment changes in retailing (that is, more casuals rather than permanents), it is felt that a

sponsor system devoted to the orientation to the work group and the organisation's functioning ("how things are done around here") would be most beneficial. only would casuals have an 'anchorage', but longer serving permanents would be less likely to form 'cliques'. introduction of such a sponsor system would need to be supported by appropriate training programmes which outlined the responsibilities of the participating parties. The success of the operation would also require supervisory support. However, it could form the basis of the cohesive work group to which the individual feels he 'belongs'.

These recommendations emphasise that attention should be paid to the socialisation aspects of the organisational entry process. For too long researchers have concentrated on the technical fundamentals in the belief that this was what was required of them to assist the individual to adjust to the job. This study has proved otherwise. Not only are socialisation factors important, but it seems that the neglect of the on-going events in the socialisation process have contributed largely to the negative commitment feelings and resulting high turnover. Until action is taken in these areas, it would appear that the current problems will continue to persist thereby diminishing the potential achievements of organisation and individual alike.

#### 8.5 FUTURE RESEARCH NEEDS.

This study approached the study of commitment from the standpoint of one industry - namely, that of retailing. An obvious future research need is to test the applicability of the findings to other types of firms in retailing (for example, small retailers) and to other industries or sectors of the economy - such as manufacturing, the public service or tertiary institutions.

A second research need is to test the generality of the findings amongst other occupational groups. Sales assistants (non-management and white-collar group) were the focus of this study. Other non-management groups, both blue-collar and white-collar, need to be investigated along with the managerial and professional categories. Whilst many of these groups have been covered in other studies it is felt that the three-stage socialisation framework and four-stage research design needs to be examined amongst another occupational category. Obviously some adjustments may need to be made to the time scheduling as not every group has the advantage like retail sales staff of being given an overview of their profession within six months of their appointment. Such studies would further illuminate the links between commitment and socialisation.

Another research need arises from the fact that this study accounted for up to 73 per cent of the variance in organisational

commitment. While this was a very creditable result which indicated that the hypothesised variables were important predictors, it is obvious that some other variables, not included in this study, also have an impact. It is felt that other role-related variables, such as a more detailed examination of task duties and interpersonal relations, need to be included. It is possible that the measurement techniques adopted by this study did not fully 'capture' the individual's affective responses. Only further research will verify this possibility.

This study also produced a number of new scales which need to be generalised to other groups to test their psychometric qualities. While both the pilot and main study produced credible scales, and some other non-retail groups were included in the initial stages, further work is needed to demonstrate that the scales have general applicability.

Finally, more work needs to be done on investigating the various dimensions of the commitment construct. Like Buchanan (1972), this study proved that involvement and identification were components of commitment. It also revealed a more than moderate link between Congruence (a variable similar to Job Involvement) and commitment. Another association with job satisfaction has also been found by Porter et al (1974). Obviously a great need exists to investigate this whole conceptual domain. Until this

eventuates confusion will reign, parallel developments will occur and a less than satisfactory understanding will be gained of the commitment attitude. This study has made an advance by adopting both a macro and integrated approach towards the investigation of commitment, and has separated affective responses towards the job from those directed towards the organisation. These new directions now need to be verified and generalised by other research.

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# APPENDIX A

# ITEMS IN ATTITUDE SCALES

#### APPENDIX A: ITEMS IN ATTITUDE SCALES

#### Search Scale (12 items)

- Q2. It was easy to get this job (N)
- Q4. This job will do as at least I have employment (N)
- Q10. If I could have found something else I would not have accepted this job (N)
- Q16. This job is not that important to me; it will fill in some time (N)
- Q19 I wanted this job so much that a lot of effort was spent in ensuring I got it.
- Q22 I didn't have to look very hard to get this job (N)
- Q25 My job is just the type of work I was looking for
- Q27 My expectations about a career and a job will be met in this company
- 028 I took the first job that was offered to me (N)
- Q31 Finding this job was very important to me personally
- Q35 I really tried to get this job
- Q37 It took a long time to find this job

<sup>(</sup>N) refers to negative items

Ql etc refers to the number of the item in Questionnaire No. 1.

## Social Desirability Scale: (10 items)

- (Adapted from Greenwald, H.J and Satow, Y: "A Short Social Desirability Scale", Psychological Reports, 1970, 27, pl31-135)
- Q5 No matter who I'm talking to, I'm always a good listener.
- Q8 I have sometimes taken unfair advantage of another person (N).
- Qll I am always courteous, even to people who are disagreeable.
- Q14 I sometimes try to get even, rather than forgive and forget (N)
- Q17 I am quick to admit making a mistake
- Q20 I, sometimes feel resentful when I don't get my own way (N).
- Q23 I would never think of letting someone else be punished for my wrongdoing.
- Q26 There have been occasions when I took advantage of someone (N)
- Q29 I am always willing to admit it when I make a mistake.
- Q32 At times I have wished that something bad would happen to someone I disliked. (N)

<sup>(</sup>N) refers to negative items

Q 14 etc refers to the number of the items in Questionnaire 1.

#### Realism Scale (10 items):

- Q16 There is a <u>difference</u> between what I thought it would be like to work in this company, and what I have found since joining. (N)
- Q19 I had a pretty good idea what my particular job would be like (adapted from Feldman, 1976a)
- Q33 Since joining I have found I had no false impressions of the company as a place to work.
- Q38 Already I can tell my expectations about the company as a place to work are wrong (N).
- Q44 I had no idea so much was involved in my job (N)
- Q51 I was ready for my job
- Q54 I don't know what to expect in working for this company (N)
- Q59 There is no difference between what I thought it would be like to work in this company, and what I have found since joining (adapted from Buchanan, 1972)
- Q65 My expectations about the job and what it is are very close
- Q72 Since joining the company I have found that I had no real idea of what my job would be like (N)

<sup>(</sup>N) refers to a negative item

Q 72 etc refers to the placement of the item in Questionnaire 2.

## Supervisor Affect Scale: (8 items)

- Q18 Supervisor around here are usually missing when problems arise. (N)
- Q23 My supervisor understands the problems I face in my job.
- Q28 At this stage I don't feel very relaxed with my supervisor (N)
- Q37 My supervisor if fair in his/her dealing with me
- Q41 My supervisor co-operates well with other departments.
- Q50 My supervisor is too interested in his/her own success to care about his/her staff (N).
- Q61 My supervisor believes strongly in the company's policies.
- Q70 There is too much favouritism around here (N).
  - (N) refers to a negative item
  - Q70 etc refers to the placement of the item in Questionnaire 2.

### Work Group Affect Scale (8 items):

- Q14 My personal opinions and beliefs are quite different to other people who work here (N).
- Q21 I feel a part of what is going on in my department (adapted from Feldman, 1976a)
- Q25 I can usually count on my work mates to help me when I need them
- Q30 The people in my work group are not interested in being involved in the department's activities (N)
- Q56 I am sometimes left out of the department's social activities. (N)
- Q64 People in my department are not interested in their jobs (N)
- Q67 The other employees in my department like the company as a place to work
- 069 My work group is very friendly and close knit.

<sup>(</sup>N) refers to a negative item.

Q69 etc refers to the placement of the item in Questionnaire 2.

## Congruence Scale (10 items):

- Q13 My expectations about a career and a job will be met in this company.
- Q15 There is a good 'fit' between the job and myself
- Q35 This job makes the best use of my ability.
- Q45 My position and job within this company are well defined (adapted from Van Maanen and Katz, 1979)
- Quite often I feel like staying home from work instead of coming in (N) (adapted from Lodahl and Kėjner, 1965)
- Q48 What is the point of having new ideas; my job is governed by too many rules (N).
- Q53 I know where to go for help when I have problems on the job (adapted from Van Maanen and Katz, 1979)
- Q58 I don't feel I achieve a lot in my job (N).
- Q66 I used to care more about my work, but now other things are more important to me (N) (adapted from Lodahl and Kejner, 1965)
- Q68 This job is not the right type of work for me (N) (adapted from Feldman, 1976a)
  - (N) refers to a negative item
  - Q68 refers to the placement of the item in Questionnaire 2.

#### COMMITMENT SCALE (14 items):

- Qll I have a stong sense of 'belonging' to this company (after Gould 1975, Patchen 1970)
- Q17 I would not want to work for any other company (Schwyhart and Smith, 1972)
- Q20 My ideas about how things should be done are different to those of this company (N)
- Q22 Deciding to work for this company was a definite mistake for me (N) (Porter et al, 1974)
- Q24 It is difficult to get excited about the company as a place to work (N)
- Q29 I defend the company when outsiders criticise it
- Q36 It is hard to accept and support some of the company's policies (N).
- Q40 The company's work problems are not my problems (N).
- Q43 I would advise most people to try and get a job with this company (Buchanan, 1972, Hall et al, 1970)
- Q52 If another company offered me more money for the same kind of work, I would almost certainly take the new job (N) (Buchanan, 1972)
- Q55 The company should be able to expect people to have a strong personal commitment to their jobs.
- Q57 I am proud to tell my friends that I work for the company (after Porter et al, 1974)
- Q60 Working here makes me feel 'turned off' (N).
- Q63 I am willing to do more than my job requires to help this company be successful (after Stone and Porter, 1975).

# APPENDIX B

MEANS OF SCALE SCORES FOR N=270

AND THREE SAMPLES

Scale	N=270	Company A	Company B	Company C
Realism 1	48.95	49.55	47.08	50.21
Realism 2	49.03	50.87	46.89	49.34
Realism 3	48.67	51.03	47.40	48.58
Realism 4	48.08	50.77	45.63	47.86
Commitment 1	65.07	67.86	63.24	64.10
Commitment 2	63.28	65.63	60.82	63.39
Commitment 3	62.30	63.33	60.62	62.93
Supervisor Affect l	41.62	41.30	40.66	42.90
Supervisor Affect 2	40.80	40.89	38.90	42.62
Supervisor Affect 3	41.20	41.04	39.98	42.57
Work Group Affect l	39.56	39.96	39.49	39.23
Work Group Affect 2	39.59	40.47	38.91	39.33
Work Group Affect 3	39.57	40.37	39.59	38.77
Congruence 1	46.66	49.29	46.47	44.22
Congruence 2	45.21	47.66	44.40	43.59
Congruence 3	44.05	45.98	43.33	42.86
Variety in Job l	5.19	5.69	5.01	4.88
2	4.93	5.40	4.59	4.80
3	4.71	5.07	4.41	4.65
Job Security 1	5.57	5.87	5.54	5.31
2	5.44	5.78	5.30	5.25
3	5.24	5.39	5.00	5.32
Physical Work. Cond. 1	5.13	5.01	4.78	5.61
2	4.85	4.72	4.34	5.50
3	4.78	4.58	4.33	5.42

Scale	N=270	Company A	Company B	Company C
Freedom in Job 1	5.10	5.57	5.00	4.74
rreedom in Job i	5.15	5.48	4.94	5.02
3	4.83	5.03	4.69	4.77
Pay 1	4.76	5.25	4.22	4.80
2	4.65	4.87	4.32	4.78
3	4.29	4.62	3.94	4.32
Supervisor's Att. 1	5.84	5.91	5.87	5.73
2	5.62	5.75	5.44	5.65
3	5.41	5.78	5.24	5.42
Job Challenge 1	5.00	5.20	4.93	4.87
2	4.64	4.84	4.51	4.58
3	4.40	4.50	4.24	4.44
Friendly Att. of Manag. 1	5.65	5.90	5.63	5.42
, 2	5.28	5.44	4.99	5.43
3	5.30	5.63	4.89	5.39
Management Dec. 1	5.12	5.22	5.04	5.10
2	4.80	4.88	4.43	5.09
3	4.65	4.83	4.41	4.72
Travel time 1	5.39	5.08	5.39	5.70
2	5.38	514	5.33	5.66
3	5.27	5.11	5.20	5.51

#### APPENDIX C

# ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE RESULTS OF COMPARISON BETWEEN GROUPS ON STUDY VARIABLES

(DEMOGRAPHICS ONLY)

# APPENDIX C ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE RESULTS OF COMPARISON BETWEEN GROUPS ON STUDY VARIABLES

#### (DEMOGRAPHICS ONLY)

SOURCE	SS	df	MS	F
Age				
Between Groups	3542.96	2	1771.48	15.84***
Within Groups	29851.21	267	111.80	
Retail Experience		<del></del>		
Between Groups	736525.78	2	368262.89	4.85**
Within Groups	20251131.04	267	75846.93	
Past Company Experie	ence			
Between Groups	28702.94	2	14351.47	2.34
Within Groups	1637629.04	267	6133.44	
Company experience				
Between Groups	83826.69	2	41913.35	73.62***
Within Groups	152016.93	267	569.35	
Work Absence		<del></del>		······································
Between Groups	34065.49	2	17032.74	.82
Within Groups	5583299.48	267	20911.23	
Sales Experience				
Between Groups	848974.42	2	424487.21	5.60**
Within Groups	20224217.88	267	75746.13	
Job Applications				
Between Groups	196.83	2	98.41	2.43
Within Groups	19811.11	267	40.49	
Job Interviews				
Between Groups	8.98	2	4.49	.48
Within Groups	2490.55	267	9.33	•

515.

# Appendix C (Cont)

SOURCE	SS	df	MS	F	_
				•	
Job Offers				·	
Between Groups	1.92	2	.96	.90	
Within Groups	284.51	267	1.06		
Illness 1					
Between Groups	2.72	2	1.36	2.39	
Within Groups	151.58	267	.57		
Illness 2					
Between Groups	1.42	2	.71	.114	
Within Groups	1670.74	267	6.26		
Illness 3				* * * * * * * * * * * * * * * * * * * *	_
Between Groups	22.81	2	11.40	3.88*	
Withın Groups	784.91	267	2.94		

#### APPENDIX D

# MULTIPLE REGRESSION RESULTS FOR VARIABLE CALLED CONGRUENCE

(DEMOGRAPHICS ONLY)

#### APPENDIX D

# Mutiple Regression Equation Results for impact of Demographic Variables on Congruence

# Study Stage 1

Variable	Standardised Coefficient	Change in R <sup>2</sup>
Age	.29***	.08
Previous permanent status	.16**	.03
Job Satisfaction (reason for working)	.15*	.02
Company name & reputation	.14*	.02
Constant	37.36	

$$R^2 = .15$$
 $df = (4,265)$ 
 $F = 11.71$ 
 $p \le 0.001$ 

\*\*\* 
$$p \le 0.001$$

\*\*  $p \le 0.01$ 

\*  $p \le 0.05$ 

# Multiple Regression Depicting Impact of Demographic Variables on Congruence

# Study Stage 2

Variable	Standardised Coefficient	Change in R <sup>2</sup>
Satisfied with company	.53***	.28
Age	.25***	.05
Changing job/department	17***	.03
Job Satisfaction	.14**	.02
Previous permanent status	.12*	.02
Company name & reput.	.11	.01
Retail experience (reason for working)	09*	.01
Male	.10*	.01
Constant	27.58	

 $R^2 = .43$  df = (8,261) F = 24.79  $p \le 0.001$ 

<sup>\*\*\*</sup> p **<** 0.001

<sup>\*\*</sup> p \ 0.01

<sup>\*</sup> p\( 0.05

# Multiple Regression depicting impact of Demographic variables on Congruence

# Study Stage 3

Variable	Standardised Coefficient	Change in R <sup>2</sup>
Satisfied with co.	.60***	.35
Age	.27***	.07
Satisfied in job	.19***	.03
Previous permanent status	.12**	.01
Casual status	10*	.01
Nil-work alone	10*	.01
Constant	23.79	

$$R^2 = .48$$
 $df = (6,263)$ 
 $F = 41.35$ 
 $p \le 0.001$ 

<sup>\*\*</sup> p \ 0.01

<sup>\*</sup> p**≤**0.05

# Multiple Regression depicting impact of demographic variables on Congruence

# Study Stage 4

Variable	Standardised Coefficient	Change in R <sup>2</sup>
Satisfied with company	.64***	.40
Retail experience	.27***	.07
Age	.16**	.02
Haven't tried to change job etc	.12*	.01
Permanent status	.09*	.01
Constant	18.93	

$$R^2 = .52$$
 $df = (5,264)$ 
 $F = 56.63$ 
 $p \le 0.001$ 

<sup>\*\*</sup> p \ 0.01

<sup>\*</sup> p≤0.05

# APPENDIX E

LETTER TO NEW EMPLOYEES RE STUDY

#### THE UNIVERSITY OF NEW SOUTH WALES

P.O. BOX 1 • KENSINGTON • NEW SOUTH WALES • AUSTRALIA • 2033 TELEX AA26054 • TELEGRAPH UNITECH, SYDNEY • TELEPHONE 663 0351

PLEASE QUOTE

FACULTY OF COMMERCE
DEPARTMENT OF ORGANIZATIONAL BEHAVIOUR

1st August, 1979.

Dear New Employee,

The University of New South Wales needs your help! We are conducting a study into the attitudes of new employees towards their jobs and their employing organisations.

This study is being conducted amongst a number of retail organisations, one of which is

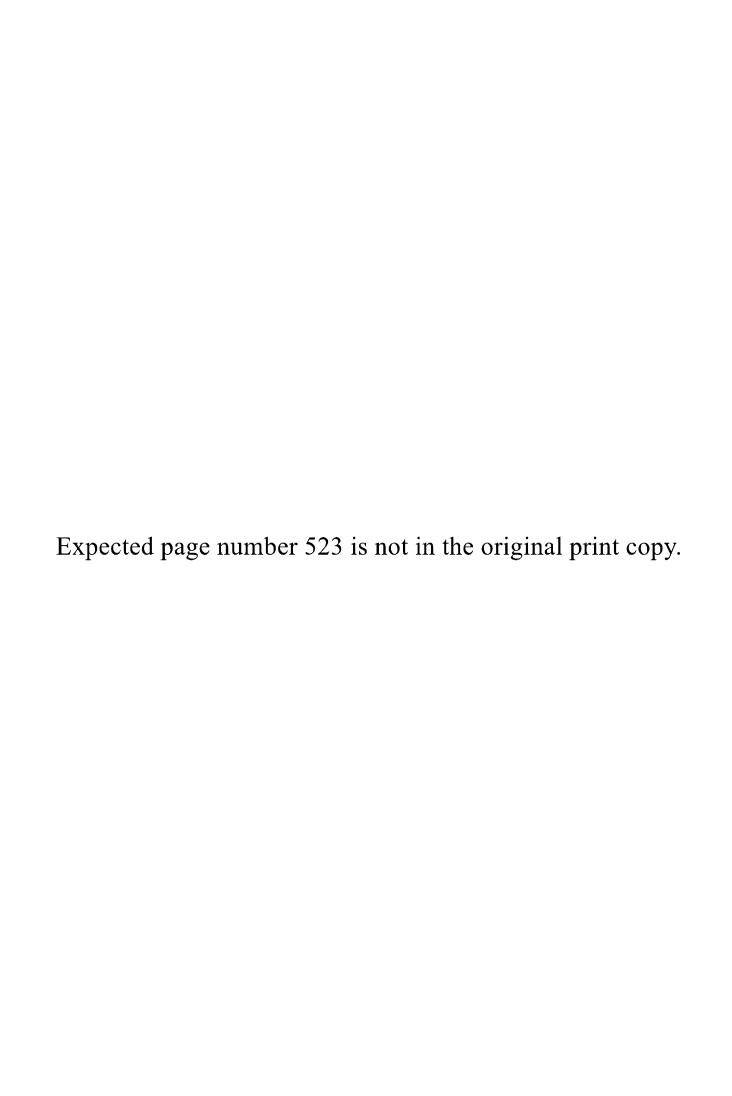
The company has agreed that a number of new employees may be approached to participate in the research. Your involvement would mean the completion of four short questionnaires over a period of approximately four months. All participants are guaranteed complete confidentiality as no individual's responses will be revealed to the company - only general group trends.

The early experiences and feelings of new employees are of vital interest not only to the employees themselves but also to their companies. So that this study will most accurately reflect the opinions of as many people as possible, we would very much welcome your participation. Any questions you may have will be answered personally by Miss Still during your induction training.

Yours sincerely,

D.C. Dunphy,
Professor of Business Administration,
Head, Department of Organizational
Behaviour.

Miss L.V. Still, Researcher.



# APPENDIX F

LETTER FROM COMPANY A SUPPORTING STUDY

#### APPENDIX F

Company A's Address: (Copy of letter)

14th August, 1979.

Dear Staff Member,

This letter confirms that the research studies being undertaken by Miss L.V. Still of the University of New South Wales has the full support of the Management of (Company A)

In order to assist in this important project, it would be most helpful if you would complete the first of four short surveys during this induction training programme. Three subsequent surveys will be distributed for you to complete at your place of work, at durations of one month. These surveys will be co-ordinated by your Personnel Manager or his/her nominee and administered by Miss L.V. Still

Your co-operation on this important exercise is very much appreciated and please note that all survey information remains a strictly confidential matter between yourself and Miss Still.

Yours faithfully,

Divisional Personnel Executive.

# APPENDIX G

# RESEARCH GUARANTEE

#### THE UNIVERSITY OF NEW SOUTH WALES

P.O. BOX 1 • KENSINGTON • NEW SOUTH WALES • AUSTRALIA • 2033
TELEX AA26054 • TELEGRAPH UNITECH, SYDNEY • TELEPHONE 663 0351



PLEASE QUOTE

FACULTY OF COMMERCE
DEPARTMENT OF ORGANIZATIONAL BEHAVIOUR

1st August, 1979

#### RESEARCH GUARANTEE.

Because I need to locate a large number of participants over a period of four months, I will allocate a personal code number e.g. 102, to you. This will mean that your name will not be used on any questionnaire. Your particular number will be known only to me and to you. It will be used each time you complete a questionnaire.

No individual's responses will be revealed to anyone in your organisation - only general group trends. All data analysis will be carried out at the University of New South Wales. Once the information has been punched on computer cards, the questionnaires will be destroyed along with the list of names and code numbers.

These arrangements will ensure the complete confidentiality of your response.

Miss L.V. Still, Researcher.

#### APPENDIX H

SURVEY FOLLOW-UP DIARY FORM

#### UNIVERSITY OF NEW SOUTH WALES

#### Department of Organisational Behaviour

#### SURVEY FOLLOW-UP

#### DIARY

Dear New Employee,

Thank you for agreeing to participate in the Organisational Attitudes Survey.

As you know, you will be asked to complete three other questionnaires over the next four months. These will be done in your Store around the following dates:

1.	Survey	2	-	Week	commencing
2.	Survey	3	-	Week	commencing
3.	Survey	4	_	Week	commencing

Please keep this diary sheet as a reminder. The dates may need to be altered because of local conditions e.g. sales. I will be moving around the Stores, so if you have any questions about the survey at any time please don't hesitate to ask me.

Kind regards,

Miss L.V. Still, Researcher.

#### APPENDIX I

# QUESTIONNAIRE 1

#### THE UNIVERSITY OF NEW SOUTH WALES

ORGANISATIONAL ATTITUDES

STUDY

(PART ONE)

Department of Organisational Behaviour, Faculty of Commerce.

#### INTRODUCTION

This questionnaire is part of a general study being carried out by the University of New South Wales into the feelings new employees have towards their jobs and their employing organisations. The study has the approval of the company.

This questionnaire is the  $\underline{\text{first}}$  of several which you will be asked to complete over the next four months (the length of the study)

There are no right or wrong answers to any of the questions. Your answers should be based solely on the way you feel about the question. No person's answers will be revealed to anyone in the company, so please answer all questions honestly. Whilst you will be allocated a code number e.g. 102, this number is for research purposes only and will be known to only you and the researcher. Once the data has been punched on computer cards the questionnaires will be destroyed. The confidential nature of your response will be maintained at all times.

The questionnaire is divided into two parts. At the beginning of each section there is a short introductory note giving instructions on how that section is to be completed. Please follow the directions and ensure that you answer all questions.

PLEASE PROCEED TO PART 1.

#### PART 1.

Tnc	+	~+ ·	ons:
TIID	LLU	$\iota$	OH5:

Please answer each question by circling the number of the appropriate response on the right hand side of the page. e.g. (1) Permanent

-		_	_				
1.	What is your job status?	1.	Casua1				
		2.	Temporary				
		3.	Permanent part-time				
		4.	Permanent				
2.	How old are you? (to the nearest	year)					
3.	What is your sex?	1.	Male				
٥.	what is your sex:	2.	Female				
		۷.	remale				
4.	What is your marital status?	1.	Single				
	<b>,</b>	2.	Committed Relationship				
		3.	Married				
		4.	Separated				
		5.	Divorced				
		6.	Widowed				
			7				
5.	If you have children, how many ar dependent upon you or your spouse		ancially 				
6.	a) Does your spouse or partner w	a) Does your spouse or partner work?					
		1.	Yes				
		2.	No				
	b) If yes, full-time or part-time	ne?					
	_	1.	Full-time				
		2.	Part-time				
		۷.	rai c-cine				
7.	What is your level of education?	1.	Less than secondary				
	(Please indicate highest	2.	Some secondary (did not				
	category only)		or have not completed)				
	•	3.	Intermediate/School				
		-	Certificate.				
		4.	Leaving/Higher School				
			Certificate				
		5.	Technical College Course				
		6.	Some tertiary (did not or				
		=	have not completed)				
		7.	University/C.A.E. degree				
		- •	or diploma				
		8.	Other (please write in)				
		-•	(F20000 W1100 III)				

8.	what was (or is) your father's och his working life? (if unknown, pl	_	_		
9.	Do any of your relatives	·			
	a) Currently work for the company?	1. 2.	Yes No		
	b) Have worked in the past?	1. 2.	Yes No		
10.	Do any of your <u>friends</u>				
	a) Currently work for the company?	1. 2.	Yes No		
	b) Have worked in the past?	1. 2.	Yes No		
11.	How much experience have you had in retailing?		wks	mths	yrs
	If previously employed in retailing, what was your status?	1. 2. 3. 4.	Casual Temporary Permanent Permanent	part-time	
12.	<ul> <li>a) Have you been previously employed by this company?</li> <li>(If yes, please answer part (b) and (c). If no, go straight to question 13.</li> </ul>	1.	Yes No		
	b) If yes, for how long?		wks	mths	yrs
	c) What was your employment status?	1. 2. 3. 4.	Casual Temporary Permanent Permanent	part-time	
13.	How long have your been employed in the company?		days	wks	mths
14.	If you are re-entering the workfo absence, would you please indicat you have worked.		_		

15.	How much experience have you had as a sales assistant? (or in a sales capacity)		wks	mths	yrs_
16.	How long were you looking for a job before joining this company? (even while currently employed in another organisation)	1. 2. 3. 4. 5.	One to f One to t 3 to 6 m 6 to 12: 1 to 3 y	months ears	
		7.	Over 3 y	ears 	
17.	How many job applications with ot employers did you make before joi this company?				
18.	How many job interviews with othe employers did you attend before joining this company?	<u>r</u>			
19.	How many <u>job offers</u> with <u>other</u> employers did you receive before joining this company?				
20.	Please indicate how you came to ag	pply	to this co	ompany	
	=	1.	Just ran	a nb	
		2.		on waiting	list
		3.	Advertis	_	
		4.	Commonwe	alth Employn	ment Service
		5.	Friends :	inside compa	any
		6.	Friends o	outside comp	pany
		7.	Relative	s inside com	npany
		8.		s outside co	
		9.	Other (p	lease write	in)
21.	People join companies for many reamain reason for joining this compa		s. Please	indicate yo	our
22.	People go to work for many reasons main reason for working.	s. I	Please ind	icate your	

Instruct	ions:
----------	-------

In this section you are asked to consider a number of statements, all with a seven point scale. The numbers on this scale describe how much you agree or disagree with the statement you are considering. The scale can be interpreted as follows:

Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Slightly Disagree	Neither Agree Nor Disagree	Slightly Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree
1	2	3	4	5	6	7

When you have considered the statements listed below, choose the number on the scale which best describes your feelings and then circle the number.

#### Example:

My work group is helpful to newcomers

Strongly 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 Strongly Disagree Agree

A score of 6 means that you agree with this statement.

To help you complete this part of the questionnaire the interpretation of the scale will be repeated at the top of each page.

#### PLEASE PROCEED TO PART 2 NOW:

1.	Ι	have	a	pretty	good	idea	what:	my	particular	job	will	be	like
----	---	------	---	--------	------	------	-------	----	------------	-----	------	----	------

Strongly	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Strongly
Disagree								Agree

2. It was easy to get this job

Strongly	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Strongly
Disagree								Agree

3. My expectations about the job and what it is are very close

Strongly	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Strongly
Dısagree								Agree

Strongly Disagree Slightly Strongly Disagree Slightly Neither Agree Disagree Agree Agree Agree Nor Disagree 7 2 3 4 1 5 6

<u> </u>	<b>_</b>			<b>4</b>					,
4.	This job w	ill do	as at	least 1	have	employm	ent		
	Strongly Disagree	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Strongly Agree
5. No matter who I'm talking to, I'm always a								stene	r.
	Strongly Disagree	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Strongly Agree
6.	There is <u>a</u> like to wo:								
	Strongly Disagree	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Strongly Agree
7.	Family (or	frien	ds) he	lped in	findir	ng this	job.		
	Strongly Disagree	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Strongly Agree
8.	I have som	etimes	taken	unfair	advant	age of	another	pers	on.
	Strongly Disagree	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Strongly Agree
9.	I feel rea	dy for	the j	ob		<del></del>			<del>, , , , , , , , , , , , , , , , , , , </del>
	Strongly Disagree	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Strongly Agree
10.	If I could this job.	have	found	somethi	ng else	e I woul	d not h	ave a	ccepted
	Strongly Disagree	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Strongly Agree
11.	I am alway	s cour	teous,	even to	peopl	Le who a	re disa	greea	ble.
	Strongly Disagree	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Strongly Agree

Neither

Slightly

Agree

Strongly

Slightly

Disagree

Strongly

Disagn		e Slightl Disagre	=	Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree
1	2	3	4	5	6	7
12.	I had no id	ea so much	was involved	in my job.		
<del></del>	Strongly Disagree	1 2	3 4	5	6 7	7 Strongly Agree
13.	I was lucky	to get thi	s job			
	Strongly Disagree	1 2	3 4	5	6 7	7 Strongly Agree
14.	I sometimes	try to get	even, rather	r than forg	rive and f	orget.
	Strongly Disagree	1 2	3 4	5	6 7	Strongly Agree
15.		ng, I have as a place	found I had r to work.	no false im	pressions	s of
	Strongly Disagree	1 2	3 4	5	6 7	Strongly Agree
16.	Thıs job is	not that 11	mportant to m	ne; it will	fill in	some time
	Strongly Disagree	1 2	3 4	5	6 7	Strongly Agree
17.	I am quick	to admit mal	king a mistak	œ.		,
	Strongly Disagree	1 2	3 4	5	6 7	Strongly Agree
18.	The company I expected.	's way of t	reating its s	staff is di	fferent t	o what
	Strongly Disagree	1 2	3 4	5	6 7	Strongly Agree
19.	I wanted the		ch that a lot	of effort	was spen	t in
	Strongly Disagree	1 2	3 4	5	6 7	Strongly Agree

Strone Disag		e Slightl Disagre	ee Agr nor		Slightly Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree
ı	2 ,	3	D18	agree !	5	6	7
20.	I sometimes	feel resen	tful wh	ıen I de	on't get m	ıy own wa	ıy.
,	Strongly Disagree	1 2	3	4	5	6	7 Strongly Agree
21.	From time to customers.	o time, I e	xpect I	will	have probl	ems with	the
	Strongly Disagree	1 2	3	4	5	6	7 Strongly Agree
22.	I didn't hav	ve to look	very ha	rd to	get this j	ob.	
	Strongly Disagree	1 2	3	4	5	6	7 Strongly Agree
23.	I would never		lettin	g some	one else b	e punish	ned
	Strongly Disagree	1 2	3	4	5	6	7 Strongly Agree
24.	I don't knov	what to e	xpect i	n work:	ing for th	is compa	iny.
	Strongly Disagree	1 2	3	4	5	6	7 Strongly Agree
25.	My job is ju	ist the typ	e of wo	rk I wa	as looking	for.	
	Strongly Disagree	1 2	3	4	5	6	7 Strongly Agree
26.	There have k	peen occasi	ons whe	n I to	ok advanta	ge of so	meone.
	Strongly Disagree	1 2	3	4	5	6	7 Strongly Agree
27.	My expectati	ions about	a caree	r and a	a job will	be met	in this
	Strongly Disagree ;	1 2	3	4	5	6	7 Strongly Agree

Strong Disagr		ee	Slightly Disagree	Agr nor		Slightly Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree
1	2	•	3	4		5	6	7
28.	I took the	firs	st job tha	t was	offer	ed to me.		
	Strongly Disagree	1	2	3	4	5	6	7 Strongly Agree
29.	I am always	s wil	ling to a	dmıt	it whe	n I make a	mistak	e <b>.</b>
	Strongly Disagree	1	2	3	4	5	6	7 Strongly Agree
30.	Already I o				pectat	ıons about	the cor	npany as
	Strongly Disagree	1	2	3	4	5	6	7 Strongly Agree
31.	Finding th	is jo	ob was ver	y imp	ortant	to me per	sonally	•
	Strongly Disagree	1	2	3	4	5	6	7 Strongly Agree
32.	At times I someone I o			hat s	omethi	ng bad wou	ld happe	en to
	Strongly Disagree	1	2	3	4	5	6	7 Strongly Agree
33.	There is no							
•	Strongly Disagree	1	2	3	4	5	6	7 Strongly Agree
34.	For a job,	ıt d	loesn't ma	tter	what t	ype of wor	k I do.	
	Strongly Dısagree	1	2	3	4	5	6	7 Strongly Agree
35.	I really t	ried	to get th	ıs jo	b.			
	Strongly	1	2	3	4	5	6	7 Strongly

Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Slightly Disagree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Slightly Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree
1	2	3	4	5	6	7

36. I won't find problems in doing my job. 3 4 5 6 1 2 Strongly 7 Strongly Disagree Agree 37. It took a long time to find this job. 1 2 3 4 5 6 Strongly 7 Strongly Disagree Agree 38. Since joining the company, I have found that I have no real idea of what my job will be like. Strongly Strongly Ägree Disagree

THANK YOU FOR YOUR CO-OPERATION.

# APPENDIX J

# QUESTIONNAIRE 2

#### THE UNIVERSITY OF NEW SOUTH WALES

#### ORGANISATIONAL ATTITUDES

STUDY

(PART TWO)

Department of Organisational Behaviour, Faculty of Commerce.

#### INTRODUCTION.

This questionnaire is the second of several which you will be asked to complete over the <a href="next">next</a> three months (the remainder of the length of the study). As you will remember, this questionnaire is part of a general study being carried out by the University of New South Wales into the feelings new employees have towards their jobs and their employing organisations. The study has the approval of the company.

There are no right or wrong answers to any of the questions. Your answers should be based solely on the way you feel about the question. No person's answers will be revealed to anyone in your company, so please answer all questions honestly. Once the data has been punched on computer cards, the questionnaires will be destroyed. The confidential nature of your response will be maintained at all times.

The questionnaire is divided into three parts. At the beginning of each section there is a short introductory note giving instructions on how that section is to be completed. Please follow the directions and ensure that your answer all questions.

PLEASE PROCEED TO PART 1:

# PART 1.

Instru	ctions:		
	answer each question by circlin se on the right hand side of the	_	
1.	How many people are there in you the number of people you work myour supervisor)		
		1.	Only myself
		2.	2 to 4
		3.	
		4.	11 to 15
		5.	
		6.	Over 20
2.	How many people do you work clo		
		1.	Nil - work alone
		2.	One other person
		3.	2 to 4
		4.	5 to 10
1		5.	11 to 15
		6.	16 to 20
		7.	Over 20
3.	Ignoring normal Public Holidays indicate as accurately as possi away from work since the last q	ble how	many <u>DAYS</u> you have been naire.
	2.		nt (at home
	2.	or w	•
	3.	Compas	sionate leave
	4.	Study	leave
	5.	Transp	ort/Petrol strike
	6.		or Work ppage
	7.	Leave	without pay
	8.	Other	(please write in)

4.	(a)	Have you tried to change jobs/departments within this company
		since the last questionnaire?

(If yes, please complete (b) and ignore (c)

If no, ignore (b) and complete (c)

1. Yes

2. No

- (b) How hard have you tried to change jobs/departments?
  - 1. Tried once
  - Tried twice
  - 3. Tried three or more times
- (c) Why haven't you tried to change jobs/departments?
  - 1. I don't want to am very satisfied where I am
  - 2. I am satisfied where I am
  - 3. I am thinking of changing
  - 4. I would if I could -there are no opportunities
  - 5. I will take the first opportunity to change.
- 5. (a) Have you tried to change employers since the last questionnaire?

(If yes, please complete (b) and ignore (c)
If no, ignore (b) and complete (c)

1. Yes

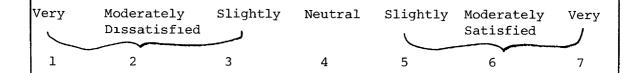
2. No

- (b) How hard have you tried to change employers?
  - 1. Tried once
  - 2. Tried twice
  - 3. Tried three or more times
- (c) Why haven't you tried to change employers?
  - 1. I don't want to -am very satisfied where I am
  - 2. I am satisfied where I am
  - 3. I am thinking of changing
  - 4. I would if I could there are no opportunities
  - 5. I will take the first opportunity to change

#### PART 2.

#### Instructions:

In this section you are asked to consider a number of statements, all with a seven point scale. The numbers on this scale describe how much you are satisfied or dissatisfied with the statement you are considering. The scale can be interpreted as follows:



When you have considered the statements listed below, choose the number on the scale which best describes your feelings and then circle the number. To help you the scale will be repeated at the top of each page.

Please complete Part 2 now:

1. Variety in Your Job									
Very Dissatisfied	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Very Satisfied	
2. Job Security									
Very Dissatisfied	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Very Satisfied	
Physical Working Conditions  (i.e. temperature, noise, lighting, space, tidiness)									
Very Dissatisfied	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Very Satisfied	
4. Freedom in Your Job									
Very Dissatisfied	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Very Satisfied	
5.			Your	Pay					
Very Dissatısfied	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Very Satisfied	

Scale:						
Very	Moderately Dissatısfied	Slightly	Neutral	Slightly	Moderately Satisfied	Very
1	2	3	4	5	6	7

6.	Your Supervisor's Attitude towards You									
Very Dissatisfied	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Very Satisfied		
7.	Job Challenge									
Very Dissatisfied	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Very Satisfied		
8. Friendly Attitude of Management										
Very Dissatisfied	1	2		4	5	6	7	Very Satısfied		
9. Management Decisions										
Very Dissatisfied	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Very Satısfied		
10. Travel Time to Work										
Very Dissatisfied	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Very Satısfied		

### PART 3.

### Instructions:

In this section you are again asked to pick a number from a seven point scale. However, this time the number describes to what extent you either agree or disagree with the statement you are considering. The scale can be interpreted as follows:

Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Slightly Disagree	Neither Agree Nor Disagree	Sliġhtly Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree
1	2	3	4	5	6	7

When you have considered the statements listed below, choose the number on the scale which best describes your feelings and then circle the number. To help you the scale will be repeated at the top of each page.

Please proceed to Part 3 now:

1.	I have a strong sense of 'belonging' to this company												
	Strongly Disagree	( 1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Strongly Agree				
2.	It is hard	to find	out 1	the th	ıngs y	ou nee	d to k	now to	do your job.				
	Strongly Disagree	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Strongly Agree				
3.	My expecta company.	tions ab	out a	careeı	and	a job	wıll b	e met	in this				
	Strongly Disagree	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Strongly Agree				
4.	My persona people who			l belie	efs ar	e quit	e diff	erent	to other				
	Strongly Disagree	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Strongly Agree				
5.	There is a	good 'f	it' be	etween	my jo	b and	myself						
	Strongly Disagree	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Strongly Agree				

Sca]	<u>Le</u> :							7-7-19	
	ongly Dis agree	agree	Slightly Dısagree	Agr Nor		Slig Agr	ghtly see	Agree	Strongly Agree
	1 2		3		agree	5		6	7
6.	There is								be like to
	Strongly Disagree		2	3	4	5	6	7	Strongly Agree
7.	I would	not want	to work	for a	ny oth	ner co	ompany.		
	Strongly Diagree	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Strongly Agree
В.	Supervis	ors arou	nd here	are us	ually	mıssi	ng whe	en probl	ems arise.
	Strongly Disagree		2	3	4	5 ,	6	7	Strongly Agree
9.	I had a	pretty g	ood idea	what r	my par	ticul	ar job	would	be like.
	Strongly Disagree	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Strongly Agree
10.	My ideas		ow thing	s shoul	ld be	done	are di	fferent	to those
	Strongly Disagree	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Strongly Agree
11.	I feel a	part of	what is	going	on in	my d	epartm	ent.	
	Strongly Disagree	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Strongly Agree
12.	Deciding	to work	for thi	s compa	ny wa	s a d	efinit	e mistal	ke for me.
	Strongly Disagree	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Strongly Agree
L3.	My super	usor un	derstand	s the p	roble	ms Į	face i	n my jol	b.
	Strongly Disagree	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Strongly Agree

Scal	<u>e</u> :								
	ongly Disag gree		lightly isagree	Ag No	ither ree r sagree	Agre	htly ee	Agree	Strongly Agree
1	. 2		3	4	_	5		6	7
14.	It is diff	icult to	o get ex	kcite	d abou	t the	compar	ny as a	place to
	Strongly Disagree	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Strongly Agree
15.	I can usua	lly cou	nt on my	/ wor	k mate:	s to h	elp me	when I	need them
	Strongly Disagree	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Strongly Agree
16.	The company	y's way 	of trea	nting	its s	taff i	s diff	erent t	o what
	Strongly Disagree	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Strongly Agree
17.	I like to	take on	extra d	lutie	s and 1	espon	sibili	ties in	my work.
	Strongly Disagree	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Strongly Agree
18.	At this sta	age I do	on't fee	l ve	ry rela	xed w	ıth my	superv	isor.
	Strongly Disagree	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Strongly Agree
19.	I defend th	ne compa	ny when	outs	siders	crıti	cıse i	t.	
	Strongly Disagree	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Strongly Agree
20.	The people in the depa	in my w artment'	ork gro s activ	up ar ıties	e not	inter	ested	in being	g involved
	Strongly Disagree	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Strongly Agree
21.	I have a re	asonabl	e amoun	t of	say ab	out de	ecisio	ns that	affect

Scale	e:								
Stro			ightly. sagree	Ag: No:		Slig Agre	htly e	Agree	Strongly Agree
:	1 2		3	Dis	sagree 4	5		6	7
<u> </u>									
22.	There is a	lot of	'in-fi	ghting	g' amon	ngst s	uperv	isors in	this place.
	Strongly Disagree	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Strongly Agree
23.	Since join the compan					fals	e imp	ressions	of the
	Strongly Disagree	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Strongly Agree
24.	New people	are jus	t left	to le	earn th	ne job	the l	best way	they can.
	Strongly Disagree	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Stronglÿ Agree
25.	This job m	akes the	best :	use of	my ak	ilıty	•		
	Strongly Dısagree	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Strongly Agree
26.	It is hard	to acce	pt and	suppo	ort son	ne of	the co	ompany's	policies.
	Strongly Dısagree	1	2	3	4	5		7	Strongly Agree
27.	My supervi	sor is f	air in	his/h	ner dea	ling	with m	me.	
	Strongly Disagree	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Strongly Agree
28.	Already I place to w				ectati	ons al	bout t	che compa	any as a
	Strongly Disagree	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Strongly Agree
29.	I am willı my job req		ss lund	ch onc	e in a	while	e if t	the deman	nds of
	Strongly Disagree	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Strongly Agree

				1					
Scal	<u>.e:</u>								
	ongly Disagree	agree	Slightly Disagree	Aq No	either gree or	Agr	ghtly ee	Agree	Strongly Agrees
	1 2		3	נע	isagree 4	5	i	6	7
30.	The compa	any's w	ork probl	ems a	are not	my p	roblems	5.	
	Strongly Disagree	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Strongly Agree
31.	My super	visor c	o-operate	s wel	ll with	othe	r depai	ctments.	
	Strongly Disagree	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Strongly Agree
32.	My work nam going.		look over	my s	shoulde	r' to	chéck	up on h	low I
	Strongly Disagree	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Strongly Agree
33.	I would a	advise i	most peep	le to	try a	nd ge	t a job	with t	his company.
	Strongly Disagree	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Strongly Agree
34.	I had no	idea so	much was	s inv	olved :	in my	job .		
	Strongly Disagree	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Strongly Agree
35.	My positi	on and	ob withir	thi	s compa	any a	re well	define	d.
	Strongly Disagree	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Strongly Agree
36.	Quite oft	en I fe	eel like s	stayi	ng home	fron	n work	instead	of coming in
	Strongly Disagree	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Strongly Agree
37.	From time	to tim	ne, I will	. hav	e probl	.ems v	with th	e custo	mers.
	Strongly Disagree	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Strongly Agree
38.	What is t	he poin	t of havi	ng n	ew idea	ıs; my	/ Job i	s gover	ned by
	Strongly Disagree	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Strongly Agree

Scal	e:					· · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · ·		
	— ngly Disagre	e Sliġl Disa	gree A N	either gree or isagree	Slıġl Agre	htly e	Agree	Strongly Agree
	1 2	3	D	4	5		6	7
39.	If something usually told			ing on,	which	affec	ts my j	ob, I am
	Strongly Dısagree	1 ;	2 3	4	5	6	7	Strongly Agree
40.	My supervisorabout his/her		interes	ted in 1	nis/he	r own	success	to care
	Stronglŷ <b>D</b> isagree	1 2	2 3	4	5	ΰ	7	Strongly Agree
41.	I was ready	for my jo	b.					
	Strongly Disagree	1 2	2 3	4	5	6	7	Strongly Agree
42.	If another co							kind of
	Strongly Disagree	1 2	2 3	4	5	6	7	Strongly Agree
43.	I know where	to go fo	or help	when I h	nave pr	coblem	s on th	e job.
	Strongly Disagree	1 2	2 3	4	5	6	7	Strongly Agree
44.	I don't know	what to	expect	in worki	.ng for	this	compan	у.
	Strongly Disagree	1 2	: 3	4	5	6	7	Strongly Agree
45.	The company s				peopl	e to	have a	strong
	Strongly Disagree	1 2	3	4	5	6	7	Strongly Agree
46.	I am sometime	es left c	out of the	ne depar	tment'	s soc	ial act	ivities.
	Strongly Disagree	1 2	3	4	5	6	7	Strongly Agree

					•					
Sca1	<u>e</u> :									
	ngly gree	Disagree		ightly sagree	Ag No	ither ree r sagree	Slig Agre	htly e	Agree	Strongly Agree
	1	2	:	3		4	5		6	7
		_						V 1 1		
47.	I am	proud to	tell	my fri	lends	that :	I work	for t	this com	pany.
	Stror Disag		1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Strongly Agree
48.	I dor	n't feel I	ach:	ieve a	lot	in my	job.			
	Stror Disag		1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Stronglý Agree
49.		e is no di ork in thi								
	Stror Disag		1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Strongly Agree
50.	Worki	ng here m	akes	me fee	1 'tı	urned o	off'.			
	Stron Disag		1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Strongly Agree
51.	My su	pervisor	belie	eves st	rong	ly in t	the cor	npany'	s polic	ies.
	Stron Disag		1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Strongly Agree
52.	I don	't find p	roble	ems in	doing	g my jo	ob.			
	Stron Disa	igly igree	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Strongly Agree
53.		willing t ny be suc			han r	ny job	requi	es to	help t	his
	Stron Disag		1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Strongly Agree
54.	Peopl	e in my d	epart	ment a	re no	ot inte	reste	d in t	heir jo	bs.
	Stron Disag		1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Strongly Agree
		<del> </del>								

Scale:

	Strongly Disagree Disagree		lightly isagre	e Ag No		Agr	ghtly ee	Agree	Strongly Agree	
-	1 2	···	3	DI	sagree 4	5 		6	7	
55.	My expecta	ations al	oout th	ne job	and v	what i	t is w	ere very	close.	
	Strongly Disagree	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Strongly Agree	
56.	I used to important	care mon	re abou	ıt my	work,	but no	ow oth	er thing	s are more	
	Strongly Disagree	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Strongly Agree	
57.	The other to work.	employee	es in m	ny dep	artmer	nt like	e the o	company	as a place	
	Strongly Disagree	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Strongly Agree	
58.	This job i	s not th	ne righ	ıt typ	e of w	ork fo	or me.			
	Strongly Disagree	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Strongly Agree	
59.	My work gr	oup is v	ery fr	iendl	y and	close	knit.			
	Strongly Disagree	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Strongly Agree	
50.	There is t	oo much	favour	itısm	aroun	d here	e.			
	Strongly Disagree	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Strongly Agree	
61.	I am reall	y doing	someth	ing wo	orthwh	ile fo	or the	company	in my job.	
	Strongly Disagree	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Strongly Agree	
	Disagree									
52.	Since join of what my	ing the	compan ld be	y, I h like.	nave f	ound t	hat I	had no	real idea	

# APPENDIX K

# QUESTIONNAIRE 3

## UNIVERSITY OF NEW SOUTH WALES

## ORGANISATIONAL ATTITUDES STUDY

(PART THREE)

Department of Organisational Behaviour, Faculty of Commerce.

#### INTRODUCTION

This questionnaire is the <u>third</u> of the four you have been asked to complete over the last few months. As you will remember, the questionnaire is part of a general study being carried out by the University of New South Wales into the feelings new employees have towards their jobs and their employing organisations. The study has the approval of the company.

There are no right or wrong answers to any of the questions. Your answers should be based solely on the way you <u>feel</u> about the question. No person's answers will be revealed to anyone in your company, so please <u>answer all questions honestly</u>. Once the data has been punched on computer cards the questionnaires will be destroyed. The confidential nature of your response will be maintained at all times.

The questionnaire is divided into three parts. At the beginning of each section there is a short introductory note giving instructions on how that section is to be completed. Please follow the directions and ensure that you answer all questions.

PLEASE PROCEED TO PART 1:

## PART 1.

т	n	_	+	rı		_	4 م	٠,	_	n	c	
	n	94	т	r	ш	•		1 (	)	п	-	•

Please	answe	er ea	ach que	estion	by	circ	cling	, the	number	of	the	appropriate
respons	se on	the	right	hand	side	of	the	page	e.g.	L :	es.	

respo	nse o	n the right hand side of the page e.g. l Yes.
1.	indi	ring normal Public Holidays and rostered days off, please cate as accurately as possible how many DAYS you have been from work since the last questionnaire.
		1. Illness
		2. Accident ( at work or home)
		3. Compassionate leave
		4. Study leave
		5. Transport/Petrol strike
		6. Strike or work stoppage (inside company)
		7. Leave without pay
		8. Other (please write in)
2.	(a)	Have you tried to change jobs/departments within this company since the last questionnaire?  (If yes, please complete (b) and ignore (c)
		If no, ignore (b) and complete (c) 1. Yes
		2. No
	(b)	How hard have you tried to change jobs/departments?
		1. Tried once
		2. Tried twice
		<ol> <li>Tried three or more times</li> </ol>
	(c)	Why haven't you tried to change jobs/departments?
		<pre>1. I don't want to - am very satisfied where I am</pre>
		2. I am satisfied where I am.

I am thinking of changing

I would if I could - there are no opportunities

I will take the first opportunity to change.

3.

4. 5.

3.	(a)	Have you tried to change employers since the last questionnaire?
		(If yes, please complete (b) and ignore (c) 1. Yes If no, ignore (b) and complete (c) 2. No
		<del></del>
	(b)	How hard have you tried to change employers?
		1. Tried once
		2. Tried twice
		3. Tried three or more times
	, ,	
	(c)	Why haven't you tried to change employers?
		<ol> <li>I don't want to- am very satisfied where I am.</li> </ol>
		<ol> <li>I am satisfied where I am.</li> </ol>
		3. I am thinking of changing
		<ol> <li>I would if I could - there are no opportunities.</li> </ol>
		5. I will take the first opportunity to change.
4.	indi or l	ou have answered <u>yes</u> to either Question 2(a) or 3(a), or cated that you are considering changing jobs/departments eaving the company (i.e. part (c) of Question 2 and 3) d you please give your reasons why.
	(a)	Reasons for wishing to change jobs/departments
	(b)	Reasons for wishing to change employers

### PART 2 and PART 3

As this study had a repeated measures design, part 2 and part 3 of this questionnaire (that is, Organisational Attitudes Study - Part 3) are identical to the previous questionnaire (i.e. Organisational Attitudes Study - Part 2).

# APPENDIX L

# QUESTIONNAIRE 4.

### THE UNIVERSITY OF NEW SOUTH WALES

#### ORGANISATIONAL ATTITUDES STUDY

(PART FOUR)

Department of Organisational Behaviour, Faculty of Commerce.

#### INSTRUCTIONS

This questionnaire is the <u>last of the four</u> you have been asked to complete over the last few months. As you will remember, the questionnaire is part of a general study being carried out by the University of New South Wales into the feelings new employees have towards their jobs and their employing organisation. Your participation has been very much appreciated.

There are no right or wrong answers to any of the questions. Your answers should be based solely on the way you feel about the question. No person's answers will be revealed to anyone in your company, so please answer all questions honestly. Once the data has been punched on computer cards the questionnaires will be destroyed. The confidential nature of your responses will be maintained at all times.

The questionnaire is divided into three main parts. At the beginning of each section there is a short introductory note giving instructions on how that section is to be completed. Please follow the directions and ensure that you answer all questions.

PLEASE PROCEED TO PART 1 NOW:

## PARTS 1, 2 and 3

As this study had a repeated measures design, parts 1,2 and 3 of this questionnaire (that is, Organisational Attitudes Study - Part 4) are identical to the previous questionnaire (that is, Organisational Attitudes Study - Part 3).

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