

**THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN ORGANISATIONAL CULTURE AND  
ORGANISATIONAL COMMITMENT**

by

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*I can do all things through Christ who is my strength. Philippians 4.13*

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## DECLARATION

I, Chantal Micaela Latchigadu, the undersigned, hereby declare that this dissertation "The relationship between organisational culture and organisational commitment" is my own work, and that all the sources I have used or quoted have been indicated and acknowledged by means of complete references.

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**C M Latchigadu**

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**Date**

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## **SUMMARY**

### **THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN ORGANISATIONAL CULTURE AND ORGANISATIONAL COMMITMENT**

**SUPERVISOR:** Professor Nico Martins

**DEGREE** : Master of Commerce

**SUBJECT** : Industrial and Organisational Psychology

Corporate culture is believed to be integral to organisational success and sustainability. This research study was conducted according to a humanistic, positive psychology and an open systems paradigm in order to examine the theoretical relationship between organisational culture and organisational commitment.

The quantitative measuring instruments used for data collection were the Harrison and Stokes organisational culture questionnaire (OCQ) and Allen and Meyer's organisational commitment scale (OCS). The empirical study involved respondents from a selected IT company in the KwaZulu-Natal region.

This study revealed that there was no significant relationship between organisational culture and organisational commitment. However, there was a difference between the existing and preferred power culture as well as the existing and preferred role culture dimensions.

The main recommendation for this study is that the selected IT company should set stretch targets with a focus on common vision, purpose and company values, with a strong emphasis on creating meaningful rewards for top performers at both individual and team level.

#### **KEY TERMS**

Organisational culture dimensions; organisational commitment dimensions; organisational culture; organisational commitment; existing organisational culture; preferred organisational culture; power culture; role culture; support culture; affective commitment; normative commitment; continuance commitment and corporate culture

## **CHAPTER 1: SCIENTIFIC ORIENTATION TO THE RESEARCH**

### **1.1 INTRODUCTION**

This research focuses on the relationship between organisational culture and organisational commitment. The aim of this chapter is to provide the background to and motivation for the research. The organisational background, the problem statement and the aims of the research are discussed. The paradigm perspective of the research is explained, followed by the research design, research methodology and an overview of the chapter layout. This chapter ends with a chapter summary.

### **1.2 BACKGROUND AND MOTIVATION**

In 1998, a *Fortune* survey among the CEO's of the most admired companies indicated that corporate culture was believed to be the most important lever in enhancing their key capabilities (Yiing & Ahmad, 2009). In keeping with the aforementioned, corporate culture has received an abundance of attention over the last 20 years, mainly because of its potential impact on organisational success (Yiing & Ahmad, 2009).

The pioneering work of Deal and Kennedy (1982) aroused the interest of many researchers to conceptualise corporate culture and how the values and philosophies in this culture guide employee behaviour in the organisation towards greater success. Corporate culture can affect the success of organisations in achieving their goals and objectives, and while the latter may be true, the commitment of the people in organisations is also essential to ensure successful implementation of organisational policies and plans (Rashid, Sambasivan, & Johari, 2003).

There is an extensive amount of theoretical research in the field of organisational culture and organisational commitment both nationally and internationally. However, there is a dearth of research in the scientific arena of determining the relationship between the two variables in South Africa, and more specifically in the IT industry.

The years 2008 to 2011 witnessed the most unprecedented financial crisis the world had ever faced. Not since the great depression had the world economy experienced such enormous pressure. The USA and Europe had gone into recession and the countries of the East such China and India were experiencing much slower economic growth than before. The South African economy was less severely affected because of the prudent bank

regulatory framework adopted and prompted by the South African Reserve Bank. However, owing to the fact that South Africa is far too much of an open economy, it is impossible for the country to remain unaffected by international developments.

By the end of the first quarter of 2009, it was clear that South Africa was heading for a recession and that the economy was not likely to recover before the end of 2009 or the beginning of 2010. More companies closed their doors than in any other years, and by the end of the first quarter of 2009, approximately 200 000 jobs had been lost in the economy. This figure then rose to 400 000 before the end of that year (CRF, South African Partnerships, 2009). It was evident that the private sector and other institutions, faced with the challenge of surviving in turbulent times, had to identify opportunities and prepare for a different long-term growth scenario.

With less money going around and a cut in perks as the economy is experiencing at present, organisations need to be prudent when attracting and retaining the right staff (CRF, South African Partnerships, 2013). Many believe that the latter starts with a sound reputation and a strong organisational culture that upholds values that both potential and current employees can identify with. This research investigation arose as a result of the researcher's interest in identifying the dimensions of both organisational culture and organisational commitment and an understanding of their interrelatedness in these troubled times. Now more than ever there is a need for companies to identify and understand the key dimensions of organisational culture and organisational commitment in an attempt to retain their top talent (CRF, South African Partnerships, 2013).

The 21st century is an age of knowledge workers where employees understand their rights as individuals and as workers. Companies are often faced with challenges when engaging with staff members who exit the organisation based on not identifying with or not being comfortable with organisational culture, and quite often, little done to evaluate the current situation and make changes accordingly. In the past, organisational culture was seen to be of less importance as opposed to the survival of the organisation. However, in the last decade, organisational culture has been viewed as being critical to the survival and maintenance of the competitive advantage of organisations (Yiing & Ahmad, 2009).

Organisational commitment has been identified and measured in several ways and linked to many job-related variables. Allen and Meyer (1990) developed a measure of organisational commitment with the affective, continuance and normative commitment dimensions to better understand the reasons why employees remain with their companies. These components

are discussed in detail in this study. When employees are sure that they will grow and learn with their current employers, their level of commitment to stay with that particular organisation is higher. In order to make employees committed to their jobs, there is a need for strong and effective motivational strategies at various levels of the organisation.

In addition, organisational culture can lead to greater productivity and profitability, generating commitment to the values and philosophies of the organisation (Kotter & Heskitt, 1992; Martin & Siehl, 1983; Sørensen, 2002). An organisation's culture can also assist in projecting a positive image (Want, 2003). It has been found that increased organisational commitment has led to reduced turnover of employees (Wasti, 2003) and has resulted in an increase in organisational performance (Jaramillo, Mulki, & Marshall, 2005). Ensuring reduced turnover is crucial for the IT industry to maintain its key skills in the present state of skills shortages in South Africa (CRF, South African Partnerships, 2013).

The rationale for this research was to contribute to the broader research body by adding to the existing knowledge in the field of industrial and organisational psychology. This study investigated the relationship between organisational culture and organisational commitment in a South African multinational company in the information technology (IT) industry.

### **1.3 ORGANISATIONAL BACKGROUND**

The multinational IT company that was investigated in this study enjoys a presence in 50 countries on all inhabited continents of the world. The company has over 15 000 employees worldwide. It specialises in planning, supporting and managing IT (information technology) infrastructure for more than 6 000 commercial clients worldwide, including players in the government, education, financial services and the telecommunications industries and deals with cutting-edge technology.

For the 2014 financial year, the company recorded revenues of 6.34 billion dollars and amassed an impressive 38 industry awards globally. Strategic alliances with global vendors such as Cisco and Microsoft remain fundamental to the company's success. It is likely to concentrate on extending operations into Africa as the continent's ICT industry expands and grows. The company has a specific focus on human resources as skilled employees are critical to its survival and competitive advantage.

## **1.4 PROBLEM STATEMENT**

The company's competitive advantage is its ability to provide workable IT (information technology) solutions and the excellent service its skilled employees render to its clients. A major concern is the dramatic volatility and uncertainty gripping world markets and the political instability in South Africa. These two factors have resulted in no industry and no company being left unscathed. Against this tumultuous backdrop, attracting and retaining people could easily be relegated to the bottom of the "to-do list". It is in these difficult times that companies need to hold on to their efficient staff as finding and retaining top talent is crucial to business success (CRF, South African Partnerships, 2013). It is therefore vital for companies to make attraction and retention a key part of their business strategies because retaining top talent is integral to providing the highest quality standard to the client in the shortest time.

The company has in past years had difficulty retaining its employees. A large portion of the company's money is spent on training and developing staff in their areas of expertise, and losing skilled staff is a major risk to business sustainability and profitability.

Employees who leave the organisation cite many reasons for doing so, the most common being that they do not identify with the organisation's culture. In addition, the current economic downturn has meant that companies need to be conservative with financial rewards and incentives. The company aims to have a strong organisational culture that present and future employees can identify with and want to be a part of. This study investigated the current and preferred organisational culture dimensions and how these affect employee commitment. Recommendations are made in line with the findings of the study.

### **1.4.1 General research question**

The main research question for this study was as follows:

Is there a relationship between organisational culture and organisational commitment in the selected IT company?

In addition, the following questions were formulated to direct the study:

- How can organisational culture be conceptualised and what are its dimensions?
- How can organisational commitment be conceptualised and what are its dimensions?

- What is the theoretical relationship between organisational culture and organisational commitment?
- What is the empirical relationship between organisational culture and organisational commitment?
- What is/are the dominant existing and preferred organisational culture dimension/s in the selected IT company?
- What is/are the dominant existing organisational commitment dimension/s in the organisation?
- What is the gap between the existing and the preferred organisational culture dimensions in the selected IT company?
- What are the appropriate recommendations regarding organisational culture and increasing organisational commitment levels in the company?
- What recommendations can be made for future research in this field?

## **1.5 AIMS OF THE RESEARCH**

### **1.5.1 General aim**

The general aim of the study was to investigate the relationship between organisational culture and organisational commitment in the selected IT company.

### **1.5.2 Specific aims**

The theoretical aims of the study were to

- conceptualise organisational culture;
- conceptualise organisational commitment; and
- discuss the theoretical relationship between organisational culture and organisational commitment.

The empirical aims were to

- determine the dominant existing and preferred organisational culture dimension/s in the selected IT company;
- determine the dominant existing organisational commitment dimension/s in the company;
- determine the empirical relationship between organisational culture and organisational commitment;

- identify the gap between the existing and the preferred organisational culture dimensions in the selected IT company;
- formulate appropriate recommendations regarding organisational culture and increasing organisational commitment levels in the company; and
- make recommendations for future research in this field

## 1.6 THE PARADIGM PERSPECTIVE

According to Mouton and Marais (1994), paradigms are a collection of meta-theoretical, theoretical and methodological beliefs that have been selected from the intellectual climate and the market of intellectual resources of a particular discipline.

According to Newman (1994), most ongoing social research is based on positivism and interpretive social science. A specific approach is linked to different traditions in social theory and research techniques. An approach is like a research programme, research tradition or scientific paradigm. A model includes its basic assumptions, important questions to be answered or problems to be solved and the research techniques to be used (Mouton & Marais, 1994).

This study adopted a humanistic, positive psychology and open systems paradigm to examine the theoretical relationship between organisational culture and organisational commitment. According to Meyer, Moore, and Viljoen (1997), the humanist paradigm presents human beings as integrated people who actively and consciously strive towards the actualisation of their potential.

According to Meyer et al. (1997), the basic assumptions of the humanistic approach include the following:

- Every individual functions as an integrated whole and should be studied in the “gestalt”.
- Recognition should be given to spiritual processes, for example growth and actualisation.
- The nature of a person is basically good and positive.
- The conscious processes of individuals, specifically with regard to decision making, play an important role.
- Psychological wellness serves as a criterion against which functioning is measured (Meyer et al., 1997).

Abraham Maslow was a key humanistic psychologist. According to his (1965, 1971) work on human motivation in organisations, the individual exhibits capacities that transcend the experiences of the physical world. Maslow (1971) postulated that self-actualising people are involved in a cause outside their own skin, something that is outside them. Maslow (1971) also identified high levels of perceived meaningfulness in the lives of the self-actualising subjects whom he studied.

Positive psychology is defined as the scientific study of ordinary, positive, subjective human strengths, virtues, experiences and functioning (Seligman & Csikszentmihalyi, 2000; Sheldon & King, 2001).

The aim of positive psychology is to understand and then enhance those factors that allow individuals, communities and societies to flourish. Positive psychology studies various individual constructs such as the following:

- (1) individual strengths such as emotional intelligence, locus of control and self-efficacy (Lopez & Snyder, 2003);
- (2) emotional experiences in the present such as happiness, creativity, courage and gratitude (Lopez & Snyder, 2003);
- (3) constructive cognitions about the future such as hope and optimism (Peterson, 2000);  
and
- (4) specific coping approaches such as meaning, positive coping (Somerfield & McCrae, 2000) and spirituality (Richards & Bergin, 2005).

The open system approach is a holistic approach but also emphasises the interdependence between the different subsystems and elements in an organisation which are regarded as an open system (French & Bell, 1995). The organisation is seen as one element of a number of elements that act independently. The main premise is that individuals as self-systems (biological, cognitive, social and psychological) can best be understood by examining their functioning in the wider organisational system that surrounds them (Cummings, 1980)

The present study involved a convergence of all the aforementioned paradigms and endeavoured to investigate the relationship between organisational culture and organisational commitment within the discipline of industrial and organisational psychology in a selected IT company.

## **1.7 RESEARCH DESIGN**

According to Bless and Higson-Smith (1995), research design has two meanings. Firstly, it is a programme used to guide the researcher in collecting, analysing and interpreting observed facts; and secondly, it is a specification of the most adequate operations to be performed in order to attain specific hypotheses under given conditions. The aim of research design, according to Mouton and Marais (1993), is to plan and structure a given research project in such a way that the eventual validity of the research findings is maximised.

Research design is therefore synonymous with rational decision making during the research process. Irrespective of how structured or unstructured the research project is likely to be, it is the researcher's duty to ascertain which general nuisance variables may render the results invalid and to take every possible step to ensure that these factors are either minimised or eliminated (Mouton & Marais, 1993)

In order to understand the dynamics of the study, it is important to establish the relevant research variables. Mouton and Marais (1994) refer to the independent variable as the antecedent phenomenon in the cause and effect relationship, whereas the dependent variable is seen as the consequent phenomenon.

According to Sekaran (1992), the independent variable is defined as the variable that influences the dependent variable either positively or negatively. For the purposes of this study, the independent variable was organisational culture.

Sekaran (1992) also mentions that the dependent variable is defined as a variable of primary interest to the researcher and further that the researcher's goal is to predict or explain the variability in the dependent variable. For the purposes of this study, the dependent variable was organisational commitment.

The survey design was used in this study because it was deemed to be the most appropriate research design to measure the perceptions of the respondents (Kerlinger & Lee, 2000).

### **1.7.1 Type of research**

This research entailed both a descriptive and qualitative literature review (theoretical basis to facilitate an understanding of the problem and the research). According to Christensen (1997), the descriptive research approach indicates that the primary characteristic

represents an attempt to provide an accurate description or picture of a particular situation or phenomenon. The quantitative empirical study investigates the relationship between the independent variable (organisational culture) and the dependent variable (organisational commitment). Hypotheses were tested by means of measurement of variables and a statistical analysis of the results. The SPSS (Statistical packages for social sciences) was used to analyse the data statistically.

### **1.7.2 Unit of analysis**

The unit of analysis for this study was the individual responses to the organisational culture and organisational commitment questionnaires.

## **1.8 RESEARCH METHODOLOGY**

The research is discussed in two phases.

### **Phase 1: Literature review**

#### *Organisational culture*

In the literature review, the definition, theoretical background and dimensions of organisational culture are discussed.

#### *Organisational commitment*

A definition of organisational commitment and its dimensions is provided and the relevant approaches to and research on organisational commitment discussed.

#### *The relationship between organisational culture and organisational commitment.*

A theoretical integration is provided between organisational culture and organisational commitment.

### **Phase 2: Empirical study**

#### *Population and sample*

The KwaZulu-Natal region of the IT company constituted the population for this study. The sample consisted of the employees who completed the questionnaire. A random sample

method was used. According to Mouton and Marais (1994), a random sample ensures that all members of the population have an equal chance of participating in the research study.

#### *Data collection techniques*

Pen-and-paper-based self-administered questionnaires were used to measure the two constructs in this study. The completed questionnaires were dropped off at the HR department in a secured box in the HR manager's office.

#### *Data analysis*

The statistical process used for the data is also discussed.

#### *Interpretation of the empirical results*

The results and interpretation of the research findings are explained.

#### *Integration of the literature review and the empirical study*

The interpretation of the results regarding the literature review and the empirical research are discussed.

#### *Conclusion of the study*

Conclusions regarding the results are formulated taking the aims of the research process into account.

#### *Limitations of the study*

The literature review and the empirical study are used to discuss the limitations of the research study.

#### *Recommendations*

Recommendations are formulated in terms of the literature and possible future research on organisational culture and organisational commitment.

## **1.9 CHAPTER LAYOUT**

To achieve the aims of this study, the chapters are presented as follows:

Chapter 2: Organisational culture

Chapter 3: Organisational commitment

Chapter 4: Empirical research

Chapter 5: Results of the empirical study

### **1.10 CHAPTER SUMMARY**

This chapter explained the background to and motivation for this research study. This was followed by a brief discussion of the organisational background. This chapter also included a discussion of the problem statement, aims of the study, paradigm perspective, literature review, research design and research method, and provided the chapter layout. Chapter 2 explores the concept of organisational culture.

## **CHAPTER 2: ORGANISATIONAL CULTURE**

Chapter 1 provided the background to and motivation for this research with specific reference to organisational culture and organisational commitment as the two main variables. In this chapter, the focus is on exploring the concept "organisational culture". The chapter takes the form of a discussion on the theoretical background to organisational culture, followed by definitions of the concept by various authors. In addition, there is a discussion of the organisational model adopted in this study as well as the dimensions of organisational culture. This is followed by an exploration of ways to create and develop organisational culture, and the importance of organisational culture and its consequences are discussed. The chapter ends with a summary.

### **2.1 THEORETICAL BACKGROUND TO THE CONCEPT OF ORGANISATIONAL CULTURE**

Organisational culture is a set of beliefs, values, work styles and relationships that distinguish one organisation from another (Hofstede, 2005). Van den Berg and Wilderom (2004) maintain that organisational culture refers to the shared perceptions of organisational work practices within organisational units that may differ from other organisational units. It is the interdependent set of shared values and ways of behaving that are common to the organisation and tend to perpetuate themselves (Kotter & Heskett, 1992).

Furthermore, Sadri and Lees (2001) state that a positive corporate culture can have immense benefits for the organisation, thereby creating a leading competitive edge over other organisations in the industry. However, a negative culture may have a negative impact on the organisation's performance as it may deter the organisation from adopting the required strategic or tactical changes; such types of culture often inhibit future changes in the organisation (Sadri & Lees, 2001). Schein (1999), views culture as the sum total of all the shared and taken-for-granted assumptions that a group has learnt throughout its history, and it is determined to be the residue of success. Culture is also the structure and control system that generates behavioural standards. Schein (1992) further defines organisational culture as "the way we do things around here", "the rights and rituals of our company", "the company's climate" and "our basic values". Schein sees organisational culture as follows:

- It is a pattern of basic assumptions about how the group copes with the outside world and about how members should act within the group.
- These assumptions define how members should perceive, think and feel about problems.

- These assumptions have been invented, discovered or developed by the group out of its experiences.
- The group sees these assumptions as valid, that is, "they work".
- The group thinks it is important to teach these assumptions to new members (Schein, 1992).

Robbins and Judge (2011) mention that organisational culture refers to a system of shared meaning held by members that distinguishes one organisation from the next. The authors believe that organisational values and the essence of an organisation's culture can be captured in the following seven primary characteristics:

- **Innovation and risk taking:** The degree to which employees are encouraged to be innovative and take risks;
- **Attention to detail:** The degree to which employees are expected to exhibit precision analysis and attention to detail;
- **Outcome orientation:** The degree to which management focuses on results or outcomes rather than on the techniques and processes used to achieve these outcomes;
- **People orientation:** The degree to which management decisions take into consideration the effect of outcomes on people within the organisation;
- **Team orientation:** The degree to which work activities are organised around teams rather than individuals;
- **Aggressiveness:** The degree to which people are aggressive and competitive rather than easy-going; and
- **Stability:** The degree to which organisational activities emphasise maintaining the status quo in contrast to growth.

In the last few decades, organisational culture has evoked much interest among researchers for various reasons, one of which is the noticeably direct effect it has on the performance, survival and longevity of an organisation (Muthuveloo & Rose, 2005). Lok and Crawford (2003) suggest that organisational culture can exert considerable influence in an organisation, particularly in areas such as performance and commitment.

It is evident from the above discussion that organisational culture plays an integral role in promoting organisational success.

## 2.2 DEFINITIONS OF ORGANISATIONAL CULTURE

There is no single definition of organisational culture. The topic has been studied from a variety of perspectives, ranging from disciplines such as anthropology and sociology, to the applied disciplines of organisational behaviour, management science and organisational commitment. The definitions below are the views of authors from the applied science disciplines and were deemed to be more relevant to the scope of this research study.

Robbins (2001) postulates that culture, as a concept, has had a long and chequered history. In the last decade, it has been used by some organisational researchers and managers to indicate the climate and practices that the organisation develops around the handling of people or to refer to its espoused values and credo. Schein (1999) defines culture as a pattern of shared basic assumptions that the group learnt as it solved problems of external adaptation and internal integration that has worked well enough to be considered valid and, therefore, to be taught to new members as the correct way to perceive, think and feel in relation to those problems. Mullins (2006) defines the concept as the collection of traditions, values, beliefs, policies and attitudes that constitute a pervasive context for everything one does and thinks in an organisation. Aswathappa (2003) refers to culture as a complex whole which includes knowledge, belief, art, morals, law, custom and other capabilities and habits acquired by humans in a society.

Robbins (1996, p. 687) argues that for the group member, culture is the “social glue that helps hold the organisation together by providing appropriate standards in terms of what employees should say and do”. Mullins (2006) defines organisational culture as the collection of traditions, values, beliefs, policies and attitudes that constitute a pervasive context for everything one does and thinks in an organisation.

Furthermore, Hellriegel et al. (2004) posit that organisational culture is the distinctive pattern of shared assumptions, values and norms that shape the socialisation activities, language, symbols, rites and ceremonies of a group of people. This definition emphasises a number of important aspects of organisational culture, such as shared assumptions, shared values, shared socialisation and norms, and shared symbols, language, narratives and practices, and also shows how organisational culture assists employees in being introduced and socialised into the new organisation, while concurrently ensuring internal integration. In so doing, organisational culture demonstrates to employees how to perceive, think and feel when faced with new problems within their new organisational environment.

In light of the above, the definition employed for this study was that of Harrison (1993) which is that organisational culture is the distinctive constellation of beliefs, values, work styles and relationships that distinguish one organisation from the next.

## **2.3 MODELS OF ORGANISATIONAL CULTURE**

A number of theoretical frameworks pertaining to organisational culture have been designed (Deal & Kennedy, 1982; Harrison & Stokes, 1992; Hellriegel et al., 2004; Schein, 1992). Models are useful because they provide broad overviews of the variations that exist between organisational cultures (Brown, 1995). In order to gain a better understanding of different concepts of organisational culture, three models will be briefly discussed, with particular emphasis on the Harrison and Stokes (1992) model.

### **2.3.1 Organisational culture model (Hellriegel et al., 2004)**

According to Hellriegel et al. (2004), cultural elements and their relationships within an organisation form a pattern that is a unique part of that organisation, and this creates its culture. They (2004) refer to bureaucratic culture, clan culture, entrepreneurial culture and market culture. Figure 2.1 graphically represents the first model that will be discussed with regard to organisational culture.

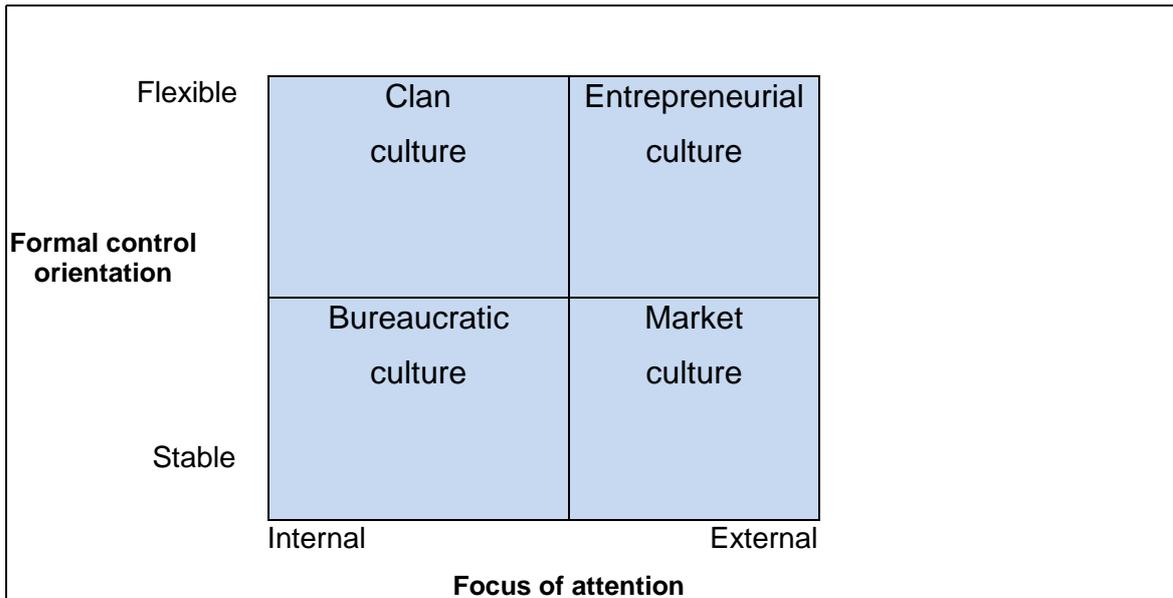


Figure 2.1. Organisational culture model (Hellriegel et al., 2004)

In figure 2.1, the vertical axis reflects the relative formal control orientation within the organisation, which ranges from stable to flexible control. By contrast, the horizontal axis reflects the relative focus of attention of the organisation, and ranges from internal to external functioning. The corners of the four quadrants correspond to four organisational culture types, namely the bureaucratic, clan, entrepreneurial and market cultures. Each of the four organisational culture types developed by Hellriegel et al. (2004) are briefly discussed below.

- **Bureaucratic culture:** This type of organisation values rules, hierarchical coordination, formalisation and standard operating procedures, with the long-term concerns being efficiency, predictability and stability (Hellriegel et al., 2004). Managers in a bureaucratic organisation are good coordinators, organisers and enforcers of rules and procedures that are clearly defined. The tasks, responsibilities and authority for all the employees of the organisation are also clearly stated. Hellriegel et al. (2004) assert that most municipalities and government institutions have bureaucratic cultures which can hinder their effectiveness and efficiency. The focus of attention of this organisation is internal, and formal control is stable.
- **Clan culture:** Characteristics of this type of organisation are tradition, loyalty, teamwork, personal commitment and self-management. Focus is internal, yet formal control is flexible. The members of this organisation recognise an

obligation that is beyond their job descriptions, with the understanding that their contributions to the organisation may exceed their contractual agreements. Employees realise that their long-term commitment to the organisation, in the form of loyalty, is in exchange for the organisation's long-term commitment to them in the form of security. Unity from this culture type is created through a long and thorough socialisation process, where long-term clan members serve as mentors and role models for newer members. There is also strong peer pressure to adhere to important norms in the organisation, and an environment is created in which few departments are left completely free from normative pressures, which may generate innovation and risk-taking behaviour (Hellriegel et al., 2004). Success is assumed to depend on teamwork, participation, consensus, decision making and employee sensitivity to customers and concern for people (Hellriegel et al., 2004).

- **Entrepreneurial culture:** Attributes of this cultural form are high levels of risk taking, dynamism and creativity (Hellriegel et al., 2004). Employees are committed to experimentation, innovation and being on the leading edge. This organisational culture type reacts quickly to change, and creates change because of individual initiatives, flexibility and freedom resulting in growth and reward (Hellriegel et al., 2004). Effectiveness in this organisation means providing new and unique products and rapid growth. The organisation focuses its attention externally and formal control orientation is flexible in order to foster innovation and change.
  
- **Market culture:** According to Hellriegel et al. (2004), the achievement of measurable and demanding goals, especially those that are finance based and market based are characteristics of this type of organisational culture. In this organisation, the relationship between employee and organisation is contractual, where the obligation of each is agreed in advance – therefore the formal control orientation is fairly stable. This is because the employee is responsible for an agreed level of performance, with the organisation exchanging this for an agreed level of remuneration and reward in return (Hellriegel et al., 2004). Competitiveness and a profit-gaining orientation therefore exist throughout this organisation because increased levels of performance from the employee are rewarded through increased compensation from the organisation (Hellriegel et al., 2004).

### 2.3.2 Three-level organisational culture model (Schein, 1992)

Schein (1992) identified three levels of culture which were developed from the perspective of the observer, namely observable artefacts, exposed values and basic underlying assumptions. These levels are depicted in figure 2.2.

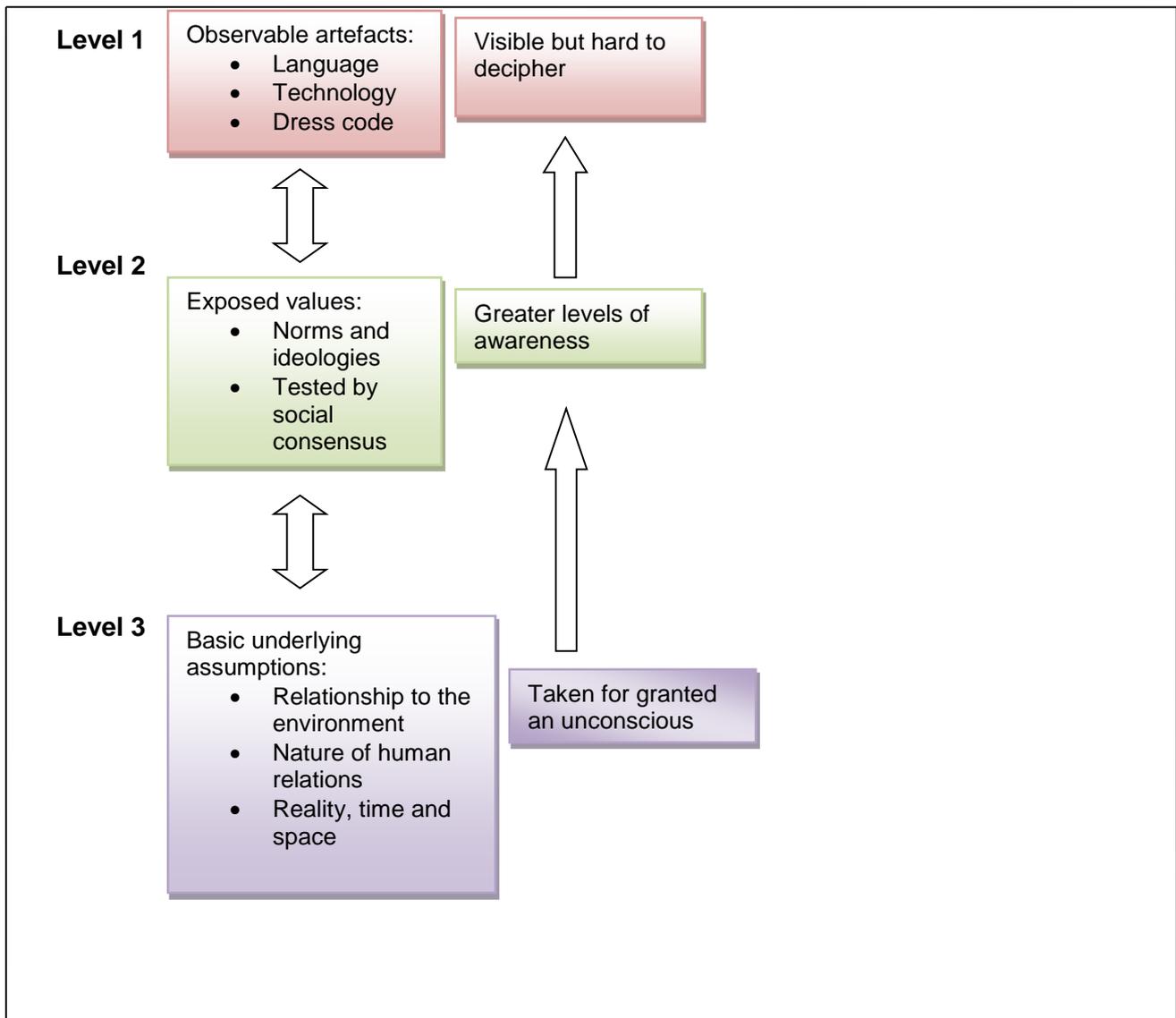


Figure 2.2. Three-level organisational culture model (Schein, 1992, p. 12)

**Level 1: Artefacts:** This is noticeable as it relates to the observable aspects of the organisational culture such as the dress code, office environment and the written and spoken language (Schein, 1991). This would also include the verbal, action and material elements of organisational symbolism such as myths, stories, language, rituals and logos.

However, it is not that easy to accurately decipher the meaning ascribed to these artefacts by the members of the organisation (Schein, 1991).

**Level 2: Exposed values:** Values are generally determined by the leader and later become assimilated into the organisation (Schein, 1991). This level also refers to norms, ideologies, charters and philosophies that are found in the organisation (Schein, 1992). According to Schein (1991), values will become assumptions over a period of time as they are perceived to lead to success. They are then taken for granted and no longer questioned.

**Level 3: Basic underlying assumptions:** Basic assumptions are found at the deepest level of the organisational culture and are the hardest for an outside observer to identify. They have been taken for granted as reality and are no longer challenged, and they determine perceptions, behaviour and thought processes (Schein, 1991). Once these assumptions are understood, it is much easier to decipher the meaning behind the observed artefacts and behaviours.

In addition, Martin and Siehl (1983) have proposed a fourth level of culture to this model, which they have termed “management practices”. These include training programmes, hiring of staff, allocation of rewards and making use of artefacts to instil values that are based on the underlying assumptions (Martin & Siehl, 1983).

### **2.3.3 Organisational culture model (Harrison, 1972)**

Harrison (1993) presented a theoretical model for the purpose of diagnosing culture, as depicted in figure 2.3. According to Harrison (1993, p. 148), “though the model is intended to be descriptive rather than evaluative, there is a tendency to perceive it in evaluative terms”. Harrison (1972) developed a typology for understanding organisational culture. This model suggests the following four organisational cultural orientations, as shown in figure 2.3:

- power orientation;
- role orientation;
- task orientation; and
- person orientation (Harrison, 1972).

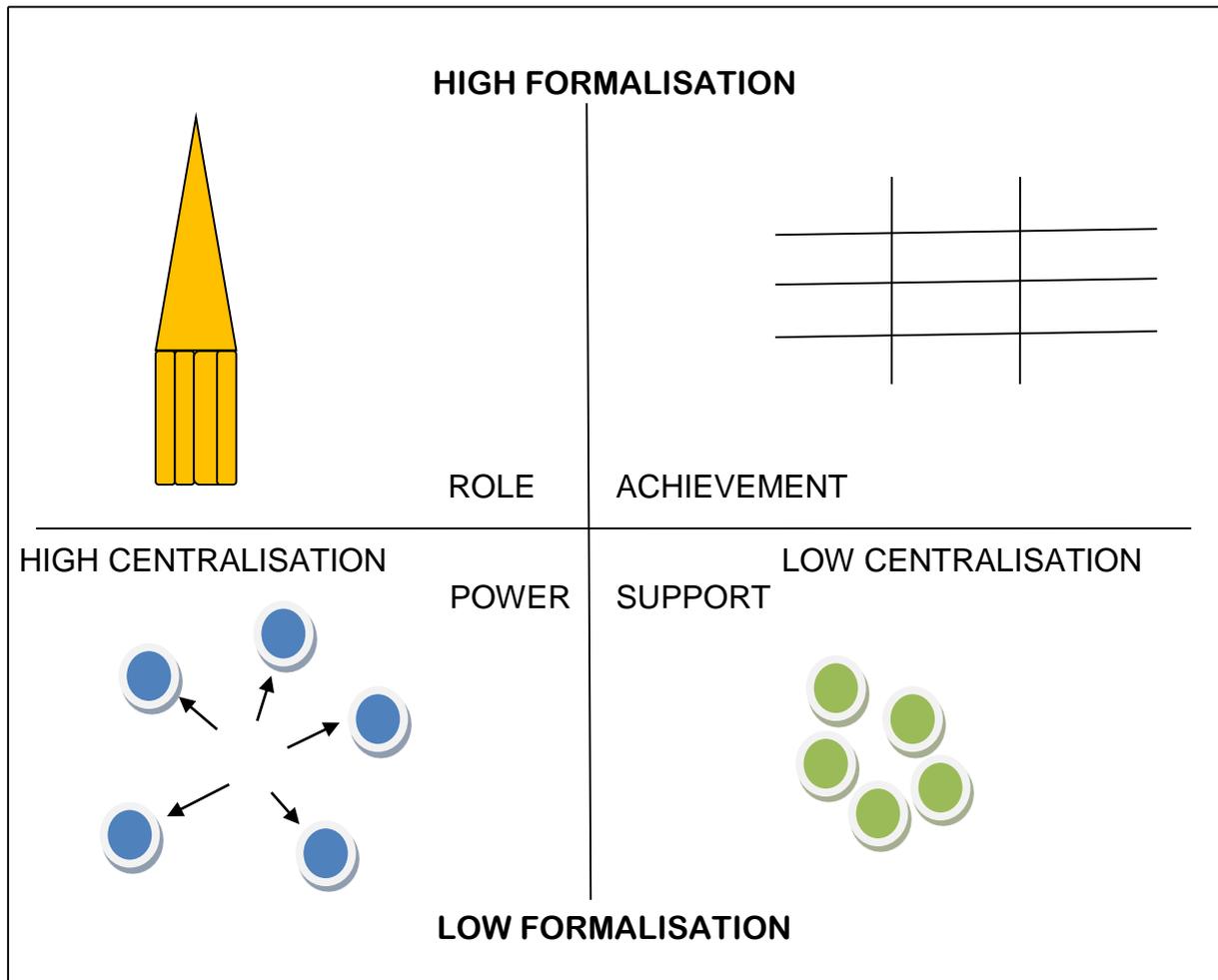


Figure 2.3. Organisational culture model (Harrison, 1972, p. 154)

Harrison's (1972) cultural orientations were adapted by Harrison and Stokes (1992) to create

- power orientation;
- role orientation;
- achievement orientation; and
- support orientation (Harrison & Stokes, 1992).

### 2.3.3.1 Harrison and Stokes' (1992) dimensions of organisational culture

As highlighted earlier in this study, Harrison and Stokes (1992) suggest four types of organisational culture dimensions which were adopted in this study. The types of organisational culture dimensions are role culture, power culture, achievement culture and support culture. These are discussed below.

a *Role culture*

In role culture, work is performed out of a respect for contractual obligations backed up by sanctions and personal loyalty towards the organisation or system (Handy, 1985). The role culture is based on the existence of rules, procedures and job descriptions, as opposed to the sole power of the leaders found in the power culture (Brown, 1995; Harrison & Stokes, 1992; Martin, 2001). The struggle for power is moderated by the rules, and these rules lead to the idea that the role culture is bureaucratic and the organising principles are rationality, order and dependability (Brown, 1995; Harrison & Stokes, 1992; Van der Post, De Coning & Smit, 1998). In the role culture's bureaucratic working environment, authority and responsibility are delegated downwards, and each level in the organisation has a defined area of authority where work is able to be done continuously without direct supervision from top management (Harrison & Stokes, 1992).

An advantage of the role orientation culture is that employees of an organisation are able to allocate more energy to doing their work than they would without the rules and structures of the role orientation (Harmse, 2001). However, a weakness of this culture type is that employees are assumed not to be trusted and individual autonomy and discretion is not given to lower-level members (Harrison & Stokes, 1992). Employees are controlled so much that they may be prevented from making the correct choices and being innovative if it is outside the rules (Harmse, 2001; Harrison & Stokes, 1992). Also, traditional role-orientation organisations may have difficulty keeping up with rapidly changing environments because in the interests of rationality and order, it is difficult to change the rules, and therefore it may take longer to make any necessary changes in order to adapt (Harrison & Stokes, 1992).

Quinn and McGrath's (1958) empirical expert type of leadership fits within the role culture, the leader is a technical expert and well informed and he or she keeps track of all details and contributes expertise. His or her influence is based on information control, and as a result, documentation and information management are actively pursued (Cameron & Quinn, 1999). The empirical expert leader does what he or she is authorised to do (Pheysey, 1993). Another common management style which is found in organisations with a role culture is laissez-faire (Lippitt & White, 1958), which means "leave alone and leave others to do". In this case, leadership is once again invisible, impersonal and even evasive (Lippitt & White, 1958).

### *b Power culture*

In the power culture, work is performed out of hope of reward, fear of punishment or loyalty towards a powerful individual (Handy, 1985). This culture type is usually found in small organisations, where everything revolves around the person in charge (Martin, 2005). Harrison and Stokes (1992) explain that an organisation that is power oriented is based on inequality of access to resources, where a resource can be anything one person controls that another person wants. Within the power culture people use resources to control other people's behaviour (Harrison & Stokes, 1992). Brown (1995) adds that power culture has a single source of power from which rays of influence, which are connected by functional and specialist strings that facilitate coordination, spread throughout the organisation. Martin (2005) adds that all important decisions are made by that person who has the single source of power, and that person retains absolute authority in all matters.

The main weakness of a power culture in organisational culture include the following: Single mindedness in approach; domination by the leader or central person and their personality; and a lack of bureaucracy in operations (Martin, 2001). The greatest strength of the power culture is the ability of the organisation to react quickly, although success is largely dependent upon the abilities of the leader or people at the centre of power (Brown, 1995; Martin, 2001). Here the leader tells others what to do and he or she motivates employees by "the carrot and the stick" (Handy, 1985).

### *c Achievement culture*

In the achievement culture, work is performed out of satisfaction in the excellence of work and achievement and/or personal commitment to the task (Handy, 1985). An achievement type of organisational culture aligns employees with a common vision or purpose (Harrison & Stokes, 1992). The achievement orientation realises the organisation's common vision or purpose by using its mission to attract and release employees' personal energy in the pursuit of common goals, where the organisation's mission is used to focus the personal energy of employees (Harrison & Stokes, 1992). Systems and structures are necessary in an achievement-oriented organisation, and are in place to serve the organisation's mission (Harmse, 2001; Harrison & Stokes, 1992).

An advantage of this type of culture is that employees give more willingly to their organisation because they make their contributions more freely in response to their commitment to their shared purpose, and as a result, the entire organisation prospers

(Harrison & Stokes, 1992). An achievement-orientation organisation also has advantages in the enthusiasm, high energy, and involvement of employees, yet these may also become disadvantages for the organisation (Harmse, 2001; Harrison & Stokes, 1992).

The high energy and involvement of employees within this culture type are often difficult to sustain because employees may be subject to burnout and disillusionment when results are not achieved (Harrison & Stokes, 1992). The achievement orientation also has a disadvantage in that these organisations are often under organised because employees lack the necessary time for objective planning, and they may rely on the common mission to organise their work (Harmse, 2001; Harrison & Stokes, 1992). When the mission takes on different forms for various parts of the organisation, the organisation may lose unity of effort (Harrison & Stokes, 1992). Pheysey (1993) argues that these leaders believe that employees are already motivated but need encouragement to continuously achieve high performance.

#### *d Support culture*

In the support culture, work is performed out of enjoyment of the activity for its own sake and concern and respect for the needs and values of the other persons involved (Handy, 1985). The support organisational culture is based on mutual trust between the employee and the organisation (Harrison & Stokes, 1992). Employees working within a support-oriented organisational culture believe that they are valued as human beings, not merely as contributors to a task (Harrison, 1993; Harrison & Stokes, 1992). An organisation that has a support culture has a warm and caring atmosphere, where the assumption is that a sense of belonging will create a sense of commitment to the organisation and employees will therefore contribute more in the organisation (Harmse, 2001; Harrison & Stokes, 1992).

The advantages of the support-oriented culture are that employees make sacrifices for one another, and the effects of team loyalty add to the high performance and morale of organisations (Harrison & Stokes, 1992). Motivation and enthusiasm are high, as is the camaraderie of employees, which affect productivity, absenteeism and work quality (Harrison & Stokes, 1992). The weakness of the support-oriented culture is that these types of organisations tend to avoid conflict, and difficult issues are often swept under the rug (Harrison & Stokes, 1992). In the interests of equal treatment, differences in employee skills and abilities may be ignored, and decisions may be made “out of kindness”, which impacts negatively on an organisation’s effectiveness and efficiency (Harrison & Stokes, 1992).

Terms such as participative (Likert, 1967), democratic (Quinn & McGrath, 1958) and existential team-builder have been used to describe this type of leadership style.

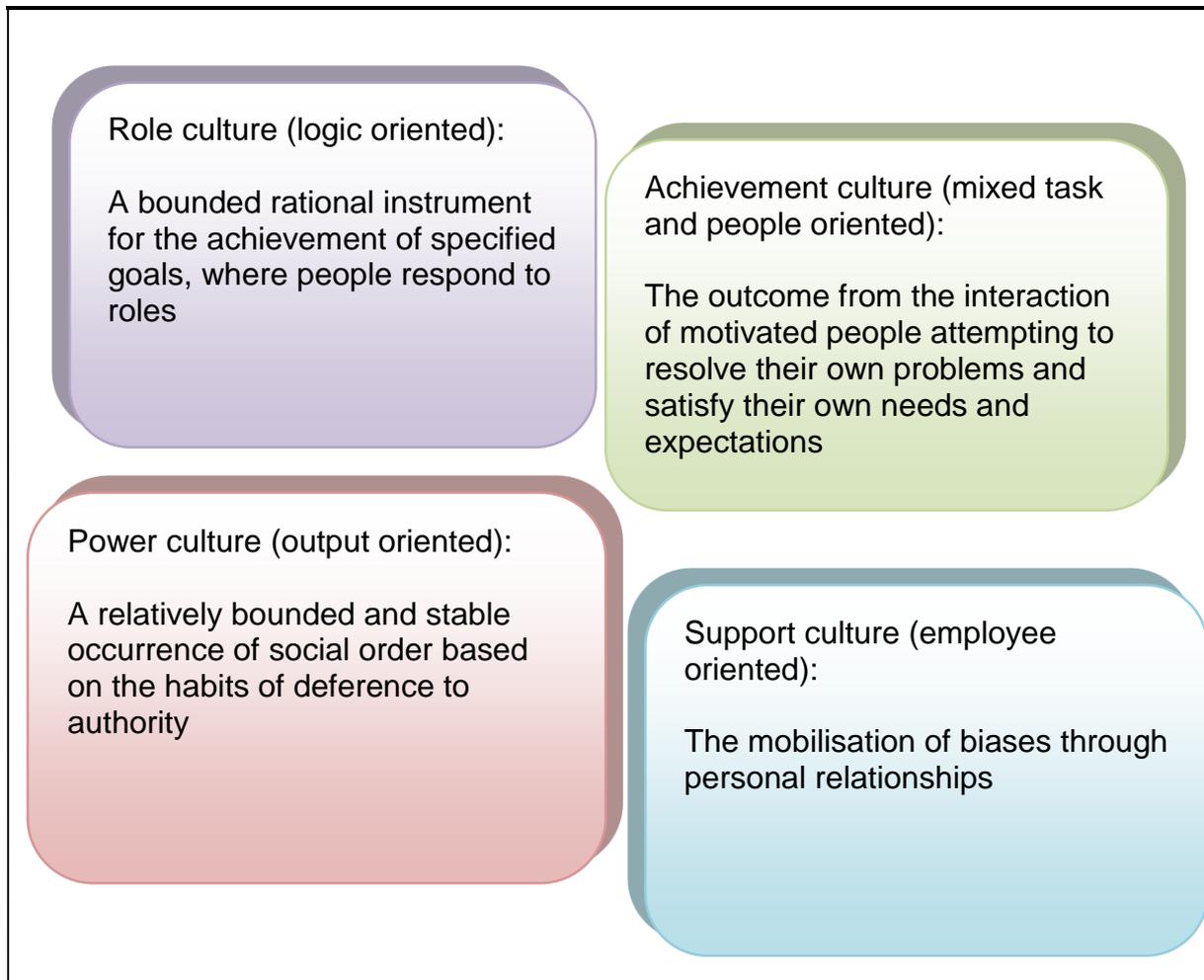


Figure 2.4. Framework for understanding the dimensions of organisational culture (Harrison, 1987, p. 378)

### **2.3.4 Motivation for using the Harrison and Stokes (1987) culture model and quantitative method to determine organisational culture**

Various studies to measure organisational culture have been successfully conducted. These include studies utilising qualitative, quantitative and a combination of both techniques (Parker & Wright, 2000).

Ethnographic and semiotic studies can be used to measure culture, but they have the disadvantages of being time consuming, expensive and requiring a large number of cases to make generalisations (Schein, 1991). This is in contrast to quantitative studies which make use of a sample drawn from a larger population to make inferences about the population (Sekaran, 2000). Furthermore, an advantage of a survey technique is that the same method can be applied to several organisations (Drennan, 1992). It was therefore decided to utilise a quantitative approach for the measurement of the organisational culture in this study in order to achieve the research objectives and to be able to determine any statistical relationships between organisational culture and commitment.

For the purpose of this research, the model by Harrison and Stokes (1992) was chosen to classify organisational culture for the primary research. This framework was selected as Harrison and Stokes (1992) developed a research instrument that they subsequently tested and found to have a favourable reliability and construct validity (Harrison, 1993). The questionnaire developed by Harrison and Stokes (1992) has also been successfully tested in the South African environment by Louw and Boshoff (2006).

## **2.4 CREATING ORGANISATIONAL CULTURE**

McEwan (2001) postulates that as a concept, culture is inseparable from the notion of human society. To try and change the prevailing culture in an organisation, one has to take cognisance of the relevant societal culture. Robbins (2001), however, argues that a company's organisation culture does not pop out of thin air and, once it is established, it does not fade away. An organisation's current customs, traditions and general way of doing things are largely due to what it has done before and the degree of success it has had with these endeavours. Robbins further emphasises that the founders of an organisation have a major impact on that organisation's early culture. They have a vision of what the organisation should be, and they are unconstrained by previous customs and ideologies. The process of culture creation occurs in the following three ways:

- (1) The founder only hires and keeps employees who think and feel the way he or she does.
- (2) The founder indoctrinates and socialises these employees to his or her way of thinking and feeling.
- (3) The founder's own behaviour acts as a role model that encourages employees to identify with him or her and thereby internalise their beliefs, values and assumptions.

When the organisation succeeds, the founder's vision is seen as a primary determinant of that success. At this point, the founder's entire personality becomes embedded in the culture of the organisation (Robbins, 2001). According to Jones (2001), organisational culture develops from the interaction of four factors, as illustrated in figure 2.5:

- the personal and professional characteristics of people within the organisation;
- organisational ethics;
- the property rights the organisation gives to employees; and
- the structure of the organisation.

The interaction of these factors produces different cultures in different organisations and causes changes in culture over time. The ultimate source of organisational culture is the people who make the organisation.

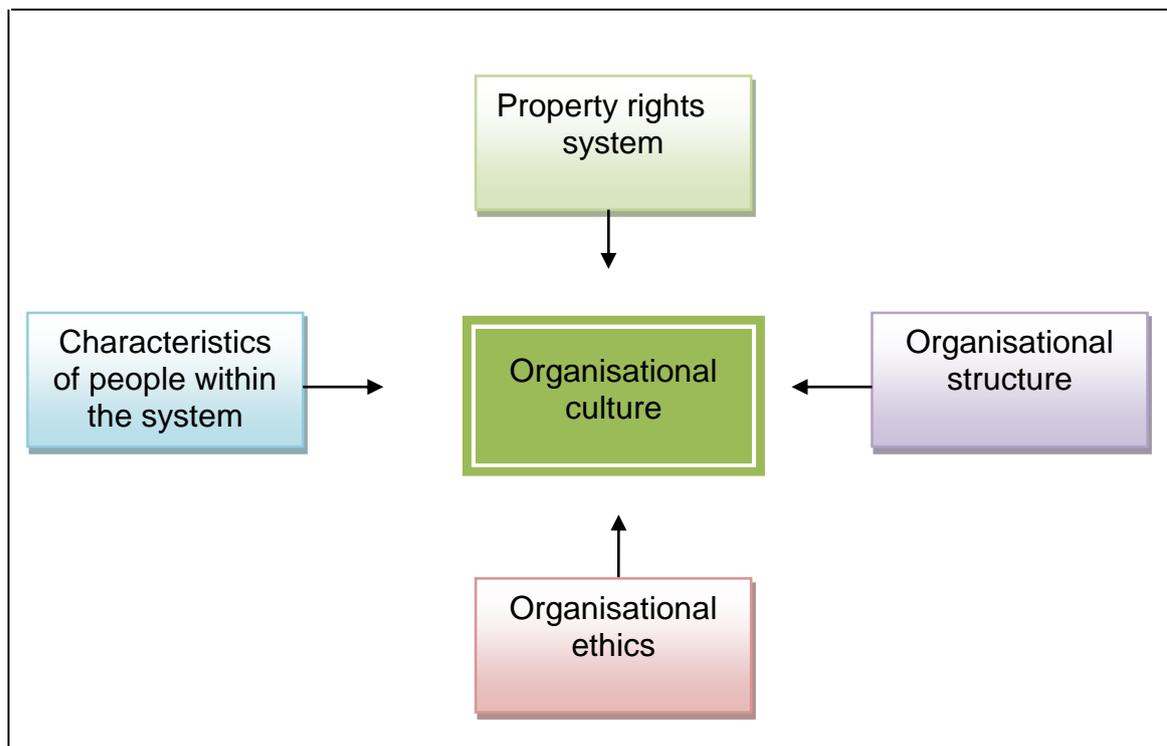


Figure 2.5. Factors that influence culture creation (Jones, 2001, p. 139)

## 2.5 DEVELOPING ORGANISATIONAL CULTURE

### 2.5.1 Levels of organisational culture

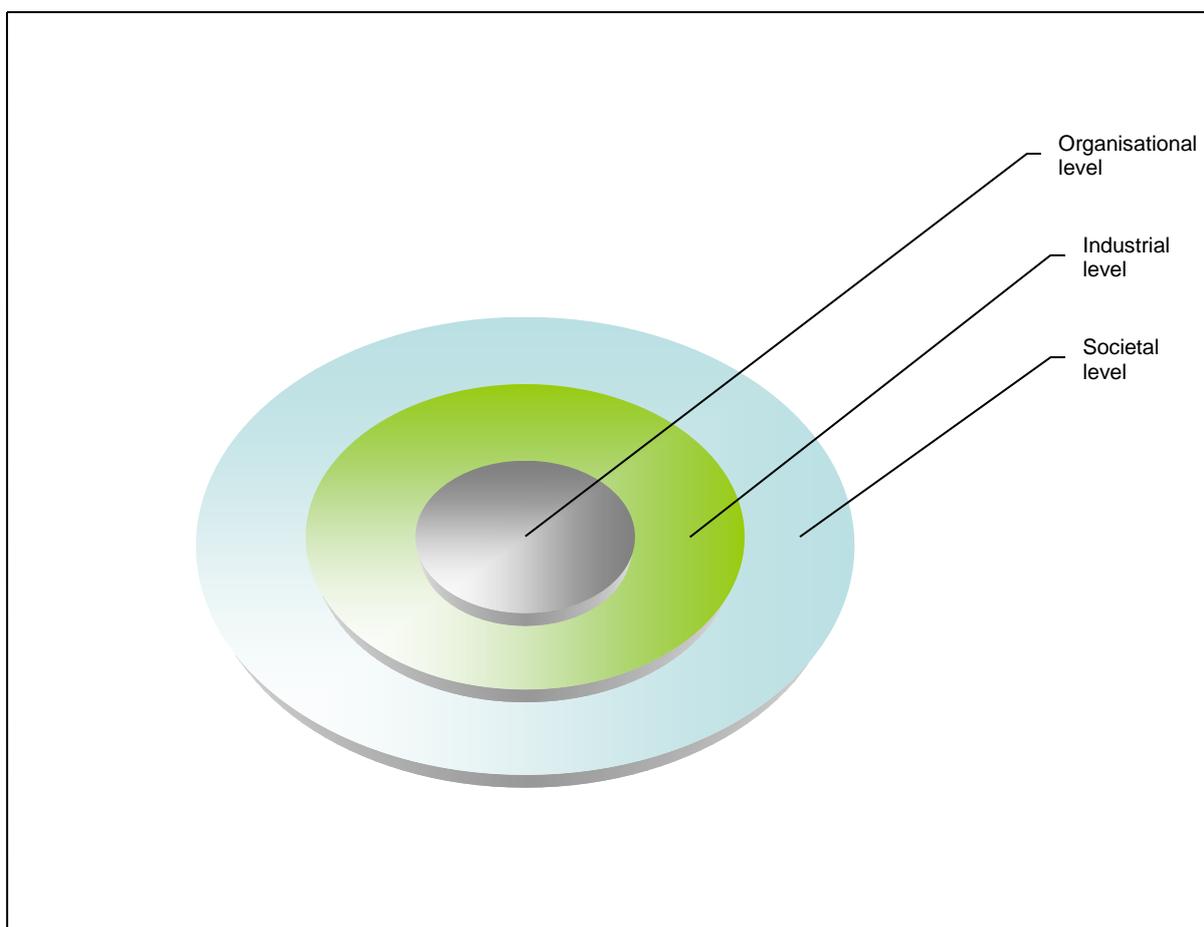
Fombrun (1989) has described the development of culture through forces at three major levels, namely societal, industrial and organisational. According to Fombrun (1989), organisational culture is a product of the broader culture in which organisations are embedded. Understanding the interplay between societal and industry levels of culture with characteristics of the organisation is vital for an accurate analysis of culture and for guidance on how to modify culture. Kotter and Heskitt (1992) posit that all organisations have multiple cultures because of different functional groupings or geographic locations, but the term “corporate culture” refers to the shared values and practices across all groups in the organisation. The following is an explanation of each level (Fombrun, 1989; Louis, 1985):

- At the *societal level*, culture represents the values, attributes and meanings that members bring to the organisation. This may be influenced by such social forces as the education system, political system, economic conditions and the social structure of the larger society. The organisation operates within this general cultural atmosphere. These conditions may influence the strategies, mission, objectives, norms and practices in the organisation in subtle but real ways. A company’s strategy, products and advertisements must be consistent with the culture of the community if the organisation wishes to maintain legitimacy and approval (Fombrun, 1989).
- The essence of the *industrial level* of culture is best realised by considering the similarities of cultures within and differences in cultures between industries. Often there are dominant values or beliefs of an organisation that are espoused by a majority of organisations in an industry. Over time industries develop styles that have a remarkable influence on things such as decision making, political stances, member lifestyles and even dress codes. For example, the banking industry has had a unique and prevalent way of doing business. At one time, banks were concerned almost exclusively with efficiency, cost control and basic standard service (Fombrun 1989).

Banking is now characterised by more extensive services, more aggressive marketing and has a customer-oriented focus. Nonetheless, the industry is still characterised as being conservative and formal. Managers dress conservatively, avoid risk, and generally advocate fiscal and social conservatism. Compare banking

with the industrial culture present in the entertainment business (i.e., television, recording and films). The dominant values are far more casual or flamboyant, and high-risk behaviour, and fiscal and social radicalism abound (Fombrun 1989).

- At the organisational level, organisational culture evolves from its monolithic state. This is typical in large, complex organisations which develop different cultures at different sites or loci within the organisation. These subcultures may develop around different levels in the organisation or in different departments or divisions (Louis, 1985).



*Figure 2.6.* Framework for understanding the levels of organisational culture (Fombrun, 1989, p. 141)

## 2.5.2 Stages of organisational culture

People form groups seeking to satisfy needs, bring goals, values and even hope to the group process and endeavour to find ways in which they can achieve what they want (Schein, 1985).

Schein (1985) suggested that groups progress through a series of stages that affect culture. These stages of group development, maintenance and continuation preserve the shared values and norms that hold the group together, and these are discussed in detail below (Schein, 1985).

### 2.5.2.1 First stage

According to Schein, the **first stage** of cultural development revolves around issues of **dependency and authority**. The question of who will lead the group (or organisation) is the focal point. The group looks for someone to give it direction. The type of person who is selected to lead is indicative of many values and norms of the group or organisation. Leader characteristics such as age, training background, gender and experience may all be important in the formation of the culture. The group or organisation must grapple with issues of who they want to lead and how they want to be led. Some issues that may surface are: He's too inexperienced to be president; and no outsider can understand this business. Both of these statements point to issues that surface during this first step of cultural development (Schein, 1985).

Historically, initial leaders and founders have had a huge impact on the future culture of their organisations. Henry Ford's ideas about building cars and treating workers influenced (both positively and negatively) the Ford Motor Company long after he died.

### 2.5.2.2 Second stage

Schein's **second stage** of cultural development involves the **confrontation of intimacy, role differentiation** and **peer relationship issues**. Successful first efforts to deal with the authority issue (first stage) are likely to produce a feeling of success and positive feelings about membership that are likely to carry over for an extended period of time. Early success can often motivate employees to give greater commitment and effort to the organisation. This is exemplified by NASA's early success at putting Neil Armstrong on the moon or the

experience of winning athletic teams. Each of the organisations has developed unique strong cultures around winning traditions (Schein, 1985).

### *2.5.2.3 Third stage*

During the **third stage** of cultural **development, creativity and stability issue must be confronted**. The group or organisation begins to cope with the innovative approaches that brought its initial success as innovation and creativity come into conflict with the need for order and stability. Although creative and innovative forces may be critical factors in the formation of an organisation, those same forces can disrupt the order of the organisation (Schein, 1985).

This clash is typical of many entrepreneurial firms. For example, Steve Jobs, the cofounder of Apple computers, was a creative, energetic and visionary manager. Under his leadership, the company became a highly successful start-up with unique products. In many respects, Apple Computers defined the concept of personal computing. However, early in the history of Apple, the company had difficulty reining in the creative and innovative spirit. As a consequence, the company had difficulty establishing order and stability. This was most prevalent in the company's haphazard approach to early product development and its inability to successfully market its products to large business units. Apple owners and managers finally determined that they would need to bring in a skilled business manager to bring about the order and stability the firm needed to grow and prosper. John Sculley, a former Pepsico executive, was eventually brought in to provide professional managerial leadership that was deemed necessary for Apple (Isaacson, 2012).

It would be nice and simple if the Apple story ended here with a successful and prosperous company, but that is not the case. The arrival of Sculley caused great turmoil. His managerial style and philosophy clashed with those of Steve Jobs and many of the early Apple employees. Much turnover and tumult followed over the company's need to develop a somewhat more bureaucratic management system. And many managers, including Steve Jobs, eventually left the company. Although Sculley was able to forge a more stable and orderly organisation, his tenure at Apple was rocky because of the challenge of the old Apple way of doing things. He stepped down in 1994 (Isaacson, 2012).

#### 2.5.2.4 Fourth stage

Finally, the **fourth stage** is when the organisation or group matures only to encounter a **confrontation of survival and growth issues**. The organisation or group learns whether it is flexible or adaptable to changing conditions in the surrounding environment or whether its very survival will be questioned (Schein, 1985). The airline industry has been characterised by dramatic upheaval over the past several years due in part to deregulation. Some companies have successfully dealt with survival and growth issues and have made various adjustments to their cultures.

## 2.6 THE IMPORTANCE OF ORGANISATIONAL CULTURE

Mullins (2006) attests that culture helps to account for variations among organisations and managers, both nationally and internationally. Culture helps to explain why different groups of people perceive things in their own way and perform things differently from other groups. Culture can help reduce complexity and uncertainty. It provides consistency in outlook and values, and makes possible the process of decision making, coordination and control.

According to Saiyadain (2003), culture performs the following functions:

- Culture supplements rational management and the creation of work culture is a time-consuming process. Hence organisational culture cannot suddenly change the behaviour of people in an organisation. Culture communicates to people through symbols, values, physical settings and language, and thereby supplements the rational management tools such as technology and structure (Saiyadain, 2003).
- Culture facilitates induction and socialisation. Induction is a process through which new entrants to an organisation are socialised and indoctrinated into the expectations of the organisation, its cultural norms and conduct. The newcomer imbibes the culture of the organisation, which may involve changing his or her attitudes and beliefs to achieving an internalised commitment to the organisation (Saiyadain, 2003).
- Culture promotes a code of conduct, and a strong culture in an organisation explicitly communicates modes of behaviour so that people are conscious that certain behaviours are expected and others would never be visible. The presence of a strong

culture would be evident where members share a set of beliefs, values and assumptions which would influence their behaviour in an invisible way. Where culture has been fully assimilated by people, they persistently indulge in typical behaviour in a spontaneous way. Promotion of the culture of quality can help achieve good business results (Saiyadain, 2003).

- Subcultures contribute to organisational diversity. Subcultures and subsystems of values and assumptions, which may be based on departmentalisation, activity centres or geographical locations, provide meaning to the interests of localised, specific groups of people in the macro-organisation. Subcultures can affect the organisation in many ways:
  - (1) They may perpetuate and strengthen the existing culture.
  - (2) They may promote something very different from those existing.
  - (3) They may promote a totally opposite subculture (beliefs and values) or counter culture when in a difficult situation (Saiyadain, 2003).

Mullins (2006) draws further attention to the importance of culture by attesting to the fact that, without exception, the dominance and coherence of culture have proven to be an essential quality of excellent companies. Moreover, the stronger the culture, the more it is directed to the marketplace, the less need there is for policy manuals, organisation charts, or detailed procedures and rules. In these companies, people in all parts of the organisation know what they are supposed to do in most situations because a handful of guiding values is clear. Therefore, the importance of an organisation's culture cannot be overemphasised. The beliefs, stories and symbols of an organisation help shape the culture of that organisation and it is essential for management to realise that culture is an integral part of business and every effort must be made to preserve or improve it (Mullins, 2006).

## **2.7 THE CONSEQUENCES OF ORGANISATIONAL CULTURE**

There are various positive consequences of having a healthy organisational culture. The list below shows the effects and outcomes when there is a healthy organisational culture.

Table 2.1

Summary of positive consequences of having a healthy culture (Martins, 1996)

- There is great value placed on people.
- Behaviour is supportive of organisational goals.
- Decisions are made at the appropriate level by people who have to live with them.
- The organisation is supportive of the needs of its employees.
- Superiors and subordinates have high levels of trust and confidence in each other.
- Cooperation and teamwork exist at all levels.
- Messages move upwards, downwards or across, depending on information needs.
- Downward communication is accepted with an open mind by subordinates.
- Individuals speak with pride about themselves and their employer.

## 2.8 CHAPTER SUMMARY

This chapter focused on conceptualising the term “organisational culture”. The theoretical background of organisational culture was explained, and this gave rise to various authors’ definitions of the concept. This was appropriately followed by a detailed discussion of the current study’s adopted model and dimensions of organisational culture. The various ways of creating and developing organisational culture were also explained. The importance of organisational culture was highlighted, followed by a discussion of the consequences of organisational culture. Chapter 3 provides a theoretical exploration of organisational commitment.

## **CHAPTER 3: ORGANISATIONAL COMMITMENT**

Chapter 2 focused on exploring the concept of organisational culture, which entailed a discussion of definitions of the concept, ways to create and develop organisational culture and the importance and consequences of organisational culture. In this chapter, the main focus is on exploring the concept of organisational commitment. The discussion includes the theoretical background, definitions of the concept, approaches to organisational commitment, dimensions of organisational commitment and models of organisational commitment. The chapter also looks at the stages and factors influencing organisational commitment, the importance and consequences of organisational commitment and the outcomes of organisational commitment. This is followed by a discussion of the integration of organisational commitment and organisational culture. The chapter concludes with a summary.

### **3.1 THEORETICAL BACKGROUND TO THE CONCEPT OF ORGANISATIONAL COMMITMENT**

Despite the plethora of studies on organisational commitment (OC), its nature, antecedents, consequences and correlations, the issue remains ill-defined and ill-conceptualised. However, the concept's popularity for researchers has not diminished (Suliman & Iles, 2000).

In South Africa, limited empirical work has been reported on commitment-specific research with particular reference to the information technology industry (IT). The problem of indigenous African studies is further compounded by the vastness and cultural diversity of the continent itself (Gbadamosi, 2003). Today the issue of organisational commitment is more important than it was four decades ago. Keyton (2005) has argued that the level of organisational commitment is the driving force behind an organisation's performance. Keyton's (2005) research suggests that at least 80% of an organisation's employees at all levels must be committed to it, for it to succeed in its total quality, re-engineering or work reorganisation efforts.

According to Keyton (2005), there are certain goals that are so complex and time consuming that it would be *inhuman* to ask one person to accomplish them, the existence of such superordinate goals is one of the main reasons why organisations exist, and different people with their own capacities and backgrounds are needed to achieve them. Keyton (2005) also mentions that the interdependence of an organisation and its members is vital for success,

and that one has to have a clear understanding of the "fit" between a person and the organisation. In keeping with this, several lines of research deal with this interaction to understand the behaviour of organisational members.

Commitment can be seen as the strength of an individual's identification with and involvement in the organisation (Mowday, Steers, & Porter, 1979). Mowday et al. (1979) also explain that the concept of commitment can be broken down into three the following three components:

- (1) a desire to maintain membership in the organisation;
- (2) a belief in and acceptance of the values and goals of the organisation; and
- (3) a willingness to exert effort on behalf of the organisation.

If a person feels committed to an organisation, he or she has a strong identification with it, values membership, agrees with its objectives and value system, is likely to remain in it, and is prepared to work hard on its behalf (Mowday et al., 1979). Buchanan (1974) concurs with Mowday et al. (1979) and mentions that the term "commitment" can be referred to as the willingness of social actors to give their energy and loyalty to a social system or an attachment to an organisation apart from the purely instrumental worth of the relationship. Iverson, McLeod, & Erwin (1996) also believe that commitment develops through the process of identification when a person experiences something of certain ideas as an extension of the self.

In addition, Rashid et al. (2003) mention that a common element among many organisational commitment perspectives is the element of an exchange involving a type of psychological contract between the employee and employer. They (2003) also posit that in considering employee employer exchanges, the values and needs that the employee brings to the organisation must be recognised. When an employee's expectations regarding fulfilment of important needs are met by the organisation and exchange between needs and rewards has occurred, commitment to the organisation is expected to increase (Rashid et al., 2003).

Organisational commitment is related to positive outcomes in organisations such as organisational citizenship behaviour (Shore, Barksdale, & Shore, 1995; Coyle-Shapiro, Morrow, & Kessler, 2006), low turnover intention (Allen & Meyer, 1996; Mowday, Steers, & Porter, 1982) and increased satisfaction (Becker & Billings, 1993). In a recent meta-analytical study, Riketta (2002) noted a higher correlation between attitudinal commitment and performance through organisational citizenship behaviour and in-role behaviour. In

short, affective, continuance and normative commitment represent psychological states that have implications for whether or not an employee remains with an organisation (the three concepts will be discussed in detail in section 3.4. of this study).

According to Meyer and Allen (1997), a committed employee is the one who stays with the organisation through thick and thin, attends work regularly, puts in a full day (and maybe more), protects the company's assets, and shares company goals, among other things. Greenberg and Baron (1997) postulate that organisational commitment is the extent to which an individual identifies and is involved with his or her organisation and/or is willing to leave it. They (1997) also mention that commitment to the organisation deals with the attitude of its staff towards the company. Thus, having a committed workforce would be an added advantage to an organisation in terms of sustaining organisational growth, building a competitive advantage and attracting high-calibre staff.

### **3.2 DEFINITIONS OF ORGANISATIONAL COMMITMENT**

Commitment is defined as a cognitive predisposition towards a particular focus, insofar as this focus has the potential to satisfy needs, realise values and achieve goals (Roodt, 2004). Kanter (1968, in Buchanan, 1974) and Rashid et al. (2003) view organisational commitment as the willingness of social beings to devote their energy and loyalty to an organisation. Mowday et al. (1979) and Hackett, Lapierre, and Hausdorf (2001) maintain that organisational commitment refers to an employee's belief in the organisational goals and values, his or her desire to remain a member of the organisation and loyalty to the organisation. Porter, Steers, Mowday, and Boulian (1974) concur with Mowday et al. (1979) when they mention that commitment has also been defined in terms of a belief in and acceptance of the goals and values of the organisation and/or profession, a willingness to exert considerable effort on behalf of the organisation, and the desire to attain membership in the organisation. Greenberg and Baron (2003) and Silverthorne (2004) have similar views to Mowday et al. (1979) and Porter et al. (1974), but they also view organisational commitment as the work attitudes of employees towards the organisation in which they work.

In addition, employee commitment is defined as employees' acceptance of, involvement in and dedication towards achieving the organisational goals. It is the willingness of employees to accept organisational values and goals and to work towards achieving these, to be fully involved and participate in all the activities both work and non-work related of the organisation and to dedicate time and effort towards the betterment of the organisation (Muthuveloo & Rose, 2005). Kanter (1968) and Sheldon (1971) claim that organisational

commitment concerns an individual's affective emotion to the group, as well as his or her involvement. Kanter (1968) also posits that commitment to an organisation relates to profit from participation and the cost of leaving the organisation where there will be a considerable loss in prestige and stability of a working environment. Marsh and Mannari (1977), however, focus on the moral responsibility one attaches to the organisation as a result of commitment. Meyer and Herscovitch (2001) define commitment as a force that binds an individual to a course of action that is of relevance to a particular target. According to Boles, Madupalli, Rutherford, and Wood (2007), organisational commitment can be considered to be the affective attitudes or behaviours which link or attach an employee to the organisation. It reflects the positive feeling towards the organisation and its values.

Hall, Schneider, and Nygren (1970) define organisational commitment as the process by which the goals of the organisation and those of the individual become increasingly integrated and congruent. Salancik (1977, p. 27) defines organisational commitment as "a state of being in which an individual becomes bound by actions to beliefs that sustains activities and involvement".

For the purposes of this study, organisational commitment was defined as a psychological bond individuals have towards their organisation and their desire to want to contribute towards the attainment of its goals. This definition correlates with Meyer and Allen's (1991) definition, which categorises organisational commitment into three components, namely affective, continuance and normative commitment. Affective commitment involves the employee's emotional attachment, identification with and involvement in the organisation. This is similar to Mowday et al.'s (1982) definition of attitudinal commitment. Continuance commitment involves the employee's cost associated with leaving the organisation, which is similar to behavioural commitment. Normative commitment is associated with the employee's feelings of obligation to stay in the organisation, because he or she wants to stay. Those influenced by continuance commitment stay because they need to stay and those influenced by normative commitment feel they ought to stay (Meyer & Allen, 1991).

### **3.3 APPROACHES TO ORGANISATIONAL COMMITMENT**

About 50 years ago, the study by Lawrence (1958) provoked the necessity and rationale for research in this area when he asserted that ideally we would want one sentiment to be dominant in all employees from top to bottom, namely a complete loyalty to the organisation's purpose (Lawrence, 1958, cited in Randall, 1987).

Since Lawrence's (1958) study, four main approaches have emerged for conceptualising and exploring organisational commitment. These are outlined below (Randall, 1987).

### **3.3.1 The attitudinal approach**

This is the most famous approach for conceptualising organisational commitment. It was initiated by Porter et al. (1974). According to this approach, organisational commitment is the relative strength of an individual's identification with an involvement in a particular organisation (Porter et al., 1974). They mention the following three characteristics of organisational commitment:

- (1) a strong belief in and acceptance of the organisation's goals and values;
- (2) a willingness to exert a considerable effort on behalf of the organisation; and
- (3) a strong intent or desire to remain with the organisation.

In this approach, the factors associated with commitment include work experiences, and personal and job characteristics, while the outcomes include increased performance, reduced absenteeism and reduced employee turnover (Porter et al., 1974).

### **3.3.2 The behavioural approach**

This approach emphasises the view that employee investments (e.g. time, friendships, pension/provident plans and share schemes) in the organisation induce employees to be loyal to their organisation. Kanter defined organisational commitment from this point of view as "profit associated with continued participation" and a "cost associated with leaving" (Kanter, 1968, p. 504). This refers to the employee standing to either profit or lose depending on whether he/she chooses to remain with the organisation.

The attitudinal approach uses the concept of commitment to explain performance and membership, while the behavioural school uses the concept of investments as a force that "locks in" the employee to the organisation (Scholl, 1981). The focus of research according to the behavioural approach is on the open manifestations of commitment (Randall, 1987). Becker's side-bet theory forms the foundation of this approach (Kanter, 1968). According to Becker (1960), employee commitment is continued association with an organisation that occurs because of his or her decision after evaluating the costs of leaving the organisation. Becker mentions that this commitment only happens once the employee has recognised the cost associated with discounting his or her association with the organisation.

### **3.3.3 The normative approach**

According to this approach, congruency between goals, values and organisational aims makes the employee feel obligated to his or her organisation (Becker, 1992; Randall, 1987). Wiener (1988, p. 421) defined organisational commitment as the "totality of internalised normative pressures to act in a way which meets organisational goals and interests".

### **3.3.4 The multidimensional approach**

This is the most recent approach to conceptualising organisational commitment. According to Kelman (1958), the assumption is that organisational commitment does not develop simply through emotional attachment, perceived costs or moral obligation, but through the interplay of all three of these components (Randall, 1987). Some valuable studies have contributed to the birth of this new conceptualisation. Credit is given to Kelman (1958) who put forward the basic principles underlying this approach in his study entitled: "Compliance, identification and internalisation: Three processes of attitudinal change". Kelman (1958) stated that the underlying process in which an individual engages when he or she adopts induced behaviour may be different, even though the resulting overt behaviour may appear the same.

Another earlier contributor to this approach is Etzioni (1961), who as cited in Zangaro (2001), described organisational commitment in terms of three dimensions, namely moral, calculative and alternative involvement; with each of the three dimensions representing an individual's response to organisational powers. According to Etzioni (2001), moral involvement is defined as positive orientation based on an employee's internalisation and identification with the organisational goals. Calculative involvement is defined as either a negative or a positive orientation of low intensity that develops because an employee receives inducements from the other organisation that matches his or her contributions. Alternative involvement, however, is described as a negative attachment to the organisation, and in this situation, individuals perceive a lack of control or the ability to change their environment and therefore remain in the organisation only because they feel they have no other options. Etzioni's (1961) three dimensions incorporate the attitudinal, behavioural and normative aspects of commitment.

In addition, O'Reilly and Chatman (1986) also support the notion that organisational commitment should be seen as a multidimensional construct. They developed their multidimensional approach based on the assumption that commitment represents an attitude

towards the organisation and the fact that various mechanisms can lead to attitude development. Taking Kelman's (1958) view as their basis, the authors argue that commitment could take three distinct forms which they call compliance, identification and internalisation. The authors believe that compliance occurs when attitudes and behaviours are adopted to gain specific rewards. Identification occurs when the person accepts influence to establish a satisfying relationship. Internalisation occurs when the attitude and behaviour that an employee is expected to adopt correlate with his or her personal values (O'Reilly & Chatman, 1986).

Iverson and Buttigieg (1999) have also examined the multidimensionality of organisational commitment based on a sample of 505 Australian male firefighters. They found that four dimensions, namely affective, normative, low perceived alternatives and high personal sacrifice represent organisational commitment. Meyer and Herscovitch (2001) posited that there are differences in the dimensions, forms or components of commitment that have been described in the different multidimensional conceptualisations of organisational commitment. They attribute these differences to the different motives and strategies involved in the multidimensionality frameworks.

Mayer and Herscovitch (2001) tabulated the different dimensions for ease of reference as indicated in table 3.1.

*Table 3.1*

*Commitment in the workplace: Towards a general model (Meyer & Herscovitch, 2001, p. 302)*

Angle and Perry (1981) Value commitment, commitment to stay	"Commitment to support the goals of the organisation" "Commitment to retain their organisational membership"
O'Reilly and Chatman (1986) Compliance Identification Internalisation	"Instrumental involvement for specific extrinsic rewards" "Attachment based on a desire for affiliation with the organisation" "Involvement regarding congruence between individual and organisational values"

<p>Penley and Gould (1988)</p> <p>Moral</p> <p>Calculative</p> <p>Alienative</p>	<p>“Acceptance of and identification with organisational goals”</p> <p>“A commitment to an organisation which is based on the employee’s receiving inducements to match contributions”</p> <p>“Organisational attachment which results when an employee no longer perceives that his or her rewards are commensurate with the investments; yet he or she remains due to environmental pressures”</p>
<p>Meyer and Allen (1991)</p> <p>Affective</p> <p>Continuance</p> <p>Normative</p>	<p>“The employee’s emotional attachment to, identification with and involvement in the organisation”</p> <p>“An awareness of the costs associated with leaving the organisation”</p> <p>‘a feeling of obligation to continue employment’</p>
<p>Mayer and Schoorman (1992)</p> <p>Value</p> <p>Continuance</p>	<p>“A belief in and acceptance of organisational goals”</p> <p>“The desire to remain a member of the organisation”</p>
<p>Jaros, Jermier, Koehler, and Sincich (1993)</p> <p>Affective</p> <p>Continuance</p> <p>Moral</p>	<p>“The degree to which an individual is psychologically attached to an employing organisation through feelings such as loyalty, affection, warmth, belongingness, fondness, pleasure, and so on”</p> <p>“The degree to which an individual experiences a sense of being locked in a place because of the high costs of leaving”</p> <p>“The degree to which an individual is psychologically attached to an employing organisation through internalisation of its goals, values and missions”</p>

The focus of the present study was on organisational commitment as a multidimensional concept that represents the relationship between the employer and its employees. Meyer and Allen (1990) view commitment as a three-dimensional concept which has an attitudinal, continuance and normative aspect. In order to further explore the multidimensional nature of organisational commitment, the present study treated organisational commitment as the dependent variable, which is influenced by the organisational culture, which is the independent variable.

### **3.4 DIMENSIONS OF ORGANISATIONAL COMMITMENT**

Among the proponents of the attitudinal approach and as discussed earlier in this study, researchers view organisational commitment as a multidimensional concept that has different factors associated with it, and outcomes and implications for human resource management (Meyer & Allen, 1997). In trying to resolve the different ways of measuring commitment, Meyer and Allen (1984) initially viewed organisational commitment as two-dimensional, that is affective and continuance commitment. However, after further research they added a third dimension (Meyer & Allen, 1990).

Allen and Meyer's (1990) three-component model of commitment integrates the various conceptualisations, and the authors suggested the following three types of commitment:

- (1) affective;
- (2) continuance; and
- (3) normative.

#### **3.4.1 Affective commitment dimension**

According to Allen and Meyer (1990), affective commitment is the employee's emotional attachment to, identification with and involvement in the organisation. In other words, it refers to the extent of emotional attachment of a person to the organisation. Defined this way, affective commitment involves the following three elements (Allen & Meyer, 1990):

- (1) the formation of an emotional attachment to an organisation;
- (2) identification with the organisation; and
- (3) The desire to maintain organisational membership (Allen & Meyer 1990). This attachment could be due to one's role in relation to the organisational goals and values, or to the organisation for its own sake, and employees who experience affective commitment stay with the organisation because they want to (Rashid et al., 2003).

Jaros et al. (1993) suggest that affective commitment is the most widely discussed form of psychological attachment to an employing organisation which could probably be as a result of the affective commitment being associated with desirable outcomes. Meyer and Herscovitch (2001) report that affective commitment has been found to correlate with a range of outcomes such as turnover, absenteeism, job performance and organisational citizenship behaviour.

### **3.4.2 Continuance commitment dimension**

The second of Allen and Meyer's (1990) dimensions is continuance commitment which is based on Becker's (1960) side bet theory. According to Allen and Meyer (1990), continuance commitment refers to commitment based on the costs that the employee associates with leaving the organisation. As such, in this type of commitment, the fewer viable alternatives employees have, the stronger will be their continuance commitment to their current employer (Rashid et al., 2003).

Those influenced by continuance commitment stay because they need to stay. Mowday et al (1982) believe that there is a cyclical relationship between affective and continuance commitment, with one re-enforcing the other. However, others believe that they are independent factors, such that employees who are bound to an organisation may not be highly committed to the organisation attitudinally, and vice versa (Rashid et al., 2003).

Romzek (1989) describes this type of attachment as transactional. He argues that employees calculate their investments in the organisation based on what they have to put into the organisation and what they stand to gain if they remain with the organisation. For example, an individual might choose not to change employers because of the time and money tied up in employee shares. Such an employee would feel that he or she stands to lose too much if he or she were to leave the organisation (Romzek, 1989). Unlike affective commitment, which involves emotional attachment, continuance commitment reflects a calculation of the costs of leaving versus the benefits of staying.

### **3.4.3 Normative commitment dimension**

The third dimension is normative commitment, which refers to employees' feelings of obligation to remain with the organisation. This type of commitment will be influenced by an individual's experience both prior to cultural socialisation and following organisational socialisation entry into the organisation, where those influenced by normative commitment

feel they ought to stay with their organisation (Rashid et al., 2003). Relatively few studies explicitly address normative commitment, and it can be said that researchers may have overlooked this view of organisational commitment. O'Reilly and Chatman (1986), Allen and Meyer (1990), Caldwell, Chatman, & O'Reilly (1990) and Randall and Cote (1991) are some of the few who have attempted to differentiate normative commitment from the other components of organisational commitment.

Randall and Cote (1991) regard normative commitment in terms of the moral obligation the employee develops after the organisation has invested in him or her. The authors believe that when an employee starts to feel that the organisation has spent either too much time or money developing and training him or her, such an employee might feel an obligation to stay with the company. In general, normative commitment is most likely when individuals find it difficult to reciprocate the organisation's investment in them (Randall & Cote, 1991).

O'Reilly et al. (1991) define and measure normative commitment in terms of values. They argue that congruence between an individual's and organisation's values leads to the development of organisational commitment. In support of this view, Mayer and Schoorman (1992) describe value commitment as an employee's acceptance of an organisation's goals and values.

Jaros et al. (1993) agree with Allen and Meyer (1990) and refer to normative commitment as moral commitment. They emphasise the difference between this kind of commitment and affective commitment, because normative commitment reflects a sense of duty, or obligation or calling to work in the organisation and not emotional attachment. They describe it as the degree to which an individual is psychologically attached to an employing organisation through internalisation of its goals, values and missions. This type of commitment differs from continuance commitment because it is not dependent on the personal calculation of sunken costs (Jaros et al., 1993).

The multidimensionality of organisational commitment reflects its highly complex nature. The three aspects of organisational commitment seem to have different foundations. All those forces are attributed to be variables associated with the different forms of commitment and they coexist. It is important to realise that the three different dimensions of organisational commitment are not mutually exclusive. An employee can develop one or any combination or none of the three aspects of commitment. These aspects of organisational commitment differ only on the basis of their underlying motives and outcomes – for example, an employee with affective commitment will stay with the organisation and be willing to exert

more effort in organisational activities, while an employee with continuance commitment may remain with the organisation and not be willing to exert any more effort than expected (Becker, 1992; Becker, Billings, Eveleth, & Gilbert, 1996).

### **3.5 MODELS OF ORGANISATIONAL COMMITMENT**

Employees may develop multiple forms of work commitment. They may experience varying degrees of work commitment to different work settings. Efforts to understand commitment, employee development and their interrelationships can be traced to Morrow's (1993) study. Morrow's model, as indicated in figure 3.1 will be discussed. In an attempt to deepen the understanding of organisational commitment Randall and Cote's model is also discussed as it is of significance to this study. Mowday, Porter and Steers' model is explored, followed by a discussion of Rhodes and Doering's model. In addition, Penley and Gould's model and Meyer and Allen's model are discussed.

#### **3.5.1 Morrow's (1993) organisational commitment model**

Based on her facet analysis study in 1993, Morrow identified the following five universal forms of work commitment:

- (1) protestant work ethic;
- (2) career commitment;
- (3) job involvement;
- (4) affective organisational commitment; and
- (5) continuance organisational commitment.

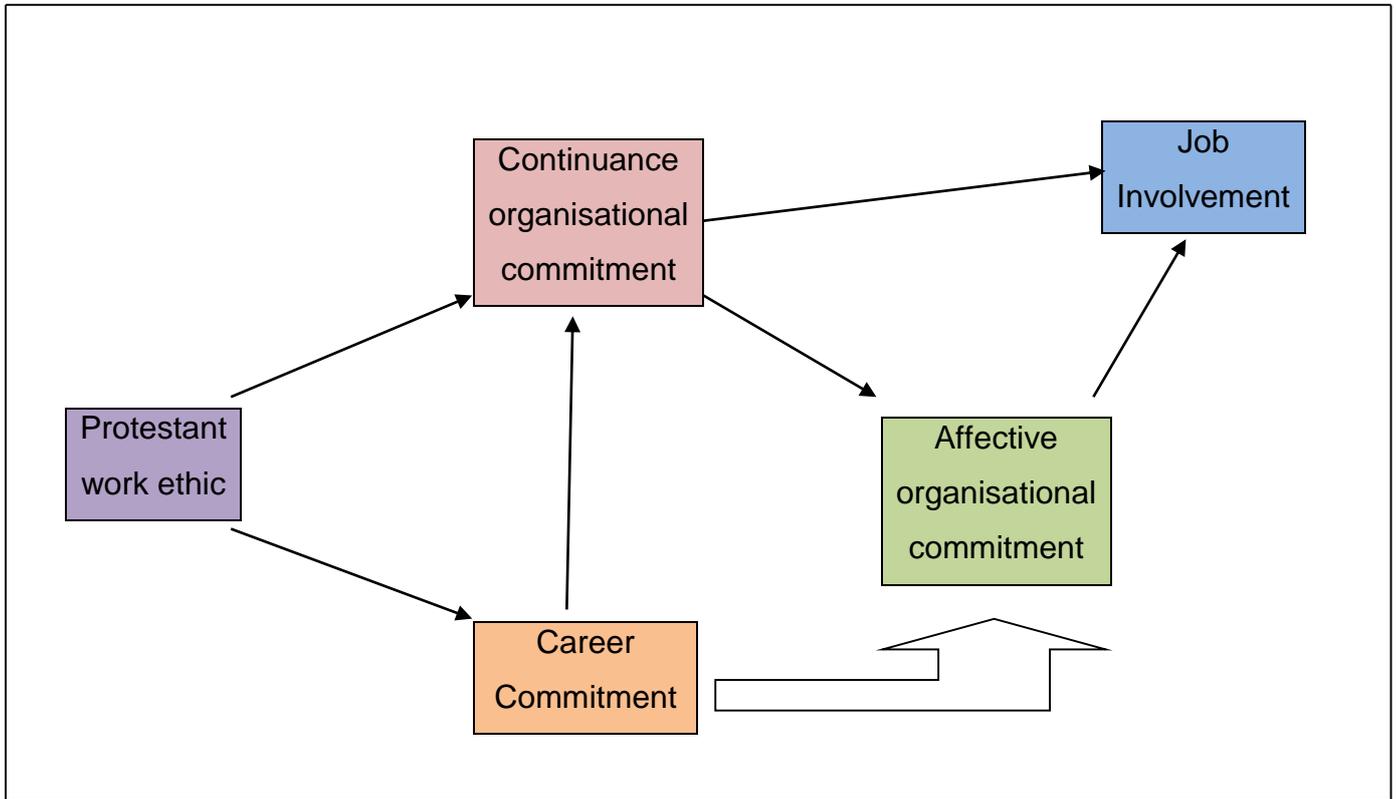


Figure 3.1. Morrow's organisational commitment model (1993)

Morrow's circle-based model (as depicted in figure 3.1) of work commitment contains five distinguishable commitment constructs and represents different aspects of attachment. The five universal forms are arranged along a continuum from a relatively fixed attribute to one that can be manipulated. In Morrow's model, the inner circles represent the relatively fixed attributes, and the outer circles the more changeable and manipulative attributes. Protestant work ethic (PWE) is in the inner circle because it is a relatively fixed attribute throughout the employee's lifetime, while job involvement is in the outer circle as it is subjected to change through actions such as job design. The inner circles affect the outer circles (Morrow, 1993).

According to Morrow's model, PWE is related to both career commitment and continuance commitment, while career commitment is related to both continuance commitment and affective commitment. Affective commitment is positively related to job involvement and together mediates the relationships between PWE career commitment and job involvement (Morrow, 1993).

### 3.5.2 Randall and Cote's (1991) organisational model

Randall and Cote's (1991) model examined somewhat different constructs of work commitment, namely PWE, work group attachment, organisational commitment (affective commitment), career salience and job involvement. Four of these constructs (PWE, career

resilience, affective organisational commitment and job involvement) correspond to four of the universal constructs of work commitment, as shown in Morrow's model. In addition, Randall and Cote (1991) used only one aspect of organisational commitment, that is, affective organisational commitment. Randall and Cote (1991) suggest that the relationships between PWE and work group attachment, organisational commitment and career commitment are mediated by job involvement.

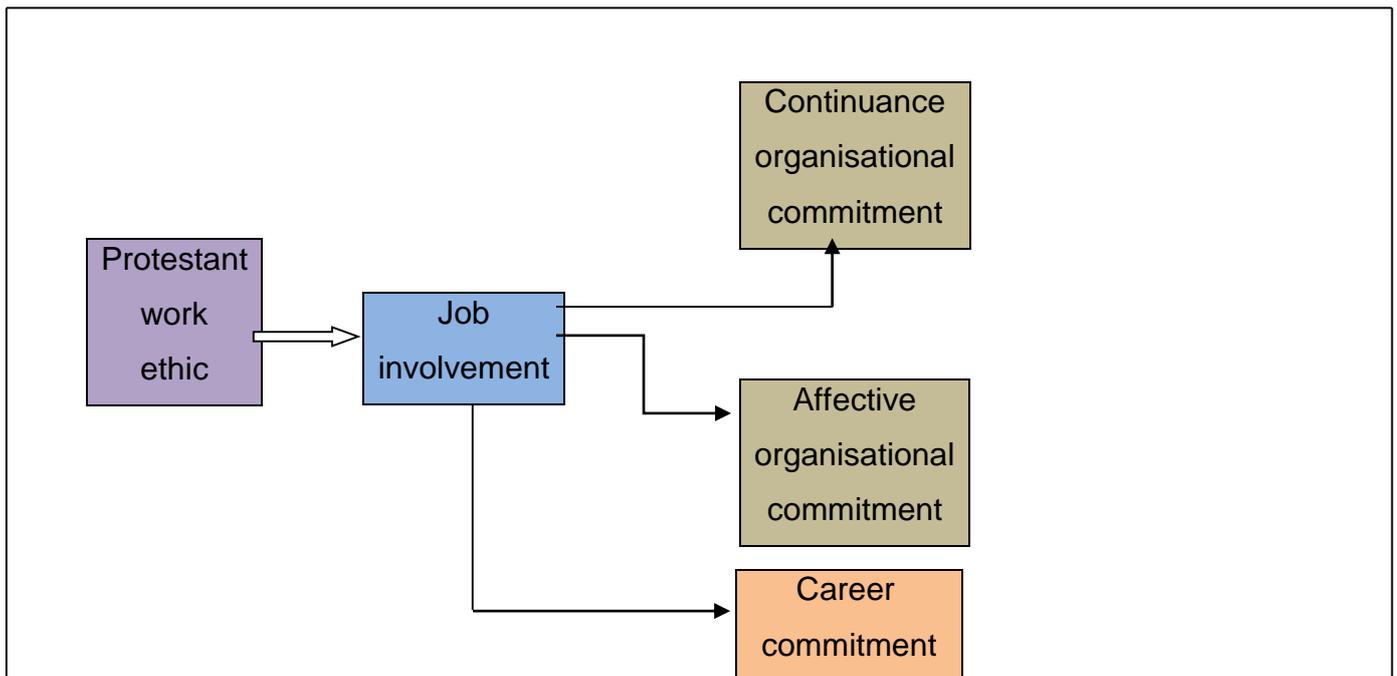


Figure 3.2. Organisational commitment model (Randall & Cote, 1991)

Recent studies (Cohen, 1999; Hackett et al., 2001) have suggested that the focus should be on the four commitment forms that are universal. These are work ethic endorsement, job involvement, career commitment and organisational commitment. The main difference is that Randall and Cote (1991) attribute a "pivotal" role to job involvement as a mediator in work ethic, endorsement/work group attachment relationship and work ethic endorsement/career commitment relationship. Morrow further advocates that job involvement is mainly a function of situational conditions, whereas Randall and Cote hold that job involvement is mainly a product of individual characteristics.

### 3.5.3 Mowday, Porter, and Steers' (1979) organisational commitment model

According to this model, organisational commitment has the following three components (Mowday et al., 1979):

- (1) a strong belief in and acceptance of organisational goals and values, referred to as identification;
- (2) a willingness to exert considerable effort on behalf of the organisation, referred to as involvement; and
- (3) a strong desire to maintain membership in the organisation, referred to as loyalty.

#### **3.5.4 Rhodes and Doering's (1983) organisational commitment model**

Rhodes and Doering (1983, p. 631) presented a voluntary career change model in which changing one's career "refers to movement to a new occupation that is not part of a typical career progression". Rhodes and Doering (1983) based their model on prior voluntary job turnover models, particularly the model of Mobley, Horner, and Hollingsworth (1978). Rhodes and Doering (1983) theorised that personal factors, such as educational level and age, as well as job-related factors, such as fit with work environment and growth opportunities, affected one's job satisfaction, leading to career or occupational satisfaction.

Job satisfaction is generally viewed as a more transitory or dynamic work attitude or work satisfaction which is assumed to be more stable (Morrow, 1993). The greater assumed stability of an occupational versus job-related attitude is partially based on the idea of individuals voluntarily changing jobs, due to dissatisfaction with more dynamic issues such as supervision, co-workers or working conditions, but often still remaining in one's occupation (Morrow, 1993). Reduced job satisfaction and career satisfaction lead to greater career withdrawal cognitions, including intent to change careers which combine with the search for and availability of alternatives, and then lead to actual career (occupational) change (Rhodes & Doering, 1983).

#### **3.5.5 Penley and Gould's (1988) organisational commitment model**

The model of commitment developed by Penley and Gould (1988) takes a slightly different approach from the Meyer and Allen model. Based on Etzioni's (1961) multiform conceptualisation of organisational involvement, Penley and Gould suggest that an individual's commitment to an organisation exists in both affective and instrumental forms. In other words, one can be morally committed, calculatively committed or alternatively committed to an organisation (Penley & Gould, 1988):

- Moral commitment is described as a highly positive affective form characterised by acceptance of and identification with organisational goals.
- Calculative commitment is an instrumental form essentially focused on one's satisfaction with the exchange relationship.
- Alienative commitment is described as a highly negative affective form that is a consequence of a lack of control over the internal organisational environment and offers perceived absence of alternatives for organisational commitment. Employees who express alienative commitment continue to engage in work behaviours that indicate a desire to continue their membership in the organisation. In essence, they ensure their work performance at least meets minimal standards, and their interaction with managers and co-workers communicate that they do not wish to leave.

Conceptually, Penley and Gould's (1988) moral and calculative commitment seems similar to affective and continuance commitment as defined by Meyer and Allen. However, alienative commitment does not appear to be conceptually similar to any of the forms of commitment described by Meyer and Allen (1997). As defined by Penley and Gould (1988), alienative commitment suggests an external locus of control, a sense of powerlessness on the part of the employee and a lower level engagement in the work role. These are individuals who stay with an organisation because they have to, not because they feel any sense of obligation to the organisation. Thus, conceptually, alienative commitment would appear to be distinct from normative commitment as defined by Meyer and Allen (1997).

### 3.5.6 Allen and Meyer's (1997) organisational commitment model



Figure 3.3. A depiction of Allen and Meyer's (1997) organisational commitment model

In simple term, this model emerged as an alternative viewpoint to the Mowday et al. model. It was proposed as an alternative definition and measurement. It emerged from several works, notably those of Allen and Meyer (1990), Meyer and Allen (1991), Meyer et al. (1993), Meyer (1997) and Meyer and Allen (1997). According to this viewpoint, organisational commitment is the feeling of obligation to stay with the organisation and feelings resulting from the internalisation of normative pressures exerted on an individual prior to entry or following entry (Allen & Meyer, 1997). This model identifies the following three distinct components of organisational commitment:

- (1) Affective commitment is concerned with the extent to which the individual identifies with the organisation (identification, involvement and emotional attachment).
- (2) Continuance commitment refers to the individual's need to continue working for the organisation based on the perceived costs associated with leaving the organisation.

It also refers to “personal sacrifice” associated with leaving or “limited opportunities” for other employment.

- (3) Normative commitment refers to commitment that is influenced by society’s norms about the extent to which people should be committed to the organisation (Allen & Meyer, 1997).

Simply put, people leave the organisation for the following three reasons:

- (1) because they want to – affective commitment;
- (2) because they need to – continuance commitment; and /or
- (3) because they feel they ought to – normative commitment.

As mentioned earlier, the Allen and Meyer model will be used in this study together with the Allen and Meyer measurement scale. The Allen and Meyer (1990) model is a well-known classification of organisational commitment and previous research has found it to be a reliable and valid way to classify commitment (Allen & Meyer, 1990).

### **3.6 STAGES OF ORGANISATIONAL COMMITMENT**

Based on Kelman’s (1958) work on attitude and behaviour change, O’Reilly and Chatman (1986) argued that commitment develops through three stages, namely compliance, identification and internalisation. These stages are described below.

#### **3.6.1 Compliance stage**

This is the first stage and occurs when attitudes and corresponding behaviours are adopted in order to obtain specific rewards through remuneration and promotion (O’Reilly, 1989). The stage involves the adoption of attitudes and behaviour in order to gain certain rewards and not because of shared beliefs. This stage is associated with the continuance dimension of organisational commitment. Becker (1992) mentions that at this stage employees calculate the benefits of staying with the organisation by considering the rewards that are afforded to them in the organisation. In keeping with Becker (1992), Meyer and Allen (1997) also believe that this stage denotes employees staying with the organisation because of what they receive.

### **3.6.2 Identification stage**

This occurs when an individual accepts influence to establish or maintain a satisfying relationship (O'Reilly, 1989). According to Kelman (1958), employees feel proud to be part of the organisation as part of their self-identity. Meyer and Allen (1997) maintain that organisational commitment based on the normative dimension occurs when the individual stays because he or she is guided by a sense of duty and loyalty to the organisation.

### **3.6.3 Internalisation stage**

This occurs when influence is accepted because the attitudes and behaviour an employee is being encouraged to adopt are congruent with existing values (O'Reilly, 1989). Suliman and Iles (2000) agree with O'Reilly's argument. The employee's psychological attachment can reflect varying combinations of these three psychological foundations (O'Reilly & Chatman, 1986). According to Meyer and Allen (1997), organisational commitment at this level is based on the affective dimension where the employee develops a sense of belonging and passion to be with the organisation – hence commitment at this stage is based on wanting to stay.

## **3.7 FACTORS INFLUENCING ORGANISATIONAL COMMITMENT**

Six of the top variables identified as key factors in influencing affective organisational commitment as well as the knowledge sharing factor will be discussed. These variables are leadership, employee relations, task orientation, compensation and incentives, performance management and promotion, opportunities for training and development and knowledge sharing. These factors will be examined at and the end of this study when the recommendations are formulated.

### **3.7.1 Leadership**

In an organisation or a department, the top management team, the manager, department leader or supervisor is usually the mediator between the employees and the organisation itself. According to a study by Eisenberger, Huntington, Hutchison, and Sowa (1986), employees' organisational commitment is strongly influenced by perceived organisational support received through the managers in the organisation. As such, more often, employees are more likely to feel an obligation to return the supportive behaviour in terms of affective commitment (Shore & Wayne, 1993). Mottaz's (1988) study of 1 385 employees in various

occupations also found that employees who perceived a friendly and supportive relationship with their management team had a strong, positive commitment to their respective organisations. This was also evident in a study by Joiner and Bakalis (2006), where supervisor support resulted in high affective commitment among employees.

### **3.7.2 Employee relations**

In any organisation, the group of employees working together will constitute the working environment in that organisation. According to Lee-Kelley, Blackman, and Hurst (2007), teamwork encompasses the process of creating results through communication and collaboration among employees. This allows employees to produce a collective result larger than the sum of the individuals' ideas. Teams are also quite likely to share authority and responsibility, thus increasing the level an individual employee experiences (Lee-Kelley et al., 2007). According to Joiner and Bakalis (2006), it was found that employees who perceived a friendly and supportive relationship with their co-workers developed a strong, positive commitment to their respective organisations (Mottaz, 1988). This is further confirmed in a study by Hung, Ansari, and Aafaqi (2004), where it was found that employee relations are positively associated with organisational commitment. As such, in the context of the current research, employee relations reflect cooperation between and team work among employees in the organisation.

### **3.7.3 Task orientation**

Task orientation basically means the nature of the job or tasks of an employee. This includes the type of work, the level of challenge, the freedom to work and the range of activities involved. Agarwal and Ramaswami (1993) have described this as task variety and task autonomy which encompass characteristics of jobs which allow employees to undertake a wide range of activities in their work and the extent to which they have a say in how their jobs are carried out. Studies have shown that an opportunity to work on challenging assignments has been positively related to organisational commitment (Price & Mueller, 1981; Idaszak & Drasgow, 1987; Pil & Macduffie, 1996; Udo, Guimaraes, & Igbaria, 1997; Workman & Bommer, 2004).

It is evident from the vast body of literature available that employees, who are offered challenging, exciting and interesting work, tend to be more involved and satisfied, and are in turn more committed to their organisations and less likely to leave. Task autonomy denotes a sense of power or control over the task at hand (Dubinsky & Skinner, 1984), which allows

the employee freedom to manage his or her tasks. The employee has freedom to plan, decide and perform the tasks associated with his or her job function. In their research, Agarwal and Ramaswami (1993) further confirmed that attachment to the organisation or organisational commitment is the greatest among the employees with considerable task variety (Hunt, Chonko, & Wood, 1985; Glisson & Durick 1988) and task autonomy (Hunt et al., 1985).

#### **3.7.4 Compensation and incentives**

Remuneration or compensation is one of the important contractual and implied agreements between an employer and an employee (Chew & Chan 2007). Willis (2000) describes compensation as the most critical issue when it comes to attracting and keeping talent. As such, some companies may even provide remuneration packages that are well above the market rate to attract and retain critical talent (Parker & Wright, 2000), which may include special pay premiums, stock options or bonuses. In addition, some organisations give profit sharing and group-based incentive pay (Bassi & Van Buren, 1999) to top-performing employees.

Past researchers have recognised pay or compensation as a potential antecedent of organisational commitment (Parker & Wright, 2000). As such, employees may express greater commitment and tend to remain with the organisation when they feel that their capabilities, efforts and performance contributions are recognised and appreciated (Davies, 2001; Mercer Report, 2003) and this is shown through the compensation package offered. In a study by Mercer Report (2003) it was found that employees will stay if they are rewarded fairly and adequately. This therefore proves that if an organisation does not pay equitably compared to others, it may risk losing employees because of non-competitive compensation packages (Adams, 1965). The results of recent studies by Ansari, Hung, and Aafaqi (2000) have shown that employees are more likely to demonstrate high affective commitment if they perceive compensation to be fair.

#### **3.7.5 Performance management and promotion**

Performance management, as proposed by Song (2001), consists of performance evaluation and appraisal, followed by rewards for enhancing skills and knowledge, rewards for business needs and gains, merit philosophy, and flexible benefit schemes which may be considered as promotion. According to Ansari et al. (2000), the distribution of organisational rewards such as promotion, status and performance evaluations has a tremendous impact on

organisational commitment. Hung et al. (2000) also found career development and promotion opportunities to be predictive of greater commitment among employees.

The results of a study by Ansari et al. (2000) have suggested that employees are more likely to express high affective commitment when they perceive the performance management and promotion to be fair.

### **3.7.6 Training and development**

Training and development are a common form of human capital investment for individual and organisational improvement (Chew & Chan, 2007). Training and development can be used to enhance job-specific skills, correct deficiencies in job performance and develop employees with abilities the organisation might need in the future (Wood & De Menezes, 1998; Chew & Chan, 2007). There have been instances where trained individuals become more marketable and consequently might leave the organisation. Contemporary studies have demonstrated that training and development affect job attitudes (Chew & Chan, 2007). Studies have shown that training and development do contribute to organisational commitment (Detoro & McCabe, 1997).

The literature has shown that employee empowerment through training activities helps to develop these employees and also helps to enhance their commitment to the organisation (McEvoy, 1997). The findings in research by Ansari et al. (2000) show that training is positively associated with affective organisational commitment. This is generally consistent with earlier research, which posits that training and development are a significant predictor of organisational commitment. (Greenberg, 1990; McFarlin & Sweeney, 1992; Sweeney & McFarlin, 1993).

It has also been found that when the training and development needs of employees and employers are met, employees will more likely stay in their organisations (Bassi & Van Buren, 1999; Sheridan, 1992; Wood, 1999).

### **3.7.7 Knowledge sharing**

Knowledge is an organisational element possessed by organisational members, which includes practical knowledge, high-level technical capabilities, perceptions of systems and creative abilities (Quinn, Anderson, & Finkelstein, 1996). Sarmiento (2005, p. 5) describes knowledge as “the combination of data and information, to which is added expert opinion,

skills and experience, resulting in a valuable asset which can be used to aid decision making". As such, knowledge sharing is defined as the movement of knowledge within an organisation (Massingham & Diment, 2009). Lee-Kelley et al. (2007) define knowledge sharing as the activity of transferring or disseminating knowledge from one person, group or organisation to another.

According to Song (2001), through effective knowledge sharing, organisations may improve efficiency, reduce training cost and reduce risks stemming from uncertainty. Bartol and Srivastava (2002) define knowledge sharing as individuals sharing organisationally relevant information, ideas, suggestions and expertise with one another. Knowledge sharing can also be viewed as a set of behaviours that involve the exchange of information or assistance to others (Connelly & Kelloway, 2003). It is a process of knowledge exchanges between the source and recipient units over several stages. It is not a random process but more of an effort instilled by the organisation through internal policies, structures and processes to facilitate this exchange of knowledge (Inkpen, 1998). Typically, employees would begin searching for knowledge if they have a problem they cannot resolve by themselves or if they wish to learn something new about their job (Massingham & Diment, 2009).

### **3.8 THE IMPORTANCE OF ORGANISATIONAL COMMITMENT**

George and Jones (2002) postulate that commitment is highly related to organisational citizenship behaviour. Organisational citizenship behaviour involves employees performing their jobs above and beyond the call of duty (George & Jones, 2002). George and Jones (2002) also assert that organisational citizenship behaviour tends to be voluntary and is therefore directly related to employees' affective commitment towards their organisation. There is a common denominator in all three of the components of commitment, namely the binding of the employee to the organisation (Meyer & Allen, 1991). Meyer and Allen (1991) state that this is an important precondition for employees to perform both their required roles and extra roles, but it is not a sufficient condition for either. Employees must also be willing to engage in activities that go beyond their required jobs, as well as be depended upon to perform their required jobs (Meyer & Allen, 1991). If employees are highly committed, they will be willing to make sacrifices for their organisation (Greenberg & Baron, 2003).

Employees who are highly committed demonstrate their willingness to share and make sacrifices that are expected of them to enable their organisation to render efficient services (Greenberg & Baron, 2003). Greenberg and Baron (2003) also believe that there are a number of positive effects when an organisation has committed employees. When

employees have an extremely **high level of commitment** to their organisation, they are less likely to resign or be absent from that organisation (George & Jones, 2002; Greenberg & Baron, 2003). However, when employees have an extremely **low level of commitment**, they are more inclined to not arrive for work when they are supposed to and not to retain their jobs.

When employees are reluctant to leave their organisation because of their positive attitude to their organisation, this indicates an affective commitment to the organisation (George & Jones, 2002; Greenberg & Baron, 2003). Meyer and Allen (1991) concur with George and Jones (2002) and Greenberg and Baron (2003) in acknowledging that in previous research (Blau, 1986; Pierce & Durham, 1987) commitment was found to be positively related to employee attendance, but they also added that in some instances (Ivancevich, 1985; Jamal, 1984) this relationship was not evident.

Meyer and Allen (1991) assume that employees' willingness to contribute to the organisation's effectiveness is influenced by the nature of the commitment that the employees experience. Meyer and Allen (1991) expand on this by acknowledging that employees who feel an affective attachment to their organisation might be more likely than those employees who feel a continuance or normative attachment to make an effort on behalf of the organisation. Yu and Egri (2005) agree with Meyer and Allen (1991) that the affective component of commitment has been found to be the most consistent and strongest predictor of positive organisational outcomes.

### **3.9 THE CONSEQUENCES OF ORGANISATIONAL COMMITMENT**

A consequence of understanding the antecedents of commitment and managing them to secure employee commitment is reflected in improved performance in organisations. For an organisation to function properly, it relies on employees to behave in such a manner that they exceed their role prescriptions (Maxwell & Steele, 2003). In IT companies in particular, it is not sustainable for employees to operate without flexibility. Achieving organisational goals often relies on individual committed behaviours such as cooperation and unrewarded help (Maxwell & Steele, 2003). Various consequences of commitment have been researched, some of which are explored below.

### **3.9.1 Job performance**

According to Maxwell and Steele (2003), lack of practical evidence and the number of variables affecting employee performance makes it difficult to draw conclusions. Meyer and Allen (1991) argue that because different types of commitment have different relationships with organisational behaviour, not all kinds of commitment are associated with high job performance. Furthermore, Benkhoff (1997) posit that the lack of a relationship is due to the use of the wrong instrument, namely the organisational commitment questionnaire. However, he maintains that this problem is easily overcome with the use of Meyer and Allen's (1991) three-component commitment scales.

Despite the complex relationship between commitment and performance, several theoretical positions can be established, and as cited by Maxwell and Steele (2003), commitment influences performance because committed people will be persistent in the tasks set and achieve the set goals, whereas non-committed people will not (Salancik, 1977). The first likely outcome of commitment is service quality (Iverson et al., 1996). Acceptance of organisational change can be a direct consequence of commitment because employees who are committed to their employer are likely to exhibit trust and accept change affecting them (Iverson et al., 1996). However, there is a limit to a productive level of commitment in respect of accepting change; too high a level of commitment can actually lead to resistance to change (Salancik, 1977). Committed employees may assume extra role responsibilities (O'Reilly & Chatman, 1986).

According to Benkhoff (1997), the main reason why commitment has been one of the most popular research subjects over the past three decades is its assumed impact on performance.

### **3.9.2 Tenure**

According to Mowday, Steers, and Porter (1982), a significant positive correlation exists between increased tenure and increased organisational commitment, although Roodt (2004) found mixed results. A short tenure was positively associated with job satisfaction for women and with organisational commitment for men. A lengthy tenure was positively associated with organisational commitment for women (Roodt, 2004).

### **3.9.3 Retention**

Another consequence of high organisational commitment is employee turnover. Various authors have indicated that employees who are strongly committed to an organisation are less likely to leave (Porter et al., 1974; Steers, 1977; Lee-Kelley et al., 2007). In terms of absenteeism, both Angle and Perry (1981) and Mathieu and Zajac (1990) have not found any positive correlation with organisational commitment.

According to Elangoven (2001), turnover intent is directly and positively related to actual turnover and with both job satisfaction and organisational commitment (Roodt, 2004). An argument proffered is that employees who fail to receive tangible and intangible rewards and who do not feel a psychological attachment to their organisations are more inclined to quit. By contrast, Meyer and Allen (1991) found that commitment is negatively related to turnover. Meyer and Allen (1991) maintain that it is important to understand the nature of the commitment the employee experiences. They (1991, p. 78) caution that “not all forms of commitment are alike and organisations concerned with keeping employees by strengthening their commitment should carefully consider the nature of commitment they instil”.

### **3.9.4 Absenteeism**

According to Mowday et al. (1982), motivation to attend work might be high if employees are committed to their organisations, even if they do not enjoy their jobs. Theoretically, an expectation is that highly committed individuals would be more motivated to refrain from being absent, so that they could contribute towards organisational goal attainment (Mowday et al., 1982). In support of this theory, research conducted indicates a negative correlation between organisational commitment and absenteeism (Robbins, 2001).

While the consequences of organisational commitment are crucial to the survival and performance of the organisation, the scope of this study precluded further discussion of this topic.

### **3.10 THE OUTCOMES OF ORGANISATIONAL COMMITMENT**

It has long been argued that for an organisation to function properly it relies on employees to behave in such a manner that they exceed their role prescriptions (Katz, 1964). In the dynamic IT industry in particular, it is not sustainable for employees to operate without flexibility. Achieving organisational goals often relies on individual committed behaviour such as cooperation and unrewarded help (Smith, Organ, & Near, 1983). Many different outcomes of commitment have been researched and the outcomes that are relevant to this study will be discussed. The principal outcomes dealt with in this study are adoption of the organisation's culture, norms and goals and employee performance, both of which are explored below.

#### **3.10.1 Adoption of the organisation's culture, norms and goals**

A significant effect of organisational commitment is that individuals "tend to adhere to its (the organisation's) norms" (Salancik, 1977, p. 27). This outcome reflects the first of the three aspects of Porter et al.'s (1974) definition of commitment outlined earlier in this study. Following the organisation's norms is critically important in the IT sector as its labour intensity means that employees play a vital role in determining success (Rogers, Clow, & Cash, 1994). Nowhere is the role more vital than in the public face of employees' jobs where staff deal with customers, and conforming to the organisation's norms and goals is crucial.

Salancik (1977) also makes the valuable point that socialising and inducting individuals to the culture, norms and values of the organisation is essential because employers cannot control the nature of the people they employ. In the particular context of IT work, the theory on adoption of the organisation's norms and goals points in brief to this being a valuable outcome of commitment, and it implies the following (Salancik, 1977):

- Induction training covering the cultures, norms, goals, values and standards of the organisation is critical.
- Work effort will be channelled towards maximising revenues if employees are committed.

#### **3.10.2 Employee performance**

From an organisational perspective, effective employee performance is the ultimate outcome and purpose of commitment. Basically "... the main reason why commitment has been one of the most popular research subjects over the past 30 years is its assumed impact on

performance” (Benkhoff, 1997, p. 701). Yet the effect of commitment on performance is still only largely assumed and not conclusive (Mowday et al., 1982). Lack of practical evidence is one factor that makes it difficult to draw definite conclusions, and the number of variables affecting employee performance is another. A number of authors testify that there is a relationship between employee performance and commitment (e.g. Benkhoff, 1997; Mowday et al., 1982). The difficulty is that the relationship is neither consistent (Steers, 1977) nor direct (Mathieu & Zajac, 1990). Commitment influences performance as committed people will be persistent in tasks set and achieve set goals, whereas uncommitted people will not (Salancik, 1977). The first likely outcome of commitment is service quality (Iverson et al., 1996).

The importance of service quality for the IT industry cannot be understated, while the nature of service rendered in the IT industry is becoming increasingly tangible (Lashley, 2000). Acceptance of organisational change can be a direct consequence of commitment as employees who are committed to their employer are likely to trust them and accept the change affecting them (Iverson et al., 1996). However, there is a limit to a productive level of commitment in respect of accepting change (Salancik, 1977). Committed individuals may also assume extra role responsibilities (O’Reilly & Chatman, 1986). O’Reilly and Chatman (1986) also state that an alternative way of considering commitment and employee performance is examining the effects of not encouraging commitment but instead relying on employee compliance. However, that line of inquiry has been rebutted. The grounds for rebuttal are that employees whose performance is based on compliance only may not display higher levels of absenteeism, but they will certainly not be as productive or as likely to remain with the organisation in the longer term as those who have deeper levels of commitment (Bennett & Durkin, 2000). Hence it would seem, on balance, that an investigation of organisational commitment is worthwhile in individual and organisational terms because of the potential, if not guaranteed, outcomes. With regard to the outcome of employee performance, commitment may be expressed in

- persistence in completing tasks and achieving goals;
- service quality;
- acceptance of organisational culture and change; and
- assumption of extra job tasks.

### **3.11 INTEGRATION OF ORGANISATIONAL CULTURE AND ORGANISATIONAL COMMITMENT**

According to the theory discussed in chapters 2 and 3 of this study, there is a link between organisational commitment and organisational culture. Clugston, Howell, and Dorfman (2003) and Wasti (2003) support this and state that organisational culture has an effect on organisational commitment in terms of influencing the effectiveness and efficiency of organisations. In addition, O'Reilly (1989) believes that organisational culture is vital in developing and sustaining employee commitment and intensity levels that often characterise successful organisations. In accordance with this view, O'Reilly (1989) and Sathe (1983) state that shared values are an aspect of organisational culture that helps to generate this identification and attachment to the organisation. Martins and Martins (2003) mention that organisational culture creates high levels of commitment and performance

Sathe (1983) states that there is often a gap between the existing and preferred organisational cultures, and the Harrison and Stokes (1992) questionnaire enables organisations to identify whether or not that gap in the organisation is present. A culture gap exists in an organisation when there is a difference between the dominant, existing organisational culture form, and the preferred or desired cultural form (Bourantas & Papalexandris, 1992). Bourantas and Papalexandris (1992) conducted a study to assess the effect of the cultural gap on the commitment of an organisation's managers. They found that the culture gap negatively affects the commitment of managers towards their organisations.

Deal and Kennedy (1982) suggest a variety of elements in culture, for example, the importance of symbols and rituals, as a means of achieving employee commitment, as discussed in section 2.4 of this study. Nadler and Tushman (1977) concur with Deal and Kennedy's (1982) argument that employees can be committed to their organisation because of the similarity between their own values and those of their organisation. Nystrom (1993) states that the correlation between organisational culture and organisational commitment indicates that people who work in a strong culture feel more committed. According to Clugston et al. (2000) and Robbins (1996), organisational culture has an effect on organisational commitment, and the right kind of culture will influence how effectively organisations operate and render their services.

The theoretical integration of organisational commitment and organisational culture indicates that there is a link between the two variables, as discussed above. Although some culture and commitment literature has suggested an organisational culture-commitment relationship,

there has been little empirical investigation to substantiate this relationship (Deal & Kennedy, 1982; Lok & Crawford, 2003; O'Reilly et al., 1989). The aim of the current study was to identify whether there is relationship between organisational commitment and organisational culture in the selected IT company.

### **3.12 CHAPTER SUMMARY**

This chapter involved a theoretical exploration of the concept of organisational commitment. The background to organisational commitment was discussed as well as the definitions of the concept, and the approaches to and dimensions of the concept were highlighted and explained in terms of their relevance to the study. In addition, models of organisational commitment were explored, followed by a discussion of the stages and factors influencing organisational commitment. The importance and consequences, the outcomes of organisational commitment were also discussed. The next chapter focuses on the empirical study.

## **CHAPTER 4: EMPIRICAL STUDY**

Chapter 3 focused on exploring the concept of organisational commitment, which entailed a discussion of relevant definitions of and approaches to organisational commitment and an exploration of the dimensions and models of organisational commitment. This was followed by a discussion of the stages and factors influencing organisational commitment as well as the importance and consequences of organisational commitment. The outcomes of organisational commitment were explained and the integration of organisational commitment and organisational culture highlighted. This chapter presents the methodology used in the empirical study and includes a discussion on the measuring instruments used for data collection, the rationale for the use of these instruments, the dimensions of the culture and commitment questionnaire, interpretation, administration, reliability and validity.

### **4.1 MEASURING INSTRUMENTS**

The measuring instrument used in this research was divided into three sections and the data was collected by means of a self-administered questionnaire, attached as appendix A. The questionnaire consisted of three sections, namely A, B and C, and was accompanied by a cover letter. The cover letter introduced the research and ensured that the respondents were knowledgeable about the purpose of the research. Confidentiality was maintained as the completed questionnaires were dropped off at the HR department in a secured box in the HR manager's (researcher) office.

Section A of the questionnaire included nine biographical questions. In this section, respondents were requested to select an option by making a cross opposite their selected option. Section B consisted of 15 statements each containing four sub statements reflecting both the existing and preferred organisational cultures in the selected IT company. Section B included an instruction sheet explaining how this section should be completed.

In section C, the respondents were requested to respond to a five-point Likert scale for 21 organisational commitment statements. Section C also included an instruction sheet indicating how respondents should complete this section of the survey. The questionnaire also contained an open question, where respondents were requested to add any comments in the space provided on the last page of the questionnaire. It was not the purpose of this research to analyse the comments, but to pass the comments on to the selected IT company for further investigation.

The measuring instruments used for data collection in this study were the organisational culture questionnaire (OCQ) and the organisational commitment scale (OCS). These questionnaires were considered relevant and applicable to the study.

#### **4.1.1 Organisational culture questionnaire (OCQ)**

The discussion below explores the rationale, purpose, administration, interpretation, validity and reliability of and motivation for using the OCQ.

##### *4.1.1.1 Rationale and purpose of and motivation for using the OCQ*

Section B of the questionnaire was based on an existing research measuring instrument. One of the reasons why this instrument was chosen was because it has the advantage of being based on a simple model which is easily understandable to employees at any organisational level (Harrison, 1993). The Harrison and Stokes (1992) research instrument was developed from the cultural framework by Harrison (1972).

The Harrison and Stokes (1992) research instrument was tested in South Africa by Grebe (1997), Harmse (2001), and Louw and Boshoff (2006) and received acceptable results with regard to the reliability and validity, which was another reason it was chosen for use in this research. In section B of the measuring instrument, there are 15 statements each containing four sub-statements. These sub-statements reflect the four organisational culture types developed by Harrison and Stokes (1992), namely power orientation, role orientation, achievement orientation and support orientation. Respondents were requested to rank the statements according to the extent to which they strongly agreed (5 = most preferred) or strongly disagreed (1 = least preferred) with each statement. Each of these statements had to be ranked twice, once according to how they thought things were at that time (the existing culture) and then the way the respondents would have liked the culture to be (the preferred culture).

##### *4.1.1.2 Dimensions of the OCQ*

This questionnaire consists of 60 items and measures four dimensions of organisational culture, namely achievement, power, role and support culture (Harrison, 1993). Each of these dimensions has 15 items or structured questions to measure them. The following is a detailed description of the four dimensions:

- (1) *Achievement culture*. The achievement orientation realises the organisation's common vision or purpose by using the organisation's mission to attract and release employees' personal energy in the pursuit of common goals, where the organisation's mission is used to focus the personal energy of the organisation's employees (Harrison & Stokes, 1992).
  
- (2) *Power culture*. According to Harrison and Stokes (1992), an organisation that is power oriented is based on inequality of access to resources, where a resource can be anything one person controls that another person wants. Within the power culture, people use resources to control other people's behaviour (Harrison & Stokes, 1992).
  
- (3) *Role culture*. The role culture is based on the existence of rules, procedures and job descriptions, as opposed to the sole power of the leaders found in the power culture (Brown, 1995; Martin, 2001).
  
- (4) *Support culture*. The support organisational culture is based on mutual trust between the employee and the organisation (Harrison & Stokes, 1992). Employees working in a support-oriented organisational culture believe that they are valued as human beings, not merely as contributors to a task (Harrison, 1993; Harrison & Stokes, 1992). An organisation that has a support culture has a warm and caring atmosphere, where the assumption is that a sense of belonging will create a sense of commitment to the organisation and therefore employees will contribute more within the organisation (Harmse, 2001).

#### 4.1.1.3 Interpretation

A Likert-type scale is used for rating responses and the ratings are defined as follows:

- 1 = (strongly disagree) least dominant
- 2 = (disagree) or dominant
- 3 = unsure
- 4 = agree or next dominant
- 5 = strongly agree or most dominant

#### 4.1.1.4 Administration

The OCQ is a self-administered questionnaire and provides instructions for its completion. The items are structured in a statement format with a rating scale for each statement. Respondents rate statements based on their experience with and observation of the organisation. Only fully completed questionnaires were considered for this study.

#### 4.1.1.5 Reliability and validity

Reliability refers to achieving consistent results using the same technique (Hammersley, 1987). Reliability thus measures the agreement of two efforts that measure the same trait through similar methods (Hammersley, 1987). The reliability scores of the Harrison and Stokes (1992) instrument, as determined by Harrison (1993), are indicated in table 4.1 utilising the Spearman-Brown formula split-half test.

Table 4.1

*The reliability of the Harrison and Stokes (1992) questionnaire*

<b>SCALE</b>	<b>RELIABILITY</b>
<b>Power culture</b>	<b>0.90</b>
<b>Role culture</b>	<b>0.64</b>
<b>Achievement culture</b>	<b>0.86</b>
<b>Support culture</b>	<b>0.87</b>

Validity refers to whether the measurement accurately reflects the real meaning of the concept being considered (Babbie & Mouton, 2001; Hammersley, 1987). Validity can be understood to refer to the agreement of two attempts to measure the same trait through different methods (Hammersley, 1987).

Harrison (1993) gained indirect evidence of the validity of the Harrison and Stokes (1992) questionnaire by correlating it with another culture questionnaire by Janz (Harrison, 1993). Table 4.2 illustrates the correlations between the two questionnaires, which confirm that they measure similar attitudes and values, which confirms the validity of the instrument (Harrison, 1993). The results in table 4.2 also show that the two questionnaires appear to tap into the same cognitive space in a respondent (Harrison, 1993).

Table 4.2

Validity scores between the Harrison and Janz questionnaires (Harrison, 1993)

Harrison and Stokes culture questionnaire	Janz culture index questionnaire			
	Values	Power	Rules	Index
Power culture	-0.70	0.79	0.01	0.80
Role culture	0.19	-0.47	0.40	0.29
Achievement culture	0.69	-0.69	-0.38	0.83
Support culture	0.41	-0.68	-0.46	0.69

From the above discussion, it can be deduced that the scales in the Harrison and Stokes (1992) research instrument showed acceptable reliability and validity.

#### 4.1.2 Organisational commitment scale (OCS)

The discussion below focuses on the rationale, purpose, administration, interpretation, validity and reliability of and the motivation for using the OCS.

##### 4.1.2.1 Rationale and purpose of and motivation for using the OCS

Section C of the questionnaire, pertaining to organisational commitment, consists of the research instrument developed by Allen and Meyer (1990). It was chosen for this research because Allen and Meyer's (1990) three-component questionnaire is a multidimensional construct that conceptualises organisational commitment and can be applied across domains (Meyer, Allen, & Smith, 1993). The value of taking this multidimensional approach is that it provides a more complete understanding of employees' relationships with their jobs (Meyer et al., 1993). Silverthorne (2004) agrees with Meyer et al. (1993) and further states that a multidimensional approach is an effective tool for measuring organisational commitment. This research instrument was also chosen because it had been previously tested by Allen and Meyer (1990), Clugston et al. (2000), Meyer and Allen (1991), Rashid et al. (2003), and Wasti (2003). In this research instrument, Allen and Meyer (1990) measure the following three types of organisational commitment:

- (1) affective commitment;
- (2) continuance commitment; and
- (3) normative commitment (Greenberg & Baron, 2003; Allen & Meyer, 1990).

The affective, continuance and normative organisational commitment scales each comprise seven items, which is a modification of the original questionnaire (Coetzee, Schreuder, & Tladinyane, 2007). The questionnaire was modified on the basis that the survey for the current research was lengthy and therefore needed to be reduced. The researcher compared the factor analysis results received by Allen and Meyer (1990) and deleted the lowest rating for each of the three factors. Deleting three statements therefore reduced Allen and Meyer's (1990) organisational commitment questionnaire from 24 statements to 21 statements. A second modification of the Allen and Meyer (1990) organisational commitment questionnaire was that the normative commitment scale had negative statements. The researcher altered the negative normative statements to positive normative statements in order to make the completion of the questionnaire easier.

Section C of this research instrument used in this research consisted of three scales reflecting the three-component conceptualisation of organisational commitment developed by Allen and Meyer (1990), namely affective, continuance and normative commitment. Each of the scales consists of seven statements comprising the 21 statements, and all statements were linked to a five-point Likert-type interval scale. This interval-scaled instrument enabled the researcher to perform the statistical data analysis (Cooper & Schindler 2003; Leedy & Ormrod, 2005).

#### *4.1.2.2 Dimensions of the OCS*

The OCS is a questionnaire which consists of 24 structured statements or items, measuring the affective, continuance and normative dimensions of organisational commitment (Meyer & Allen, 1997). As discussed in section 4.2.2.1 of this study, the OCS was modified from 24 to 21 questions for the purposes of this study.

The following is a detailed description of each of the dimensions:

- (1) *The affective commitment dimension (7 items)*. Allen and Meyer (1990) refer to affective commitment as the employee's attachment to, identification with and involvement in the organisation. Affective commitment has the following three elements:

- (a) the formation of an emotional attachment to the organisation;
- (b) identification with the organisation; and
- (c) the desire to maintain organisational membership (Allen and Meyer, 1990).

(2) *The continuance commitment dimension (7 items)*. Allen and Meyer (1990) refer to continuance commitment as a form of psychological attachment to an employing organisation that reflects the employee's perception of the loss he or she would suffer upon leaving the organisation.

(3) *The normative commitment dimension (7 items)*. Randall and Cote (1990) refer to normative commitment as the moral obligation the employee develops after the organisation has invested in him or her. They (1990) argue that when an employee starts to feel that the organisation has spent either too much time or money training and developing him or her, the employee feels obligated to stay with the organisation.

#### 4.1.2.3 Interpretation

A five point Likert-type scale is used for rating responses, and the ratings are defined as follows:

- 1 = strongly disagree
- 2 = disagree
- 3 = unsure
- 4 = agree
- 5 = strongly agree

As discussed in section 4.2.2.1, the researcher altered the negative normative statements to positive normative statements in order to make the completion of the questionnaire easier.

#### 4.1.2.4 Administration

The OCS is self-explanatory and is completed individually by the respondents. Supervision is not necessary. The questionnaire provides clear instructions on its completion. Respondents mark their rating of each item on the questionnaire itself.

#### *4.1.2.5 Reliability and validity*

As mentioned in the previous section, reliability measures a research instrument's consistency, while validity refers to whether the instrument measures what it claims to measure (Creswell, 1994). Allen and Meyer's (1990) research instrument was previously tested in a number of studies (Becker et al., 1996; Rashid et al., 2003), and its reliability and validity have therefore been tested. Allen and Meyer (1990) developed the scales and selected eight items for inclusion in each of the affective commitment, continuance commitment and normative commitment scales – that is, 24 items in total.

Allen and Meyer (1990) tested the reliability in terms of the Cronbach alpha coefficient and the reliability for each scale was as follows: The affective commitment scale: 0.87; the continuous commitment scale: 0.75; and the normative commitment scale: 0.79. Rashid et al. (2003) also tested the reliability of the three scales in the instrument, and found that the scores for the three organisational commitment types, namely the affective, continuance and normative commitment were 0.92, 0.93 and 0.72, respectively. These results suggest a fair level of internal consistency in the responses (Rashid et al., 2003). Clugston et al. (2000) also tested the reliability of Allen and Meyer's (1990) measuring instrument and the coefficient alphas were all above 0.75. Regarding the validity of the questionnaire, Allen and Meyer (1990) subjected the 24 items comprising the three organisational commitment scales to a factor analysis. Everitt and Dunn (2001) state that factor analyses assess the validity of a questionnaire. Clugston et al. (2000) found that confirmatory factor analyses support these measures, which therefore means that they found that there is validity in the Allen and Meyer (1990) measuring instrument. Wasti (2003) also performed a factor analysis of the questionnaire that yielded a three-factor solution, which is comparable to the Allen and Meyer (1990) model and therefore also suggests validity in the instrument. From the above, it is clear that Allen and Meyer's (1990) measuring instrument has both acceptable reliability and validity. It was therefore not necessary to perform a pilot study for this section of the questionnaire.

## **4.2 Data collection and capturing**

The data collection process entails the researcher following procedures to gather the data. The questionnaire was administered and data collected from the sample (N = 190) of respondents at the selected IT company. The researcher sent an email to the selected IT company management. The document contained a three-page report on the research and its benefits for the selected IT company, as well as a draft copy of the questionnaire.

The research proposal was discussed and approved at a senior management meeting giving the researcher permission to conduct the research and hold data collection sessions at all the selected IT company offices situated in KwaZulu-Natal where the surveys were to be completed by the selected sample of respondents. The following procedure was then followed:

- A covering letter was attached to the questionnaire which explained the aim of the study, the confidentiality of responses and instructions for completing the questionnaire.
- A questionnaire on bibliographical information was included.
- The OCQ and OCS were distributed to all respondents in the sample.
- The respondents dropped off their completed questionnaires at the HR department in a secured box in the HR Manager's (researcher) office.

Once the data had been collected, the researcher numbered each questionnaire and captured the corresponding data on a spreadsheet document, using Microsoft Excel. This was done because if there was a complication with one of the data inputs, then the researcher could look up that specific questionnaire and correct the anomaly. Once all the data had been captured, it was transferred to a statistical data analysis program, namely the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS 23.0).

### **4.3. Statistical analysis**

Statistical analysis relates to how data is analysed. As stated above, the quantitative data was analysed using SPSS 23.0. Firstly, the information from all three sections of the questionnaire was analysed statistically using descriptive analysis (Creswell, 1994). Descriptive statistics are used to summarise a set of scores that are obtained from respondents and to illustrate basic patterns in the data (Harris, 1998; Neuman, 2006; Punch, 2005). The benefits of performing descriptive analysis include the following:

- (1) It keeps the researcher close to the data.
- (2) It enables the researcher to understand the distribution of each variable across the survey respondents (Punch, 2005).

In the current research, descriptive statistics were used to summarise section A of the questionnaire pertaining to the biographical details in order to develop a profile of the IT company's existing and preferred organisational culture (section B), as well of the IT

company's organisational commitment (section C). In the analysis of this research data, simple frequency figures were used to summarise and understand the data (Punch, 1995). Punch (1995, p. 111) describes frequency figures as follows, "The individual scores in the distribution are tabulated according to how many respondents achieve each score, or gave each response, or fell into each category." All three sections of the questionnaire used in the current research were analysed statistically using frequency distributions because the results could be shown as figures, graphs or tables. This made the results easy to illustrate and enabled the researcher to get a basic idea of the characteristics of the data (Punch, 1995; Sekaran, 1992). Once the data had been analysed using frequency figures, simple graphs were constructed in order to graphically represent the data contained in the frequency figure/table.

The respondents' perceptions of the existing and preferred organisational culture dimensions were categorised in the following manner:

- least dominant
- dominant
- most dominant

The frequency distribution was used to present the respondents' perceptions of the existing and preferred organisational culture dimensions.

#### **4.3.1 Means and standard deviations**

Christensen (1997) defines a mean as the arithmetic average of a group of numbers. Its main advantage is that the sample mean is generally a better estimate of the population's mean (Terre Blanche, Durrheim, & Painter, 2006). In addition, Sekaran (1992) defines a mean as the average that offers a general picture of the data without overwhelming the researcher with each of the observations in the data set. It is simply the average of the various responses pertaining to a scale (Parasuraman, Grewal, & Krishnan, 2004). The mean, or average, is calculated by taking the sum of individual observations of each scale and dividing it by the number of observations in that scale (Sekaran, 1992). The standard deviation is used to measure the dispersion of the data. Dispersion describes how the data is clustered around the mean, while standard deviation is the measure of dispersion and is the degree of deviation of the numbers from their mean (Parasuraman et al., 2004).

The reliability and validity of research instruments are vital considerations because they are the statistical criteria used to assess whether the research provides a good measure (Zikmund, 2003). Furthermore, Zikmund (2003, p. 740) defines reliability “as the degree to which an instrument’s measures are free from error, therefore yielding consistent results”. Research findings are reliable if they can be repeated (Collis & Hussey, 2003). This is known as replication, and it is extremely important in positivistic studies where reliability is usually high (Collis & Hussey, 2003). Three fundamental methods are accepted for estimating the reliability of the responses of a measurement scale, namely the test-retest method, the split-half method and the internal consistency method (Collis & Hussey, 2003). Because it is so important to compute the reliability of a measuring instrument, section 5.3 in chapter 5 will analyse the reliability of the research instruments used in this research even though previous studies have analysed the measuring instruments. The results of the statistical analyses will be discussed in detail in chapter 5.

#### **4.3.2 Analysis of variance**

The mean scores are compared using analysis of variance (ANOVA). ANOVA is used when one independent variable is analysed on an interval scaled dependent variable. This technique determines if statistically significant differences of means occur between two or more groups, and was used to test the first set of hypotheses (Zikmund, 2003). The categories of the independent variable, organisational culture, which are least dominant, dominant and most dominant are used as the basis for the subdivision into groups. The major independent variables used in this study for the purposes of the ANOVAs were the following dimensions of organisational culture:

- achievement culture;
- power culture;
- role culture; and
- support culture.

The dependent variables for each ANOVA were the following dimensions of organisational commitment:

- affective commitment;
- continuance commitment; and
- normative commitment.

One-way analysis of variance was conducted in this study.

#### **4.3.3. Level of statistical significance**

The statistical significance of a result represents the degree to which the result is representative of the entire population (StatSoft, 2007). The higher the statistical significance (p-value), the smaller the chance is of the observed relationship between variables in the sample, being a reliable indicator of the relationship between the respective variables in the population (StatSoft, 2007). Hence the p-value represents the probability of error that is involved when accepting the research results as being representative of the entire population. A p-value of 0.05 is generally regarded as an acceptable error level (StatSoft, 2007). The most commonly used significance levels are 0.05 and 0.01 (Terre Blanche et al., 2006). According to Christensen (1997), if the significance level is selected, then the difference can be expected to occur only once in 100 by chance. The 0.05 significance level was applicable in this study.

#### **4.4 FORMULATION OF THE HYPOTHESIS**

A hypothesis is a clear statement in which something is predicted (Cohen, Manian, & Morrison, 2011). It clearly describes what the researcher expects or predicts will happen in the research study. The central hypothesis was to determine the theoretical relationship between organisational commitment and organisational culture, as conceptualised earlier in the literature review chapters.

The following research hypotheses were formulated in order to achieve the empirical objectives of the study:

Ho1: There is no significant relationship between organisational culture and organisational commitment.

Ho: There is a significant relationship between organisational culture and organisational commitment.

The research hypotheses were tested by analysing the relationship between the organisational culture dimensions and organisational commitment dimensions.

#### **4.5 CHAPTER SUMMARY**

In this chapter, the population and sample were described. This was followed by a discussion of the research instruments, and the data collection and statistical analysis processes. The chapter concluded with a discussion of the formulation of the research hypotheses.

The next chapter presents the results of the empirical research.

## **CHAPTER 5: RESULTS OF THE EMPIRICAL STUDY**

### **5.1 INTRODUCTION**

Chapter 4 explained the methodology used in the empirical study and included a discussion of the measuring instruments used for data collection, the rationale and dimensions of the culture and commitment questionnaires, interpretation, administration, reliability and validity. The purpose of this research was to ascertain the influence of organisational culture on organisational commitment at the selected IT company. This chapter deals with the biographical results of the sample of respondents and the achievement of the aims formulated in section 1.4.2 of chapter 1 by presenting the empirical findings.

The purpose of this chapter is to present the empirical findings of this research and discuss them in relation to the theoretical perspectives (see chapter 2 regarding organisational culture and chapter 3 regarding organisational commitment). Firstly, the assessment of the reliability of the measuring instruments is established through the use of Cronbach alpha coefficients. Thereafter, the organisational culture and the organisational commitment profiles are identified. The organisational culture gap in terms of its effect on organisational commitment is also highlighted. This is followed by an interpretation of the results. The quantitative results are reported by means of tables and graphs, followed by discussions of the most significant findings.

### **5.2 POPULATION AND SAMPLE**

A population is any precisely defined group of people, events or things that are of interest to and under investigation by the researcher and from which the sampling elements are drawn (Collis & Hussey, 2003; Sekaran, 1992; Terre Blanche et al., 2006).

Although the selected IT company is both national and international, this study focussed on the Kwa-Zulu Natal (KZN) region, where the company employs 218 employees. The population of this research included all employees in the KZN region.

A sample is a subset and representation of the population that is selected for research and it consists of a selection of members from the population (Bryman & Bell, 2007; Sekaran, 2000). The purpose of the sample is to represent the main interests of the researcher (Collis & Hussey, 2003; Terre Blanche et al., 2006). Terre Blanche et al. (2006) add that a sample is compiled from the population and is simply the elements or people that are included in the research. According to Cooper and Schindler (2006) and Terre Blanche et al. (2006), the basic idea of sampling is that through the selection of members of the population, the

researcher can draw conclusions about the entire population. Sampling is thus the process of selecting elements to observe. The questionnaire was sent to all 218 employees, but only 190 responded.

### 5.3 RESPONDENTS' CHARACTERISTICS

The biographical characteristics of the sample of respondents are presented in order to get a clearer picture of the sample. The respondents' biographical information is given in a bar chart form. The biographical variables that were measured were as follows:

Age; gender; ethnic origin; home language; highest level of formal education; tenure; job level; business unit; and employment status.

**Age:** Respondents were requested to report their age in years. The distribution of the respondents' reported age is shown in figure 5.1. The participants' ages varied between 25 years and younger and 55 years and older.

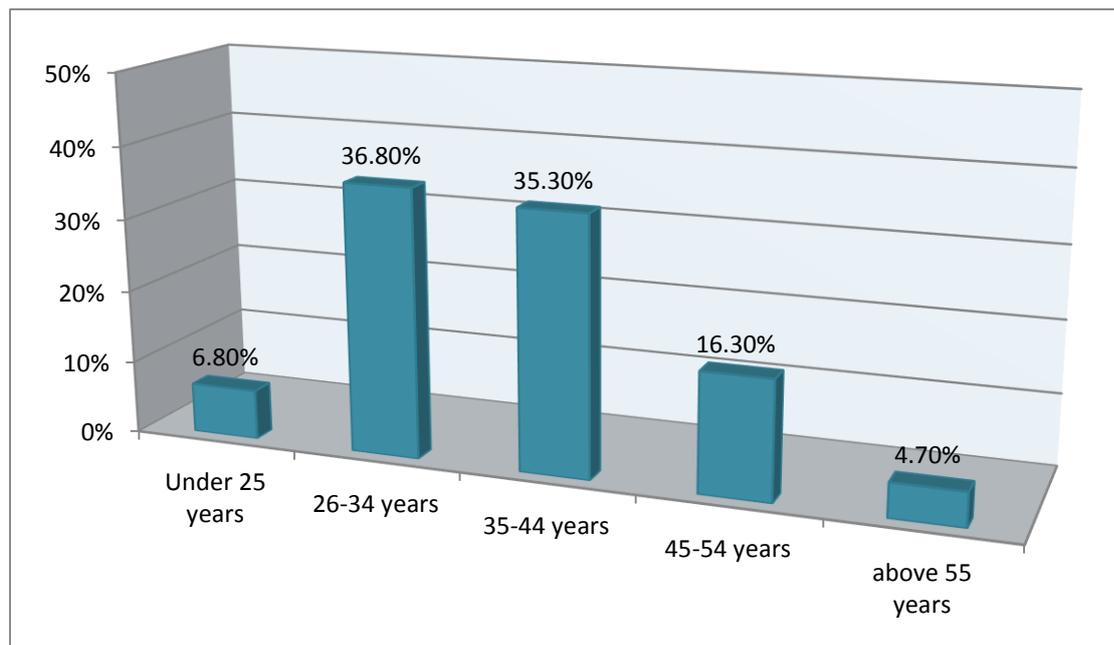
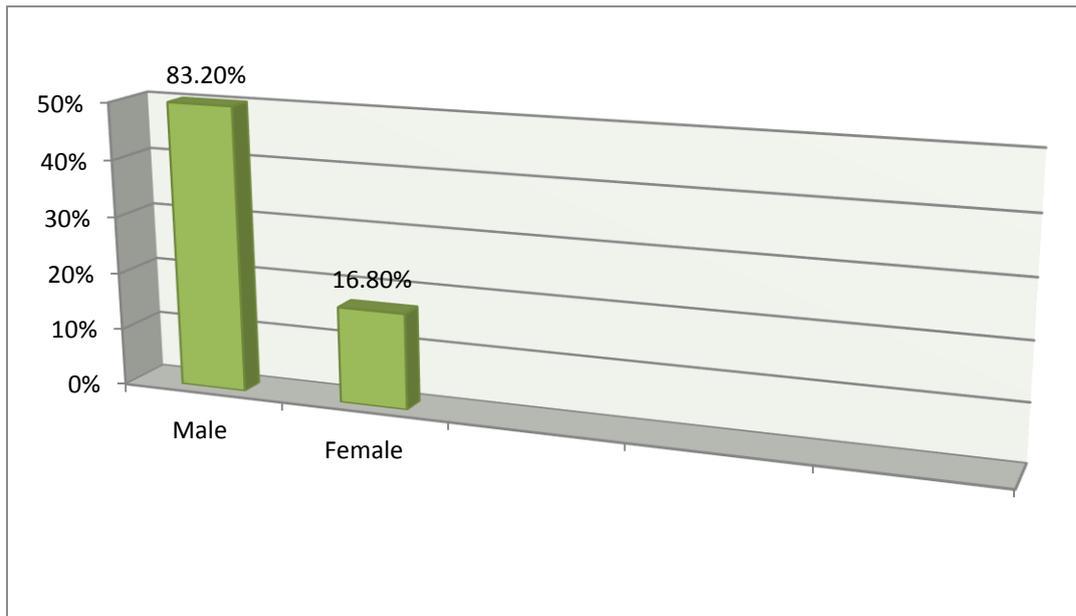


Figure 5.1. Respondents' profile as per age group

The respondents were classified into five age groups as indicated in figure 5.1. The largest single group (36.8%) of respondents were between the ages of 26 and 34, and 35.3% were between the ages of 35 and 44. Respondents in the age group 45 to 54 years made up

16.3% of the sample, while those who were 25 and younger made up 6.8 %. A small fraction of the sample (4.7%) was above 55 years of age.

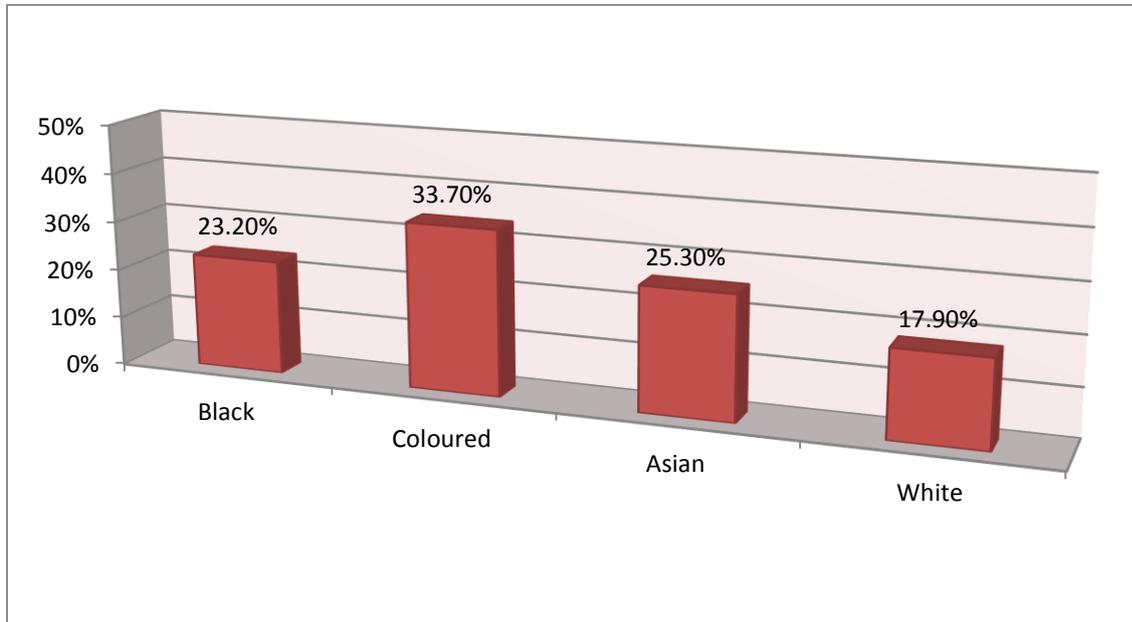
**Gender:** Respondents were asked to state their gender. The gender distribution of the respondents is shown in figure 5.2.



*Figure 5.2.* Respondents' profile as per gender

The majority of the respondents were male (n = 158) representing 83.2% of the sample. Females made up 16.8% of the sample.

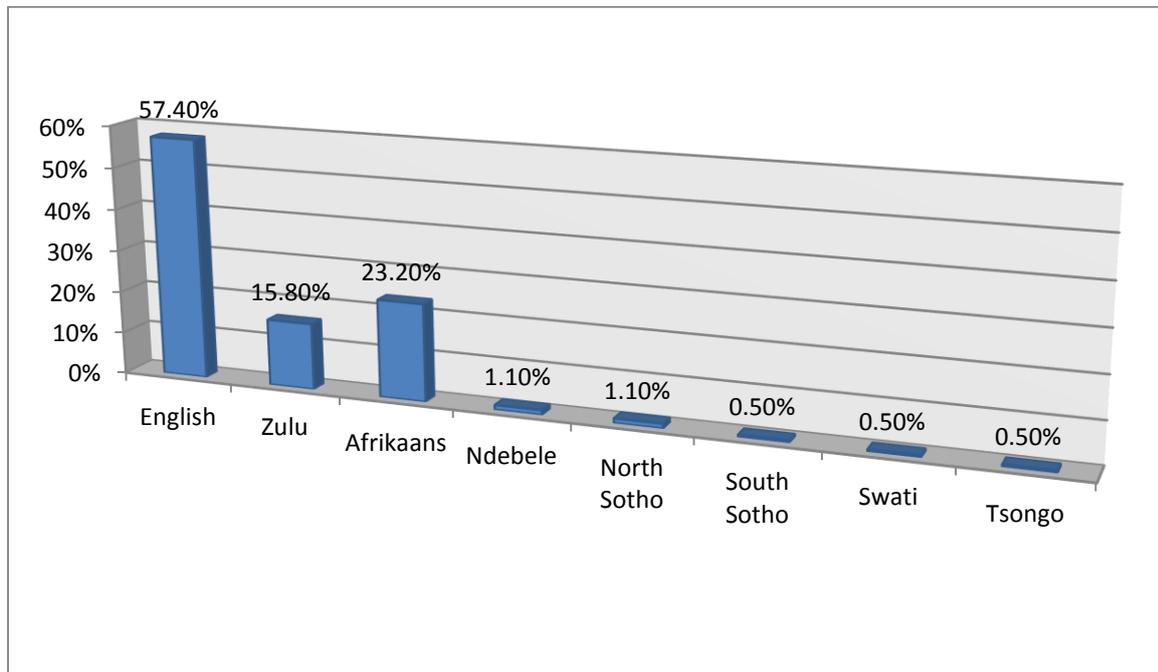
**Ethnic origin:** Respondents were requested to report their ethnic origin. The participants' ethnicity varied from black, coloured, Asian to white, as indicated in figure 5.3.



*Figure 5.3. Respondents' ethnicity*

The respondents were classified into four ethnic groups as indicated in figure 5.3. The largest single group (33.7%) of respondents were coloured, and 25.3% were Asian. The black respondents comprised 23.2% of the sample, while the smallest fraction of the sample (17.9%) were white.

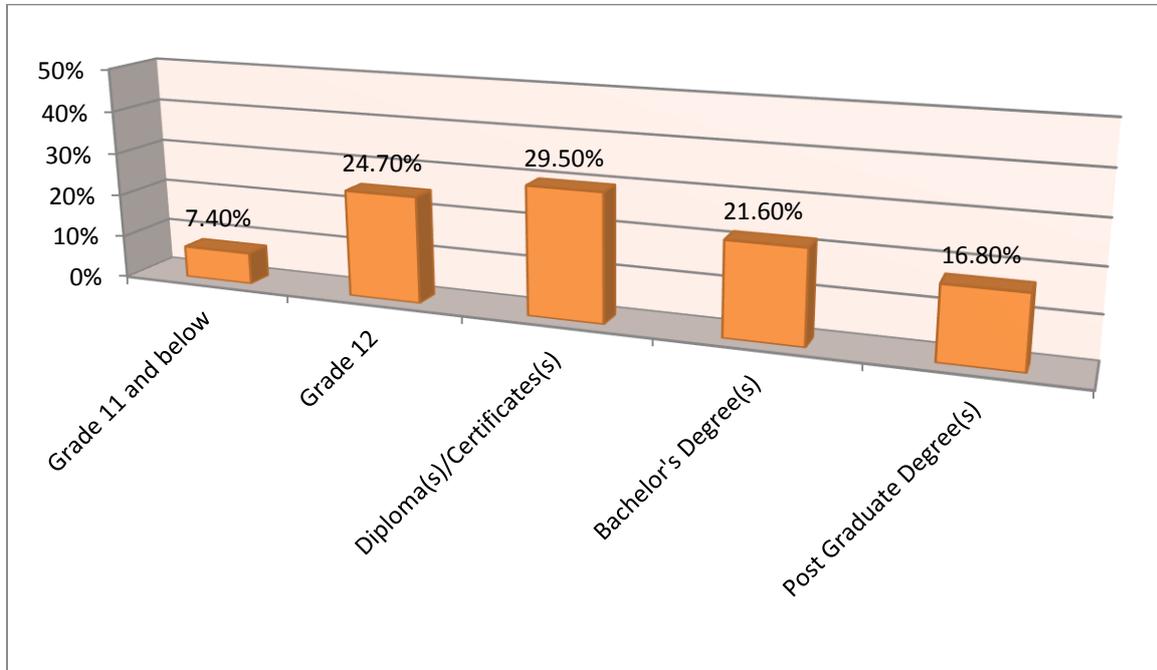
**Home language:** Respondents were asked to report the language they currently used at home. The distribution of respondents according to their current home language is shown in figure 5.4.



*Figure 5.4. Respondents' home language*

The largest single group of respondents (57.4%) used English as their home language, while the second largest home language group was Afrikaans speakers (23.2%). Among the African languages, Zulu formed the largest group (15.8%). The frequency of the usage of the other African languages was fairly low, as indicated in figure 5.4.

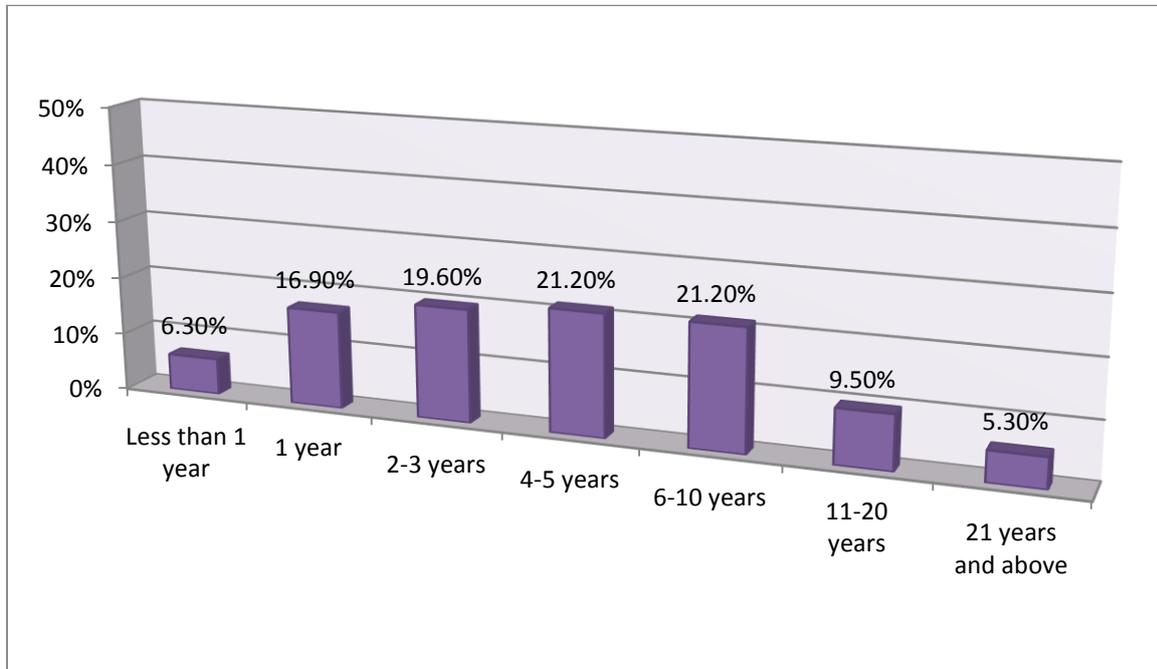
**Level of education:** Respondents were asked to indicate the highest level of formal education they had achieved. The distribution of the respondents' level of education is shown in figure 5.5.



*Figure 5.5.* Respondents' highest level of formal education

The largest single group of respondents (29.5%) had a diploma or certificate. Respondents with a bachelor's degree made up 21.6% of the sample, those with a postgraduate degree made up 16.8% of the sample and those with grade 12 made up 24.7% of the sample. The smallest group comprised respondents with grade 11 and lower, which made up 7.4% of the sample.

**Number of years worked in the company:** Respondents were asked to report the total number of years they had worked in the company. The distribution of number of years in the company is shown in figure 5.6. The number of years ranged from less than one year to 21 years and above.



*Figure 5.6. Respondents' tenure*

The number of years that respondents had spent in the company was categorised into seven groups as indicated in figure 5.6. Of the respondents, 21.2% had been with the company for four to five years, and the same number (21.2%) had been with the company for six to ten years. These were the largest groups in the sample, while 6.3% of the respondents had been with the company for less than a year, 16.9% had been with the company for a year, 9.5% had been with the company for 11 to 20 years and 19.6% had been with the company for two to three years. The smallest fraction of the sample (5.3%) had been with the company for 21 years and longer.

**Job level:** Respondents were asked to report the job level they occupied in the company. The distribution of the job level in the company is indicated in figure 5.7. The job level ranged from senior management to general workers.

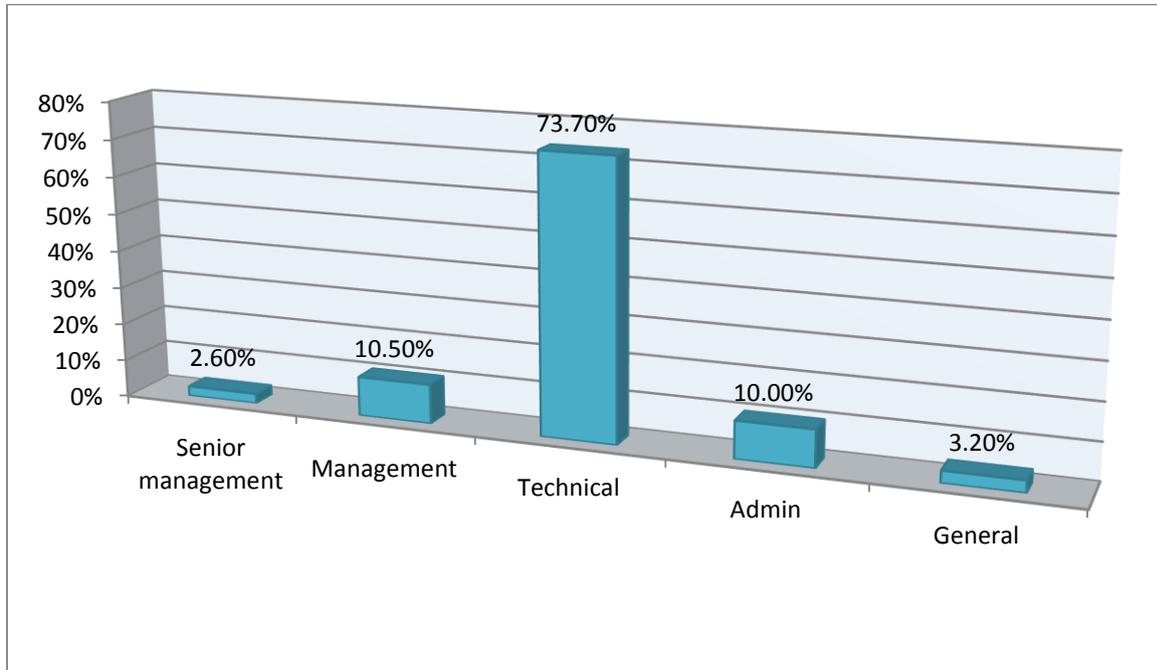
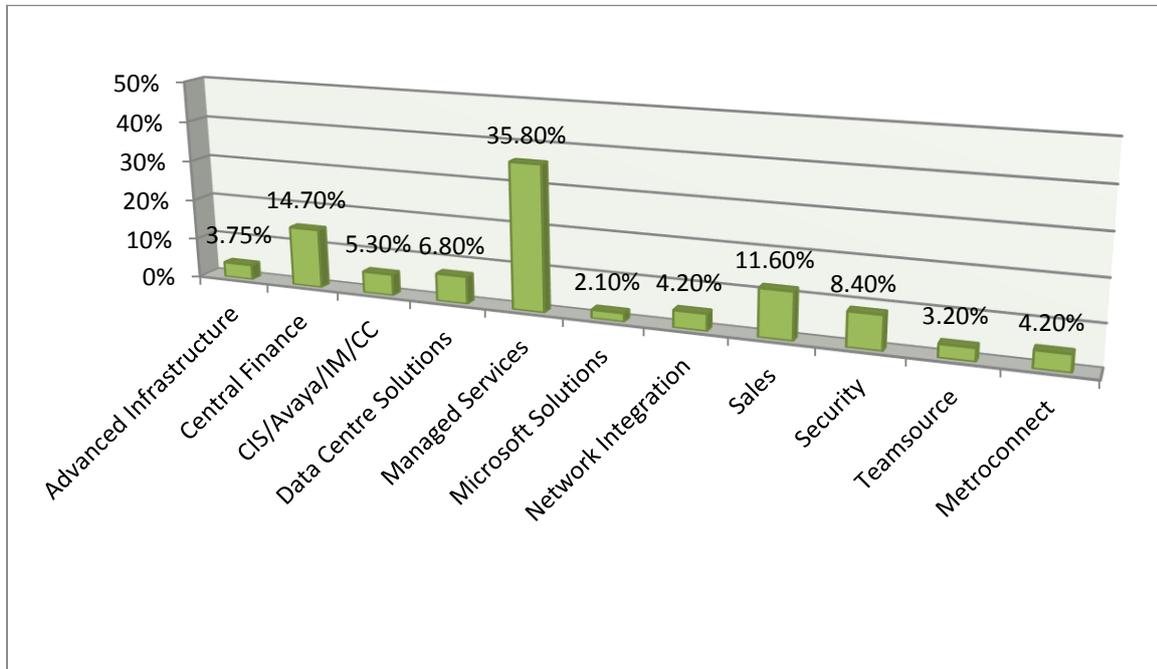


Figure 5.7. Respondents' job level

The job level that respondents occupied in the company was categorised into five groups, as shown in figure 5.7. The single largest group of respondents (73.7%) were in the technical areas of the business. Those respondents in management made up 10.5% of the sample. Respondents who worked in administration made up 10% of the sample, while respondents who performed general duties made up 3.2% of the sample. The smallest fraction of the sample (2.6%) comprised senior management.

**Business unit:** Respondents were asked to report on the business unit they occupied in the company. The distribution of respondents in the various business units in the company is indicated in figure 5.8.

Figure 5.8. Respondents' business unit



As indicated in figure 5.8. the single largest group of respondents worked in Managed Services (35.8%); 3.75% worked in Advanced Infrastructure; 14.7% worked in Central Finance; 5.3% worked in CIS/Avaya/IM/CC; 6.8% worked in Data Centre Solutions; 4.2% worked in Network Integration; 11.6% worked in Sales; 8.4% worked in Security; 3.2% worked in Teamsource; and 4.2% worked in Metroconnect.

**Employment status:** Respondents were asked to state their employment status. The employment status of the respondents is indicated in figure 5.9.

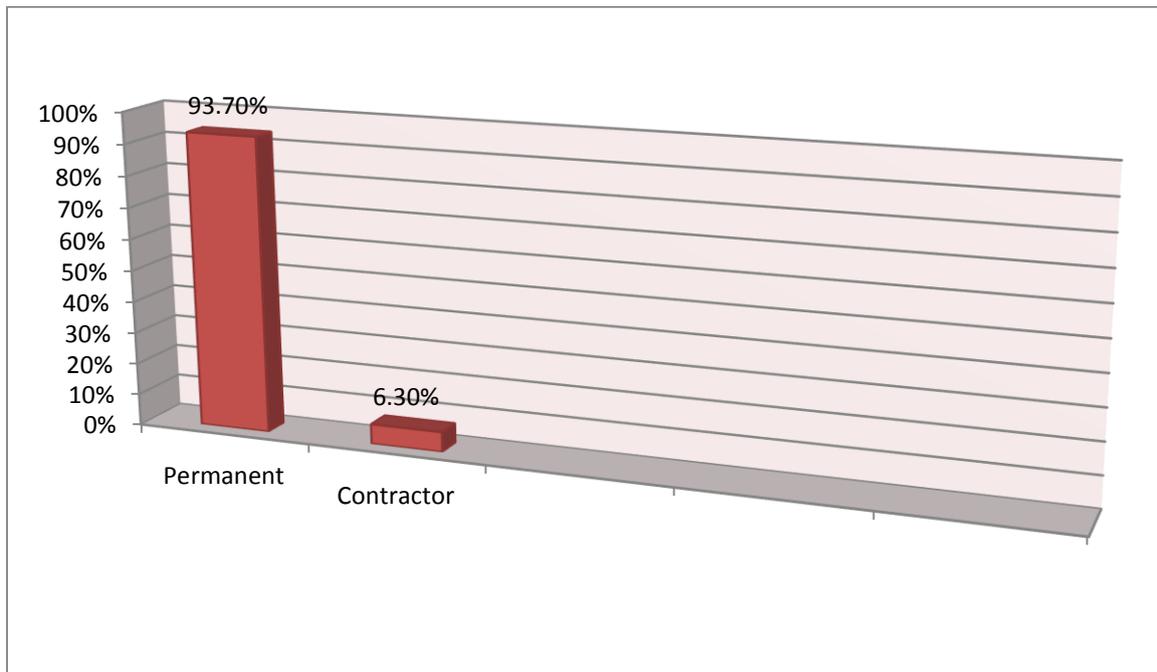


Figure 5.9. Respondents' employment status

The majority of the respondents were permanently employed ( $n = 190$ ) representing 93.7% of the sample. Contractors made up 6.3% of the sample. This distribution was in line with the aims of the company in terms of the number of contract and permanent staff in the region. The respondents' biographical distribution was also in line with the company profile.

#### 5.4 INTERNAL RELIABILITY OF THE MEASURING INSTRUMENTS

The focus of this section is to report on the reliability of the measuring instruments used in this research. As mentioned earlier in this study, previous studies had already conducted analyses to determine the reliability of the two measuring instruments. Reliability indicates whether or not an instrument's measures are free from error, therefore yielding consistent results (Collis & Hussey, 2003).

##### 5.4.1 Cronbach alpha coefficient scores for the organisational culture questionnaire

The reliability of the Harrison and Stokes (1992) culture questionnaire was established by means of the Cronbach alpha coefficient. Table 5.1 shows the Cronbach alpha coefficients for the four cultural scales, namely power, role, achievement and support scales which are

based on the Harrison and Stokes (1992) measuring instrument. It includes both the existing and preferred Cronbach alpha values.

*Table 5.1*

*Cronbach alpha coefficient scores for the organisational culture questionnaire*

<b>Organisational culture scales</b>	<b>Mean</b>	<b>Standard deviation</b>	<b>Cronbach's alpha coefficients</b>	<b>Cronbach alpha rating</b>
Existing power culture	2.20	0.25	0.97	Good
Existing role culture	2.89	0.16	0.98	Good
Existing achievement culture	2.54	0.23	0.96	Good
Existing support culture	2.9	0.35	0.97	Good
Preferred power culture	1.80	0.21	0.97	Good
Preferred role culture	2.73	0.19	0.97	Good
Preferred achievement culture	2.74	0.25	0.98	Good
Preferred support culture	2.68	0.30	0.94	Good

According to Bryman and Bell (2007, p. 164), "Cronbach alpha values of 0.70 and above are typically employed as a rule of thumb to denote a good level of internal reliability, values between 0.50 and 0.69 denote an acceptable level of reliability, and scores below 0.50 denote poor levels of reliability". Table 5.1 shows that the Cronbach alpha coefficients for the four scales were all good. This indicates that these scales yielded consistent results and can therefore be repeated with the expectation of receiving the same results. These scores are deemed to be highly reliable and internally consistent.

#### **5.4.2 Cronbach alpha coefficient scores for the organisational commitment questionnaire**

The Cronbach alpha coefficient was also calculated to estimate the reliability of section C of the questionnaire used in this research. Section C of this questionnaire was based on Allen

and Meyer's (1990) commitment questionnaire. A summary of the Cronbach alpha coefficients for the three organisational commitment scales is provided in table 5.2.

*Table 5.2*

*Cronbach alpha coefficient scores for the organisational commitment questionnaire*

<b>Organisational commitment Scales</b>	<b>Mean</b>	<b>Standard deviation</b>	<b>Cronbach alpha coefficients</b>	<b>Cronbach alpha rating</b>
Affective commitment	<b>2.67</b>	0.30	0.95	Good
Continuance commitment	2.51	0.13	0.95	Good
Normative commitment	2.52	0.38	0.97	Good

Table 5.2 shows that the affective commitment, continuance commitment and normative scales were all highly reliable. These Cronbach alpha coefficients could therefore be regarded as acceptable.

Allen and Meyer (1990) tested the reliability of the three organisational commitment scales in terms of the Cronbach alpha coefficients. Their results indicated that the reliability of the affective commitment scale was the highest. In this study, the normative commitment scale was found to be the highest.

## **5.5 ORGANISATIONAL CULTURE**

### **5.5.1 The organisational culture profile**

The purpose of this section was to achieve the first empirical aim of this research as stated in section 1.5.2 in chapter 1, namely to determine the dominant existing and preferred organisational culture dimension/s in the selected IT company. The organisational culture profile was identified using descriptive statistics by calculating the mean scores of each organisational culture scale (power, role, achievement and support culture scales) as shown in table 5.3.

Table 5.3 indicates that the dominant existing culture, which is defined as the scale that has the highest overall mean across respondents, was the role organisational culture with a mean score of 2.89. This score indicates that the majority of employees in the selected IT company identified the role culture as the dominant existing organisational culture.

Table 5.3

Mean scores of the existing and preferred organisational culture scales across all respondents

<b>Organisational culture scales</b>	<b>Mean</b>
Existing power culture	2.20
Existing role culture	<b>2.89</b>
Existing achievement culture	2.54
Existing support culture	2.29
Preferred power culture	1.80
Preferred role culture	2.73
Preferred achievement culture	<b>2.74</b>
Preferred support culture	2.68

Figures rounded off to two decimal places.

Figure 5.10 graphically illustrates the mean scores of the existing organisational cultures at the selected IT company. These mean scores indicate that for each response per respondent the dominant scale was identified as the scale with the highest score.

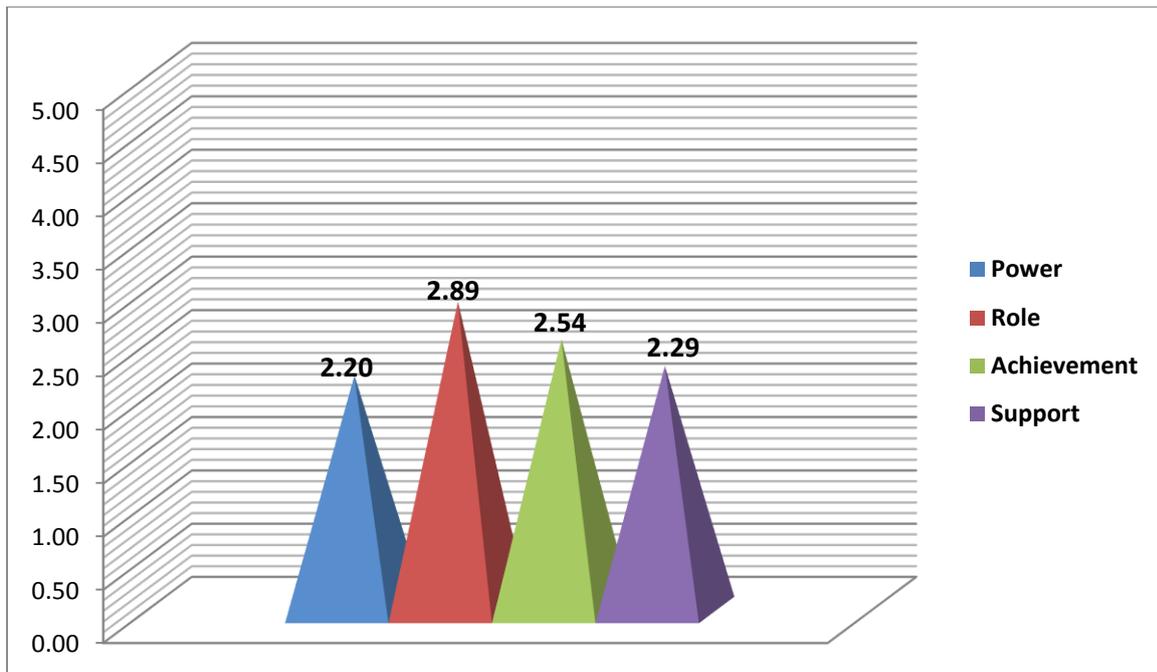


Figure 5.10. Existing organisational culture profile

Figure 5.10 indicates the responses of the existing organisational culture on the following dimensions (N = 190):

- Power culture: This dimension was found to be the least dominant in the existing culture (2.20).
- Role culture: Most respondents perceived that the existing role culture was **most dominant** (2.89).
- Achievement culture: This culture scale was ranked as the second highest culture (2.54).
- Support culture: This was found to be the second lowest culture scale (2.29).

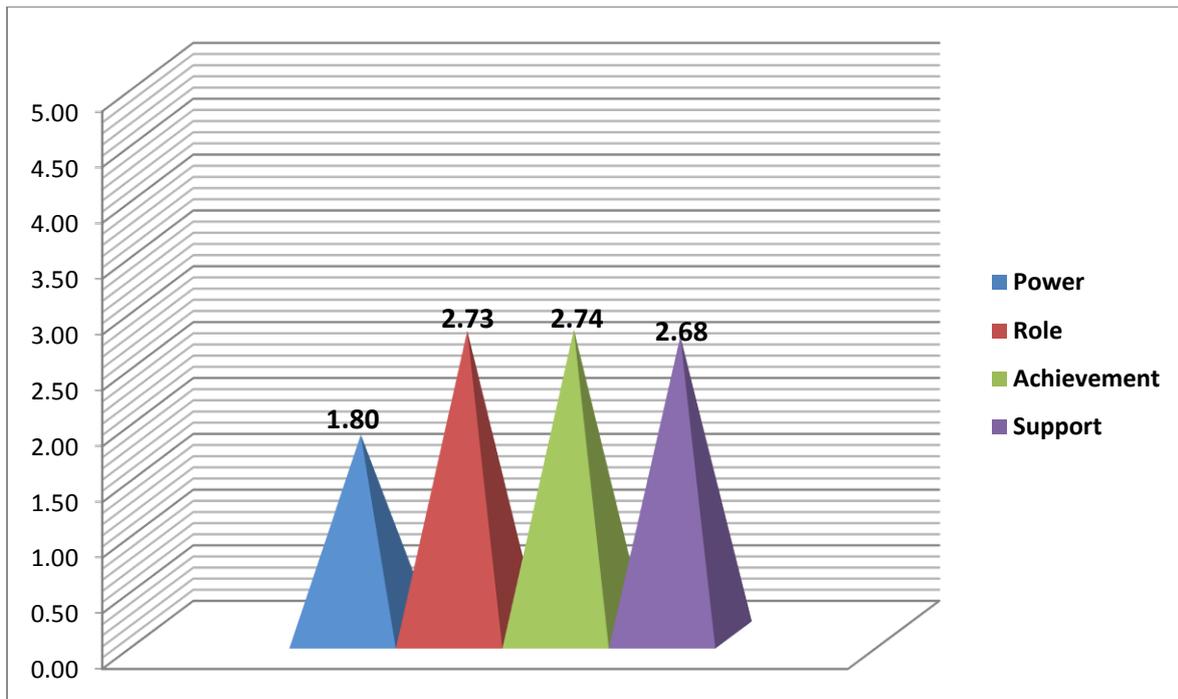


Figure 5.11. Preferred organisational culture profile

Figure 5.11 indicates the responses of the preferred organisational culture on the following dimensions (N = 190):

- Power culture: This dimension was found to be the lowest or least preferred culture scale (1.80).
- Role culture: This dimension was found to be the second highest culture scale (2.73).
- Achievement culture: This dimension was found to be the **most dominant** and most preferred by the majority of the respondents (2.74).
- Support culture: This dimension was found to be second lowest culture scale (2.68).

## 5.6 ORGANISATIONAL COMMITMENT

### 5.6.1 The organisational commitment profile

To achieve the second empirical aim as stated in section 1.5.2, chapter 1, namely to determine the dominant existing organisational commitment dimension/s in the selected IT company, the organisational commitment profile was identified using descriptive statistics, by calculating the mean scores of each scale, as shown in table 5.4.

Table 5.4

Mean scores of the organisational commitment scales across all respondents (n = 190)

Organisational commitment scales	Mean
Affective commitment	2.67
Continuance commitment	2.51
Normative commitment	2.52

Table 5.4 illustrates the percentage ratings of the commitment scales at the selected IT company. These percentages indicate that for each response per respondent, the dominant scale was identified as the scale with the highest score which, in this instance, was affective commitment with a score of 2.67.

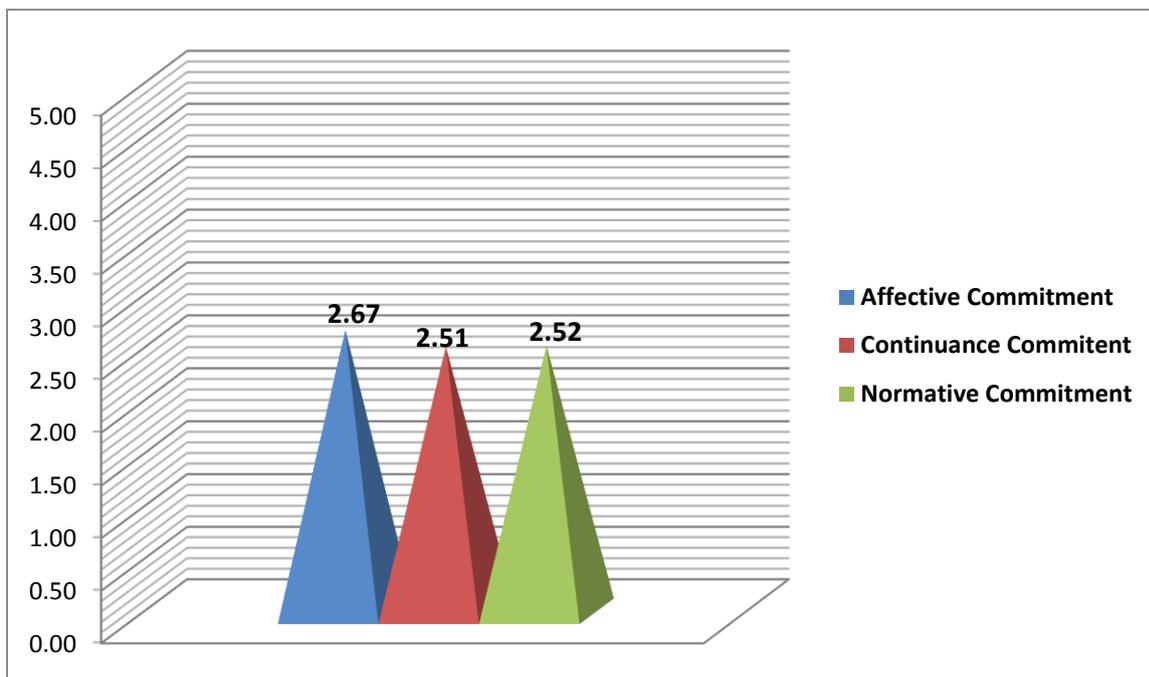


Figure 5.12. Organisational commitment profile

From figure 5.12 it is evident that the dominant commitment scale in the IT company was **affective commitment (2.67)**. This implies that these employees worked for the company because they wanted to continue working there as they had an emotional attachment to the company. Figure 5.12 shows that the normative commitment mean was 2.52, which implies that these employees continued to work for the company because they felt a moral responsibility. Finally, the continuance commitment's mean score was 2.51, which implies that these employees continued to work because the costs associated with leaving were too high.

## 5.7 DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS

### 5.7.1 Frequency distributions

The frequency distribution, as mentioned in section 4.3 of this study, was used to categorise the existing and preferred organisational culture dimensions. These categories were as follows:

- 1 = strongly disagree
- 2 = disagree
- 3 = unsure
- 4 = agree
- 5 = strongly agree

The five-point scale was coded as factors for analysis purposes according to the following three dominant categories:

- (1) 2.0 least dominant
  - (2) 1-3 dominant
  - (3) 1-4 most dominant
- [3 = unsure, was recoded as a missing value].

*Table 5.5*

*Frequency distribution of existing organisational culture dimensions*

<b>Existing organisational culture dimensions</b>	<b>Frequency</b>	<b>Percentage</b>
<b>Achievement culture</b>	<b>N = 190</b>	<b>100%</b>
Least dominant	27	14.2
Dominant	137	72.1
Most dominant	26	13.7
<b>Power culture</b>	<b>N = 190</b>	<b>100%</b>
Least dominant	118	62.1
Dominant	79	38.8
Most dominant	2	1.1
<b>Role culture</b>	<b>N = 190</b>	<b>100%</b>
Dominant	40	21.1
Most dominant	150	78.9
<b>Support culture</b>	<b>N = 190</b>	<b>100%</b>
Least dominant	89	46.8
Dominant	87	45.8
Most dominant	14	7.4

Table 5.5 indicates the respondents' perceptions of the existing organisational culture on the following dimensions:

- Power culture (N = 190): It is evident from the table above that most respondents believed that this culture was found to be the least dominant (62.1%).
- Role culture (N = 190): Most respondents perceived that the existing role culture was **most dominant** (78.9%).
- Achievement culture (N = 190): According to the respondents, this was ranked as the second highest culture scale (72.1%).
- Support culture (N = 190): This was found to be the second least dominant culture scale (46.8%).

Table 5.6

*Frequency distribution of preferred organisational culture dimensions*

Preferred organisational culture dimensions	Frequency	Percentage
<b>Achievement culture</b>	<b>N = 190</b>	<b>100%</b>
Least dominant	7	3.7
Dominant	90	47.4
Most dominant	93	48.9
<b>Power culture</b>	<b>N = 190</b>	<b>100%</b>
Least dominant	188	98.9
Dominant	2	1.1
<b>Role culture</b>	<b>N = 190</b>	<b>100%</b>
Least dominant	5	2.6
Dominant	105	55.3
Most dominant	80	42.1
<b>Support culture</b>	<b>N = 190</b>	<b>100%</b>
Least dominant	22	71.6
Dominant	98	51.6
Most dominant	70	36.8

Table 5.6 indicates the respondents' perceptions of the existing organisational culture on the following dimensions:

- Power culture: This dimension was found to be the least dominant preferred culture scale (98.9%).
- Role culture: This dimension was found to be the dominant preferred culture scale (55.3%).
- Achievement culture: It is clear from figure 5.2 that the achievement culture was **most dominant** and most preferred by the majority of the respondents (48.9%).
- Support culture: This dimension was found to be the second least dominant preferred culture scale (71.6%).

## **5.8 ONE-WAY ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE (ANOVA)**

ANOVA was applied to the data received from the 190 respondents in the selected IT company. This section confirms the third empirical aim as stated in section 1.5.2 in chapter 1, namely to determine the relationship between the organisational culture and organisational commitment dimensions.

### **5.8.1 ANOVA: Existing organisational culture and organisational commitment dimensions**

The ANOVA shown below was conducted on the existing organisational culture dimensions and the organisational commitment dimensions.

Table 5.7

ANOVA: Existing power culture

		N	Mean	Std. deviation	Std. error	95% confidence interval for mean		Minimum	Maximum
						Lower bound	Upper bound		
Affective commitment	Least dominant	118	2.6596	.30382	.02797	2.6042	2.7150	1.83	3.17
	Dominant	70	2.6857	.32046	.03830	2.6093	2.7621	2.00	3.33
	Total	188	2.6693	.30952	.02257	2.6248	2.7139	1.83	3.33
Continuance commitment	Least dominant	118	2.5182	.13312	.01225	2.4939	2.5424	2.29	2.86
	Dominant	70	2.5020	.14541	.01738	2.4674	2.5367	2.00	2.71
	Total	188	2.5122	.13766	.01004	2.4924	2.5320	2.00	2.86
Normative commitment	Least dominant	118	2.5169	.38592	.03553	2.4466	2.5873	1.86	3.00
	Dominant	70	2.5143	.38945	.04655	2.4214	2.6071	1.86	3.00
	Total	188	2.5160	.38620	.02817	2.4604	2.5715	1.86	3.00

ANOVA						
		Sum of squares	df	Mean square	F	Sig.
Affective commitment	Between groups	.030	1	.030	.311	.577
	Within groups	17.885	186	.096		
	Total	17.915	187			
Continuance commitment	Between groups	.011	1	.011	.601	.439
	Within groups	3.532	186	.019		
	Total	3.544	187			
Normative commitment	Between groups	.000	1	.000	.002	.964
	Within groups	27.891	186	.150		
	Total	27.891	187			

\* The mean difference is significant at the 0.05 level.

It is evident from table 5.7 that there were no statistically significant differences between the existing power culture groups with regard to the commitment dimensions.

Table 5.8

ANOVA: Existing role culture

		N	Mean	Std. deviation	Std. error	95% confidence interval for mean		Minimum	Maximum
						Lower bound	Upper bound		
Affective commitment	Dominant	40	2.7208	.28592	.04521	2.6294	2.8123	2.00	3.33
	Most dominant	150	2.6533	.31346	.02559	2.6028	2.7039	1.83	3.17
	Total	190	2.6675	.30837	.02237	2.6234	2.7117	1.83	3.33
Continuance commitment	Dominant	40	2.4786	.13161	.02081	2.4365	2.5207	2.29	2.71
	Most dominant	150	2.5219	.13747	.01122	2.4997	2.5441	2.00	2.86
	Total	190	2.5128	.13706	.00994	2.4932	2.5324	2.00	2.86
Normative commitment	Dominant	40	2.5357	.36850	.05827	2.4179	2.6536	1.86	3.00
	Most dominant	150	2.5133	.39030	.03187	2.4504	2.5763	1.86	3.00
	Total	190	2.5180	.38497	.02793	2.4630	2.5731	1.86	3.00

ANOVA						
		Sum of squares	Df	Mean square	F	Sig.
Affective commitment	Between groups	.144	1	.144	1.517	.220
	Within groups	17.828	188	.095		
	Total	17.972	189			
Continuance commitment	Between groups	.059	1	.059	3.193	.076
	Within groups	3.491	188	.019		
	Total	3.551	189			
Normative commitment	Between groups	.016	1	.016	.106	.745
	Within groups	27.994	188	.149		
	Total	28.010	189			

\* The mean difference is significant at the 0.05 level.

It is evident from table 5.8 that there were no statistically significant differences between the existing role culture groups with regard to the commitment dimensions. The difference for continuance commitment approached significance ( $p = 0.076$ ), but did not reach the required alpha level of 0.05 for this study.

Table 5.9

ANOVA: Existing achievement culture

		N	Mean	Std. deviation	Std. error	95% confidence interval for mean			
						Lower bound	Upper bound	Minimum	Maximum
Affective commitment	Least dominant	27	2.7222	.30312	.05834	2.6023	2.8421	2.17	3.17
	Dominant	137	2.6594	.30710	.02624	2.6075	2.7113	2.00	3.33
	Most dominant	26	2.6538	.32634	.06400	2.5220	2.7857	1.83	3.17
	Total	190	2.6675	.30837	.02237	2.6234	2.7117	1.83	3.33
Continuance commitment	Least dominant	27	2.5185	.11310	.02177	2.4738	2.5633	2.29	2.71
	Dominant	137	2.5078	.14065	.01202	2.4841	2.5316	2.00	2.71
	Most dominant	26	2.5330	.14319	.02808	2.4751	2.5908	2.29	2.86
	Total	190	2.5128	.13706	.00994	2.4932	2.5324	2.00	2.86
Normative commitment	Least dominant	27	2.4868	.38873	.07481	2.3330	2.6406	1.86	3.00
	Dominant	137	2.5162	.38940	.03327	2.4504	2.5820	1.86	3.00
	Most dominant	26	2.5604	.36795	.07216	2.4118	2.7091	1.86	3.00
	Total	190	2.5180	.38497	.02793	2.4630	2.5731	1.86	3.00

ANOVA						
		Sum of squares	df	Mean square	F	Sig.
Affective commitment	Between groups	.095	2	.047	.496	.610
	Within groups	17.877	187	.096		
	Total	17.972	189			
Continuance commitment	Between groups	.015	2	.007	.393	.676
	Within groups	3.536	187	.019		
	Total	3.551	189			
Normative commitment	Between groups	.074	2	.037	.246	.782
	Within groups	27.936	187	.149		
	Total	28.010	189			

\* The mean difference is significant at the 0.05 level.

It is evident from table 5.9 that there were no statistically significant differences between the existing achievement culture groups with regard to the commitment dimensions.

Table 5.10

ANOVA: Existing support culture

		N	Mean	Std. deviation	Std. error	95% confidence interval for mean		Minimum	Maximum
						Lower bound	Upper bound		
Affective commitment	Least dominant	89	2.6517	.31043	.03291	2.5863	2.7171	1.83	3.17
	Dominant	87	2.6820	.31194	.03344	2.6155	2.7485	2.00	3.33
	Most dominant	14	2.6786	.28841	.07708	2.5120	2.8451	2.17	3.17
	Total	190	2.6675	.30837	.02237	2.6234	2.7117	1.83	3.33
Continuance commitment	Least dominant	89	2.5185	.14508	.01538	2.4879	2.5490	2.00	2.86
	Dominant	87	2.5041	.13223	.01418	2.4759	2.5323	2.29	2.71
	Most dominant	14	2.5306	.11792	.03151	2.4625	2.5987	2.29	2.71
	Total	190	2.5128	.13706	.00994	2.4932	2.5324	2.00	2.86
Normative commitment	Least dominant	89	2.4944	.39480	.04185	2.4112	2.5775	1.86	3.00
	Dominant	87	2.5222	.38036	.04078	2.4411	2.6032	1.86	3.00
	Most dominant	14	2.6429	.34880	.09322	2.4415	2.8443	1.86	3.00
	Total	190	2.5180	.38497	.02793	2.4630	2.5731	1.86	3.00

ANOVA						
		Sum of squares	df	Mean square	F	Sig.
Affective commitment	Between groups	.042	2	.021	.220	.802
	Within groups	17.930	187	.096		
	Total	17.972	189			
Continuance commitment	Between groups	.014	2	.007	.367	.694
	Within groups	3.537	187	.019		
	Total	3.551	189			
Normative commitment	Between groups	.269	2	.135	.908	.405
	Within groups	27.740	187	.148		
	Total	28.010	189			

\* The mean difference is significant at the 0.05 level.

It is evident from table 5.10 that there were no statistically significant differences between the existing support culture groups with regard to the commitment dimensions.

## 5.8.2 ANOVA: Preferred organisational culture and organisational commitment dimensions

Table 5.11

ANOVA: Preferred role culture

		N	Mean	Std. deviation	Std. error	95% confidence interval for mean		Minimum	Maximum
						Lower bound	Upper bound		
Affective commitment	Dominant	105	2.6571	.30385	.02965	2.5983	2.7159	2.00	3.17
	Most dominant	80	2.6833	.31667	.03541	2.6129	2.7538	1.83	3.33
	Total	185	2.6685	.30888	.02271	2.6237	2.7133	1.83	3.33
Continuance commitment	Dominant	105	2.5143	.13952	.01362	2.4873	2.5413	2.00	2.71
	Most dominant	80	2.5125	.13388	.01497	2.4827	2.5423	2.29	2.86
	Total	185	2.5135	.13675	.01005	2.4937	2.5333	2.00	2.86
Normative commitment	Dominant	105	2.5673	.38130	.03721	2.4936	2.6411	1.86	3.00
	Most dominant	80	2.4554	.37973	.04246	2.3709	2.5399	1.86	3.00
	Total	185	2.5189	.38364	.02821	2.4633	2.5746	1.86	3.00

ANOVA						
		Sum of squares	df	Mean square	F	Sig.
Affective commitment	Between groups	.031	1	.031	.325	.569
	Within groups	17.524	183	.096		
	Total	17.555	184			
Continuance commitment	Between groups	.000	1	.000	.008	.930
	Within groups	3.441	183	.019		
	Total	3.441	184			
Normative commitment	Between groups	.569	1	.569	3.931	.049
	Within groups	26.512	183	.145		
	Total	27.082	184			

\*The mean difference is significant at the 0.05 level.

It is evident from table 5.11 that there was one statistically significant difference between the preferred role culture groups, with regard to normative commitment ( $p = 0.049$ ). The score for the dominant group was higher than for the most dominant group.

Table 5.12

ANOVA: Preferred achievement culture

		N	Mean	Std. deviation	Std. error	95% confidence interval for mean		Minimum	Maximum
						Lower bound	Upper bound		
Affective commitment	Dominant	90	2.6333	.31025	.03270	2.5684	2.6983	1.83	3.33
	Most dominant	93	2.7061	.29221	.03030	2.6459	2.7663	2.17	3.17
	Total	183	2.6703	.30259	.02237	2.6262	2.7144	1.83	3.33
Continuance commitment	Dominant	90	2.5254	.14015	.01477	2.4960	2.5548	2.29	2.86
	Most dominant	93	2.4977	.13423	.01392	2.4701	2.5253	2.00	2.71
	Total	183	2.5113	.13750	.01016	2.4913	2.5314	2.00	2.86
Normative commitment	Dominant	90	2.5397	.37995	.04005	2.4601	2.6193	1.86	3.00
	Most dominant	93	2.4946	.38641	.04007	2.4150	2.5742	1.86	3.00
	Total	183	2.5168	.38286	.02830	2.4609	2.5726	1.86	3.00

ANOVA						
		Sum of squares	df	Mean square	F	Sig.
Affective commitment	Between groups	.242	1	.242	2.669	.104
	Within groups	16.422	181	.091		
	Total	16.664	182			
Continuance commitment	Between groups	.035	1	.035	1.865	.174
	Within groups	3.406	181	.019		
	Total	3.441	182			
Normative commitment	Between groups	.093	1	.093	.632	.428
	Within groups	26.585	181	.147		
	Total	26.678	182			

\* The mean difference is significant at the 0.05 level.

It is evident from table 5.12 that there were no statistically significant differences between the preferred achievement culture groups with regard to the commitment dimensions.

Table 5.13

ANOVA: Preferred support culture

		N	Mean	Std. deviation	Std. error	95% confidence interval for mean		Minimum	Maximum
						Lower bound	Upper bound		
Affective commitment	Least dominant	22	2.7197	.28353	.06045	2.5940	2.8454	2.17	3.17
	Dominant	98	2.6548	.29723	.03002	2.5952	2.7144	2.00	3.33
	Most dominant	70	2.6690	.33272	.03977	2.5897	2.7484	1.83	3.17
	Total	190	2.6675	.30837	.02237	2.6234	2.7117	1.83	3.33
Continuance commitment	Least dominant	22	2.4740	.14876	.03172	2.4081	2.5400	2.00	2.71
	Dominant	98	2.5190	.13512	.01365	2.4919	2.5460	2.29	2.71
	Most dominant	70	2.5163	.13606	.01626	2.4839	2.5488	2.29	2.86
	Total	190	2.5128	.13706	.00994	2.4932	2.5324	2.00	2.86
Normative commitment	Least dominant	22	2.4805	.37029	.07895	2.3163	2.6447	1.86	3.00
	Dominant	98	2.5350	.38775	.03917	2.4572	2.6127	1.86	3.00
	Most dominant	70	2.5061	.38967	.04657	2.4132	2.5990	1.86	3.00
	Total	190	2.5180	.38497	.02793	2.4630	2.5731	1.86	3.00

ANOVA						
		Sum of squares	df	Mean square	F	Sig.
Affective commitment	Between groups	.076	2	.038	.397	.673
	Within groups	17.896	187	.096		
	Total	17.972	189			
Continuance commitment	Between groups	.038	2	.019	1.002	.369
	Within groups	3.513	187	.019		
	Total	3.551	189			
Normative commitment	Between groups	.069	2	.035	.231	.794
	Within groups	27.941	187	.149		
	Total	28.010	189			

\*The mean difference is significant at the 0.05 level.

It is evident from table 5.13 that there were no statistically significant differences between the preferred support culture groups with regard to the commitment dimensions.

## 5.9 THE GAP BETWEEN THE EXISTING AND PREFERRED ORGANISATIONAL CULTURE

This section confirms the fourth empirical aim, as stated in section 1.5.2 in chapter 1 of this study, namely to ascertain the gap between the existing and preferred organisational cultures within the selected IT company.

*Table 5.14*

*Gap analysis for each culture scale*

Descriptive statistics					
	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. deviation
Power culture_existing less preferred	190	-.33	1.00	.3993	.25761
Role culture_existing less preferred	190	-.33	.80	.1632	.21551
Achievement culture_existing less preferred	190	-1.13	1.07	-.2077	.37006
Support culture_existing less preferred	190	-1.93	.80	-.3825	.46037

From table 5.14 it is evident that there was a difference between the existing and preferred power culture as well as the existing and preferred role culture as reflected in their positive mean scores. A positive difference in the power culture (existing less preferred) and the role culture (existing less preferred) indicates that there was a positive difference, with mean scores of .3993 and .1632 respectively. This means that the rating of the existing culture was slightly higher than that of the preferred culture. However, the achievement culture (existing less preferred) and the support culture (existing less preferred) showed negative differences, with mean scores of -2.077 and -3.825 respectively, which indicates that the preferred rating was much higher than the existing rating.

A study by Manetje (2005), in her dissertation entitled “The relationship between organisational culture and organisational commitment”, showed the existing power culture as being most dominant and the preferred culture as being the support culture, and the commitment dimension was normative commitment where employees stay in the organisation because they should do so or it is the proper thing to do. The study also showed that organisational culture has an effect on organisational commitment. The reason for the contrast in this study as opposed to the study by Manetje could be due to the financial

crisis that respondents were facing in the IT company, as stated in section 1.2 of this study. This may have compelled respondents to stay with the IT company as opposed to looking at career opportunities in other organisations with a more favourable organisational culture.

A one-sample t-test (reported below) showed that all the differences were significant between the existing and preferred organisational cultures.

*Table 5.15*

*One-sample statistics*

<b>One-sample statistics</b>				
	N	Mean	Std. deviation	Std. error mean
Power_gap_existing_ minus_preferred	190	.3993	.25761	.01869
Role_gap_existing_ minus_preferred	190	.1632	.21551	.01563
Achievement_gap_existing_ minus_preferred	190	-.2077	.37006	.02685
Support_gap_existing_ minus_preferred	190	-.3825	.46037	.03340

*Table 5.16: One-sample test*

<b>One-sample test</b>				
	Test value = 0			
	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean difference
Power_gap_existing_ minus_preferred	21.366	189	.000	.39930
Role_gap_existing_ minus_preferred	10.436	189	.000	.16316
Achievement_gap_existing_ minus_preferred	-7.737	189	.000	-.20772
Support_gap_existing_ minus_preferred	-11.451	189	.000	-.38246

The one-sample t-test revealed that there was a difference between the existing and preferred power culture as well as the existing and preferred role culture, as reflected in their positive mean scores. A positive difference in the power culture (existing less preferred) and the role culture (existing less preferred) indicate that there is a positive difference, with mean

scores of .3993 and .1632 respectively. This shows that the rating of the existing culture was slightly higher than the preferred culture. However, the achievement culture (existing less preferred) and the support culture (existing less preferred) showed negative differences, with mean scores of -2.077 and -3.825 respectively, which indicates that the preferred rating was much higher than the existing rating.

## 5.10 INTERPRETATION OF THE RESULTS

The first empirical aim was to determine the dominant existing and preferred organisational culture dimension\'. The study revealed that role culture was the dominant existing culture dimension with a mean score of 2.89. The achievement culture dimension was found to be the most dominant preferred culture dimension with a mean score of 2.74.

The second aim was to determine the dominant commitment dimension. The study revealed that the affective dimension was found to be the dominant scale, with a mean of 2.67.

The frequency distribution revealed the respondents' perceptions of the **existing** organisational culture. The role culture was found to be most dominant, followed by the achievement culture, which was found to be second highest existing culture dimension. The support culture was the second least dominant existing culture, followed by the power culture which was the least dominant existing culture.

The frequency distribution also revealed the respondents' perceptions of the **preferred** organisational culture. The achievement culture was found to be most dominant preferred culture, followed by the role culture, which was found to be the second highest preferred culture dimension. The support culture was the second least dominant preferred culture, followed by the power culture, which was the least dominant preferred culture.

The third empirical aim was achieved by determining the relationship between the organisational culture and organisational commitment dimensions. The ANOVA results in the empirical study showed that there was one statistically significant difference between the preferred role culture groups, and that related to the normative commitment ( $p = 0.049$ ) where the score for the dominant group was higher than for the most dominant group. In the role culture, work is performed out of respect for contractual obligations backed up by sanctions and personal loyalty towards the organisation or system (Handy, 1985). Normative commitment is associated with employees' feelings of an obligation to stay in the organisation because they want to stay. Those influenced by continuance commitment stay

because they need to stay, while those influenced by normative commitment feel they ought to stay (Meyer & Allen, 1991)

The fourth empirical aim was achieved by ascertaining the gap between the existing and preferred organisational cultures in the selected IT company. The results of a one-sample t-test showed a difference between the existing and preferred power culture as well as the existing and preferred role culture, as reflected in their positive mean scores. A positive difference in the power culture (existing less preferred) and the role culture (existing less preferred) indicate that there was a positive difference, with mean scores of .3993 and .1632 respectively. This means that the rating of the existing culture was slightly higher than that of the preferred culture. However, the achievement culture (existing less preferred) and the support culture (existing less preferred) showed negative differences, with mean scores of -2.077 and -3.825 respectively, which indicates that the preferred rating was much higher than the existing rating.

## **5.11 CHAPTER SUMMARY**

This chapter focused on the empirical results of this research which were presented and discussed by means of graphs and tables. The specific aim of determining the relationship between organisational commitment and organisational culture was achieved by means of ANOVA. The next chapter deals with the conclusions, limitations and recommendations of this study.

## **CHAPTER 6: CONCLUSIONS, LIMITATIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS**

Chapter 5 presented the empirical findings of the research and discussed them in relation to the theoretical perspectives. Chapter 6 presents the conclusions, limitations and recommendations of the study. The discussion also focuses on the literature review and the empirical aims of the study.

### **6.1 CONCLUSIONS**

The conclusions of the research are formulated on the basis of the literature review and the empirical study.

#### **6.1.1 Theoretical aims**

##### *6.1.1.1 Conceptualising organisational culture*

Chapter 2 of this study explored the concept of organisational culture by referring to relevant literature by various authors. The definition used in this study was that of Harrison and Harrison (1993) which states that organisational culture is the distinctive constellation of beliefs, values, work styles and relationships that distinguish one organisation from the other.

The organisational culture at the selected IT company was analysed by means of the Harrison and Stokes (1992) organisational culture questionnaire. The organisational culture was diagnosed in terms of the respondents' perception of the existing culture to be and what type of culture they would prefer to have in the selected IT company. The Harrison and Stokes model is based on four dimensions, namely achievement, role, power and support dimensions.

##### *6.1.1.2 Conceptualising organisational commitment*

In chapter 3, the concept of organisational commitment was explored by referring to relevant literature by various authors. For the purposes of this study, organisational commitment was defined as a psychological bond individuals have towards their organisation and their desire to want to contribute towards the attainment of those goals (O'Reilly, 1989). Organisational commitment at the selected IT company was analysed by means of the Allen and Meyer (1990) organisational commitment questionnaire. The Allen and Meyer model conceptualises commitment into normative, continuance and affective dimensions.

### *6.1.1.3 Discussing the theoretical relationship between organisational culture and organisational commitment*

Chapter 3 also included a discussion of the integration of organisational culture and organisational commitment. The theory indicated that there is an organisational commitment culture relationship, but there is a need for further studies to be conducted to explore the relationship between these two variables in the various industry segments.

## **6.1.2 Empirical aims**

Chapters 4 and 5 of this study reported and interpreted the results.

### *6.1.2.1 Determining the dominant existing and preferred organisational culture dimension/s in the selected IT company*

This study revealed that the dominant existing culture was the role culture: Work is performed out of a respect for contractual obligations backed up by sanctions and personal loyalty towards the organisation or system (Handy, 1985). The role culture is based on the existence of rules, procedures and job descriptions, as opposed to the sole power of the leaders found in the power culture (Brown, 1995; Harrison & Stokes, 1992; Martin, 2001). Some of the disadvantages of a role culture are unilateral, actionable and abuse of power by the leader, while the advantages of the role culture are clear policies and procedures (Harrison & Stokes, 1992).

The preferred culture by respondents was the achievement culture. In the achievement culture, work is performed out of satisfaction in the excellence of work and achievement and/or personal commitment to the task (Handy, 1985). Ledimo (2012), in her thesis entitled "A diagnostic model for employee satisfaction during organisational transformation", showed a direct correlation between culture and employee satisfaction. The study showed that during a period of transformation, employees will acculturate more effectively if they have a sense of personal commitment to the task and to the company. This is in line with the achievement culture. Furthermore, the achievement culture aligns employees with a common vision or purpose (Harrison & Stokes, 1992). The achievement orientation realises the organisation's common vision or purpose by using its mission to attract and release employees' personal energy in the pursuit of common goals, where the organisation's mission is used to focus the personal energy of the organisation's employees (Harrison &

Stokes, 1992). It would thus appear that an achievement culture plays a major role in the IT environment.

#### *6.1.2.2 Determining the dominant existing organisational commitment dimension/s in the selected IT company*

The study revealed that affective commitment was the dominant commitment dimension in the selected IT company. According to Allen and Meyer (1990), **affective commitment** is the employee's emotional attachment to, identification with and involvement in the organisation, and it refers to the extent of a person's emotional attachment to the organisation.

#### *6.1.2.3 Determining the empirical relationship between organisational culture and organisational commitment*

Section 5.7 of this study confirmed this empirical aim. ANOVA was conducted on the data received from the 190 respondents in the selected IT company. ANOVA was done on the existing organisational culture dimensions and the organisational commitment dimensions. The ANOVA results in the empirical study indicated that there was one statistically significant difference between the preferred role culture groups and that related to normative commitment ( $p = 0.049$ ), where the score for the dominant group was higher than for the most dominant group.

In the role culture, work is performed out of a respect for contractual obligations backed up by sanctions and personal loyalty towards the organisation or system (Handy, 1985). Normative commitment is associated with employees' feelings of obligation to stay in the organisation because they want to stay, those influenced by continuance commitment stay because they need to stay, while those influenced by normative commitment feel they ought to stay (Meyer & Allen, 1991).

#### *6.1.2.4 Identifying the gap between the existing and the preferred organisational culture in the selected IT company*

Section 5.8 of this study showed a positive difference in the power culture (existing less preferred) and the role culture (existing less preferred), and this indicates that there was a positive difference with mean scores of .3993 and .1632 respectively. This means that the rating of the existing culture was slightly higher than that of the preferred culture. However, the achievement culture (existing less preferred) and the support culture (existing less

preferred) showed negative differences, with mean scores of -2.077 and -3.825 respectively, which indicates that the preferred rating was much higher than the existing rating. A one-sample t-test in section 5.8 of this study showed that all the differences between the existing less the preferred culture scales were significant.

#### 6.1.2.5 Summary of the research hypotheses

Table 6.1 provides an overview of decisions relating to the overall research hypotheses in order to determine whether or not the above objectives of this study were achieved.

*Table 6.1*

*Overview of decisions relating to the hypotheses of the empirical study*

<b>HYPOTHESES</b>	<b>DECISION</b>
Ho1: There is no significant relationship between organisational culture and organisational commitment.	SUPPORTED (There was only a significant relationship between normative commitment and preferred role culture.)
Ho : There is a significant relationship between organisational culture and organisational commitment.	UNSUPPORTED

In terms of there being no significant relationship between organisational culture and organisational commitment, this hypothesis was supported on the basis of the ANOVA findings. The findings show that the only significant relationship is between normative commitment and the preferred role culture. These results are in contrast to the research done by Ledimo (2012) which was conducted in a manufacturing environment.

## 6.2 LIMITATIONS

- The questionnaires for this study were not distributed to all employees in the selected IT company, but only to company employees in the KwaZulu-Natal region. As such, the survey results might not be representative of the entire company or other South African organisations.
- The questionnaire used in the empirical study was a cross-sectional design which meant that results were obtained at one point in time only. A longitudinal study over a

period of three years would be useful to determine the relationship between organisational culture and organisational commitment.

### **6.3 AREAS FOR FUTURE RESEARCH**

The selected IT company's competitive advantage is its ability to provide workable IT solutions and the excellent service that its skilled employees render to their clients. Further research exploring employee commitment-culture relationship is recommended.

Further research could focus on the following areas:

- (1) An organisational culture that will foster employee commitment and encourage employee retention
- (2) Further research to include the consequences of employee commitment to gain a holistic picture of the concept of employee commitment
- (3) A widening of this study across different organisations and sectors in order to improve statistical reliability.

### **6.4 RECOMMENDATIONS**

With regard to the research findings, the following recommendations pertaining to the selected IT company and for future research were formulated:

- The preferred culture was the achievement dimension. In the achievement culture, work is performed out of satisfaction with the excellence of work and achievement and/or personal commitment to the task (Handy, 1985). In keeping with this, it is recommended that management should set demanding goals and stretch targets with a focus on common vision, purpose and company values. The focus here should be to reward top performance at both individual and team level.
- The achievement culture could be used to empower staff through the identification of values and ideals of a vision by encouraging creativity, giving employees the freedom to act and sharing knowledge with them.
- The employer should shift the focus from trying to get more out of people, to investing more in them by addressing their four core needs – physical, emotional, mental and spiritual, so that they are freed, fuelled and inspired to bring the best of themselves to work every day. This supports a healthy employee relations working environment. This is in line with normative commitment where employees feel a

moral obligation to stay with the organisation after the organisation has invested in them. Furthermore, investing in employees creates 'stickiness' to the organisation.

- Two-way performance reviews should be introduced, so that employees not only receive regular feedback about how they are doing, in ways that support their growth, but are also afforded the opportunity to provide feedback to their supervisors, anonymously if they so choose.
- Advanced management development programmes with a strong focus on alignment to common vision and goals should be instituted.
- Leaders and managers should be held accountable for treating all employees with respect and care, all of the time, and encourage them to regularly recognise those they supervise for the positive contributions they make.
- All staff in leadership positions should be trained to function effectively and to foster a supportive environment. Effective people management skills would help improve employee commitment levels.
- The compensation and incentive structure should be revisited, and this needs to support growth and high performance in line with the organisation's achievement culture.
- Performance management and promotion should be well structured and implemented to create meaningful differentiation between high performers and underperforming staff. Training and development with a focus on coaching would provide support for underperformers.

## **6.5 SUMMARY**

This chapter dealt with the conclusions, limitations and recommendations of the research. The theoretical and empirical aims of the study were addressed. Appropriate recommendations were made regarding organisational culture and increasing organisational commitment levels in the company. Recommendations were also formulated for possible future research in this field.

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## **APPENDIX A - QUESTIONNAIRE**

**Dear Sir/Madam,**

Organisational culture distinguishes successful organisations from less successful organisations. The question that arises here is – what are the right cultural values that should be reinforced in the company? In order to ascertain the answer to the aforementioned question, all employees need to complete a **confidential questionnaire**.

This questionnaire attempts to identify the influence that organisational culture has on the organisational commitment of employees in the region. Organisational commitment focuses on the processes by which employees think about their relationship with their organisation and the extent of the congruency between organisational and employee goals and values. A report will be provided to the company showing trends and making suggestions for improvement.

This questionnaire forms part of the research conducted for the purposes of completing a Master's Degree in Industrial Psychology.

**All the answers you provide will be treated in the strictest of confidence.**

Please complete each section and answer all the questions. Please drop off the completed questionnaire in the HR office in a secured box in the HR Manager's office (ground floor, office 223).

Thank you for your cooperation.

Chantal Latchigadu

BAdmin (Hons), MBA (UKZN)

## Section A: Biographical Information

### Instructions:

When completing this questionnaire, please place an X in the applicable box.

1. Please indicate your age:
  - Under 25 years
  - 26–34 years
  - 35–44 years
  - 45–54 years
  - Above 55 years
  
2. Please indicate your gender:
  - Male
  - Female
  
3. Please indicate your ethnic origin:
  - Black
  - Coloured
  - Asian
  - White
  
4. Please indicate your home language:
  - English
  - Zulu
  - Afrikaans
  - Ndebele
  - North Sotho
  - South Sotho
  - Swati
  - Tsonga
  - Tswana
  - Venda
  - Xhosa
  
5. Please indicate your highest level of formal education
  - Grade 11 and below
  - Grade 12
  - Diploma(s)/certificate(s)
  - Bachelor's degree(s)
  - Postgraduate degree(s)

6. How long have you been working for the company:

- Less than 1 year
- 1 year
- 2–3 years
- 4–5 years
- 6–10 years
- 11–20 years
- 21 years and above

7. Please indicate your job level:

- Senior management
- Management
- Technical
- Admin
- General

8. Please indicate the area of business you work in:

- Advanced Infrastructure
- Central Finance
- CIS/Avaya/IM/CC
- DCS
- Managed Services
- Microsoft Solutions
- Network Integration
- Sales
- Security
- Teamsource
- Metroconnect

9. Please indicate your employment status:

- Permanent
- Contractor

## Section B: Organisational culture

Please indicate the extent to which you agree (5 = most preferred) or disagree (1 = least preferred) with the following statements about the **preferred** and **existing** culture at your company. The **existing culture** means the way things are at present and the **preferred culture** means the way you would like the culture to be:

### Ranking key:

1. Strongly disagree (least preferred)
2. Disagree
3. Unsure
4. Agree
5. Strongly agree (most preferred)

Note: Please check your answers to ensure you have assigned only one '5' or one '4', or one '3', or one '2' and/or one '1' for each phrase in the existing column and one phrase in the preferred column.

### Example:

1. Supervisors are expected to be:

Existing culture

5
3
1
2

- a. Firm but fair
- b. Impersonal
- c. Democratic
- d. Supportive

Preferred culture

4
3
5
1

## RANKING KEY

SCORES	1	2	3	4	5
	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Unsure	Agree	Strongly agree

1. Employees of the company are expected to give first priority to

Existing culture


- a. meeting the needs and demands of their managers and other high-level people in the organisation
- b. carrying out the duties of their own jobs, staying within the policies and procedures relating to the job
- c. meeting the challenges of the task, and finding a better way to do things
- d. cooperating with the people with whom they work to solve work and personal problems

Preferred culture


2. People who do well in the company tend to be those who

Existing culture


- a. know how to please their managers and are able and willing to use power and politics to get ahead
- b. play by the rules, work with the system and strive to do things correctly
- c. are technically competent and effective, with a strong commitment to getting the job done
- d. build close working relationships with others by being cooperative, responsive and caring

Preferred culture


3. The company treats individuals

Existing culture


- a. as 'hands' whose time and energy are at the disposal of persons at higher levels in the organisation
- b. as 'employees' whose time and energy are purchased through a contract, with rights and obligations for both sides
- c. as 'associates' or peers who are mutually committed to the achievement of a common purpose
- d. As 'family' or 'friends' who like being together and who care about and support one another

Preferred culture


## RANKING KEY

SCORES	1	2	3	4	5
	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Unsure	Agree	Strongly agree

4. Employees of the company are managed, directly or influenced by

Existing culture


- a. officials in positions of authority, who exercise their power through the use of rewards and punishment
- b. the system, the rules and procedures that outline what employees should do and the right ways to do it
- c. their own commitment to achieving the goals of the organisation
- d. their own desire to be accepted by others and to be good members of their own work group.

Preferred culture


5. Decision-making processes in the company are characterised by

Existing culture


- a. directives, orders and instruction that come down from higher levels
- b. the adherence to formal channels and reliance on policies and procedures for making decisions
- c. decision making made close to the point of action, by employees on the ground
- d. the use of consensus decision-making methods to gain acceptance and support for decisions

Preferred culture


6. Assignments of tasks to individuals in the company are based on

Existing culture


- a. the personal judgements values and wishes of those in positions of power
- b. the needs and plans of the organisation and the rules of the system (seniority, qualifications, etc.)
- c. matching the requirements of the job with the interests and abilities of the individual
- d. the personal preference of the individuals and their needs for growth and development

Preferred culture

## RANKING KEY

SCORES	1	2	3	4	5
	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Unsure	Agree	Strongly agree

7. Employees in the company are expected to be

Existing culture

Preferred culture

	a. hardworking, compliant, obedient and loyal to the interests of those they report to	
	b. responsible and reliable, carrying out the duties and responsibilities of their jobs and avoiding actions that could surprise or embarrass their supervisors	
	c. self-motivated and competent, willing to take the initiative to get things done, willing to challenge those to whom they report if that is necessary to obtain good results	
	d. good team workers, supportive and cooperative, who get along well with others	

8. Those in authority and supervisors are expected to be

Existing culture

Preferred culture

	a. strong and decisive, firm but fair	
	b. impersonal and proper, avoiding the exercise of authority for their own advantage	
	c. democratic and willing to accept subordinates' ideas about the task	
	d. supportive, responsive and concerned about the personal concerns and needs of those who they supervise	

9. It is considered legitimate for one employee to tell another what to do when

Existing culture

Preferred culture

	a. he or she has more power, authority, or 'clout' in the organisation	
	b. it is part of the responsibilities included in his or her job description	
	c. he or she has greater knowledge and expertise and uses it to guide others or to teach him or her to do the work.	
	d. the other person asks for his or her help, guidance or advice	

**RANKING KEY**

SCORES	1	2	3	4	5
	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Unsure	Agree	Strongly agree

10. In the company, work motivation is primarily the result of

Existing culture

Preferred culture


- a. hope for reward, fear of punishment or personal loyalty to the supervisor
- b. acceptance of the norm of providing a 'fair day's work for a fair day's pay'
- c. strong desires to achieve, create and tinnovate, and peer pressure to contribute to the success of the organisation
- d. people wanting to help others and develop and maintain satisfying working relationships


11. In the company, relationships between departments are generally

Existing culture

Preferred culture


- a. competitive, with both looking out for their own interests and helping each other only when they can see some advantage for themselves by doing so
- b. characterised by indifference towards each other, helping each other only when it is convenient or when they are directed by higher levels
- c. cooperative when they need to achieve common goals; employees are normally willing to cut red tape and cross organisational boundaries in order to get the job done
- d. friendly, with a high level of responsiveness to requests for help from other departments


12. In the company, intergroup and personal conflicts are usually

Existing culture

Preferred culture


- a. dealt with by the personal intervention of people at a higher level of authority
- b. avoided by reference to rules, procedures and formal definitions
- c. resolved through discussions aimed at finding the best outcomes possible for the work issues involved
- d. Dealt with in a manner that maintains good working relationships and minimises the chances of people being hurt

## RANKING KEY

SCORES	1	2	3	4	5
	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Unsure	Agree	Strongly agree

13. The external environment of the company is responded to as though it were

Existing culture

Preferred culture

	a. a jungle, where the organisation is in competition for survival with others	
	b. an orderly system in which relationships are determined by structures and procedures and where everyone is expected to abide by the rules	
	c. a competition for excellence in which productivity, quality and innovation bring success	
	d. a community of interdependent parts in which the common interests are the most important	

14. If the rules, systems or procedures get in the way, employees

Existing culture

Preferred culture

	a. break them if they have enough 'clout' to get by with or if they think they can get away with it without being caught	
	b. generally abide or go through proper channels to get permission to deviate from them or have them changed	
	c. tend to ignore or bypass them to accomplish their task or perform their jobs better	
	d. support to ignore or by-pass them to accomplish their tasks or perform their jobs better	

15. New employees in the company need to learn

Existing culture

Preferred culture

	a. who really run things; who can help or hurt them; whom to avoid offending; the norms (unwritten rules) that have to be observed to stay out of trouble	
	b. the formal rules and procedures and to abide by them; to stay within the formal boundaries of their job	
	c. what resources are available to help them do their jobs; to take the initiative to apply their skills and knowledge to their jobs	
	d. how to cooperate; how to be good team members; how to develop good working relationships with others	

## Section C: Organisational commitment survey

### INSTRUCTIONS

Please indicate the extent to which you strongly agree or strongly disagree with the following statements about your feelings towards your company

1. Strongly disagree
2. Disagree
3. Unsure
4. Agree
5. Strongly agree

**Note:** Please check your answers to ensure you have assigned one number to each phrase.

Example:

**Ranking key**

SCORES	1	2	3	4	5
	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Unsure	Agree	Strongly agree

a) I would leave this organisation if offered the same job with another organisation.

2

**Ranking key**

SCORES	1	2	3	4	5
	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Unsure	Agree	Strongly agree

1. I would be very happy to spend the rest of my career in this company
2. It would be very hard for me to leave this company right now, even if I wanted to
3. I think that people these days move from organisation to organisation too often
4. This company has a great deal of personal meaning for me
5. One of the few serious consequences of leaving this company would be the scarcity of available alternatives
6. I was taught to believe in the value of remaining loyal to one organisation
7. I enjoy discussing my company with people outside it
8. Too much in my life would be disrupted if I decided I wanted to leave my organisation now
9. Jumping from company to company seems unethical to me
10. I really feel as if this company's problems are my own
11. It would be too costly for me to leave my organisation now
12. One of the major reasons I continue to work for this organisation is that I believe that loyalty is important and therefore I feel sense of moral obligation to remain
13. I feel like 'part of the family' at my organisation
14. Right now, staying with my organisation is a matter of necessity as much as desire
15. If I got another offer for better job elsewhere I would feel it was right to leave this organisation
16. I feel 'emotionally' attached to this company
17. Things were better in the days were people stayed with one organisation for most of their careers
18. I feel that I have too few options to consider leaving this company

SCORES	1	2	3	4	5
	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Unsure	Agree	Strongly agree

19. I feel a strong sense of belonging to my company

20. One of the major reasons I continue to work for this organisation is that leaving would require considerable personal sacrifice – another organisation may not match the overall benefits I have here

21. I think that wanting to be a 'company man/woman' is sensible.

**Any other comments?**

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**Thank you for your time and effort.**