EMPLOYEE COMMITMENT AFTER CHANGE AT WORK

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ABSTRACT

Human resource management advocates consider that obtaining employees' affective commitment to the organisation is an important objective. A key part of this concept is concerned with employees' identification with organisational goals and values. Recent research however, indicates that employers want employees to maintain their commitment levels even though organisations are undergoing periods of extensive change that impact on many aspects of these goals and values.

In the literature, employee commitment is regarded as a stable construct that nothing seems to alter. Despite this, there is increasing evidence to suggest that commitment may change if something in the organisation changes. To date, little research has sought to measure the impact of organisational changes on employee commitment. This study seeks to find out if commitment is altered by organisational changes or if commitment remains constant after the implementation of change. It also examines the impact of a range of variables on employees' commitment levels not previously addressed in the literature.

The study adopted a cross sectional design. Data was collected by use of both quantitative techniques, (incorporating the British Organisational Commitment Scale or BOCS) and qualitative approaches, in three organisations located in the South East of England. An evaluation of the BOCS' reliability and dimensionality was carried out. In contrast to the literature, an eight item scale was shown to be superior, providing the best fit to the data. BOCS was found to comprise two distinct, but related components, hence the measure is considered bi-dimensional.
The study makes several contributions to the literature. In particular, the: *process* of change (i.e. strategy used by each organisation to elicit organisational changes); *antecedents to commitment* (i.e. personal and work related variables); *extent* to which changes are experienced and *content* of change (i.e. the changes themselves) are all shown to affect the outcomes for individuals' commitment after periods of change in the organisation. Of the changes examined, almost all lead to increased levels of employees' self reported commitment. This challenges the claims that suggest commitment is stable and unchangeable.

The study also revealed a number of factors lead to increased commitment amongst the workforce after change. These represent employee perceptions of change. Researchers and practitioners will need to focus on these issues in the future when considering commitment if they are to safeguard it after changes in the workplace.
DEDICATION

I would like to dedicate my thesis to the memory of Professor Tony Canavan who died on Friday 31 October 1997.

He had been the unofficial advisor and mentor to my research project and willingly devoted time, patience, immense enthusiasm and support. I know he would have been very pleased by its completion and submission.

Tony is remembered as an inspiration to many undertaking postgraduate research at the University of Luton.
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Finally, special thanks also go to a few personal friends, especially Gill. I will not forget your kind words. To my special chum, Palvi and to Moira. Last but not least thanks to Jonathan.
DECLARATION

I declare that this thesis is my own unaided work. It is being submitted for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy at the University of Luton. It has not been submitted before for any degree or examination in any other University.

JERYL LYNNE SHEPHERD

Monday 21 June 1999
1. CHAPTER ONE: AN INTRODUCTION AND OVERVIEW OF THE RESEARCH

1.1 Introduction

Research about employee commitment has generated much debate and extensive literature. Kiechel (1985), states that the classical notion of corporate loyalty suggests that individuals are recruited for a specific task, for which they should show their gratitude by behaving in a loyal and committed manner. Where once such employee compliance to organisational rules and regulations was the objective, this seems to have been replaced by employers striving for the much more ambitious aim of employee commitment to the organisation (Storey;1995, Tyson;1995a). However, there is growing consensus that employers not only want employees to show commitment towards the organisation, but have expressed a need for employee commitment after change (see Guest;1998a, Iverson;1996; Meyer and Allen;1997, Shepherd;1997, Shepherd and Mathews;1998a, Swailes;1995). This study is about employee commitment levels after change. It introduces the conceptual paradoxes of employee commitment, typically a stable construct, together with the dynamism of organisational change. More specifically, the purpose of the research is to examine the outcomes of commitment after employee experience of organisational change.

This introductory chapter is a summary of the overall thesis from start to finish. It is split into four parts. The first part provides a brief overview of the commitment concept and recognises employee commitment as central to the HRM debate, thereby locating it within HRM models. This section culminates with a discussion about the relationship between commitment theory and the psychological contract. Following this, an overview of the intentions, methodology and outcomes of stage one of the study (an exploratory survey), are discussed in part two. This leads to an awareness that further research (testing the supposition that organisational changes can change employee commitment levels) is required, hence the nature and
purpose of stage two of this study. This is set out in the third part of the chapter and is essentially the main study.

The notion of commitment is a complex phenomenon, associated with multiple meanings and measuring instruments. This third section also details which of the many definitions and scales outlined in the literature, are adopted for use in the current research. Following this the process and antecedents of commitment are considered since they are central to the understanding of this study’s objectives. The independent and dependent variables to be measured are detailed and the content of change is acknowledged by nature of identifying the organisational changes under examination. The model presented thereafter illustrates that change is an important consideration for commitment.

The research design and methods used to collect the data are then discussed and an overview of the findings and conclusions are presented. The fourth and final part of this introductory chapter concludes the main issues and sets out the remaining structure of the dissertation.

1.2 The nature of commitment towards the organisation

This research investigates the impact of change on levels of employees’ commitment. Employee commitment is a broad concept which embraces many forms of work related commitments that employees make, for example; commitment to the organisation, a profession, union and work in general. This study is principally concerned with employee commitment towards the organisation.

Employee commitment towards the organisation has been extensively defined, measured and researched (Reichers; 1985). A review of the literature reveals three key conceptualisations to viewing commitment towards the organisation. Attitudinal or affective (want to be committed), normative (ought to be committed) and calculative (need to be committed). Attitudinal commitment is the
most sought after since findings from studies have shown that it is negatively correlated with employee turnover (Allen and Meyer; 1990, Mowday et al; 1982).

The study is concerned with affective commitment. It is sometimes called ‘organisational’ commitment in the literature and is abbreviated to OC in some quotations (see for example work cited by Peccei and Guest; 1993). Throughout the text, the term ‘employee commitment’ will refer to the extent to which employees’ identify with the organisation’s goals and values, (Mowday et al; 1979) or attitudinal/affective commitment.

Other employee related commitments are likely to be significant in determining the extent to which individuals come to view their relationship with their organisation (Iles et al; 1996). Whilst the main focus of the study is that of attitudinal commitment towards the organisation, this research is sensitive to and shows an awareness of these other forms of commitment (i.e. commitment to a profession, career etc) as well as the range of conceptualisations underpinning commitment theory (for example; normative, calculative commitments).

1.3 Human resource management and employee commitment

Writers in the UK concerned with employee commitment, for example, Guest (1991), Salaman (1993), Storey, (1995), and Tyson (1995a), have identified that committed employee behaviour is at the heart of human resource management (or HRM) and is a “central feature that distinguishes HRM from traditional personnel management” (Guest; 1995; 112). Similarly, Iles, Mabey and Roberston (1990; 147) recognise that, “Much of the recent literature on Human Resources Management (HRM) has stressed the benefits to organisations of a loyal and committed workforce and the central role HRM may play in creating and maintaining commitment”.

The orientation of HRM has been described as a philosophy centred on emphasising the mutuality between employer and employee in the workplace.
It has become popularised since the aim of managing people at work, “no longer appears to be containment and compliance, but competence and commitment” (Farnham and Pimlott; 1990; 354). Commitment is seen as achievable by winning the hearts and minds of employees, “rather than striking deals with collectives and their representatives” (Farnham and Pimlott; 1990; 354). The shift in emphasis from obtaining compliance to achieving commitment expressed voluntarily by individuals is supported by numerous writers in the area of HRM (for example; Beardwell and Holden; 1994, Beer et al; 1984, Guest; 1989, 1991, 1992, 1995, Legge; 1995b, Salaman et al; 1993, Sisson; 1994, Tyson; 1995a, Walton; 1985a, 1985b and Wood; 1995). Legge (1995b) for example, states that, “employee commitment is contrasted favourably with the resigned behavioural compliance seen as characteristic of employment relationships under conventional personnel management. Compliance is maintained by externally imposed bureaucratic control systems” (Legge; 1995b; 174), which generate reactive rather than proactive employee behaviours. Commitment on the other hand, is an internalised employee belief, often associated with ‘soft HRM’ and a high trust organisational culture. Guest (1992) also acknowledges that the once accepted precept of a fair day’s work for a fair day’s pay has been re-evaluated and replaced by the notion of an employee/employer relationship based on mutual loyalty.

Since most organisations rely heavily on their human capability, striving to achieve commitment from the workforce seems worthwhile (Scholl; 1981). Storey (1995; 8) reports that having committed individuals are a “prized objective” for employers, since they can potentially improve labour performance. Organisations can therefore achieve a competitive advantage through the strategic deployment of a capable and committed workforce. Similarly, Guest (1987) has stressed the importance of integrating the human resource dimension into the organisation’s strategic planning process.
The perceived benefits of acquiring commitment from employees has been enhanced by stories of excellence in, for example, Japanese managed companies as highlighted by the works of Peters and Waterman in the 1980’s. Commitment has become something that excellent companies do (Guest;1987). Beer et al’s (1985) Map of HRM Territory, (shown as Figure 1-1) is a “broad causal mapping underlying the determinants and consequences of HRM policies” (Beer et al;1985;16). It demonstrates, “implicit theory in the listing and the advocacy of four HR outcomes” (Guest;1987;510), within which commitment is highlighted. Other models depicting human resource management, for example, Guest’s (1987;510) “bare bones theory of HRM” characteristically overlaps some of the key dimensions illustrated by the map of Harvard Map of Territory, highlighting commitment as one of four human resource outcomes (see Figure 1-2).
Figure 1-2 Policies for identifying human resource and organisational outcomes

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>HRM Policies</th>
<th>HR outcomes</th>
<th>Organisational outcomes</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Organisational and job design</td>
<td></td>
<td>High job performance</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Policy formulation and implementation/management of change</td>
<td>Strategic planning/implementation</td>
<td>High problem solving</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Recruitment, selection and socialisation</td>
<td>Commitment</td>
<td>Successful change</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Appraisal, training and development</td>
<td>Flexibility/ adaptability</td>
<td>Low turnover</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Manpower flows - through, up and out of the organisation</td>
<td></td>
<td>Low absence</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Reward systems</td>
<td>Quality</td>
<td>Low grievance level</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Communication systems</td>
<td></td>
<td>High cost-effectiveness i.e. full utilisation of human resources</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Guest;1987;516

1.3.1 Commitment as a unitarist construct

Fox (1966), a key author in exploring the concept of unitarism, describes it as striving towards a common objective, "each [employee] pulling his weight to the best of his ability" (Fox;1966;3). The importance of unity as a characteristic of good employee and employer relations is acknowledged in Walton's (1985b) model of workforce strategies which signifies the transition from control to commitment in the workplace. Commitment has been described as an "identity of interest," (Guest;1987;512) so that what is good for the organisation is also perceived by employees to be good for them. Indeed, HRM models featuring commitment advocate unity between employees and organisational goals in maximising organisational success. This is outlined as a key dimension of Guest’s (1995) HRM model (featured as Figure 1-3). The model provides the basis for
contrasting values and assumptions underpinning HRM and traditional industrial relations perspectives.

Figure 1-3 HRM’s key dimensions

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Dimension</th>
<th>Industrial relations</th>
<th>Human resource management</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Psychological contract</td>
<td>Compliance</td>
<td>Commitment</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Behavioural referent</td>
<td>Norms</td>
<td>Values/mission</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>custom and practice</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Relations</td>
<td>Low trust</td>
<td>High trust</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>pluralist</td>
<td>unitarian</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>collective</td>
<td>individual</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Organisation and</td>
<td>Formal roles</td>
<td>Flexible roles</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>design</td>
<td>hierarchy</td>
<td>flat structure</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>division of labour</td>
<td>teamwork/</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>managerial controls</td>
<td>autonomy</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Source: Guest;1995;112</td>
<td></td>
<td>self control</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Organisational commitment has been further highlighted in the more recent works of Storey (1995) Tyson (1995a) and Legge (1995a;1995b), and these have reinforced the importance that the concept occupies within the HRM framework to the extent where some authors in the field (see for example; Wood;1993;1995) have “preferred to talk in terms of high commitment policies as a working substitute for HRM” (Storey;1995;6).

1.4 The relationship between commitment and the psychological contract

The relationship between commitment and the psychological contract merits some discussion within the context of the thesis since there are important similarities between the two as noted in the literature (Baruch;1998, Iles et al;1996). However, ultimately they are distinct constructs and are therefore differentiated within this study.
Conceptualised in the works of Argyris (1960) and later furthered by Levinson (1962) and Schein (1978), the psychological contract can be described as an unwritten set of expectations between the individual and their employing organisation. It is differentiated from the formal contract, which is explicit in its nature about requirements from employees. The importance of the psychological contract has been heightened by academics who have studied its role in organisations (see for example; Herriot;1998, Guest and Conway;1999).

In its simplest form, the psychological contract involves giving and receiving by the individual and the organisation, and like commitment, this relationship is underpinned by the notion of exchange theory (as discussed in appendix 1). Both constructs are centred on beliefs, represent an implicit part to the employment relationship and go beyond what is referred to as the “tangible contract” (Hollinshead et al;1999;558). In this sense they have implications for the way in which employees come to think about and behave at work (Foot and Hook;1999).

Some attempts have been made to identify the types of expectations that individuals require from their organisations and visa versa (Mullins;1999, Hollinshead et al;1999). Whilst much of the psychological contract is assumed, these factors include perception of fair treatment and loyalty. Given that loyalty also underpins the notion of commitment, this is another element by which the two subjects might be considered as associated.

However, commitment is regarded as a feeling or set of behaviours (Mowday et al;1982). In other words, individuals feel and express a sense of commitment towards their organisation. It is implausible to suggest that employees are able to demonstrate this emotion about a psychological contract, or even that they can experience a psychological contract.

The psychological contract encompasses all unvoiced expectations and obligations (Rollinson et al;1998). This suggests that it can refer to anything that the organisation or employee considers is important in the employment relationship. In
this sense, it is an abstraction rather than a useful construct. Commitment on the other hand is more tightly conceived and defined and this is reflected in the commonly accepted albeit several diverse definitions located in the literature (presented in chapter two). Commitment is also quantifiable with many proposed measures in the field (discussed in chapter four). The same cannot be said about the psychological contract.

It is accepted that conceptually the two constructs may comprise some common elements. For example; both are concerned with aspects that go beyond work, involve an individual's dignity, self-worth and desire to go to the organisation. Equally well, they are distinct, as reflected in the definitions.

Authors who have contributed to the debate about the relationship between commitment and the psychological contract include Baruch (1998) and Iles et al (1996). They suggest that commitment is at a turning point given the pressures placed on organisations and employers run the risk of reducing commitment by focusing on non human resources in difficult times. Baruch (1998;139) for example states, “Organisations must develop and offer new innovative psychological contracts that will re-create commitment by emphasising the common goals and advantages of co-operation between employees and employers”. This statement suggests that commitment is a component of the psychological contract. It also heightens the importance associated with commitment in light of change and signposts the need for development of further research in this area.

In conclusion, this research concentrates on the concept of commitment. It is concerned with the emotional and behavioural reactions of individuals' to change, and in particular employees' level of attachment to the organisation. The study embraces and seeks to measure the concept of attitudinal commitment after organisational change. Commitment is more easily operationalised and measurable than the psychological contract. It has been identified by some authors as an essential part of the unspoken agreement between employer and employee. The
outcomes of this study may therefore bear some relevance to the psychological contract.

1.5 Employee commitment and organisational change

Employee commitment is a multidimensional concept associated with many different meanings (see section 1.2). To date, most of the discussion and research concerning the influence of management practices on employee's commitment has focused on affective commitment, perhaps because it is the most desirable form for organisations.

Measuring employee's self reported attitudinal commitment levels over time, has led to the view that it is traditionally a stable construct (see Guest;1998a and Peccei and Guest;1993). This implies that commitment is established and is unlikely to move or be disturbed or upset. However, Coopey and Hartley (1991) propose that individuals who are highly committed, attitudinally, might not be particularly adaptable to changed circumstances within their organisation. "When a group show high levels of commitment to some share activity of outcomes, this implies considerable convergence of goals and values" (Coopey and Hartley;1991;26). Thus, any adaptation to organisational values and goals may subsequently cause disunity amongst committed employees. This provides signposts for examining attitudinal commitment after change.

Despite the benefits of attitudinal commitment (see Morrow;1983, Guest;1992), and the vastness of studies generated in the area of organisational change, there are few that have brought these two topics together. There is little evidence in the literature to suggest that employers are concerned about the impact of change on other forms of commitment. Thus, the research adopts and measures the attitudinal concept as the main approach.

To set the scene and establish the scope for in-depth investigation in this area, an introductory study (referred to as stage one) was conducted. The results have
further confirmed the need for research to be carried out in this area. This exploratory study has assisted in the development of a suitable rationale for further research in the area by identifying the contemporary changes that organisations are likely to go through, and initiating some debate about the impact of these on employees' commitment. It approaches this from an employer's perspective.

1.6 **Introductory investigation (stage one of the research)**

The intention of stage one of this research was twofold. Firstly, to gain a reliable representation of employer views in organisations throughout the UK and to assist in identifying the key changes which have occurred in contemporary workplaces throughout Britain. Secondly, to evaluate employer views about the implications of organisational changes on employee commitment levels. This would be particularly useful in providing pointers to the types of changes that have taken place in various organisations that could be further developed by case study work. Its role therefore was to underpin additional research and place subsequent parts of the study into a lucid context. It is regarded as a preliminary to the purpose of the main study (which is discussed in section 1.8).

Stage one involved the development and distribution of a national survey to three hundred personnel managers in diverse UK companies. A return rate of 32% (N=97) was received and the sample comprised of human resource managers located in small to medium sized manufacturing organisations. A brief synopsis of the findings is presented below.

1.7 **Stage one: Overview of the findings**

The findings from stage one have signified the importance attached to the commitment concept and it is clear that employers want commitment (in terms of emotional orientation, manifested in a strong, positive attitude towards the company) from their employees. However, there was little evidence that
practitioners were aware of the benefits of measuring scales\(^1\) designed specifically for this purpose.

The survey identified the types of changes that have occurred in UK organisations, and has provided some indication as to how these are likely to influence employees' commitment levels. For example; it was clear that several changes have taken place, i.e. organisational restructuring, changes in pay, redundancies, culture and technological changes were recognised as having occurred by over three quarters of respondents. From these, a change to organisational culture was considered as that most likely to increase employee commitment according to employers. The data also indicated that employers considered that those variables, which influence the levels of employees' commitment after change include:

1. the manner in which organisational changes are implemented (i.e. strategy adopted to bring about change; or process of change);
2. the way in which change is received, namely the personal and work related variables of the individual (hereafter referred to as antecedents of commitment or moderating variables)
3. content of change (i.e. the changes themselves).

### 1.8 Principal investigation (stage two of the research)

This introductory chapter has identified that the main focus of this research is centred around investigating the impact of organisational changes on employee commitment levels. Stage two of the study assesses the impact of organisational changes on commitment from an employee perspective and a case study approach was adopted for this purpose. The following section firstly discusses the definition and measure used in this part of the research and then goes onto address the elements of change recognised as central to the investigation, namely, the content and process of organisational change and antecedents of commitment.

\(^1\) A critique of measuring instruments developed in the area is presented in chapter four.
This research uses the concept of attitudinal commitment, in particular, Mowday, Steers' and Porter's (1982) definition (which itself has been derived from the works of Buchanan; 1974 and Porter et al; 1974). To date, this understanding of employee commitment is probably the most widely accepted in the field according to some authors (see for example; Legge; 1995a, Reichers; 1985). Mowday et al (1982) suggest that, “Our approach to defining attitudinal commitment suggests that commitment be viewed as the relative strength of an individual’s identification with and involvement in a particular organisation” (Mowday et al; 1982; 43). The authors state that commitment comprises of three dimensions; namely identification, involvement and loyalty.

The current research is concerned with measuring individuals' level of attitudinal commitment towards their employing organisation following their experiences of various organisational changes. The issue of maintaining attitudinal commitment from employees after change, suggests that an individual's own, personal goals and values are modified in line with those of the organisation. Moreover, it suggests employees will also continue to exert effort beyond what is contractually required after periods of change and will also remain loyal to the organisation.

Mowday et al's (1982) Organisational Commitment Questionnaire (OCQ) is considered the orthodox measure of attitudinal commitment (Reichers; 1985, Legge; 1995b, Mayer and Schoorman; 1998) and has dominated the field for over a decade and a half. However, whilst the OCQ has been shown to be a reliable measure (Angle and Perry; 1983, Bateman and Strasser; 1984, Mowday et al; 1982), the phrasing of its items have been devised for American individuals within the workplace and may not therefore work as well with British employees (Cook and Wall; 1980). The current study utilises the UK equivalent, the British Organisational Commitment Scale (or BOCS) created by Cook and Wall (1980). BOCS, like that of the OCQ, has also been derived from Mowday et al's (1979)

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1 a full discussion of the various forms employee commitment takes is presented in chapter two
definition. BOCS is conceptually very close to the OCQ and has been shown to be an equally reliable measure of attitudinal commitment (Cook et al.; 1980). It has also been described as the preferred scale for use in the UK (Peccei and Guest; 1993) making it a suitable choice for use in this study. The full nine item version of the scale was administered for the purposes of this research.

1.10 Measuring the antecedents of commitment in the current study

Organisations are made up of individual members, differentiated on the basis of demographic and work associated variables (Carnall; 1986). To date, many studies in the area of commitment have sought to measure the associations between these variables and outcomes for employee commitment, (see for example; Allen and Meyer; 1984, Alutto et al; 1973, Angle and Perry; 1981, Hrebiniaik and Alutto; 1972, Mottaz; 1988, Mowday et al; 1982, Ritzer and Trice; 1969 and Sheldon; 1971) yet little agreement has been reached. As a result of these differences, individuals are likely to show various commitment levels as a result of changes introduced. Thus, implementing organisational changes is likely to present a different set of challenges to varying sets of employees.

Little research has attempted to understand how the demographic profile of an individual or work associated variables can impact on the outcomes of commitment after change. It therefore cannot be assumed that all individuals will react in the same way (in terms of their commitment to the organisation) following changes in the workplace. Following this rationale, the study investigates a range of demographic (for example, gender, marital status) and work associated variables (for example; employment status, work area) not previously examined together on employees’ self reported levels of commitment towards the organisation.
1.11 The process of change

The investigation is carried out in three diverse organisational settings, each of which pursues a different approach to bringing about change. Chin and Benne’s (1985) strategies for effecting change in human systems are used as a framework to distinguish between and categorise each participating case study. The three approaches identified are titled as: empirical/rational; normative/re-educative and power/coercive.

1.12 The content of change: Organisational changes measured in this study

To contrast the findings from the three case studies, and to determine the extent to which the strategy of change is important when considering outcomes for commitment following change, organisational changes common to each organisation were required as a basis for comparison. Three sets of changes are examined. SET ONE changes have occurred in each of the organisations under examination. SET TWO changes have occurred in two of the three organisations. SET THREE changes are case study specific.

1.13 Independent and dependent variables in this research

This study investigates many biographic and work related variables on employee commitment, and examines the content and process of change on the outcomes for employee commitment after change. These represent the independent variables, since they are likely to have an impact on outcomes for employees’ commitment. Commitment is therefore the dependent variable.
1.14 Conceptual model

The model illustrated below shows that change has an impact on employee commitment and this affects the organisation. As the literature is drawn from to develop the research focus, the model is expanded and refined. In particular this is shown at the end of chapter four where the process and content of organisational change and antecedents to commitment are illustrated as fundamental in determining the outcome for employee commitment levels.

Figure 1-4 The impact of change on commitment

1.15 Research design and methodology

A combined cross sectional and factorial approach was adopted. The former is concerned with studying a particular phenomena at a given moment in time (commitment after change) and allows several groups to be examined (three organisations). The cross sectional design is popular in the social sciences because it allows regularities to be most easily identified since comparisons are made of variations across samples (Saunders et al;1997). The factorial design enables many independent variables to be measured (i.e. the change themselves, the antecedents of commitment and the process of change). The strength of the two designs when combined not only allows the researcher to provide more information, but with a
greater degree of confidence as it allows the comparing of factors in different organisations (Oppenheim; 1992, Saunders et al; 1997).

A case study approach was considered the most preferable for data collection, since it provides an important context for which the findings can be set and interpreted (Yin; 1984). The methods included positivist and interpretivist techniques typically used in exploratory research. Employee views were solicited through focus groups, questionnaires and interviews.

1.15.1 Case study work

Case study work commenced with focus group discussions between managers, employees and union representatives at each of the case studies. The purpose of this preliminary research was threefold. Firstly, at case study one, the focus group was consulted throughout the development of the questionnaire and employees also indicated their preference for the BOCS over the OCQ. The use of a questionnaire was favoured as the initial method by which to collect data since it provides a swift, systematic and relatively inexpensive means of obtaining views from the workforce. Secondly, preliminary research was undertaken to refine the questionnaire and tailor this to encompass organisational changes relevant to each case study. Thirdly, focus groups were undertaken with each organisation to assist in diagnosing its approach to implementing change, although the strategies assigned would not be verified until after the data had been collected.

Thereafter, data collection began by administering questionnaires, the purpose of which was to: gather a personal profile of employees; obtain a BOCS score and establish which changes in the sets employees’ had experienced, and how these have impacted on their commitment. The data in this latter part of the questionnaire was obtained by a single item indicator, on a five point scale anchored by an item descriptor. These questions would later serve as the basis for the follow up interviews.
Table 1-1: Total number of questionnaires and interviews carried out in this study

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>No. of employees per case study</th>
<th>Number of usable questionnaires</th>
<th>Number of interviews</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Case study one</td>
<td>550</td>
<td>121</td>
<td>26</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Case study two</td>
<td>133</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Case study three</td>
<td>610</td>
<td>284</td>
<td>24</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>465</strong></td>
<td><strong>63</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 1-1 illustrates the number of questionnaires and interviews carried out, by case study, in relation to the total number employed at each.

### 1.16 Stage two: Overview of the findings

#### 1.16.1 Methodological implications: Use of the BOCS

An evaluation of the BOCS was undertaken to validate it. This involved establishing the reliability and dimensionality. This was an important methodological issue, as the scale was used as a dependent variable to assess the impact of change on commitment later in the study.

Consistent with the literature, the scale was found to be reliable. With regard to the factor structure, the full nine item scale was found to perform better than the six item version (which comprises of positively worded items only). This finding is unlike that presented by Peccei and Guest (1993) who found that the shorter six item version was preferable and argued that there is nothing to be gained by including the negatively phrased items in the scale. However, the most superior model in this research was an eight item measure, omitting the negatively worded involvement item that was shown to be consistently problematic. Finally, BOCS was not found to comprise three distinct, yet unrelated, dimensions as suggested by Peccei and Guest (1993), but rather two correlated dimensions.
1.16.2 Sample of respondents in this research

The sample of respondents in the three case studies comprises mainly of male, married men, with one or more income dependants. They are permanent, full time members of the organisation and non managers. The three case studies however, significantly differed with regard to the following variables: work area, length of service and employment contract. Three quarters of workers at case study two are blue collar, whereas this group represented approximately one half of participants at case studies one and three.

1.16.3 Commitment levels in each of the three case studies

A key finding of the research revealed no significant differences of BOCS between case studies when treated as a unidimensional measure of commitment. This suggests that commitment is the same in each of the three case studies. It is noted however, that there are significant variations in employee profiles within each of the participating organisations, which may have subsequently obscured the BOCS scores. Closer examination of the independent BOCS items revealed that the scale may comprise of some universal values. A comparative analysis between Peccei and Guest's (1993) British Rail data and the combined data set revealed no significant differences on over half of the items. Thus, additional research is required so that it can be established if BOCS comprises of ubiquitous or organisation specific values. Ideally, this will be tested with groups that comprise similar demographic profiles to that of each other.

1.16.4 The content of organisational change

A typology of commitment after change is presented based on the quantitative and qualitative findings. This suggests that employee commitment after experience of change is either: altered; changed temporarily; or is stable after individuals have personally experienced organisational changes in SET ONE.
Firstly, in contrast to the literature, the results of this study found that employee commitment levels can be changed by organisational changes. In particular, there was evidence that commitment was altered by three of the four changes in SET ONE, namely, organisational restructuring, payment settlements, and technological changes at each of the three case studies. This result challenges the literature that suggests that nothing changes commitment and was the most prevalent finding in this typology. For some employees however, commitment towards the organisation eventually returns to a stable position in a process of 'levelling off'. This implies that commitment overall is constant, or predominately stable, but suffers minor, temporary fluctuations, although it is restored after time. This finding tended to be the exception rather than the norm.

Finally, some employees reported that their commitment towards the organisation has not changed despite their experiences of organisational change. The reasons for this were equated to the various conceptualisations of commitment, attitudinal, calculative, normative, which are outlined in chapter two. This represents the second most important finding in this part of the study.

1.16.5 The antecedents of commitment

The study sought to measure a range of biographic and work related variables and their impact on employee commitment (by using BOCS as the dependent variable). The range of variables incorporated into the analysis had not been examined simultaneously by previous studies in the area. The results showed that BOCS can be explained by an employee’s: marital status, number of income dependants, employment status, work area, nature of employment contract, employment hours and length of service.
1.16.6 The process of organisational change

The process of change was found to be central to levels of commitment after change in this research. All case studies showed an increase in commitment levels after three of the four changes in SET ONE when commitment levels were compared to the test score of 3 (remained constant). However, when the three case studies were compared, individuals employed in the organisation identified as pursuing a power/coercive strategy, an approach common to industry (Guest;1984, Hartley et al;1990) reported the highest commitment levels after change overall. This was case study two.

Although the power/coercive model suggests that sanctions are likely to be imposed if commitment is not achieved, there are advantages of this approach for bringing about change. Hartley et al (1990), for example stresses that it highlights the importance of changing and thus employees are likely to adapt as a result. Michaels et al (1988) found that a power/coercive approach characterised by strict rules lessens role ambiguity. Indeed, role ambiguity has been negatively correlated with commitment (see Mayer and Schoorman;1998, Morris and Sherman;1981).

In this research the qualitative analysis revealed that employees within this organisation reported increased commitment because of a number of influential factors, particularly the environment at case study two. The anecdotal evidence highlighted overwhelmingly that job security increased as they experienced changes that they considered to require financial investment. They reported that this indicates that the factory will not close and hence their future employment is secured. Subsequently, this heightened their commitment towards the organisation. Thus, factors other than just the process of change also account for the differences observed.

Noticeably, differences in the demographic profile and work related variables of employees at the three case studies assist in determining why commitment levels after changes in SET ONE are highest at case study two. 75% of the employees
participating with this research at case study two are blue collar workers as compared with 53% and 49% at case studies one and three respectively (see chapter seven).

Consistent with the literature on employee commitment (reviewed in chapter four), analysis of the interview transcripts provided evidence that many of the employees at case study two had experienced unemployment, some for lengthy periods. Hence, their will to work hard for the good of the organisation and remain with it after periods of change was largely as a result of their perceived lack of other employment alternatives. In light of this, chapter seven discusses the issue of whether this major finding is indicative of the strong emotional attachment employers in the national survey highlighted they want, referred to as attitudinal commitment in the literature (Buchanan; 1974, Mowday et al; 1979).

1.16.7 Employee exposure to organisational change

Findings from this study also show that the extent of employees’ experience of change, that is, whether employees personally experience organisational changes or observe changes happening to others at their organisation, has an impact on whether their own commitment changes. In short, alterations in commitment were more likely to occur when employees were directly party to the changes under examination, (in relation to when organisational changes were observed happening to others).

1.16.8 Section summary

The study makes various contributions to the literature as a result of examining many independent variables on commitment after change. In particular, the four key variables investigated in this study as discussed above (i.e. biographic/work related variables, process, content and experience of organisational change) are shown to be influential in determining employees’ perceptions of change. More specifically, the research shows that factors such as: organisational dependability;
job security; role ambiguity; work environment and participation with decision making are central to employee's outcomes of commitment and lead to increased commitment. Thus, such variables will need to be managed by practitioners if levels of employees' commitment are to be heightened towards the organisation after change. Similarly, academics should seek to include this range of variables in further studies concerned with measuring commitment in light of change.

1.17 Limitations of the research

Firstly, both the questionnaire and interviews relied on self report data, which in the past has been criticised since it is solely dependent on subjects to report events and the influence of these. However, it is argued that the use of the self report in this research is appropriate because employees' experiences of work are central to the level of commitment they demonstrate. Arguably this is the only way in which they could be captured. Howard (1994) and Peterson and Kerin (1981), also note that there is no appropriate substitute for measuring employee attitudes other than by use of self reported data.

Secondly, the research collated cross sectional data, which provided a snapshot view of commitment after change. This is criticised when used as a basis for inferring causality (Oppenheim; 1992). However, the study is rich in the depth of information obtained from respondents about the changes experienced since it used complimentary quantitative and qualitative methods. Whilst the richness of information does not automatically eradicate some of the limitations of cross sectional research, a key finding from this study has identified that for some employees, commitment fluctuates after change and then reverts back to its original state. This it is argued would not necessarily have emerged if a traditional longitudinal design had been utilised.
1.18 Chapter summary and conclusions

This introductory chapter commenced by recognising employee commitment plays a central part in human resource management. Models of human resource management have illustrated that the commitment concept is a potential outcome of good HRM policies, and have underlined the importance of unity and the premise that the goals of the individual are similar to the goals of the organisation. Other works in the area of HRM have used the terms 'high commitment' interchangeably with HRM (Wood; 1995). It then argued that the formulation of an alternative perspective to the commitment construct, which embraces the concept of organisational change, is required. The purpose, methodology and results of stage one of the research were then discussed. This has subsequently initiated the debate about commitment and change, and from this, the rationale of stage two was set out. It was noted that outcomes for commitment after change will be dependent on the content and process of organisational change and moderating variables or antecedents to commitment. Hence, this research seeks to establish the extent to which these factors affect the outcomes for employee commitment levels after change. Following this, an overview of the methods was presented, a summary of the research findings outlined and the limitations of this study were noted. Finally, the remaining structure of the dissertation is set out below.

1.19 Structure of the remaining dissertation

Chapter two provides a review and critical analysis of the author’s understanding of the key definitions and theories in the area of employee commitment. It comprises of two parts. The first encompasses an in-depth examination of the typologies that have driven commitment related studies and presents the Mowday et al (1982) model as central to the debate. The second part provides a thorough understanding of the definitions already established in the field by reviewing the relevant literature, and highlights Reichers (1985) model. Subsequently, it is argued that both models require some development, and hence two new
frameworks are proposed. The first is concerned with evaluating the typologies and identifying key components, thereby creating a more comprehensive and concise assessment of these. The second, in light of new and refined works in the area of commitment, provides a contemporary overview of the key definitions.

Chapter three discusses the scope for research in the area of employee commitment and change at work and provides some analysis and discussion of the results of the national survey (i.e. stage one). The conclusions from this assist in providing the scope for further research in this area, namely that of stage two of the investigation.

Chapter four is concerned with the development of the research problem (i.e. stage two). It details the type of commitment and measurement used and the reasons for this adoption over other scales. It also reviews the pertinent literature in the area of organisational change and the paradox of employee commitment and organisational change together. In particular, it discusses the implications of the process of change and antecedents of commitment. From this the research objectives to be investigated are detailed. Finally, a more detailed model illustrating the possible outcomes for commitment after change in this investigation is proposed and discussed.

Chapter five is concerned with the research design and methodology adopted in the study. It provides a discussion and justification of the methods used, highlighting their limitations and the implications for the outcomes of this research. The ethical guidelines adhered to throughout the study are also documented.

Chapter six is a presentation and discussion of the reliability and dimensionality of Cook and Wall's (1980) BOCS measurement, following as closely as possible the analysis performed by Peccei and Guest (1993) and Fenton-O'Creevy et al (1997).

Chapter seven deals exclusively with the quantitative data analysis collated from the case studies and seeks to find out if commitment is altered by organisational changes. It details the sample composition of the three case studies, highlighting
appropriate differences in the demographic profile and work related variables of respondents, and examines the impact of the process and content of change on employees' commitment. It also considers the extent to which individuals' experience of change is influential in determining commitment levels.

Chapter eight is concerned with the coding, analysis and presentation of data emerging from the interview transcripts. Its main purpose is to add depth and clarity to the statistical analysis presented in chapter seven, thereby supporting and enriching the quantitative findings. It draws from employee narratives about their experiences of changes at work. The qualitative analysis is also used to investigate if the strategies assigned to each case study, based on the focus group sessions prior to data collection, can be substantiated. This is concerned with verifying/refuting the process of change discussed in chapters four and five.

Finally, chapter nine summarises the research findings and discusses the contribution made to the theory in the area of employee commitment by this study. The generalisability and limitations of the study are highlighted. Suggestions about where additional research in this area should be focused are made and implications for management are documented.
2. CHAPTER TWO : UNDERSTANDING THE CONCEPT OF EMPLOYEE COMMITMENT

2.1 Introduction

The concept of employee commitment has received increasing attention, perhaps because it is considered to be a fairly reliable predictor of a number of employee attitudes and behaviours towards the organisation (Mowday et al.;1982). There is a substantial body of literature dealing with the content, the antecedents and the consequences of organisational commitment, including reviews and conceptualisations (Morrow;1983, Peccei and Guest;1993, Reichers;1985). This chapter is primarily concerned with the development and conceptualisation of the commitment concept and considers the outcomes of some commitment-related studies. It is essentially a descriptive overview of commitment, its main purpose being to review, present and discuss the established concepts and theories within the employee commitment domain. A critical analysis of employee commitment forms part of chapter four.

This chapter is presented in three parts. The first is concerned with a brief overview of the development of commitment. The second part discusses some of the key problems associated with defining the concept, as commitment has several meanings and connotations. Following this, an understanding of commitment to the organisation is developed by drawing from some of the classic works and typologies. It is argued that whilst existing models classifying the commitment approach have been particularly useful in heightening awareness of the concept they ignore other fundamental works developed in the field. This leads to a discussion presented in the third part that provides a wider range of classifications of the concept and an in-depth discussion of contrasting definitions and theoretical approaches underpinning commitment.
2.1.1 Development of the commitment concept

Commitment is a "...compromise [of] oneself, to pledge oneself unwittingly or wittingly to a certain cause" (Chambers 20th Century Dictionary; 1933). Early commitment studies are derived from anthropological and ethnographic research highlighting the related issues surrounding individuals' want and need to belong to societal groups, as outlined in the works of White (1957). White (1957;129) talked of the "well rounded organisation man," and referred to the organisation as the "citadel of belongingness and togetherness" (White;1957;45).

More recently, the term has been commonly used within an organisational context to indicate the kinds of feelings, attitudes and behaviours that employees may have towards their employing organisation (Mowday et al;1982, Salancik;1977, Staw;1977). Over the last thirty five years or so, a plethora of literature has been generated in the area, perhaps because the role of work has become more centralised in the lives of individuals and managers have become more aware of the benefits to organisations of winning commitment from their employees. Commitment has been described as a promising construct since it encompasses positive attitudinal traits, including loyalty and attachment to the organisation (Morrow et al;1988). It is considered to bring an "...increasing realisation that organisational members subscription to organisational goals tend to affect their attitudes and intentions regarding the organisation and that such attitudes/intentions are crucial elements of organisational survival" (Zeffane;1994;978).

Studies about employee commitment have gained credence in relation to work, perhaps because of the presumed advantages it is considered to bring to the organisation, namely that increased commitment leads to increased organisational effectiveness (Guest;1987, Scholl;1981). It therefore seems worthwhile for organisations to invest in and develop a committed workforce (Farnham and Pimlott;1990, Scholl;1981, Walton;1985a).
Numerous authors (for example; Guest;1987, Meyer and Allen;1997, Mowday et al;1982, Morris et al;1993, Randall;1987;1990, Walton;1985a) have highlighted the advantages attached to achieving commitment from employees. It is considered that “high commitment is thought to result in low labour turnover, better quality, a greater capacity to innovate and employee flexibility, each of which can enhance the ability of the firm to achieve competitive advantage” (Morris et al; 1993;21). It is evident that commitment is not solely beneficial to organisations. Spurred by an inherent need to belong within the societal construct, individuals embark upon, attach themselves to, or make certain commitments perhaps to make their lives more purposeful (Iles et al;1990). Hence, it has important implications for individual and organisational outcomes and is thus “central to organisational life” (Zeffane;1994;978).

Friedman and Havighurst (1954), who have suggested that employment is a major source of identification and status for individuals also support this view. Identification as defined by Scholl (1981;594) is the, “...linking of one’s social identity to a specific social role”. Similarly, Meyer and Allen (1997) suggest that whilst organisations provide jobs to occupy time and provide money in which to pay bills, it is unlikely that these incentives, in and of themselves, are enough to constitute a meaningful life at work. Organisational commitment develops from opportunities provided by organisations, to meet and interact with other people, to learn new skills and develop as a person. Beer et al (1985), point out the advantages to employees of their commitment to the organisation, “...it can result not only in more loyalty and better performance for the organisation but also a self worth, dignity, psychological involvement and identification for the individual” (Beer;1985;20). Similarly, Mant (1995) acknowledges the psychological need for individuals to work. He suggests that, “People need to be engaged, at best collaboratively, in the manipulation of materials or circumstances towards valued ends...We are Homo habilis as well as Homo sapiens, and we need to be useful to our fellow human beings” (Mant;1995;34/35).
2.1.2 Problems associated with defining commitment

Employee commitment has emerged as a complex phenomenon associated with multiple meanings and definitions that have driven work-based studies. Numerous writers on commitment (for example; Iles et al;1990, Meyer and Allen;1997, Mowday et al;1982, Morrow;1983, Pierce and Dunham;1987 Porter et al;1974 and Scholl;1981) recognise several different definitions, perhaps because researchers in the area (see Buchanan;1975; Mowday et al;1982, Porter et al;1974, Salancik;1977, Staw;1977 and Steers;1977) have tended to develop definitions which identify several diverse characteristics considered to be demonstrated by committed individuals. There are notable differences between the various conceptualisations of commitment and despite the development of new tentative theories, orthodox definitions and measurement techniques, the essence of the subject has generated much controversy. Meyer et al (1990;710) recognise that, “Several distinct views of commitment have evolved and become well established over the years, making it unlikely that any one approach will dominate and be unanimously accepted as the correct definition of commitment”.

Similarly, Mowday et al’s (1982) review of commitment related studies and the literature generated in the area suggests that little unanimity exists. Morrow (1983) has identified, reviewed and compared the major forms of commitment and reported at least twenty-five commitment-related concepts and measures. She concluded that the notion of organisational commitment is conceptually confusing, “Work commitment has consumed an inordinate amount of researchers attention without a commensurate increase in the understanding of its fundamental nature” (Morrow;1983;498). Mathieu and Zajac (1990;189) also consider that it is unlikely that a “grand theory of organisational commitment” will emerge, and argue that this would omit the finite details presented in the variety of definitions in the field and would be limited in its use.

Many researchers in the area of commitment (Becker;1960, Buchanan;1974, Porter et al;1974, Salancik;1977, Staw;1977 and Wiener;1982) have elected to formulate their own definitions and measurements. Whilst these may be useful in providing a
lucid context for their research, it also signifies that one approach to understanding employee commitment cannot be relied upon. Emerging from this conflicting literature however, are indicators that suggest the concept is either rooted in the individual’s opinion and way of thinking, (referred to as attitudinal commitment) or dependent on the manner in which the individual acts (namely behavioural commitment). The following section commences with an overview of the literature that has lead to the development of these two schools of thought.

2.2 Typologies and developing the understanding of the commitment concept

Possibly the leading piece of work classifying the early stages of development and understanding in the area of employee commitment is presented by Mowday et al (1982). These authors have differentiated between the varying typologies generated in the field. Those put forward embrace the work of the main contributors in the area, namely Etzioni (1961; 1975), Kanter (1968) and Staw and Salancik (1977). Mowday et al’s (1982) model summarises the main factors arising from the work of these theorists (presented in Figure 2-1). The next section addresses the work of some of the key authors and attempts to add to the literature by presenting a more comprehensive classification of their works.

The work of Etzioni (1961) was amongst the first to develop an understanding of organisational commitment which has since sparked increasing interest in this area and resulted in a number of further studies being undertaken, particularly in the areas of employee attachment and involvement to institutions. Etzioni’s (1961) understanding stems from the member compliance model. He presents three forms of ‘involvement’, differentiated on intensity of the relationship between employee and organisation. These are moral involvement, calculative involvement and alienative involvement, “The intensity of involvement ranges from high to low. The direction is either positive or negative. We refer to positive involvement as commitment and to negative commitment as alienation”
(Etzioni; 1975; 9). In short, moral commitment indicates a positive orientation of high intensity, which, in organisational terms, represents an affective commitment on the behalf of the employee and the internalisation of organisational goals and values. Calculative commitment involves an exchange relationship established between employer and employee. It is less intense than moral involvement, with individuals becoming committed as a result of the perceived beneficial or equitable exchange relationship (discussed in appendix 1) between contributions to the organisation and the organisational rewards they incur. Iles et al (1990; 150) perceive it "...as a function of an individual's evaluation of the costs and benefits of maintaining organisational membership".

Finally, alienative involvement suggests that an individual is by nature of being bound to it by severe constraints, (usually unconditionally). It is associated with compliant organisations, (for example; prisons), where control forms a dominant element of any relationship between individual and those with the authority to exercise power over them (Simmel; 1896). Under such circumstances, individuals perceive themselves unable to change or control their organisational experiences and also perceive a lack of alternatives (Iles et al; 1990).

Rosabeth Moss Kanter (1968) presents an alternative perspective suggesting that commitment results from requirements imposed on individuals in organisations. It is perceived as a behaviour or set of behaviours, rather than an attitude. It is described as, "a process by which the interests of members become attached to the carrying out of socially organised patterns of behaviour which are seen as fulfilling those interests, as expressing the nature and needs of a person" (Kanter; 1968; 516). Based in American utopian communities, commitment is concerned with the bond between individuals and social constructs comprising of three predominate types, namely that of continuance, cohesion, and control.
### Figure 2-1 Typologies of organisational commitment

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Typology</th>
<th>Definition</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Etzioni (1961)</strong></td>
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<tr>
<td>Moral involvement</td>
<td>A positive and high-intensity orientation based on internalisation of organisational goals and values and identification with authority</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Calculative involvement</td>
<td>A lower-intensity relationship based on rational exchange of benefits and rewards</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Alienative involvement</td>
<td>A negative orientation that is found in exploitative relationships (e.g. prisons)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Kanter (1968)</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Continuance commitment</td>
<td>Dedication to organisation’s survival brought on by previous personal investments and sacrifices such that leaving would be costly or impossible</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cohesion commitment</td>
<td>Attachment to social relationships in an organisation brought on by such techniques as public renunciation of previous social ties or engaging in ceremonies that enhance group cohesion</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Control commitment</td>
<td>Attachment to organisational norms that shape behaviour in desired directions resulting from requiring members to disavow previous norms publicly and reformulate their self-conceptions in terms of organisational values</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Staw (1977) and Salancik (1977)</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Organisational Behaviour</td>
<td>Commitment viewed in terms of strong identification approach with and involvement in the organisation brought on by a variety of factors (attitudinal commitment)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Social psychological</td>
<td>Commitment viewed in terms of sunk costs invested in the organisation that bind the individual irrevocably to the organisation (behavioural commitment)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Mowday et al;1982;22
Firstly, continuance commitment can be understood by an individual’s sacrifice and investment for the good of the system or organisation. It comprises similar characteristics to that of Etzioni’s (1975) notion of calculative involvement and suggests that individuals are likely to incur costs which would make remaining within the system more cost effective i.e. less expensive for the individual than if they were to leave.

Secondly, cohesion is rooted in renunciation and communion. In other words, the unity and solidarity of a member’s commitment within the framework of the social construct. “Cohesion commitment involves primarily their forming positive cathetic orientations; affective ties bind members to the community, and gratification’s stem from involvement with all the members of the group” (Kanter; 1968:500). Within such cohesive systems, individuals are likely to severe connections with other social systems to enhance group solidarity. Mowday et al (1982) cite attachment to fraternity and sorority organisations as examples of Kanter’s (1968) cohesive theory. The final element in Kanter’s (1968) model is that of control which she argues is based on individuals relinquishing themselves to social systems and adjusting to the norms and authority of the group which re-configure their identity. “Commitment of actors to uphold norms and obey the authority of the group involves primarily their forming positive evaluative orientations” (Kanter; 1968:501). Moreover, control commitment has been obtained when employees’ beliefs, norms and values of the organisation are considered as guides to their behaviours in daily life.

Finally, Staw (1977) and Salancik (1977) refer to two divergent schools in underpinning the commitment concept. These have been categorised by attitudinal and behavioural models, which despite being “two quite different phenomena” (Mowday et al; 1982:24) are probably the two most commonly used models of understanding an employee’s commitment to the organisation.
2.3 Attitudinal commitment

Attitudinal commitment is concerned with the psychological attachment between individual and organisation. It refers to the compatibility of the organisation’s goals and values with its employees. It focuses on the related processes by which individuals’ regard their relationship with their employer. It is also referred to as, “affective commitment” (Meyer and Allen; 1984; 373, Coopey and Hartley; 1991) because it refers to the affective reactions and “emotional orientations” (Allen and Meyer; 1984; 373) of individuals. The development of this type of commitment perhaps stemmed from Kanter’s (1968) acknowledgement of cohesion commitment (above) which is concerned with, “the attachment of an individual’s fund of affectivity and emotion to the group” (Kanter; 1968; 507). Similarly, Buchanan (1974; 533) described the notion of employee commitment as, “a partisan, affective attachment to the goals and values of the organisation, to one’s role in relation to the goals and values, and to the organisation for its own sake apart from its purely instrumental worth”.

As stated in chapter one, it is characterised by three components namely identification, involvement and loyalty, in the following three fold theory: an understanding and strong belief in and acceptance of the organisation’s goals and values; a willingness to exert considerable effort on behalf of the organisation, or to “go the extra mile” (Guest; 1995; 113) for the good of the company and; a strong desire to maintain membership in the employing organisation, or the aspiration to remain in the employ of the organisation. This suggests that committed employees are likely to remain with their organisation. It is also considered that such individuals will have a good attendance record and work hard for the organisation (Mowday et al; 1979; 1982). They are also considered to be more accepting of organisational change (Iverson; 1996). Farnham and Pimlott (1990; 359) state that, “the goal of employee commitment is to develop feelings of involvement with the organisations in individual employees. This makes them more satisfied...and adaptable workers”. Thus, the concept of attitudinal commitment has become attractive to employers because of these advantages.
Wiener (1982:418) refers to attitudinal commitment of members as the “identification approach,” suggesting that the acceptance of organisational goals and values to the individual takes precedence over instrumental gain, “The identification approach postulates commitment to be an attitudinal intervening construct, mediating between certain antecedents and outcomes, and views this attitudinal process as primarily affective, rather than cognitive-calculative” (Wiener; 1982;418).

2.3.1 Problems with attitudinal commitment definitions of commitment

The issue of congruent goals and values between employee and organisation has been questioned by Reichers (1985;469), who suggests that organisations are “coalition entities”, presenting the individual with a variety of interests. She argues that individuals embark on multiple organisationally related commitments, the goals and values of which may be in conflict with the organisations. The term ‘organisation’ in ‘organisational commitment’ is incorrectly viewed as “monolithic, undifferentiated entity that elicits an identification and attachment on the part of the individuals” (Reichers;1985;469) since employees often identify with a variety of groups which ultimately constitute multiple commitments. These “reflect a complex and sometimes problematic attachment to the organisation that is not evident in current global approaches” of the construct (Reichers;1985;470).

Consequently, future definitions of commitment should attempt to capture the daily realities of the organisational lives of employees by accommodating the goals of the specific groups of which they are associated (Reichers;1985). Meyer and Allen (1997;65) note that the majority of commitment related research is “probably measuring employees’ commitment to top management, or to a combination of management and more local foci” (Meyer and Allen;1997;65).
Coopey and Hartley (1991) argue that the notion of commitment has been drawn too narrowly which subsequently has lead to "a major problem in the literature" (Coopey and Hartley;1991;25). They state, "When we consider organisational commitment, we have to ask committed to what? The organisation of course. But then, what is the organisation? Many writers seem to treat this concept unproblematically, seeing commitment in terms of organisational goals and values" (Coopey and Hartley;1991;26). In this sense the organisation is monolithic, or a unitarist concept (see chapter one). In reality, the authors suggest that organisations comprise of various employee groups, and thus individuals are inevitably committed to a range of goals and values. Hence, they argue that commitment is best viewed as a pluralist construct.

In a similar vein, Iles, Mabey and Roberston (1990) and later Iles, Forster and Tinline (1996) argue that there are different types of commitment and that it is possible for individuals to be committed to the value of paid employment, or their career, but not a their actual job, or the organisation which employs them. Thus, the type of commitment will determine an individual’s behaviour. For example; employees who express high commitment to their career, may leave their employing organisation in pursuit of this. Alternatively, employees who express a high commitment to their job and their employing organisation may be less likely to leave, "...there is a need to differentiate among the various facets or targets of commitment, e.g. commitment to work in general, to one’s job, one’s profession, and one’s career. In addition, it makes sense to speak of organisational commitments, rather than a commitment...Such commitments can be tension-filled, competing or even contradictory..." (Iles et al;1996;19).

Despite the ambiguity surrounding the definition of attitudinal commitment, there are presupposed advantages of having committed employees (discussed below) and this has encouraged organisations to implement and maintain commitment-oriented strategies in the workplace (Meyer and Allen;1997).

Employee commitment has been popularised amongst employers as a factor that leads to reduced absenteeism and turnover (Mowday et al;1982) for the
organisation and increased effort from the individual. Wiener (1982;419) suggests that, “research concerning outcomes of commitment indicates that the behavioural outcomes showing the strongest relationships with commitment have been turnover and intention to stay in the organisation”. Conversely, Guest and Dewe (1991;78) argue that the attitudinal definition is problematic since it, “contains both process and outcome dimensions”. They suggest that items assessing the individual’s desire to retain membership with their organisation is logically a consequence of identification with the organisation, as is, “an employee’s willingness to work hard for the good of the organisation” (Guest and Dewe;1991;78). This suggests that it is difficult to study attitudinal commitment and its relationships to dependant variables such as effort, performance and employee turnover when they are contained within the definition (Guest;1992 in Legge;1995b). Thus, perhaps it is “not surprising” (Guest and Dewe;1991;78) to find a negative relationship between labour turnover and employee commitment.

Whilst the attitudinal approach is commonly used to explain employee identification, involvement and loyalty (Legge;1995b, Iles et al;1990), the behavioural model suggests that commitment to an organisation arises as a result of employees being bound to their organisation by behavioural acts. This theory is evident in the works of Kiesler (1971) and Salancik (1977), and Staw (1977). However, a review of the literature has revealed that this perspective has not received as much attention as the attitudinal theory.

### 2.4 Behavioural commitment

Behavioural commitment is a process by which an individual’s past behaviour serves to tie or bind him or her to the employing organisation. This approach deviates substantially from the attitudinal model. It suggests that commitment to an organisation is predominately driven by an individual’s actions and their intentions (Kiesler and Sakumura;1966, Salancik;1977). Behavioural commitment is concerned with the nature and retention of employee membership. Described as the binding of the individual to acts determined by behaviour, individuals are
committed, when they are explicit (undeniable), irrevocable (unalterable), volitional (voluntary) and publicly binding and thus "highly visible" (Legge; 1995b:180, see also Salancik; 1977).

The behaviour, which the individual considers worthy, suitable and advantageous, is largely determined by prior behaviour and is thus reinforcing, "You act. You believe your action was valuable, worthwhile, desirable. You act again, renewing that belief... The myths sustain the action; the action sustains the myth" (Salancik; 1977 in Mowday et al; 1982:25). Individuals are therefore likely to become more committed as a result of their previous actions. Hence, it is underpinned by the desire for consistency. Festinger's (1957) theory of cognitive dissonance suggests that individuals find mechanisms in order to adjust psychologically to their behavioural commitments because they strive for consistency (in preference to inconsistency) in their lives at work. It is unusual that individuals will deviate from this norm. For example, if an individual is required to make a choice from several, mutually exclusive alternatives (for example job selection from many offers) he or she is likely to reduce post-decisional dissonance by re-evaluating the alternatives, thus increasing the attractiveness of the alternatives and decreasing the attractiveness of rejected alternatives (Lydka; 1994).

The theory recognises that there is some kind of consistency between what a person knows or believes and what he or she does, "the individual strives towards consistency within himself. His opinions and attitudes, for example, exist in clusters that are internally consistent" (Festinger; 1957:1). What this amounts to, in organisational terms, is that if an individual considers that s/he is not being sufficiently rewarded for a job, but is tied to it behaviourally, his or her attitude may change towards the job, thereby supporting the decision to remain with the employing organisation.
## Commitment type | Clarification
---|---
Moral/Cohesive/Attitudinal | Willing acceptance and adherence to the organisation’s goals. High emphasis on unity and group solidarity within the institution
Behavioural | Concerned with the extent to which an individuals' actions bind them to a specific behaviour
Calculative/Continuance | Relationship based on exchange, for example between individual and organisation. The threat of the dispossession of investments made over time can become the fundamental binding mechanism for the individual to the institution
Alienative/control | Adherence to organisational norms is based on mechanisms to elicit control. Organisations require complete compliance from their members.

In conclusion, Figure 2-2 shows the re-conceptualisation of the types of commitment discussed. Whilst the theoretical conceptions of the newly established model comprise the essential characteristics of Etzioni’s (1961), Kanter’s (1968), Salancik’s (1977) and Staw’s (1977) definitions, the framework also provides a summarised and more concise understanding of their meaning. Hence, the model has brought together the key works in the area that have provided a foundation to studies in the commitment field. However, it is apparent that there are other equally credible theories of commitment that merit consideration since they too add to the employee commitment debate.

### 2.5 Calculative/continuance theory of commitment

An alternative model proposed under the umbrella of behavioural commitment is cited in the work of Becker (1960) and is referred to as the investments or side bets theory, calculative or continuance commitment (see Figure 2-2). Becker (1960) defines this in terms of a tendency to persist in a course of action, (continuance) emphasising the importance attached to the costs involved in
continuing employment with an organisation. Commitment is achieved by
calculative methods (see also, Allen and Meyer; 1984; 1990, Barge et al; 1988,
Etzioni; 1961 and Kanter; 1968) since the employee engages in investments that act
as, "...stabilising or maintenance mechanisms" (Scholl; 1981; 593). The number of
investments or "side bets" (Becker; 1960; 32) the employee makes ultimately ties
him or her to the employing organisation.

Examples of investments may include; company pension scheme, employee
privileges i.e. the purchasing of corporate shares at a reduced rate; employee share
earning scheme, private medical insurance; relocation package (legal, removal,
estate agents fees covered by the organisation); professional development courses
and corporate entertainment/hospitality.

It is considered that these side bets will produce a commitment to the organisation
regardless of other features within the relationship between the individual and the
employing organisation, and other related commitments the individual may have
engaged in, like commitment to a profession (Sheldon; 1971). Meyer and Allen
(1997; 57) point out that employees can make investments in many ways, "...for
example; by incurring...the human cost of relocating as family from another city or
by spending time acquiring organisation specific skills". They also point out that
the set of variables that influence individuals to remain with one organisation, may
be idiosyncratic to that employee.

Such investments will increase over time in relation to employee tenure, such that
the individual is less likely to terminate their employment if they have engaged in
them. "If a person refuses to change jobs, even though the new job would offer
him a higher salary and better working conditions, we should suspect that his
decision is a result of commitment, than other sets of rewards than income and
working conditions, have become attached to his present job so that it would be
too painful for him to change..." (Becker; 1960; 33). This form of behavioural
commitment implies that continuance with one organisation deter the employee
from gaining employment elsewhere, because of the associated costs of moving.
This is a less intense form of commitment than attitudinal commitment.
Becker;1960, Guest;1992, Mowday et al;1982, Ritzer and Trice;1969). Guest (1992) for example, suggests that this type of commitment is not commitment in the true sense of the word, but obtained by default since, "...it implies that satisfaction and identification with the organisation is less important than a sense of being tied to it through investments" (Guest;1992;116). Thus, the concept of membership rather than the will of the individual to stay with the organisation may best understand it. Becker (1960) acknowledges that, "Such a theory might start with the observation that the commitment is made without realisation that it is being made, what might be termed, commitment by default, arises through acts, none of which is crucial but which, taken together, constitute...a series of side bets of such magnitude that he finds himself unwilling to lose them" (Becker;1960;38). However, "employees who remain only because of the costs associated with leaving are unlikely to do more than what is minimally required of them to maintain their jobs" according to Meyer and Allen (1997;89). Such employees may be poor performers and exhibit more dysfunctional behaviours than those with weak continuance commitment. Thus, employees with little affective commitment towards the organisation, but high continuance commitment, may feel trapped.

Allen and Meyer (1984) have since widened the investment notion initially associated with the organisation to refer to anything that the individual values and has invested in that is perceived as a cost and thus would be deemed lost in the event of changed circumstances. They argue that the potential threat of such loss also ties the individual to the situation. Conversely, an employee's freedom from the organisation can be obtained from maintaining weak linkages, and limiting organisational ties, this is likely to allow ease of employee job movement due to reduced psychological and physical connections with the employer. However, under such circumstances, the employee does not benefit from any associated advantages, and in some cases there is pressure from work colleagues to conform with the organisation's cultural norm.
2.6 Key definitions of organisational commitment

Reichers (1985) has tabled the three main definitions in the literature namely: calculative; behavioural and attitudinal. These are presented as Figure 2-3 and respectively re-titled: side bets; attributions and goal congruence on this model. This model unfortunately does not take into account the contemporary normative perspective of commitment. This theory is featured in the works of Wiener (1982). Reichers (1985) framework therefore falls short of providing a comprehensive and thorough overview of the various forms commitment can take.

Figure 2-3 Definitions/operationalisation of organisational commitment

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Commitment concept and definition</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Side Bets</strong> Commitment is a function of the rewards and costs associated with organisational membership; these typically increase as tenure in the organisation increases. This approach and variations of it, have been used by Alutto, Hrebinik and Alonso (1973), Becker (1960), Farrell and Rusbult (1981), Grusky (1966), Hrebinik and Alutto (1972), Rusbult and Farrell (1983) and Sheldon (1971).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Attributions</strong> Commitment is a binding of the individual to behavioural acts that results when individuals attribute an attitude of commitment to themselves after engaging in behaviours that are volitional, explicit and irrevocable. This approach and variations of it, have been used by Kiesler and Sakumura (1966) and O'Reilly and Caldwell (1980) and Salancik (1977).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Individual/goal congruence</strong> Commitment occurs when individuals identify with and extend organisational effort towards organisational goals and values. This approach, and variations of it, has been used by Angle and Perry (1981); Bartol (1979), Bateman and Strasser (1984), Hall, Schneider and Nygren (1970), Morris and Sherman (1981), Mowday, Porter and Steers (1982), Mowday, Steers and Porter (1979), Porter, Crampon and Smith (1976), Porter, Steers Mowday and Boulian (1972), Steers (1977), Stevens, Beyer and Trice (1978), Stumpf and Hartman (1984) and Welsch and LaVan (1981).</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: adapted from Reichers; 1985:468
2.7 Normative commitment

The concept of normative commitment, in the works of Wiener and Vardi (1980) and Wiener (1982) (and later furthered by Allen and Meyer;1990), suggests that individuals attach themselves to one organisation since this is the proper way to behave. Normative commitment is defined as, "...the totality of internalised normative pressures to act in a way that meets organisational goals and interests. The theory suggests that individuals exhibit behaviours solely because they believe this is the right and moral way in which to behave" (Wiener;1982;421). Thus, normative commitment is one of obligation, developed by early socialisation processes (Allen and Meyer;1990, Meyer and Allen;1997).

It is presented within a motivational framework as an extension of the largely accepted identification approach to viewing commitment which is predominate the attitudinal commitment model. Wiener (1982) refers to identification as the acceptance of organisational expectations and values by the individual, which in turn guide employee behaviour. This suggests that normative commitment is based on the strength of the individual's personal obligations. "The model of commitment proposed...is consistent with the identification approach and can be viewed as extension and re-conceptualisation of this approach" (Wiener; 1982;418). Consequently employee membership to the organisation is secured by individuals' adherence to the corporate philosophy (Wiener and Vardi;1980).

An employee may have strong normative commitment if significant others (i.e. parents) are long serving employees with one organisation, or emphasise the importance of organisational loyalty (Allen and Meyer;1990). Wiener's (1982) normative model is based on Fishbein and Ajzen's (1975) notion of belief, attitude, intention and behaviour. In short this differentiates between two types of beliefs; beliefs about the consequences to the individual of a given act, and normative beliefs about a given behaviour. The conception is derived from the understanding of this latter type of belief, "which consist of values of loyalty and duty towards the organisation" (Wiener and Vardi;1980;84).
Wiener's (1982) ideology of normative commitment suggests that individuals should not only be loyal to the organisation that employs them, but if necessary be willing to sacrifice for the good of the organisation, and also speak only in positive terms about their employer. "According to this view, a committed individual retains membership in the organisation, or exerts a high degree of task effort not because he has figured out that doing so is to his personal benefit, but because he believes that he "should" behave in this way, since this is the "right" and expected behaviour" (Wiener and Vardi;1980;84). Meyer and Allen (1997) suggest that those individuals who remain in an organisation primarily because of a normative commitment, might come to resent their sense of indebtedness or obligation. The authors consider that although employee resentment may not prevent individuals from functioning at work, it may affect their attitude towards the organisation.

There is little evidence amongst the literature on commitment to demonstrate the take up of the normative view and "for the most part, the development of normative commitment has been theoretical rather than empirical" (Meyer and Allen;1997;64). However, normative attitudes are likely to be the best predictors of commitment where emphasis on strong social ties and obligations are prominent. For example: research measuring attitudinal and normative commitment amongst Japanese and American workers found that American employees showed the highest levels of attitudinal commitment. The authors comment that whilst this may have been a surprising finding, if "...normative commitment had been measured instead of affective commitment, the findings might have been different" (Meyer and Allen;1997;108).

There is little conclusive evidence that normative commitment may be distinguished empirically from affective commitment (Legge;1995b, Meyer and Allen;1990). However, whilst this approach has not been adequately tested, following Meyer and Allen (1997), the theory remains credible until refuted. Indeed, further work using the normative theory of commitment is required in order to establish if the notion can be seriously considered as an extension of the identification element of the attitudinal model as claimed by its creators (Wiener and Vardi;1980), or is a new and distinct conceptualisation.
2.8 Classifying definitions of employee commitment

Numerous approaches to understanding the concept of commitment have been discussed. “Commitment is a multifaceted construct and...our understanding of how people become committed to an organisation...is better served by acknowledging this complexity...” (Meyer and Allen; 1997; viii). To date, there does not appear to be one model summarising the range of diverse concepts. Building on the works of Mowday et al (1982) and Reichers (1985), Figure 2-4 provides a classification of the four theories reviewed. Finally, the last section to this chapter discusses commitment as an independent and/or inter-related construct.

Figure 2-4 Employee commitment classification

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Type of commitment and clarification</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Attitudinal commitment</strong></td>
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<tr>
<td>Concerned with an employee’s voluntarily expressions of dedication and affective reactions and feelings of attachment towards their organisation (Buchanan; 1974, Allen and Meyer; 1990, Meyer and Allen; 1997, Mowday, Steers and Porter; 1979; 1982)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

| **Behavioural commitment**           |
| The extent to which the individual binds him/herself to behavioural acts. Actions are volitional, explicit, public or irrevocable (Salancik; 1977, Staw; 1977) |

| **Continuance commitment**           |
| Developed on the basis of two principals: namely the number of investments and the individual’s perceived lack of alternatives (Becker; 1960, Meyer and Allen 1984; 1997, Allen and Meyer; 1990) |

| **Normative commitment**             |
| Suggests that individuals remain with one organisation because loyal behaviour towards one employer is the right way to act (Allen and Meyer; 1990, Meyer and Allen; 1997, Wiener and Vardi; 1980, Wiener; 1982). |

2.9 Commitment as an independent construct

Employee commitment is regarded as a multifaceted construct that can take different forms (Iles et al; 1990). “The importance of distinguishing amongst these
different forms and foci of commitments is illustrated by the evidence that they relate to somewhat different behaviour” (Meyer and Allen; 1997; 107).

Commitment has been described as; (1) a condition of personal commitment and attachment to an institution as a result of the internalisation of organisational norms and values (attitudinal commitment), (2) the extent to which individuals are bound by their actions (behavioural commitment), (3) the state of being engaged into a system which is perhaps beyond the immediate control of the employee (calculative commitment) and (4) a belief that individuals should be loyal to one organisation (normative commitment).

Although Allen and Meyer (1990) fail to distinguish between the behavioural and calculative theories in their understanding of commitment, (thereby proposing a three rather than a four component model), the authors argue that the various forms the concept takes should be differentiated. They state that affectively committed employees remain with the organisations because they want to, normatively committed employees, because they ought to, and calculatively committed employees, because they need to. Add to this, behaviourally committed employees are committed because they have to be, and each of the four models of commitment presented in Figure 2-4 is uniquely represented.

Thus, following Allen and Meyer (1990) and Meyer and Allen (1997), it is considered that the conceptual differences of each of the four components of commitment do develop somewhat independently of the others. However, an important common denominator underpins each definition. This is the binding mechanism that ties the individual to the organisation, which essentially is the link between the employee and organisation that decreases the likelihood of employee turnover although, “that is where the similarity ends” (Allen and Meyer; 1990; 14).

Moreover, whilst the constructs of affective and continuance commitment both reflect a link between the employee and the organisation, the explicit nature of this link is reflected quite differently in the two constructs, and it is therefore important that that the various approaches to commitment be identified and their differences highlighted (Meyer et al; 1990). “Affective, continuance and normative
commitment are best viewed as distinguishable components, rather than types, of attitudinal commitment; that is, employees can experienced each of these psychological states to varying degrees. Some employees, for example, might feel both a strong need and a strong obligation to remain" (Allen and Meyer;1990;4). These authors sought to provide evidence that affective, continuance and normative components of commitment are “conceptually and empirically separable” (Allen and Meyer;1990;13). However, their findings indicated a correlation between attitudinal and normative commitments, but neither of these were related to calculative commitment.

On a similar note, Mowday et al (1982;26), differentiate between the constructs. They suggest that, “attitudinal commitment focuses on the process by which people come to think about their relationship with the organisation...[whereas, behavioural commitment]...relates to the process by which individuals become locked into a certain organisation and how they deal with this problem”.

McGee and Ford (1987) have also differentiated between the linkage of continuance commitment and affective commitment. In short, the former is in the binding of the individual to the organisation, “by way of extraneous interests, rather than favourable affect towards the organisation” (McGee and Ford;1987;638). Similarly, Caldwell et al (1990;257) in their multi-firm study examining how organisations facilitate employee commitment, concluded that their findings, “support the notion that commitment is a multifaceted construct, and without clarity in the specific aspects of commitment being studied, results may be somewhat ambiguous”. The view that attitudinal and behavioural models should be regarded as independent is also endorsed by Reichers (1985) who suggests that, “the distinction between commitment attitudes and commitment behaviours...may lend more consistency and coherence to studies of organisational commitment in the future” (Reichers;1985;468).

Furthermore, according to Thompson and McHugh (1995), attitudinal and behavioural philosophies are quite distinct constructs that should be essentially differentiated. The former implies a personal commitment to an individual’s belief,
and therefore a voluntary attitude expressed by the individual, whereas the latter form of commitment suggests that individuals are, "locked into a system which is somehow beyond [their] control" (Thompson and McHugh;1995;319). This view is particularly evident in Etzioni’s (1961) notion of alienative involvement, presented in Figure 2-1.

### 2.10 Commitment as an interrelated construct

Some theorists have argued that the commitment concepts are interrelated rather than independent. Mowday et al (1982) for example maintain that in reality attitudinal and behavioural commitments should not be treated as exclusive. “Although the commitment attitude-behaviour and committing behaviour-attitude approaches emerge from different theoretical orientations and have generated separate research traditions, understanding the commitment process is facilitated by viewing these two approaches as inherently interrelated” (Mowday et al;1982;47). They suggest that the two phenomena are closely inter-linked and that a committed attitude is likely to lead to committed behaviours and visa versa.

![Figure 2-5 Reciprocal influences between attitudinal and behavioural commitment](source: Mowday et al;1979;48)

The integration of the two constructs is shown in their model that outlines the reciprocal influences between the two phenomena (see Figure 2-5). Whilst the starting point of the reinforcing cycle is unclear, Mowday et al (1982;47) argue that this is not central to the commitment debate. “Rather, what is important is the
development of commitment may involve the subtle interplay of attitudes and behaviours...”.

Sheldon (1971), also considers that whilst in some situations the extent to which an individual invests in one employer does appear to result in limiting his/her alternatives, (i.e. is indicative of continuance commitment), this may heighten identification with the employing organisation and therefore enhance the level of affective attachment to it. Similarly, Allen and Meyer (1990) found that there was some overlap between affective and normative commitments but both were relatively independent of continuance commitment.

Later, Meyer and Allen (1991) argued that it was more appropriate to consider the three approaches (namely attitudinal, behavioural and calculative), as components of commitment rather than distinct types of commitment, because an employee’s relationship with the organisation may reflect varying degrees of all three. This suggests that employees have varying commitment profiles and conflicts may exist between their commitments. It also indicates that each of the types of commitment may bind the individual to his/her current organisation for very different reasons at various times throughout his/her working life. This view is shared by Suliman and Iles (1998;2), who argue that a “…multidimensional approach is the most recent approach to conceptualise OC”, which assumes that the construct does not develop through emotional attachment, perceived costs or moral obligation, but rather through the subtle interplay of these essential components. The authors also comment that understanding commitment by way of a multidimensional approach “could bring an end to the disappointing and inconsistent results for OC research” (Suliman and Iles;1998;3).

2.11 Chapter summary and conclusions

This chapter has reviewed approaches to the concept of employee commitment, thereby appreciating that it is a multifaceted concept. It has argued that existing frameworks in the area have failed to appropriately clarify and classifying the main
theories and it sought to add to the existing literature by providing two comprehensive models that have simplified and summarised key approaches.

The first was concerned with examining and re-conceptualising the typologies of commitment derived from the classic works of Etzioni (1961), Kanter (1968), Salancik (1977) and Staw (1977), (as originally presented by Mowday et al;1982). The second, concerned with more contemporary works in the field, argued that there are four predominate approaches evident in the literature, although it recognised that studies using the normative theory of commitment are necessary if this is to be fully appreciated as a reconceptulisation of, or differentiated from, the attitudinal model of commitment. Indeed, such research will permit the modification of Figure 2-4.

The following chapter commences by considering the role of organisational change within a human resource management framework and discusses the importance of being able to understand the impact of change on employee commitment. In short, it considers the purpose, methodology, findings and conclusions of a preliminary investigation undertaken in the area of change and commitment which has drawn from employers’ perspectives in the UK.
3. CHAPTER THREE: ORGANISATIONAL CHANGE AND EMPLOYEE COMMITMENT

3.1 Introduction

The purpose of this chapter is to introduce the concept of employee commitment within the context of change at work. It has been split into two main parts. The first section introduces and examines the role of organisational change within the context of human resource management (HRM) and goes on to outline the importance of understanding the managerial implications of change on employee commitment. This sets the scene for the second part of the chapter which introduces and discusses an exploratory piece of research (referred to as stage one1).

Stage one was undertaken to find out about the level of employer awareness of employee commitment, establish if and how commitment is measured in organisations, identify the types of changes that have occurred in UK enterprises and their impact on employee commitment levels from an employers' perspective. Since studies in this area are minimal and literature scare, the exploratory research was designed to assist in developing a sharper focus to the research problem that is subsequently outlined in chapter four.

3.2 Organisational change and human resource management

Goodman and Kurke (1982;2) note that whilst there are many meanings for the word ‘change’, “the meaning common to all these definitions is to make different. So in the context of change in organisations, the object of the change process, that is, what is to be made different, could be attitudes,

1 Stage one of this research has formed the basis of one article (see Shepherd;1997), and one conference paper (see Shepherd and Mathews;1998a).
interaction patterns of roles or groups organisations, and so on”. In this sense ‘change’ is the alteration of an existing state to a different situation.

Tyson (1995a;41) suggests that, “the word ‘change’ has come to mean ‘improve’ in much of the management literature; that is, to be ‘modern’, ‘relevant’ and suitable to present needs”. Other writers in the field (see for example; Carnall;1986, Iverson;1996, Sopar;1984) are more specific, suggesting that organisational changes are concerned with the modification and updating of organisational goals, structure, technology and individual work tasks. Indeed, the area of corporate change is of popular concern and organisations need to respond following changes in their political, social, technological and economic environment (Hartley et al;1990).

Moreover, writers in the area of human resource management consider that HRM, “... is defined as being centred on organisational change” (Tyson;1995a;41). Schuler (1995;537) also recognises the management of change as “one of the cutting edge areas for HR [human resource] managers today, [since] most employees are traumatised by complex change and [HR] managers [therefore] have a responsibility to guide the change process and minimise the effects on employees”. In a similar vein, Iverson (1996;124) comments that HR managers are recognising that in order to achieve a competitive advantage, “they need to be able to introduce and manage change successfully”.

Other writers in the area of human resource management (for example; Beardwell and Holden;1994, Guest;1992, Hendry;1994 and Tyson and York;1992) note that organisational change is a dominant feature of corporate life and employee adaptability and flexibility are essential characteristics for survival. “For an increasing proportion of organisations, the environment has become less stable, requiring a capacity for rapid adjustment and an ability to respond flexibly to specific and varied customer demands. To meet these demands swiftly and effectively, organisations
require a workforce which is more than merely compliant” (Guest;1992;114). Similarly, Tyson (1995a;60) for example; suggests that organisational change is now experienced as a “natural feature” of organisational life and that managers, particularly those involved with human resources, need to be aware of the forces shaping society and to plan strategies in house to successfully meet future challenges (see also Tyson and York;1992).

Hartley et al (1990;6), note that, “Change in organisations is a commonplace feature...Organisations are inherently dynamic because they consist of people who are changing, changing relationships and structures...”. Likewise, Hendry (1994) also claims that the once primary task of maintaining stability amongst employees in organisations which previously dominated the role of HRM has changed. More recently, it appears that the role of the HR specialist is more concerned with managing change and formulating personnel related systems to the needs of a changing organisation. This suggests that the function of HRM has become a key facilitator in eliciting organisational change, rather than a respondent to it.

Models in the area of human resource management (i.e. those presented in chapter one; see also Guest;1995), have featured employee commitment as an integral part of the HRM process and emphasise the need for unity between employees and the organisation in achieving congruence of goals, employee loyalty and involvement. Iverson (1996;122) states, “the one thing that has remained the same [throughout times of change] is the requirement for employees to adapt”. Essentially therefore, the critical dimensions of commitment have altered in line with practitioner requirements, whilst the challenge of improving the understanding commitment for the future remains (Guest;1998a).
Achieving employee commitment after changes are introduced to the workplace however, is becoming increasingly difficult for employers to sustain (McKenna and Beech; 1995). These authors argue that the role of change has been shown to have an impact on how individuals perceive their careers. They claim that, "...employee perceptions are changing...now there is a recognition of the growing need to have a number of jobs throughout working life, with much less attachment to the notion of continuous association with one organisation" (McKenna and Beech; 1995; 55). Thus, whilst organisational policies designed to create employee commitment to the organisation have emerged as viable, perhaps because practitioners have indicated that they prefer loyal and devoted employees (Morrow; 1983), the reality of upholding employee commitment to the organisation after change may be becoming increasingly difficult for managers in the area of human resources to secure.

3.3 Organisational change and employee commitment

Enhancing organisational capability seems to have become increasingly pronounced in the 1990s and there is evidence to show that there is intensifying pressure on organisations to respond to changing conditions.

Some authors who have addressed the area of commitment and change, include Baruch; 1998, Carnall; 1986, Cope; 1996, Guest; 1992; 1998a, Iles et al; 1996, Meyer and Allen; 1997, Skinner; 1981, Swailes; 1995 and Tyson; 1995a. Guest (1992; 111) for example, points out that the recession of the 1980s and 1990s has encouraged employers to explore new systems of control and motivation in the workplace and to "...reassess the basis on which they manage their workforces". Indeed, the dynamism of organisational change has become important because organisations are experiencing a myriad of internal and external pressures and have had to undergo changes to remain competitive (Iverson; 1996).
Similarly, Carnall (1986) recognises that organisations are under constant pressure to remain competitive and this usually involves making changes to their structure, function and operations. In this sense, descriptions of organisations as static entities are misleading. This argument is reflected in Hartley’s (1990) following metaphor, “a still photograph frozen in time instead of cinematic action”.

Iles et al (1996) note that an increase in corporate restructuring and redundancies has led to a shift in emphasis in employment, and psychological contracts for organisational members. They argue that, “Instead of organisations paternalistically taking responsibility for career management through job security and upward promotions, employees are now supposed to exercise greater responsibility for their own career development through enriched jobs, lateral moves and multiple career paths (Iles et al;1996;18).

In contrast to the dynamism associated with the notion of organisational change, attitudinal commitment has been portrayed through the literature as a relatively stable construct, (Guest;1998a, Peccei and Guest;1993, Mowday et al;1982) which has helped to distinguish it from concepts like job satisfaction (see appendix 2). However, this notion of stability associated with the commitment concept may be justifiably challenged by organisational changes, because it requires employees to demonstrate flexibility and adaptability to new circumstances within the workplace.

Skinner (1981) acknowledges the difficulties of obtaining adaptable employees, he suggests that, “...acquiring and developing the right talents for the business as it changes strategy, technology and products requires more shrewd, wise, long range planning than any other corporate endeavour” (Skinner;1981;111). Indeed, an essential part of the accepted attitudinal definition of commitment highlights the importance of the employee’s identification with the organisation’s goals and values.
However, in circumstances where organisational change alters these, where does that leave the employee in terms of their commitment? At the least, organisational change can be anticipated to disturb the balance of the norms and expectations of the employee and perhaps also their loyalty and involvement to the organisation. Thus, it is maintained that organisational changes may have repercussions for employees and the commitment levels they demonstrate to their organisations.

Following this argument and given that employee commitment (particularly attitudinal commitment) is considered to be demonstrated voluntarily by the individual towards his or her employing organisation (Mowday et al;1982), it is argued that an individual's commitment towards their organisation may indeed change if something in the organisation changes. Swailes (1995;8) for example comments, "A new venture or mission for the organisation, a new team leader or a change of work group, might cause a change in the absolute amount of commitment shown by an employee”. Similarly, Meyer and Allen (1997) note that much is being written about the changing world of work and that organisational change requires new approaches to the way companies organise. Skinner (1981) also points out that maintaining employee commitment in situations of organisational change has emerged as an important issue which “...human resource management faces...[and] few companies have resolved” (Skinner;1981;110).

The objective for managers, particularly within the function of human resources, is to create an environment where employee commitment can be sustained after organisational changes. As yet, however, no research has provided adequate explanations of how this can be resolved (Guest;1998a, Iverson;1996).

A few authors, however, have suggested an apparent nexus between employee commitment and organisational change, although this does not appear to have been adequately explored further. Guest et al (1993) for
example suggests that the commitment concept has become attractive to employers because, “by implication a committed worker is likely to work hard and to stay with the organisation. Such a worker might also be expected to collaborate in change” (Guest et al.;1993;192).

Similarly, Farnham and Pimlott (1990;359) consider that, “organisational commitment, combined with job related behavioural commitment will result in high employee satisfaction, high performance, longer tenure and a willingness to accept change”. On the other hand, Randall (1987) argues that employees who are totally absorbed in their organisation’s norms are likely to dislike any changes that lead to variations in these.

Following Legge (1989), Iles et al (1996) argue that there are conflicts between the HRM goals of flexibility and commitment of employees. They suggest that employees who identify strongly with their job and its associated duties may resist some organisational changes relating to their roles at work.

There does appear to be an association between organisational change and employee commitment, but writings dealing explicitly with the issue of how and why change influences employees’ commitment levels has not received the same level of attention. Whilst there are some studies (see chapter four) this area has not been examined sufficiently. Guest (1998a;42) for example states, “there are virtually no published studies showing that any kind of intervention has any kind of impact on levels of commitment to the organisation”. Arguably therefore, the concept of employee commitment is not altogether understood.

Cave (1994) for example notes that there has been significant shifts in the way that work is organised which has shaped employee attitudes and behaviours, accompanied by few follow up studies to evaluate to aftermath of such changes. He asks, “What about the workers?...What is it like to be
on the receiving end of these pressures and changes?...How should we set
about calculating the extent to which these forces contribute positively to
the experience of going to work, or conversely represent a deterioration in
the quality of working life?" (Cave; 1994:44). Hence, consideration of the
role of change and the outcomes for commitment levels of individuals’ after
experience of change is important.
Thus, organisations that implement changes do need to take into account
the attitudes of their organisational members if they want to be successful in
sustaining employee commitment levels thereafter. Indeed, “the search for
a committed workforce is still a priority for many companies”
(Guest; 1998a:47). As such, this study commences with an exploratory
investigation. A questionnaire was developed and administered nationally
to employers to research some of the claims and issues discussed above.

3.4 Nature and purpose of undertaking exploratory research

The purpose of undertaking a national questionnaire to commence the
investigation about employee commitment and organisational change was
threefold. Firstly, to establish the nature and understanding of employee
commitment in a variety of UK organisations from a practitioner’s
perspective, including how employers conceptualise and measure
commitment. This is important since to date, practitioners and academics
are reliant on HRM rhetoric to understand employee commitment rather
than managerial perspectives of the construct.

Secondly to provide insight into the types of changes that are occurring in
contemporary UK organisations and thirdly, to generate some
understanding as to the likely impact of such changes’ on levels of
employee commitment. Thus, it was considered that these elements would
assist in establishing the extent to which research in this area merits further
investigation.
3.5 Methodology

This part of the study used a quantitative approach and employed a mailed self completion questionnaire distributed to named HR managers in a variety of UK organisations. Individuals functioning within this capacity were chosen as the target group since employee commitment features heavily in HR models (as discussed in chapter one).

The use of postal questionnaires were considered the most appropriate in which to collect comparative data from a wide audience relatively inexpensively. Moreover, questionnaires are cost effective to analyse, usually by means of a statistical package (Oppenheim; 1992).

3.5.1 Questionnaire design

The questionnaire was split into three parts. Section one dealt with organisational details to enable sample composition and the analysis of the data to be contextualised. Section two requested an organisation's perspective of employee commitment (as far as is possible via the respondent). It assessed the level of importance attached to committed employees; requested respondents to draw from their knowledge in the area of human resources to indicate the policies and practices utilised by their organisations to foster commitment amongst the workforce; it identified with whom implementation and maintenance of employee commitment within the organisation currently lies, and possible disadvantages to organisations of having committed employees.

Section three required the personal viewpoint of the respondent. It asked employers how they distinguish committed employees from non committed individuals at work and required them to indicate the best methods to measure commitment amongst employees in their organisation. It also attempted to establish the extent to which they consider their role to be in
implementing and maintaining commitment amongst employees. Furthermore, it sought to establish who, in their opinion, should be responsible for generating and sustaining commitment in their organisation.

The issue of organisational change was then addressed. Firstly, practitioners were asked to indicate which, of a variety of organisational changes, have been introduced in their organisation over the last five years. Secondly, respondents were requested to indicate how the changes experienced by their organisation have, in their opinion, impacted on employee commitment levels.

The time scale of five years was appropriated by examining the literature in the area of organisational change (see Schaffer and Thomson; 1992) and business cycle indicators (see Oppenlander; 1997, Birley and Muzyka; 1997). This suggests that organisations undertake changes between two to five years. Similarly, Pedler et al (1997) citing Pascale (1990), note that five years after the publication of Peters and Waterman’s (1982) In Search of Excellence, “two thirds of the companies studied had slipped from the pinnacle” (Pascale; 1990; 11). This evidence, coupled with the piloting of the questionnaire with trainee managers (see point 3.5.2) revealed that many of the changes under examination had occurred in the organisations during the early to mid 1990’s, making the time span of five years applicable for this type of survey.

The majority of questions were presented in closed format, requiring the respondent to make an informed choice between alternatives, although space for additional comments was made available at the end of the questionnaire. This is used to compliment the quantitative analysis and/or provide explanations for any disparity or unusual response patterns (for example; bi-modal) that may emerge from examination of the quantitative data.
3.5.2 Pre-testing the questionnaire

Questionnaire piloting was conducted over two days with a sample of individuals that were representative (as close as practically possible) to the main sample. They consisted of two groups of a total of thirty five trainee HR managers studying on the Institute of Personnel Development Course at the University of Luton. These trainee managers were from a variety of organisations, (albeit locally, not nationally).

Following feedback from the first group, some amendments were made to simplify the questioning approach undertaken and some re-arrangement of question order took place. Following these amendments, the questionnaire was re-piloted with the second group and this resulted in its approval. Comments from both groups were used in developing the questionnaire's instructions. Appendix 3 presents a copy of the questionnaire.

3.5.3 Sampling frame and target audience

The sample used was drawn from a nation-wide database held by a local company specialising in producing detailed labels for mail shots. An entirely random selection of company types and sizes was bought, since the study required a cross section of organisation perspectives. Whilst it was considered that this would make the study's findings very general, it was necessary in order to capture a diverse range of opinion. Due to the nature of the database, there is a predominance of private sector and manufacturing organisations. This was seen as an advantage, as much of the work on commitment in the UK has focused on blue collar workers located in the private sector, manufacturing industry (see for example; Cook and Wall;1980;1981).
Three hundred questionnaires were distributed in total. Since the survey was designed for exploratory purposes, rather than statistical representativeness, this was considered a suitable number in which to adequately identify the changes occurring in contemporary organisations and provide an understanding of the impact of such changes on employee commitment levels within an acceptable cost framework. Employers were given a three week time period in which to complete and return the questionnaire, after which a follow up procedure was adopted with a two week deadline.

3.5.4 Response rates

To maximise response rates following the initial distribution of the questionnaire, guidelines to assist in increasing response rates were adopted from authors in the social sciences (for example; Oppenheim, 1992 and Schmitt and Klimoski, 1991, Selltiz et al., 1973). Firstly, the names of respective HR managers were printed on mailing labels to provide a more personalised approach (Selltiz et al., 1973). Secondly, a full explanatory letter accompanied the questionnaire, (detailing its purpose and outlining how the data provided would be used) and a self addressed, freepost envelope was also provided. Ethical guidelines were also considered, namely the confidentiality of all individual questionnaires was guaranteed and the identification of all organisations would not be revealed in any publication arising from the research. Moreover, a synopsis of the general responses was available on request.

Schmitt and Klimoski (1991), suggest that follow up procedures are often undertaken with postal questionnaires to optimise response rates. In anticipation that a follow up procedure should be necessary, each questionnaire was numbered, such that it could be traced back to the corresponding organisation if required. Hence, those organisations which
did not respond following the initial distribution could be identified and questionnaires could be re-distributed to them. Table 3-1 indicates that sixty nine were returned in the three week period and a further twenty seven after the follow up. Thus, a total of ninety seven responses were received, a highly satisfactory 32% overall response rate for a postal survey.

Table 3-1 Questionnaire response rates

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Total number distributed</th>
<th>Total returned (prior to follow up procedure)</th>
<th>Total returned (after follow up procedure)</th>
<th>Number spoilt</th>
<th>% of the total used</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>300</td>
<td>69</td>
<td>97</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>32%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

3.5.5 Questionnaire analysis

The Statistical Package for Social Scientists (or SPSS) was used to analyse the questionnaire data. Since the purpose of this survey is exploratory, the statistics presented are descriptive. Following Tukey (1977) and Coolican (1994;217), the aim is to present the data in a “visually meaningful way whilst retaining as much as possible of the original information”.

3.6 Findings

The findings section is split into three parts (not necessarily presented in the order as the questions on the questionnaire). The first part attempts to gain an insight into the practitioner’s understanding of the meaning of commitment and the importance and responsibility attached to it by their organisation. The second part is concerned with employer perspectives of the methods currently used to measure commitment and how, in their opinion, this can ‘best’ be measured. The third and final part is devoted to employee commitment and organisational change. It presents the
respondent's view of the types of changes that have occurred in their organisation and their perceived impact on levels of employee commitment.

3.7 Sample composition

3.7.1 Organisation information

Clearly, the results in Figure 3-1 show that the majority of usable questionnaires were returned from UK manufacturing enterprises, followed by 'other' organisations in the private sector, which broadly included; aircraft maintenance, industrial services, hotels, logistics, removals and distribution and computing services.

Figure 3-1

![Industry type chart]

Whilst it is recognised that these two sectors are over represented by the survey responses and that the findings themselves should therefore be considered in their entirety, rather than generalised to the wider industries of the UK, that the study does represent a more meaningful comparative baseline given that other commitment studies have been set within this
context. For example; the BOCS was originally designed for and tested with blue collar workers (see Cook and Wall; 1980).

Table 3-2 shows that the size of the organisations participating in this study were determined by the number of employees at each of the organisation’s surveyed. Similarly, definitions from the European Commission (in Storey; 1994), which have coined the terms, ‘small and medium enterprises’ and are also based solely on the workforce count and these were used to categorise the size of the organisations taking part in this study.

Unlike the EC definitions however, which recognises micro firms (as having 0-9 employees), these were omitted from the current research to ensure sampling frame accuracy (i.e. the data base company from which labels were bought could not guarantee that this sector would be properly represented). The next cut-point of the European Commission is 500, above which an organisation is considered ‘large’. This study’s sample contains 51% under 250 employees and a further 24% under 500. Thus, only 24% of the sample are large organisations, giving an adequate representation of small and medium enterprises (SMEs).

Table 3-2 Number of employees as determined by organisational size

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Number of employees</th>
<th>Organisation size</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1-249</td>
<td>Small</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>250-499</td>
<td>Small - medium</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>500-999</td>
<td>Medium</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1000-4999</td>
<td>Medium - large</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5000-9999</td>
<td>Large</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10,000+</td>
<td>Very large</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Figure 3-2 illustrates that the majority of participants represented small and medium sized organisations.
Table 3-3 shows that 73% of respondents' function within the HR/Personnel department and/or Training and Development. This suggests that the questionnaire had been reached and completed by respondents whom, at the outset of the project, had been cited as the most preferable target group for participation (as discussed in section 3.5). The remaining 22% of (or 21) respondent's indicated that they work in 'another' department, (perhaps because there was no designated HR specialist at these organisations). Such respondents were requested to provide their job titles, all of which had managerial status. Their titles included; managing directors, general managers, accountants, financiers and quality strategists, and so are in a sufficiently senior position to offer their view.

Table 3-3  Departmental locale of sample

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Respondents' department</th>
<th>Percentage of the total sample</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>HRM/Personnel</td>
<td>70.1%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Development and training</td>
<td>3.1%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other</td>
<td>21.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Missing</td>
<td>5.1%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
3.8 Understanding employee commitment

3.8.1 Employee and organisational importance attached to commitment

The first analysis requested employers to assess the level of importance of employee commitment in their organisation from an employee and an employer perspective. Should commitment be considered unimportant (by either party) this would undermine any subsequent analysis or conclusions.

All respondents indicated that their organisation does view employee commitment with a high degree of importance, although the majority suggested that it is not the most important corporate issue (as illustrated in Table 3-4). No respondents indicated that employee commitment is either an “unimportant” issue or “not very important”.

Similarly, employers indicated that, in their opinion, employees in their organisations also consider that employee commitment is important. However, Table 3-4 shows that respondents suggest commitment to be more important than they consider the workforce do.

Table 3-4 The importance of employee commitment

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Your organisation views employee commitment as:</th>
<th>Employees in your organisation view employee commitment as:</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Count</td>
<td>% of the sample</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Most important issue</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A very important issue</td>
<td>70</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Important</td>
<td>17</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Not very important</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Unimportant</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Do not know</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Wilcoxon Matched-Pairs Signed-Ranks Test, \( Z = -6.2711 \), 2-Tailed \( P = 0.0000 \)

68
3.8.2 Developing perspectives of employee commitment

The literature review presented in chapter two revealed that commitment is multidimensional, understood by several alternative perspectives. Hence, the following section explores respondents' understanding of the nature of employee commitment. However, given that certain academic definitions of commitment are not readily transferred into direct questions (e.g. side bet theory) a variety of questions are posed in a variety of formats from which the relative prominence of the alternative interpretations is inferred.

Participants’ were asked to indicate up to five ways (from nine options) in which committed employees could be distinguished from non-committed ones. Given the multiple response requested and some non- or incomplete responses, values above about 50 are considered preferable.

Table 3-5  Distinguishing between committed and non committed employees

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Possible answers:</th>
<th>Count</th>
<th>% of cases</th>
<th>% of responses</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Attitude</td>
<td>94</td>
<td>96.9</td>
<td>24.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>General behaviour</td>
<td>69</td>
<td>71.1</td>
<td>17.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Demonstration of job satisfaction</td>
<td>64</td>
<td>66.0</td>
<td>16.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Attendance record</td>
<td>63</td>
<td>64.9</td>
<td>16.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Promotion seeking within the organisation</td>
<td>38</td>
<td>39.2</td>
<td>9.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Amount of extra unpaid hours worked</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>29.9</td>
<td>7.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Length of service</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>23.7</td>
<td>5.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Employment seeking outside the organisation</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>6.2</td>
<td>1.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Amount of paid overtime</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2.1</td>
<td>0.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Do not know/other</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2.1</td>
<td>0.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total responses</td>
<td>390</td>
<td>402.1</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The results in Table 3-5 identify four main characteristics which employers cite enabling a committed individual to be differentiated from a non-committed employee within the workplace. Firstly, employee attitude is the most common. Attendance comes out as an important factor on the behavioural side, as does 'general' behaviour at work. Other behavioural traits are indicated, namely promotion seeking within the organisation and amount of unpaid hours worked. Employment seeking outside the organisation, (which notably obtained a count of only two), is more in keeping with normative and calculative theories.

3.8.3 The importance of the identification element in understanding employee commitment

Wiener (1982) points out that, "some writers equate identification with organisation commitment". He refers largely to writers in the area of attitudinal commitment, (Hall and Scheinder;1972, Porter et al;1974 and Steers;1977) for which identification is a one of three major components. In order to find out the level of importance attached to the identification approach by employers, Porter et al’s (1974) elements of attitudinal commitment were segregated and presented separately, together with one statement expressing the behavioural view of commitment (see Table 3-6). Respondents were requested to rank each of these in terms of importance (1= most important).

Table 3-6 Components of employee commitment definitions

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Statement</th>
<th>Mean Rank</th>
<th>Median/Mode</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Individuals who exert effort to enable the organisation to accomplish its goals and values (involvement)</td>
<td>1.62</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Individuals who identify with the goals and values of the organisation (identification)</td>
<td>2.10</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Individuals who are loyal to and wish to remain with their organisation (loyalty)</td>
<td>2.58</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Individuals who see the organisation as their best bet and wish to stay (calculative commitment)</td>
<td>3.70</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Friedman Two-Way Anova: Chi-Square 133, D.F. 3, Significance .000
Table 3-6 illustrates that employee involvement emerged as the most favourable element of Porter et al’s (1974) definition of attitudinal commitment. Hence it is the most preferred element of commitment according to the employers surveyed. Employee identification with organisational goals and values and employee loyalty were second and third respectively. However, one manager commented that in dealing with employee commitment, the notion of identification, “cannot be understated since commitment towards the organisation, means total absorption of our company’s goals and values”. Behavioural commitment was ranked least important (out of the four possible choices) by respondents.

Thus, it appears that practitioners associate highly with the attitudinal elements of commitment (Table 3-5) and this is further supported by evidence in Table 3-6.

Further pursuing the importance of employee identification to the organisations surveyed, respondents were also asked to indicate the extent to which they agree or disagree that an employee who does not identify with goals and values of the organisation can nevertheless still be committed.

Figure 3-3 shows an almost identical number of respondents agreed as disagreed with this statement. This bi-modal response pattern illustrates that there is no uniform consensus and thus, it is difficult to be certain of the extent to which employee identification with goals and values is important to employers’ perception of employee commitment.
An employee who does not identify with goals and of the organisation, can still be committed

Scale of agreement - disagreement

Whilst Figure 3-3 has examined the importance of the identification element of attitudinal commitment definition to employers, Figure 3-4 seeks to ascertain whether or not employees that are not committed to the organisation (that is, do not exemplify any of the characteristics comprising attitudinal commitment, i.e. identification, involvement and loyalty) can nevertheless still benefit it.

Non committed employees can benefit the organisation

Scale of agreement - disagreement

72
Figure 3-4 indicates that more respondents agree that non committed employees can benefit the organisation, than disagree or are impartial. Although it is evident that this result does demonstrate more of an incline towards agreement, this far from unanimous.

### 3.9 Employee commitment as a unitarist construct

Chapter two has argued that employee commitment is regarded largely as a unitarist construct (Guest;1995 and Walton;1985b) where identification between organisation and individual goals is paramount in determining organisational success (Guest;1987). The concept of unity suggests that employees are analogous to the organisation's thinking, striving jointly towards common goals (Fox;1966).

Figure 3-5 however, indicates that employers accept that their employees express opinions contrary to organisational thinking that are useful in decision making. Although Figure 3-5, in itself, does not claim to suggest that varied opinions cannot form part of the unitarist construct, the graph does provide an indication that employers are aware that their employees hold a range of values and beliefs that may not be analogous with the organisation's. This finding can perhaps be explained by some of the literature in the area which suggest that some employees' are members of more than one group within the organisation. Such groups may have different, perhaps conflicting goals to that of the organisation (Reichers;1985).
Figure 3-5

Committed employees sometimes express useful opinions contrary to the organisation's

3.10 Responsibility for employee commitment

Identifying with whom in the organisation current responsibility for implementing and maintaining commitment amongst the workforce lies with, respondents indicated several organisational groups. The most frequently cited being 'all management to a certain extent' and 'senior management' (as shown in Figure 3-6). Only 4% of responses outlined that the function of human resource management/personnel has current responsibility for the upkeep of employee commitment in their organisation.

These findings are compatible with Guest’s (1998a) acknowledgement that HRM advocates are giving more responsibility for managing human resources to other managers, and in this research, to senior managers as well. This underlines the necessity for senior management support in obtaining and maintaining commitment towards the organisation from employees.
A comparison of the responses presented in Figure 3-6 with those in Figure 3-7 indicates that there are notable differences between with whom responsibility for employee commitment currently lies with and who respondents’ think it should lie with.
Comparisons between the graphs suggest the following:

Whilst 77% of respondents indicated that management (i.e. senior, middle, line and all management to a certain extent) are currently responsible for employee commitment, only 65% suggested that these groups should be responsible.

Moreover, Figure 3-6 shows that 18% of respondents stated that management and staff alike are currently responsible for commitment, however, almost twice as many (35%) in Figure 3-7 suggest that these groups should be responsible. This increase of nearly 100% suggests that employers consider that employees themselves, should take more responsibility in maintaining their own commitment levels.

As in Figure 3-6, where the role of HR failed to feature significantly in taking responsibility for commitment, it did not emerge at all in Figure 3-7. Given the background information to this study shows that 73% of respondents claim to work in the HRM or training department, it is argued on the basis of this evidence, that in reality the role of the HR function in maintaining employee commitment is limited. Indeed, when taken together, the results in Figure 3-6 and Figure 3-7 support the supposition that the role of HR is in advising the function of line management (Guest;1998a).

Conversely, however, when asked to indicate the extent to which respondents’ perceive that they have a personal role to play in creating and up-keeping commitment levels amongst employees, 39% suggested that it was ‘one of their key management tasks’ whilst 44% stated that it is ‘one of their many responsibilities’ (see Figure 3-8).
This apparent discrepancy may be interpreted as confirmation that, participants, as managers confirm the importance of engendering commitment of their own staff, whereas their role as HRM professionals is not to be responsible for the commitment of the staff of other managers. Rather, it appears that commitment may be a policy of the HR function, rather than a function of it.

3.11 Policies and practices used to evoke employee commitment

In determining the importance of policies and practices used in organisations to encourage employee commitment, respondents were required to rank (in order of importance) those that their organisation currently utilises. Thus, the number of responses ranked is dependent on the policies used by the organisation and hence the value of 1 indicates the most important, (or first).
Table 3-7 presents the top and bottom responses in ranked order (first, second, third, etc.). This has been determined by the count, (i.e. the number of times a variable has been indicated) and the three measures of central tendency, the arithmetic mean, median and mode which are also shown. In interpreting the results therefore, the rule of thumb is that the higher the count, the more respondents have indicated that the policy is used by their organisation to elicit commitment. The lower the value of mean, median and mode, the greater the importance attached to the response.

Table 3-7. Policies currently used by organisations to encourage employee commitment

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Response</th>
<th>Overall ranking</th>
<th>Count</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Median</th>
<th>Mode</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Top answers</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Training and development</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>77</td>
<td>2.4</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>An emphasis on team building</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>2.7</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Continuous improvement schemes</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>47</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>2*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Team meetings</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>54</td>
<td>3.3</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Bottom answers</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Flexible working hours</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>6.3</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Job rotation</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>6.2</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Non compulsory redundancy policy</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>7.9</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>12</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* Multiple modes exist. The smallest modal value is shown.

Notably, however, there are fourteen possible response categories on the questionnaire, but due to extremely low counts, the categories “do not know” and “other” are excluded for the purposes of this analysis and therefore the policy least used to evoke commitment is ranked out of twelve.

Table 3-7 shows that 77% of respondent’s have indicated that their organisation utilises training and development as a tool to encourage employee commitment. An emphasis on team building and continuous
improvement schemes also received high counts, indicating that they are amongst the most commonly used policies to bring about commitment in the UK organisations surveyed. Similarly, these variables have very low modes and hence are indicated as the main policies and practices by the employers who use them. Conversely, non compulsory redundancy policies are indicated as the least important variable. This is illustrated by the highest ranking determined by a high mean, median and a mode of twelve (which indicates it has been ranked last by respondents who have it in place).

Thus, it appears that training and development is most likely utilised to encourage employee commitment towards the organisation amongst those surveyed. Human resource management writers (for example; Ashton and Felstead; 1995 and Beardwell and Holden; 1994) note that the HR function is largely responsible for employee training and development. However, Figure 3-6 (shown earlier) indicated that respondents perceive that all management and senior management are responsible for commitment.

Thus, when taken together, the responses in Figure 3-6 and Table 3-7 fail to provide an comprehensive explanation of with whom responsibility for employee commitment really lies.

### 3.12 Measuring employee commitment

Attitudinal scales, presented in questionnaire format, like that of the Organisational Commitment Questionnaire (OCQ) and the British Organisational Commitment Scale (BOCS) have become popular instruments used by academics to measure the construct.

Whilst it is accepted that these scales are widely used in academic studies about employee commitment, little is known about the mechanisms used by employers in UK organisations to measure levels of commitment towards
their organisation. Thus, in order to find out if practitioner and academic perspectives of measuring commitment are compatible, and to determine the extent to which attitudinal scales of measurement are recognised and accepted by employers, respondents were asked to rank, in order of importance (where 1 = most important), the number of formal mechanisms used by their organisation to measure employee commitment levels. They were further asked to indicate their perception of what constitutes the 'best methods'. Thus, any disparity between the results of these two questions would indicate employers' understanding of 'best practice' if it differs from current practice. The combined top answers are shown in Table 3-8.

Table 3-8 Formal mechanisms used by employers to measure employee commitment and employers' perception of the best methods

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Response</th>
<th>Mechanism Used</th>
<th>Best Method</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Rank</td>
<td>Count</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Regular group meetings with management and staff</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>59</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Appraisal</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>57</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Management by walking around</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>54</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Meetings with individual employees</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>40</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Examining absentee levels</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>42</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* Tied rank

Overall rankings were determined by the number of times a variable has been indicated (count) and two measures of central tendency, the mean and median rank. In interpreting the results, the rule of thumb is that, the higher the count, the more respondents have indicated that the policy is used by their organisation to elicit commitment. The lower the value of mean and median, the greater the importance attached to the response. Where there is not a clear sequence a tied rank is indicated.
The results show a clear consensus between the formal methods used to measure commitment and employers' perception of the best methods. In other words, it is evident that employers' regard those they currently use are by and large the best and do not need to be replaced by other forms of measurement.

Table 3-8 illustrates that regular group and individual meetings between management and employees, staff appraisal and management by walking around are the most popular mechanisms used by participating UK organisations to measure employee commitment levels. Such measures are described as 'soft' and 'haphazard', rather than consistent, because they are subject to interpretation. There is only one method cited that approximates to anything systematic and that is the monitoring of absentee levels. While this is associated with attitudinal commitment (Mowday et al;1982) it is a consequence or outcome rather than a measure of the construct.

Other response alternatives offered to respondents included anonymous questionnaires and surveys, but these scored low counts of 24 and 19 respectively for current use. Interestingly 19 other respondents indicated that they made no formal measurement attempts. In terms of 'best' methods, anonymous questionnaires and questionnaires received slightly higher counts of 29 and 21 respectively. However, this indicates that practitioners do not consider them to be particularly preferable methods of measuring commitment in relation to group meetings, appraisal, individual meetings, management by walking about.

Thus, while some managers do recognise the value of structured measurement, the majority do not, preferring not to utilise objective scales, and rely more on the subjective techniques like management by walking about. On the one hand, this result highlights a need for practitioners to be aware of, and accept the advantages of, attitudinal questionnaires like the OCQ and BOCS. Alternatively, there may be some credence in evaluating
commitment by interpretativist methods, providing academics with food for thought.

3.13 Organisational change and employee commitment

In establishing the types of changes that have occurred in UK enterprises as well as the extent to which such changes have had an impact on employee commitment levels, respondents were firstly asked to indicate which changes had occurred in their respective organisations (within the past five years), and secondly, suggest how, in their opinion, these had impacted on the commitment levels of employees.

Table 3-9 indicates that 94% of respondents have cited changes in employees’ amount of pay have occurred. Notably, over three quarters of these employers (68%) indicated that in their opinion, this change has not altered the levels of employee commitment demonstrated to their organisation.

Table 3-9 Changes occurred in respondents' organisations and their likely impact on employee commitment levels

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Change</th>
<th>% of respondents indicating change HAS been experienced in their organisation</th>
<th>Employee commitment levels have increased</th>
<th>Employee commitment levels are unchanged</th>
<th>Employee commitment levels have decreased</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Pay settlements</td>
<td>94%</td>
<td>23%</td>
<td>68%</td>
<td>9%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Organisational restructuring</td>
<td>82%</td>
<td>43%</td>
<td>15%</td>
<td>42%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Redundancies</td>
<td>68%</td>
<td>48%</td>
<td>38%</td>
<td>14%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Culture change</td>
<td>68%</td>
<td>70%</td>
<td>12%</td>
<td>18%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Technological change</td>
<td>75%</td>
<td>52%</td>
<td>38%</td>
<td>10%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Furthermore, the majority of the remainder (23%) indicated that as a result of pay changes, employee commitment levels had, in their opinion, altered favourably towards the organisation.
The second most experienced change undergone in the organisations participating with this research highlighted organisational restructuring. Unlike changes in pay, employers' perspective of how restructuring has impacted on employees' commitment, suggests a split between decline and increase, with a minority of 15% indicating no change to commitment levels in their view. Clear disparity here suggests that more research addressing the area of organisational restructuring is required in order to develop an understanding of why this result may have occurred. One likely supposition is that this may be unique to the organisation's restructuring programme.

68% of those participating in the questionnaire acknowledged that their organisation had experienced redundancies, and the same amount, changes in culture. Interestingly, employers report that the commitment of survivors following a redundancy situation at their organisation, has either increased (48%) or unaffected employee commitment levels (38%). With regard to culture change however, a dissimilar pattern of responses is presented. 70% of respondents regarded that this has led to an increase in the number of positively disposed attitudes of commitment towards the organisation.

Moreover, by examination of the overall picture of responses provided in Table 3-9, it is evident that employers consider that change in an organisation's culture leads to more increased commitment levels amongst employees in relation to any of the other changes reportedly experienced, perhaps because this was an aim of the culture change.

Finally, 75% of employers indicate that their organisation has undergone changes in technology. The majority report that these have increased commitment towards the organisation from employees (52%) or unaffected their levels of commitment (38%).
3.14 Preferences of employee commitment

Throughout the commitment literature, employee commitment has been positively associated with tenure (Guest;1987, Mowday et al 1982; Reichers;1985). However, change is a frequent feature of modern organisations and employers can no longer guarantee long term employment (Hirsch;1987). In light of this, it was considered that managers would indicate a preference for employees committed to a changing organisation over those who are committed to long tenure. Indeed, support was obtained for this. Figure 3-9 illustrates an overwhelming 75 respondents (or 77%) indicated that they agreed or strongly agreed that employees committed to a changing organisation are more valuable than employee's committed to sustaining long service with their employing organisation. This response is consistent with the literature on the subject (discussed in section 3.3).

Figure 3-9

Commitment to a changing organisation over commitment to long tenure

Scale of agreement - disagreement
3.15 Possible disadvantages to having committed employees

Employee commitment has been identified by employers as an 'important issue' to organisations and to employees. However, 45% of respondents have suggested that there are some disadvantages to having committed employees (whereas 55% respondents suggested no disadvantages).

By examining Table 3-10, it is noted that the most frequently cited disadvantage is that committed employees may be 'resistant to organisational change'. Indeed, this result supports Randall's (1987) suggestion that if individuals become highly committed to corporate norms, "...resistance to change may result". Moreover, within the literature, there is evidence that those who are strongly committed may lack creative problem solving.

In the space made available for additional comments on the questionnaire, one manager added, that in his/her organisation, adaptation to the organisation after changes had been introduced, is most apparent amongst long serving employees since "...they are more stuck in their ways and less innovative. We therefore tend to recruit dynamic people...who admittedly are usually youngsters...I find that they are more adaptable and able to fit within our organisation. We are changing all the time and they provide the new ideas required and the competence to carry them out...In my experience, its the youngsters who tend to contribute more to creating an environment breeding innovation, moving forward. This is what our business thrives on".

Finally, other comments provided by respondents' (in the additional comments section on the questionnaire) have been used to enrich and illustrate in more depth the quantitative analysis presented. These are discussed below.
Table 3-10 Questionnaire response categories

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Possible disadvantages to having committed employees</th>
<th>Count</th>
<th>% of sample</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>It is difficult to make them redundant</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>9%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The costs involved in maintaining committed employees is a possible disadvantage</td>
<td>8*</td>
<td>8%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>They may be resistant to organisational change</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>28%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>There are no disadvantages to having committed employees</td>
<td>53</td>
<td>55%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* 3 respondents specified training and development as this cost

Several respondents suggest that, in their experience of working in organisations that have undergone changes, (such as those included in this survey) it is often the manner in which change is regarded by employees (i.e. personal and work related variables) and the way it is implemented (i.e. the change process), rather than the change itself, that can have the most dramatic impact on employees’ commitment.

One manager with personnel responsibility suggested, “Employees respond differently, depending on who they are. As a manager, I am aware of the team’s personal attributes. Some just accept the changes we have brought in as part of their job. They have families to look after, so they are more likely to just get on”. Another respondent, a managing director, considered, “We have a very harmonious culture here, probably because many of our employees are from the local community and have the same values. When we change something, we let our people know about it, we talk to them and ask them what they think. It’s a reassuring process and that is what they value about us. Other organisations may do something different, but it’s what we find works best here”.

Finally, a manager working in the HR department highlighted the importance of the process of change, “...our people realise that sometimes we have to make necessary changes in order to keep the business running...it is often not the changes that we make that they react to, but the
way in which they are made...we have a variety of different management styles and admittedly this sometimes causes problems with communication”.

From these comments, it is clear that changes to UK organisations, (such as those in Table 3-9), can change employee commitment. Indeed, managers’ have suggested that the process by which an organisation implements change, together with the employees’ personal and work related characteristics may have important implications for the way change is received and subsequent commitment levels shaped. Drawing from relevant literature in these two areas, these perspectives are further developed in chapter four.

3.16 Conclusions

This study sought to determine the nature of employee commitment in UK organisations from an employer’s perspective. It drew from their knowledge and understanding of the concept and the mechanisms used by their organisations to measure this. Moreover, it identified the types of changes that have been experienced by employees in the organisations participating in the study and furthermore, provided an insight into the impact of such changes’ on levels of employee commitment, again via employers. The study therefore is regarded as a preliminary investigation, undertaken to establish; firstly, if research in this area can appropriately be developed, and secondly, if so, the extent and depth of the subsequent study.

It is clearly evident that importance is attached to employee commitment by both employees and organisations, although divergent results have emerged regarding the issue of responsibility for ensuring commitment in the organisation. In short, the evidence indicates, ‘all management to a certain extent’ and ‘senior management’ are currently the groups most involved in
building and sustaining a committed workforce. When taken together, however, the collective responses suggest that employees should be more accountable for their own levels of commitment in the future.

The findings also indicate that it is difficult to be clear about the responsibility HR managers have in the upkeep of employee commitment in their organisation, since respondents illustrated that the function of HR was not currently responsible for securing commitment in their organisation. Neither did respondents consider that human resource managers should be responsible for employee commitment. In contrast, however, 84% of respondents indicated that implementing and maintaining commitment amongst employees is a necessary part of their job. In a similar vein, Mabey, Salaman and Storey (1998;1) discussing “the idea of HRM in the distinctive sense,” suggest that the managing of human resources is too important to be left entirely to personnel specialists. Rather “it has to be an activity which is owned by all managers” (Mabey Salaman and Storey;1998;1).

However, there is not enough evidence to conclusively question the role of employee commitment in HR theory, although these findings suggest that there is some ambiguity and confusion as to whether commitment is really rooted in the function of HRM. In order to be clear about this, subsequent research in this area is required if models of HRM featuring commitment are going to be seriously contested.

Dealing with practitioners’ requirement to obtain commitment, the analysis suggests that they have a clear perspective of what employee commitment is and have portrayed a need for attitudinal commitment from employees. However, concerns are raised about how practitioners expect to achieve and measure this and in turn this casts doubts about the knowledge managers really have about the level of employee commitment in their organisation and how to measure it. For example; their collective
responses do not acknowledge widespread use of quantitative instruments, like questionnaires. Nor did the majority of employers cite questionnaires amongst the most preferable measures.

Rather, practitioners placed a high emphasis on communication between themselves and their employees in eliciting and measuring commitment levels. The mechanisms used were identified as regular group meetings, appraisal, management by walking about and meetings with individuals. These were also cited as the most effective methods by which to measure commitment amongst those surveyed.

To some extent therefore, the findings suggest that managers defy objective measurement in evaluating commitment. Subsequently, this suggests two further points. Firstly, it is possible that the respondents are simply unaware of formal measurement scales and their advantages. Secondly, however, the result indicates that commitment may be evaluated by way of subjective techniques. Arguably, these can only really be carried out an experienced personnel executive.

In other words, whilst this finding highlights a need for practitioners to become aware of and accept the advantages of attitudinal scaling, (i.e. BOCS and OCQ) it also suggests that there may be some credence in utilising ‘soft’ techniques to consider commitment. This would provide an alternative method to assessing the concept, and could be extended by academics in the form of ethnographic techniques (i.e. participant observation) which, to date has not been well addressed in the literature.

The acknowledgement by employers that committed employees can be distinguished from non committed colleagues by their attitude is apparent and compatible with the literature on commitment, since Mowday et al’s (1979) definition of the construct (see chapter two) is probably the most orthodox of definitions (Coopey and Hartley;1991, Legge;1995b). Employers also indicated a desire for commitment, although 43%
acknowledged that non-committed employees can also benefit the organisation.

Of those respondents who consider that there are possible disadvantages to having committed employees, 30% cited employee resistance to organisational change, evidence that seems to support suggestions that individuals who identify highly with organisational goals and values are likely to resist changes to these (Coopey and Hartley; 1991, Randall; 1987).

3.16.1 Employee commitment and organisational change

It is clear amongst those organisations responding to the questionnaire, that the majority have undergone most of the changes investigated (for example; technology, payment settlements, restructuring, redundancy and culture change). This is a firm indication that UK manufacturing enterprises have had to deal with such changes to their business.

Moreover, there is overwhelming evidence to show that practitioners express a preference for employees who are committed to a changing organisation, over those committed to long tenure. This finding is illustrative of the changing face of employee commitment, where once employee loyalty was indicative of a committed employee and tenure expectations from employers previously dominated the literature. For example; Mowday et al (1982) reported that if committed employees are desirous of remaining with the organisation, then commitment levels and tenure are likely to be related. Indeed, employee loyalty to the organisation forms an important component of the attitudinal definition of commitment (see chapter two).

Another important finding in the area of change and commitment highlighted in this research, deals with the organisational changes proposed and their impact on commitment levels. All, (with the exception of
payment settlements) were reported to have altered employees' commitment towards their organisation.

Moreover, the findings suggest that the most positive levels of commitment are shown by employees who have experienced changes in their organisation’s culture. Amongst the most popular definitions of corporate culture is provided by Deal and Kennedy (1982;60) who suggest that it is concerned with, “the way we do things around here”. Similarly, Morgan (1986) describes it as the corporate ideology and values, laws and day to day ritual. Taking these definitions, it is inferred that respondents in this study, consider that the most powerful mechanism to promote and sustain commitment is in the way employees are treated at work.

Whilst this assumption is evident in models of HRM that feature commitment (see Beer et al;1984 and Guest;1987) and is therefore not necessarily a new finding, it does reinforce the suggestion that the way in which changes are implemented (i.e. the process of change) may have important implications in determining the outcomes for employee commitment levels. Thus, further investigation, particularly in the area of management style and the strategies used by institutions to bring about organisational changes such as those surveyed here, is merited.

3.17 Limitations of the study and continuation of the research

The questionnaire has provided useful perspectives about employee commitment, successfully identified some popular changes which have been experienced by UK organisations (over the last five years), as well as outlining their likely impact on commitment levels of employees.

Whilst the findings have initiated some important debate on the topic and generated some new discussion in the area, there are some notable limitations. The main one is that of key informant research which underpins
the analysis presented. This concern is addressed in the following section
together with other considerations, including that of generalisability, taking
into account the issue of time and how this piece of research provides an
impetus for further development in the topic area.

Demonstrating a degree of sensitivity to the limitations in this study
provides a context in which to set and interpret the research findings.
Although not unique to organisational based research, key informant
research is an important issue relating to data quality and is a common
concern of quantitatively based studies. Moser and Kalton (1992)
recognise that studies dependent on one individual’s understanding of the
situation may be limiting since the respondent may (or may not) be eager to
present favourable responses for the sake of the organisation and it’s public
image.

This type of study involves one (or more than one) representative to
provide a perspective. By targeting HR managers, it is noted that this
questionnaire relied solely on one informant to adequately present a
corporate view about employee commitment and organisational change.

Postal questionnaires as a means of data collection are commonly used
when carrying out key informant research (Bryman;1989, Moser and
Kalton;1994). However, Bryman (1989) argues that one problem
associated with the postal questionnaire method is that it is difficult for
researchers to be sure whether the person to whom it was sent is the
informant. Clearly this has subsequent issues for comparability. In this
research however, steps were taken to ensure that variability in the status of
the informant was limited. As stated at the outset of the chapter, the
organisational member selected as the key informant in this study was the
HR manager, whom it was considered would be both aware of the main
issues under investigation and be someone of seniority who can present an
organisational perspective. Table 3-3 (presented earlier) shows that this
consideration prior to data collection meant that the required target audience was captured.

HR managers as a target audience were also selected so that a systematic viewpoint would be obtained through their perspective. It was considered that such managers would be well equipped to respond to questions about employee commitment since chapter one has drawn from contemporary models in the area that locate commitment at the heart of human resource management (i.e. Beer et al;1984, Guest;1989). Similarly, Selltiz et al (1973) suggests that it makes good research sense for those who are likely to be interested in the research outcomes, or benefit from the results in some way to participate in the study.

On the issue of validity, some authors writing in the area of key informant research suggest that information gathered by this method should be geared towards factual rather than attitudinal information (Blau et al;1976, Pugh et al;1969). However, comparing many informants' responses about organisational characteristics resulted in Phillips (1981) concluding that there is considerable potential for error even when dealing with data which can be double checked against company facts and figures.

On a similar note, Bryman (1989) also advocates the use of more than one informant to enable comparisons between perspectives, however, this was not deemed necessary in this part of the research. Rather, the purpose of the national questionnaire was to provide an organisational overview of commitment and change. The main advantage of adopting this type of approach, albeit its limitations, is that it provides a cost effective way in which to capture a global perspective of commitment. Taking these arguments, however, an appropriate extension of this type of research would employ a case study based approach which would allow a multiple method, multiple respondent perspective.
Other issues considered include that of generalisations. The findings of the research are not necessarily generalisable to the wider organisational audience situated in the UK, since the majority of the responses were obtained from the manufacturing and private sector (excluding retailing and financial services). In particular, the issue of commitment in UK service organisations appears worthy of detailed examination.

Moreover, due to the research design adopted (namely cross sectional) this has only provided a snapshot, static view from which causality inferences are somewhat tenuous.

The research did not employ a method by which to measure the period of time elapsed between each change being investigated and the employer’s perspective of how this has changed levels of employees’ commitment (an approach more equated with designs conducted over time). Despite this however, the questionnaire has successfully set the scene, although it is clear that subsequent investigation in this area is required if the understanding of the implications of organisational changes on employees’ commitment are to be fully understood.

In particular, such research should focus on the process of organisational change and the antecedents of commitment and their impact on self reported commitment levels of employees. Preferably, this will be achieved by drawing directly from the perspectives of employees and measuring self reported level of commitment by utilising a reliable instrument. This would lead naturally to the decision to engage in case study work, embracing the views of employees who have experienced organisational changes.

To further the depth of analysis provided by the exploratory research presented as stage one, organisations selected as case studies will be situated in the manufacturing and private sector consisting of manual
employees, such that instruments like BOCS, or the OCQ can be used for the specific purpose for which they were originally developed.

3.18 Chapter summary

This chapter commenced by introducing the notion of organisational change within the context of human resource management. Thereafter, it attempted to marry the two theoretical approaches, organisational change and employee commitment together to provide an understanding of this research. Details of the exploratory study were then presented. Whilst the findings of this have successfully facilitated the debate on commitment and change, the chapter concludes with the suggestion that further research is needed in this area if the implications of organisational changes on commitment levels are to be fully understood. The following chapter sets out in detail how such research is developed in this area.
4. CHAPTER FOUR : DEVELOPMENT OF THE RESEARCH FOCUS AND ITS ASSOCIATED IMPLICATIONS FOR THIS STUDY

4.1 Introduction

The previous chapter explored the area of employee commitment and organisational change by gaining contemporary perspectives from employers in organisations situated in the UK. As a result of the complexity of some of the issues emerging from the national survey, this area of research is further developed. The second stage of the study. It firmly focuses on the impact of key organisational changes on commitment levels from an employee perspective, thereby providing a more in-depth analysis of the role that change might play in shaping employee commitment levels. The nature, purpose and direction of stage two occupies the focus of this chapter.

The chapter is split into four parts. The first part commences with a section about the development of the research focus and outlines the purpose of this study. It discusses how the term ‘commitment’ is used throughout the remainder of this dissertation. In short, it acknowledges that attitudinal commitment is the form of commitment adopted. The second part of the chapter presents a literature about the aspects of change under examination, namely the process and antecedents of commitment. After this, the organisational changes under investigation are discussed. These represent the content of change. The third part of the chapter presents and discusses the model developed exclusively for this research. It illustrates the role of organisational change and the possible outcomes for employee commitment levels. The fourth and final part is concerned with measuring commitment. It provides an assessment of the main scales in the area, and from this, the most appropriate instrument for testing commitment in the current research is identified.
4.2 Developing a research focus

Some twenty years ago in the days of commitment scale development, Kotter et al (1979) argued that increasingly managers must ensure that their organisations respond to external forces, (for example: competition; market trends; demands for new or alternative products and services and technological advancements), as well as internal demands and constraints. The authors suggest that few organisational change efforts have been entirely successful, since they often involve emotional upheaval for employees. As a result they claim some organisations often delay much needed change because the managers involved are afraid that they are incapable of successful implementation.

Today the picture remains very much the same with contemporary writers on organisational change also recognising the increasing pressure placed on organisations to respond effectively to changing conditions (see for example Baruch;1998, Carnall;1986, Kanter;1992, Meyer and Allen;1997, Swailes;1992). This raises the question, can employers manage employee commitment adequately after periods of organisational change? Swailes (1995) for example notes that recent changes to business environments and organisational responses to them have altered some of the background assumptions that were once the focus of commitment, namely that job security and promotion were awarded to employees who demonstrate commitment to their employer. Similarly, Zeffane (1994;978) suggests that, “increased complexity of work organisations combined with the significant technological changes that have taken place in recent years, make the notion of commitment especially important”. Iverson (1996) also considers that, that was formerly an expectation shown via employee flexibility, has since become an organisational requirement cultivated by the rising expectations of employers and environmental demands to adapt after change.

The literature about employee commitment demonstrates three main conceptualisations applicable to the organisation (as documented in chapter two). Some contemporary research in the area advocates the use of a multidimensional approach to viewing the construct (Meyer and Allen;1984, Suliman and Iles;1998).
In this sense, its understanding is not limited to a single emotional attachment, obligation, or number of investments/costs of leaving the organisation, but an integration of these. There is evidence that this perspective is gaining credence in the literature (Benkoff;1997, Iles et al;1996, Janos;1997, Meyer and Allen;1997) with such researchers advocating the use of scales to measure, affective, normative and calculative commitment respectively.

However, there is little evidence to suggest that normative and calculative commitment should be measured in light of organisational change. Chapter three shows that managers are most concerned with the impact of change on attitudinal commitment and the characterises shown by employees who demonstrate this, rather than the affects of change on these other types of commitment. An investigation about the impact of changes on employees' affective commitment towards the organisation is most worthy of examination.

The concept of attitudinal commitment has arguably not been developed in line with changes in employees' careers or organisational changes. This criticism is also reflected in the commitment measurement. In particular, Baruch (1998) has analysed the elements of the Organisational Commitment Questionnaire, suggesting that the items do not fit into contemporary organisational life as they fail to take into account the issue of organisational change (see section 4.12). The world of work does appear to be changing in ways that are having implications for the meaning, consequences and development of commitment (Meyer and Allen;1997). Given the increasing demands placed on corporations, some authors suggest that attitudinal commitment may be in crisis (Baruch;1998, Iles et al;1996) with employees being inclined to “...stay for the wrong reasons” (Baruch;1998;137). This evidence suggests that it is timely to seek a fresh view of organisational commitment encompassing the inevitable presence of organisational change. It also highlights the importance associated with the attitudinal concept and suggests that this is even more desirable for employers to achieve, so that they might obtain a competitive edge through their human capability (Meyer and Allen;1997). The challenge to find out if affective attachment exists after change is
important to the function of human resources and human resource management theory.

Attitudinal commitment towards the organisation is typically viewed as a stable construct (see Guest; 1998a, Peccei and Guest; 1993, Tetrick and Farkas; 1988). In the context of the literature, the term 'stable' is used to indicate that commitment is typically rigid, but can also alter gradually over periods of time (see for example; Morris et al; 1993). Coupled with the dynamism of change, however, questions are raised about its stability. Thus, “perhaps the biggest challenge for commitment researchers will be to determine how commitment is affected by the many changes that are occurring in the world of work” (Meyer and Allen; 1997; 114).

The intention of this study is to contribute to the literature in the field of attitudinal commitment by providing an in-depth analysis of the impact of a range of commonly faced organisational changes on self reported levels of employees' commitment. Previous studies in the area of commitment are likely to have inadvertently captured employees' experiences of change, when instruments measuring commitment have been employed in organisations where employees have experienced changed circumstances. However, this has not been brought to the fore in the literature.

In conclusion it is accepted that due to the changing nature of organisations, employee commitment will, “become more important in the future than it was in the past” (Meyer and Allen; 1997; 114). To understand how organisational members react to changes in the workplace, the development of further research in this field is required. This is important because to date, few studies in this area have attempted to explore the area of attitudinal commitment in relation to change sufficiently (Guest; 1998a and Iverson; 1996). This research embraces the attitudinal perspective as the main focus since it is the most important of the commitment conceptualisations.
4.3 Antecedents of commitment

Organisations, by their nature, comprise of different groups of members, differentiated on the basis of their, “power, status, rewards and deprivations, [and] we assume that these distinct groups will have different and potentially conflicting interests [within the organisation]” (Carnall;1986;745). Thus, it is reasonable to consider that employees may exhibit varying concerns and contrasting perspectives about organisational changes as a result. Arguably, therefore, the extent to which any organisational change can shape an individual’s commitment may vary, as change is likely to have an impact on individuals in different ways and to different degrees. It is therefore important for managers to have an understanding of how individuals, differentiated on the basis of their personal characteristics and work related variables, are likely to respond to such changes within the organisational setting. This relationship between commitment levels and these characteristics is considered in this study.

4.3.1 Antecedents of commitment - A review of the literature

To date, there is an abundance of literature examining the demographic and work related variables of individuals and their associations with commitment. Meyer and Allen (1997;42) state, that there are, “literally hundreds of studies that have examined the correlation between affective commitment and variables hypothesised to be its antecedents”. Much of the related research in the area of commitment has been concerned with identifying the background and determinants of the construct (Guest;1992, Mottaz;1988). Mowday et al (1982) for example, have presented an overview of the relationships between the antecedents and the outcomes for commitment (attitudinal and behavioural), based on many studies including:

Personal characteristics (i.e. gender, marital status, education etc); Role related variables (i.e. job scope, role conflict, role ambiguity); Structural correlates of commitment (namely organisational size, worker ownership, centralisation of authority, union presence); Work experience, that is, organisational dependability;
(i.e. the extent to which employees consider the organisation looks after their interests), employee perception of their importance to the organisation, and employee expectations (in particular if employees consider that these are being met by the organisation). Their model is shown as Figure 4-1.

**Figure 4-1 Hypothesised antecedents and outcomes of organisational commitment**

![Diagram showing the hypothesised antecedents and outcomes of organisational commitment.]

Source: Mowday, Steers and Porter (1982;30)

Guest (1992), adds a fifth category of personnel policies (namely that of job security and status) and provides a summary of the range of studies reviewed in these areas. Table 4-1 identifies the main factors shown to be associated with variations in commitment. The causal factors emerging from these studies are presented in italics.

Despite extensive research in this area, little consensus has been reached. Luthans et al (1987), for example found that personal variables do play a significant part in determining commitment levels. Conversely, Oliver (1990) concluded that demographic variables (namely age, tenure, education, salary) had "made little impact on commitment" (Oliver;1990;513).

Thus, when "...taken together, the existing survey data regarding the antecedents or determinants of organisational commitment lack consistency and are confusing..." (Mottaz;1988;469). Reichers (1985;467) for example, has acknowledged that whilst a large amount of work has confounded the antecedents...
of commitment, "...several important classifications of variables have emerged from this stream of research...[although] the antecedents of commitment seem to be...varied and inconsistent".

Table 4-1  Antecedents of high organisational commitment

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Categories</th>
<th>Factors</th>
</tr>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Personal Characteristics</td>
<td>Work Involvement</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Lower education</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Age (older)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Work role</td>
<td>Job Scope/Responsibility</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Opportunity for self expression</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Low role stress</td>
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<tr>
<td>Experiences in the organisation</td>
<td>Confirmed expectations</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Positive Leadership/Supervision</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Commitment Norm</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Feeling socially involved</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Structural characteristics</td>
<td>Scope for Ownership</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Decentralisation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Interdependence within organisation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Personnel policies</td>
<td>Security/Ambiguity to count on organisation</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Guest (1992;119)

Mottaz (1988), despite finding no correlation between personal variables (with the exception of education) and commitment outcomes, suggests that, “one should not conclude...that demographic factors of commitment are of no importance in the analysis of organisational commitment....[Indeed], if one’s purpose is to identify variables that will help predict who will and who will not be committed to the organisation, then demographic variables should be included in the analysis” (Mottaz;1988;479).

Similarly, Meyer et al (1998;29) suggest that the “absence of strong associations between personal characteristics and commitment does not necessarily imply, however, that these characteristics do not play a role in the development of commitment”. Following this, it cannot be ruled out that demographic or work related variables of individuals might emerge as fundamental to the analysis in this research. Other authors have stressed the need for further studies to be conducted...
in this area, for example, Guest (1987;513) states that, “much more research is required before we can have confidence in the impact of these antecedent variables”. The following section addresses some of these key variables.

4.3.2 Gender

In examining the relationships between commitment and gender, Alutto et al (1973), Angle and Perry (1981), Grusky (1966) and Hrebinik and Alutto (1972) found that women demonstrate higher commitment levels than men, perhaps, (according to Grusky;1966), because they have to overcome barriers to obtain their positions. Angle and Perry (1981), on the other hand, have suggested that this is because females enjoy less mobility, and are more restricted to remaining with one organisation. Following Angle and Perry (1981), Hrebinik and Alutto (1972) also concluded that women are less likely than single males to consider moving to other organisations even when given inducements to do so as they “see greater costs attached to inter-organisational mobility” (Hrebinik and Alutto; 1972;562). Although this situation may have changed in recent years.

4.3.3 Marital status

In assessing the relationship between marital status and commitment, research by Hrebinik and Alutto (1972) found that single respondents were positively disposed towards attractive employment alternatives in relation to those married or separated. In particular, they suggest that married women and separated individuals indicate the highest costs with leaving the organisation. Ritzer and Trice (1969) also found that marital status did affect participants’ commitment to the organisation, and that single respondents in their research, “were more favourably disposed to alternative employment situations” (in Alutto et al 1973;452).
4.3.4 Education

Ritzer and Trice (1969) amongst others (for example; Guest;1987, Mottaz;1988, Mowday et al;1982) have suggested that employees’ level of education is * inversely * related to commitment due to the limited number of perceived alternatives amongst lower status employees. White (1987), also found that those who were highly educated were less likely to be committed and he concluded that this was most likely due to the number of perceived alternatives and transferable skills the employee has. Consistent conclusions were also found by Angle and Perry (1981), perhaps because educated individuals are more likely to have higher expectations of their employing organisation that are unfulfilled, and/or are likely to re-direct their organisational commitment to their chosen profession.

4.3.5 Age

Inconclusive findings have emerged between employee age and organisational commitment. Following Becker (1960), age acts as an investment which promotes commitment as it * binds * the individual to the organisation, since it reduces the number of external opportunities available to the employee. Ritzer and Trice (1969), however, found no significant relationship between age and commitment in their study of Becker’s side bet theory amongst personnel managers (N=419).

Conversely, Hrebinjak and Alutto (1972), concluded that employee age does affect the level of employee’s commitment toward the organisation. Moreover, Grusky (1966) and Sheldon (1971) reported a positive correlation between these variables and Alutto et al (1973;450) also concluded that, “organisational commitment is typically greater among older employees than younger persons,” perhaps because younger employees have made fewer investments in the organisation and thus find it easier to leave.
4.3.6 Tenure

Mowday et al (1982) have argued that tenure is one of the strongest predictors of commitment and have suggested a number of reasons for this positive correlation. Firstly, it is likely that employees with longer tenure occupy the most predominate positions in the organisation. Moreover, by remaining with the organisation over lengthy periods, the employee has made a personal investment in his or her time and effort, (consistent with Becker’s; 1960 side bet theory; see chapter two) which is likely to reduce the likelihood of them leaving voluntarily. Additionally an employee’s service length is likely to bring increased social involvement in both the organisation and the community. Mowday et al (1982;66) suggest that, “...for many individuals, work provides a basis upon which social relationships off the job are formed”. Thus, the attachment of an individual with social groups formed by or associated with work interests becomes an investment which encourages the employee to stay, since they would not want to jeopardise these relationships by leaving.

According to Wiener (1982), however, long service alone is not sufficient to assume an employee’s level of commitment. Rather the commitment of individuals can only be assumed when members have opted to remain with their employer despite other offers of employment. He states that, “...when a person persists in staying with an organisation in spite of the availability of better opportunities for himself and his family elsewhere, commitment may be inferred. Merely having a long tenure in the organisation is not sufficient to indicate commitment” (Wiener; 1982;421). In this sense, Becker’s (1960) side bet theory is only an effective instrument of commitment, if perceptions of both the significance and number of side bets can be assessed.

Conversely, Meyer and Allen (1997;44) argue that, “employees need to acquire a certain amount of experience with an organisation to become strongly attached to it, or that long service employees retrospectively develop affective attachment to their organisation (‘I have been here 20 years; I must like it’)”. Alternatively however, the correlation between length of service and affective commitment may
result because employees who do not develop strong affective attachment to the organisation decide not to stay.

Finally, Reichers (1985) argues that a negative correlation found between attitudinal commitment and turnover may be (at least in part) artificially constructed, since measuring techniques like that of the OCQ comprise of items that measure not only affective commitment but an individual’s behavioural intentions, which are "supposed to be part of the results of commitment and not necessarily part of the construct, [thus]...future conceptualisations of commitment need to separate the construct from its effects" (Reichers, 1985; 469).

4.3.7 Union membership

It is anticipated that the higher an individual’s level of organisational commitment, the less enthusiastic he or she is likely to be about trade unionism and militant activity (Farnham and Pimlott, 1990; Guest and Dewe, 1991 and Guest et al., 1993). Guest (1998b; 238) for example; suggests that "...where high organisational commitment is sought, unions are irrelevant".

Following Gordon et al (1980) commitment to a union is understood by the same three elements that underpin attitudinal commitment. Therefore, a key concern is the compatibility of organisation and union goals, since “if they are compatible, then it is possible to display high commitment to both the company and the union. At the same time, it raises fundamental questions about the role of the union and the nature of the values for which is stands” (Guest, 1998b; 240). In light of this, Guest (1998b) questions the extent to which individuals live with their identifications and attachments to groups, which are represented by diverse, and probably conflicting goals.

Commenting on the issue of compatibility and conflicts of commitments, Meyer and Allen (1997;99) suggest that, “the possibility that commitments will come into conflict should not be surprising. Indeed, it would be quite naive to imagine that
the goals and values of the various entities to which people are committed will always be compatible and that the demands of these will never clash”. However, they also note that it does seem quite possible for employees to feel committed to both union and organisation despite these being “potentially incompatible domains” (Meyer and Allen (1997;99).

4.3.8 Dual commitment

Research measuring commitment to union and organisation has only recently been developed in the UK. Drawing from the work of Foulkes (1980), Guest and Dewe (1991) argue that in organisations where there is evidence that a strategic approach to HRM has been adopted, this has successfully challenged the need for a trade union presence. However, in order to fully understand the possible relationships between HRM and industrial relations and the role of trade unions, more research about the concept of commitment and the feasibility of union commitment and dual commitment is required (Guest;1995).

Barling et al (1990), on the other hand have argued that there is evidence to indicate a positive relationship between union and organisational commitment and that, “such a relationship suggests that the two commitment constructs may conceivably share certain common predictors” (Barling et al;1990;50). Using the OCQ, Barling et al (1990) assessed levels of union and organisational commitment amongst white collar employees (N=100) two months after they had participated in a strike. Moreover, during the time of data collection, respondents were still involved in a dispute with management. The results to their study found that predictors of organisational commitment included job satisfaction, organisational climate, and job involvement, (although these only amounted to 17.8% of the total variance).

Tenure to the union however, emerged as the only significant predictor for union commitment measured in the context of their research. Following these findings, Barling et al (1990;49) conclude that the emergence of divergent predictors does
seem to indicate a need for “greater specificity within the literature...[and that future research should]...construct separate models of company and union commitment”.

Guest and Dewe (1991) acknowledge that organisations and unions compete for employee allegiance. They suggest that conventional American studies attempting to measure dual commitment have traditionally employed separate measures of union and organisational commitment, and determined dual commitment on the basis of high employee scores on both.

The Guest and Dewe (1991) study, however, sought to examine levels of dual commitment by surveying respondents’ identification and perception of the management and union role. They have defined it as, “the perception that both management and union decisions reflect a worker’s opinions either very well or fairly well” (Guest and Dewe;1991;81). The authors found that, “those expressing dual commitment or company identification were more satisfied with the scope for involvement....The opposite was true for those displaying union identification or no identification” (Guest and Dewe;1991;91).

Research undertaken by McLoughin and Gourlay (1994), sought to ascertain to what extent an employee’s conscious level of commitment to the values and goals of the organisation should challenge their propensity to join a union. The organisations they chose to concentrate were located in the “high technology sector of the economy [since these are] often associated with many of the exemplars of the non unionist approach” (McLoughin and Gourlay;1994;4).

Their findings showed that identification of an individual with their organisation was correlated with their propensity to become a union member and that, “the less willing employees were to remain a member of the organisation, the more likely they were to show a propensity to join a union. Conversely, the more employees wanted to remain an organisational member, the more likely it was that they exhibited no propensity to join a union” (McLoughin and Gourlay;1994;112). Later discussion about dual commitment by Guest (1998b) identifies the
advantages and disadvantages to organisations of the two bodies working in conjunction. For example; unions are a well established channel for communication to the workforce on issues such as pay. Management are also assisted in the handling of employee issues in the area of grievance, discipline and health and safety. "In its absence, management would need to develop its own alternative which could be both costly and difficult to operate effectively" (Guest;1998b;246). Alternatively, unions are frequently accused of constraining flexibility and productivity. Their presence is particularly detrimental to innovative companies such as those located in the oil industry. Subsequently Guest (1998b) reports that there is evidence that some oil companies have taken steps to limit union involvement. It is suggested however, that limited dual commitment presents challenges for unions. Despite this, "the apparent failure of many companies to generate enthusiastic commitment amongst their workforce suggests that opportunities for unions still exist" (Guest;1998b;242).

In conclusion, this section has identified personal, role related, structural and work experience variables are antecedents to commitment. Some of the personal characteristics were then examined more thoroughly. Following the diverse research in this area, the current study attempts to investigate the associations between a range of demographic and work related variables in the three participating case studies and their outcomes for employee commitment.

4.3.9 Antecedents of commitment measured in this study

The study seeks to measure several demographic variables and their relationship with commitment, thereby seeking to add to the literature in this area. These will include: gender; marital status; number of income dependants; breadwinner status and length of service. The work related variables measured comprise employment status, work area, nature of employment, employment contract, employment hours and union membership.
4.3.10 Union membership in this research

With regard to union membership, it was apparent (prior to embarking on the data collection) that case studies one and two both had a strong union presence. However, whilst it was made known that some employees were union members at case study three, management there refused to recognise any union involvement and would not therefore permit any questioning on this subject. Case study three does have a Works Committee, this is a body of employees representing the collective views of the workforce. However, any reference and assessment of union membership in this study is confined to organisations one and two.

4.4 The process of organisational change

The process of change is concerned with the implementation and the course of action adopted to put organisational changes into place. It therefore has much to do with management style and the strategies used by management to bring about changes in the workplace. Storey (1992;118), states that “change processes can be of equal, if not of greater interest than [the] content”. Despite this, “research examining patterns of employee commitment and their potential ramifications to different management remains limited” (Zeffane;1994;1006). This suggests that there is scope for further investigation about the impact of management style and practices on employee commitment. Likewise Meyer and Allen (1997) suggest that the amount of empirical research conducted to examine employee perceptions of the impact of management practices is scarce.

Studies specifically examining commitment levels after change within various organisational settings, differentiated by the manner in which they elicit change, would be useful “since organisations are undergoing tremendous pressure to change the way they do business to remain competitive. [However], these changes often involve the elimination and reorganisation of jobs that affect employees in various ways, including their commitment” (Meyer and Allen;1997;67).
Some empirical studies conducted in similar areas, i.e. employee perceptions of management style, organisational leadership and management practices and their relationship to commitment can be drawn from in order to provide a foundation to knowledge in this field. The following section addresses such a literature.

4.4.1 The process of change - A review of the literature

Zeffane’s (1994) study examined the affects of managerial style as perceived by employees on the degree of their commitment within the context of differing organisation sizes, amongst Australian individuals (N=1418) situated in both public (N=474) and private (N=944) industries. He also examined tenure and influence of supervisory roles.

In particular, the author hypothesised that employees’ perception of management style can significantly influence the extent of their commitment level to corporate goals and values. He measured employee commitment by use of the OCQ and perceived management style by a ten item scale (five point Likert scale) referred to as “OrgMech” by its developers; Sashkin and Morris (1987;101). The OrgMech instrument places the organisation along the organic-mechanistic dimension and examples of items on the scale include; “this organisation has clear rules and regulations that everyone is expected to follow closely” and “in this organisation the emphasis is on adapting effectively to constant environmental change” (Sashkin and Morris;1987;101). The OrgMech is consistent with the dual character of management styles (i.e. authoritarian and participative) featured in the works of Gonring (1991) and Burns and Stalker (1961). Internal consistency of the scale however, only yielded an alpha of 0.63.

Firstly, Zeffane (1994) identified that public sector employees held the longest length of service out of the two groups. However, on the whole these employees were less committed than those who work in the private sector, perhaps because of the bureaucratic cultures often associated with public sector organisations.
Moreover, regression analysis performed on Zeffane's (1994;991) data revealed that perceived management style accounts for “a substantial amount of the variance on commitment...[and that it is] a more prominent predictor of commitment than any of the demographic (tenure and supervision) and contextual (organisational size) characteristics”. In particular, employees who favour a certain managerial style showed enhanced commitment towards the organisation, “predicated emphasis on flexibility and adaptation seems to be the most predominate predictor of commitment”, especially in the public sector (Zeffane;1994;994).

Thus, in conclusion, perceived management style does seem to impact on levels of employee commitment. This finding is important since it is controllable within organisations, to the extent that management can develop mechanisms to maximise employee efforts in line with organisational objectives. Indeed, Zeffane (1994) supports the HRM view that employee commitment towards goals and values is most likely to be found amongst employees who consider that they are treated as resources to be nurtured, rather than costs to be minimised. Similarly, Meyer and Allen (1997;89) consider that, “employees are more likely to respond in the desired direction (with increased commitment) if they believe that the organisation was responsible for its introduction and considered employees' interests”.

Using the shortened nine item version of the OCQ, amongst shopfloor and office employees (N=496) in a manufacturing company, Gaertner and Nollen (1989) also concluded that commitment was highest amongst employees who “believe that they are being treated as resources to be developed, rather than commodities to buy and sell” (Gaertner and Nollen;1989;987). They found a clear connection between employee perceptions of management practices and commitment, “employee perceptions are important correlates of psychological commitment in this company” (Gaertner and Nollen;1989;987).

Daley (1988) also undertook an examination of employee attitudes towards management practices. He too found that employee commitment was positively affected by favourable perceptions of management.
Extending the works of Bass (1985), Niehoff et al (1990) sought to establish if there is a relationship between management style (namely transactional and transformational as defined by Bass; 1985) and employee commitment. Their study focused on top management, namely the chief executive and board members. The results of Niehoff et al’s (1990) research, set in an insurance company (N=862), provide support for the notion that employee attitudes (including that of employee commitment) are strongly associated with the actions of top management. Niehoff et al (1990) concluded that organisations can be greatly improved if senior managers place more emphasis on corporate values, organisational philosophy and in-house culture.

It is evident that a strong organisational culture, managerial style, as perceived by employees, management behaviour and leadership leads to positive outcomes for employee commitment. Indeed, this was a key finding in stage one of this research (see chapter three). Meyer and Allen (1997;66) also suggest that those employees “who believe that their organisation is supportive tend to become affectively committed”. This suggests that organisations which win the hearts and minds of employees after change will be successful in maintaining attitudinal commitment. Contrary findings however, about management style and levels of employee commitment are also evident. For example; Michaels et al’s (1988) found a positive correlation between greater formalisation and organisational commitment.

These authors hypothesised that explicit organisational rules and policies clarify individual role expectations and thus reduce role ambiguity. Similarly, discussion about role ambiguity provided by Meyer and Allen (1997) suggests that supportiveness and fairness are two key variables related to affective commitment, and “by failing to make expectations clear...the organisation increases the frequency with which the employee will make errors, step on toes, fail to meet obligations and so on” (Meyer and Allen; 1997;68).

Michaels et al’s (1988) rationale that formalisation will influence organisational commitment positively and directly was based on three arguments; firstly, they suggested that making corporate aspirations highly explicit enables employees to
determine the extent to which they can internalise company goals and values as their own; secondly, the authors considered that company rules and procedures offer a *security blanket* in which to work, since this, “enhances employee perceptions of the organisation's dependability” (Michaels et al; 1988;378). Thirdly, following Morris and Sherman (1981) Michaels et al (1988) claimed that structural variables (i.e. organisational factors) would account for more of the variance in organisational commitment than individual's personal characteristics.

The cross sectional methodology adopted by Michaels et al (1988) examined the influence of the formalisation on two groups; industrial buyers (N=330) and salespeople (N=215), the latter being particularly notorious for their independence and freedom.

Formalisation, described as, “the extent to which work activities are defined formally by administrative rules, policies and procedures” (Michaels et al; 1988;377) was measured by a self completion questionnaire which comprised the Aiken and Hage (1966) scale. This consists of six items placed against a four point Likert scale and includes statements such as “People here are allowed to do almost as they please” and “Most people here make their own rules on the job”.

Commitment was measured using the OCQ (Mowday et al; 1982).

From their findings, Michaels et al (1988) suggest that the lowest levels of employee commitment were reported from personnel situated at the bottom of the organisational hierarchy. Similarly, more experienced employees considered that formalisation of the organisation was a result of “meddlesome management intervention” (Michaels et al; 1988;381) or a lack of confidence in them to perform. Despite this, however, explicit guidance by management was found to be positively related to commitment amongst salespeople. Hence, close employee behaviour does not necessarily reduce employee commitment. In fact, they found it had the opposite affect, since the more structured the work environment, the more commitment employees demonstrated. They concluded that, “even amongst ‘veteran’ salespeople in our sample, there is no indication of a negative reaction to a formalised work environment” (Michaels et al; 1988;381).
Conversely, Zaltman and Duncan (1977) commenting on organisational strategies, suggest that the degree of commitment needed after the change should be considered and that strategies governed by rules are not likely to be successful for winning commitment. "Where commitment to the change is low, then a power/coercive strategy is unlikely to increase commitment. Indeed, people may feel resentful and embittered about both the content and style of change. So if the change is to be one where the level of commitment from people to the changes is important then a coercive strategy is unlikely to be completely successful" (in Hartley et al;1990,25).

In conclusion, lots of studies have been cited which indicate that management style and possibly organisational climate correlate strongly with employee commitment. However, due to the divergent research outcomes for commitment, drawn from a review of the literature in these areas, little consensus can be reached. Despite this inconsistency however, the studies are a suitable proxy for the change process in this research, and both management style and organisational culture are included in the criteria by which the case studies are differentiated (see chapter five). Nevertheless, more research investigating the mechanisms used by managers to bring about organisational changes, and the impact of these on employees' commitment is needed. Zeffane (1994) points out that more studies in this area would be beneficial to enable the similarities and differences between organisational practices, on commitment to be established.

In the case of the process of change, such research should be guided by an established model. Chin and Benne (1985) offer one such model, which is adapted for the purposes of this research. The authors present general strategies for effecting planned change in human systems. It highlights the important dimensions of the change process and is regarded as "one of the most valuable" of classifications (Guest;1984). Chin and Benne (1985) identify three types of change strategies namely, empirical/rational, normative/re-educative and power/coercive. The following section presents a review of these distinct strategies.
4.4.2 Empirical/rational strategies

This strategy is fundamental to bringing about change in industrial organisations according to Guest (1984). It is based on the assumption that individuals are rational beings and will follow their rational self interests. Organisations that follow this line of approach embark on changes in the understanding that the outcomes will be desirable and effective and in line with the affected individuals.

Moreover, whilst Chin and Benne (1985) note that “It is difficult to point to any one person whose ideas express or articulate the orientation underlying commitment to empirical/rational strategies of changing...scientific investigation and research represent the chief ways of extending knowledge and reducing the limitations of ignorance” (Chin and Benne; 1985;24). The focus of this strategy therefore is that individuals are likely to adapt to proposed changes if they can be rationally justified to them and if they are “given ‘correct’ information” (Legge; 1995b;194). Thus, organisational changes result from the analysis and presentation of new information most likely derived from research developments. Guest (1984) argues that dissemination of information is fundamental to this type of strategy and therefore education and communication play a central role.

Consequently, the success of the empirical/rational strategy is largely dependent upon the acceptance of the rationality of the case for change by the receiver (i.e. employee) and hence their role in its successfulness should not be underestimated (Chin and Benne; 1984, Guest; 1984).

Cave (1994) drawing from the works of Thurley and Wirdenius (1973), refers to a similar model, termed the, “analytical approach” to change. Like that of the empirical/rational strategy, it proceeds from diagnosis of the current organisational situation, through the setting of objectives and design for implementation, to the execution of change programmes and the evaluation of the results. “It is rational, logical in its sequencing, evaluative and therefore in principal capable of being open-minded towards ideas for change from all parts of the organisation” (Cave; 1994;64). He argues however that in reality the implementation of organisational changes are rarely like this, although the decisions to bring about
change do emerge from a “rational first vision of the desired direction” (Cave;1994;64), and thus, most likely incorporate rational and analytical elements.

4.4.3 Normative/re-educative strategies

Within this framework the patterns of action and practice are supported by socio cultural norms and by commitments on the part of the employees to these. Changes occur as individuals are brought to change their normative orientations to old patterns and develop commitments to new ones. The approach is derived from theories of human behaviour and attempts to bring about changes in values (Guest;1984). This type of strategic approach should therefore not only provide “correct information about the facts of the situation, but address socially supported beliefs and norms, working through groups rather than individuals” according to Legge (1995b;194). This approach is differentiated from the empirical/rational strategy because it involves changing the attitudes, values and skills of employees—rather being solely knowledge and information based (Chin and Benne;1985).

Cave (1994;64) refers to the normative/re-educative strategy as the “hearts and minds” approach to eliciting change, since it has a strong unitarist strain and, “an all embracing attitude to the need to change that attitudes, values and beliefs of the entire workforce” (Cave;1994;64). Legge (1995b) cites three enterprises that have attempted to promote their organisational values through re-educative strategies. They are; British Airways and their customer service programme entitled, “Putting People First”, ICL’s “Management Education Programme” and British Rail’s “Customer Care Programmes”. Similarly, Pascale and Athos (1981) provide evidence from Delta Airlines, IBM and McKinsey to indicate the successfullness of this approach. They argue that ultimately organisational success rests with, “how strongly people in the organisation believe in its basic precepts and how faithfully they carry them out” (Pascale and Athos;1981;355).

Writing about organisational change, Cascio (1995;930), inadvertently advocates a normative/re-educative style. He suggests in turbulent market environments, “...a key job for all managers, especially top managers, is to articulate a vision of what
the organisation stands for and what it is trying to accomplish. The next step is to translate that vision into everything that is done and to use the vision as a benchmark to assess progress over time. A large number of organisations now recognise that they need to emphasise workplace democracy to achieve the vision. This involves breaking down barriers, sharing information, using a collaborative approach to problem solving and an orientation towards continuous learning and improvement”.

4.4.4 Power/coercive strategies

As its name suggests, the power/coercive strategy is based on the application of power to obtain compliance and is widely found throughout industry (Guest; 1984). Indeed, “the influence process involved is basically that of compliance of those with less power to the plans, directions and leadership of those with power” (Chin and Benne; 1985; 23). In the employee commitment literature ‘compliance’ has been described as, “the lowest level of psychological commitment” (Niehoff et al; 1990).

Some writers in the area of strategic change (Chin and Benne; 1985, Cave; 1994, Guest; 1984, Hartley et al; 1990 and Thurley and Wirdenius; 1973) suggest that the power/coercive strategy to elicit change is sometimes used when other less coercive strategies have failed “or when senior managers have lost patience with the time and processes involved” (Cave; 1994; 63) or to illustrate the importance or the change or a sense of urgency regarding its implementation.

Similarly, Zaltman and Duncan (1977) consider that “a coercive strategy may be valuable where a high level of opposition (resistance) is anticipated. If coercive change can be announced and implemented swiftly then there may be little time for opposition to be mobilised” (in Hartley et al; 1990; 25). However, there are also distinct disadvantages to organisations that adopt the power/coercive approach. Hartley et al (1990; 24) for example, suggest, “use of power has costs for the user, whether in terms of surveillance to ensure compliance, or the costs of
opposition...so there are important considerations in using a power/coercive strategy simply at a pragmatic level as well as at the level of values”.

Power is often administered within the organisation by authoritarian methods, or the “use of power to enforce behavioural change by exercise or threat of sanctions” (Legge; 1995b; 194). This strategic approach may therefore involve getting the authority of organisational policy behind the change to be affected, “especially political and economic sanctions to obtain consent...” (Guest; 1984; 211).

Characteristics of Chin and Benne’s (1985) power/coercive strategy are consistent with the “directive approach” outlined by Thurley and Wirdenius (1973; 167) which regards consultation and employee involvement a “luxury” (Cave; 1995; 63).

Mangham’s (1978) dimension of power (shown as Figure 4-2) constitutes three parts along a continuum.

Coercive change occurs when employees are instructed and expected to change. Consultation strategies are governed by parties who are responsible for decision making about change, but seek information and employee opinion about change, whereas, collective bargaining is the most diplomatic, concerned with joint decision making.

Figure 4-2 Power based strategies

![Figure 4-2 Power based strategies](image)

Source: Mangham (1978) in Hartley, Coopey and Bramely (1990; 24)
4.4.5 Summary of the process of change theories

Thurley and Wiridenius (1973), have summarised Chin and Benne's (1985) approaches to change in human systems, modified in Table 4-2. Whilst the three strategies reviewed above are helpful in highlighting the choices for the implementation of organisational change available, Guest (1984) argues that evidence of one strategy used in isolation over any period of time is rare. Despite this, Chin and Benne’s (1985) set of strategies are used as a guide for differentiating the approach to change adopted by each of the three case studies participating with this research.

Table 4-2 Basic approaches to organisational change

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Name of strategy</th>
<th>Types of thinking and assumptions</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Empirical/rational</td>
<td>Change is the result of new understanding reached by making available new data to affect performance. It comes from the acquisition of knowledge of all types and leads to design of new systems.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Normative/re-educative</td>
<td>Change is the result of individuals and adjusting their norms and attitudes so that they want to behave differently.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Power/coercive</td>
<td>Change is the result of stimuli being applied (e.g. directives backed by force or possible force).</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Adapted from Thurley and Wiridenius (1973; 155)

However, whilst this framework is useful for distinguishing between organisational approaches to change amongst human systems, it fails to provide a more in-depth model describing the types of characteristics shown by the organisations that use them. The framework is thus limited in its application to this research. However, in order to identify which of the three organisational strategies is the most fitting to the workplace, Guest (1984) proposes a criterion comprising a range of factors including the nature of the organisation’s structure, technology, corporate philosophy and goals, culture, history and power relationships. Subsequently, this
has been built upon, such that the case studies participating in this research can be differentiated on the basis of how they bring about change (see chapter five).

4.4.6 Studies investigating the process of change

Legge (1995b; 181) suggests that following the attitudinal definition of employee commitment, "where attitudes are prior to and influence behaviour", managers seeking to implement changes to organisations should opt for a re-educative strategy which typically involves redevelopment, training, persuasive communications, role modelling and counselling. These are designed to change employee beliefs and values in line with the new organisations'. Following the declarations of the attitudinal model of commitment, Legge (1995b) argues that appropriate employee behaviour at work should ensue.

The conclusions emerging from some of the studies reviewed above (for example; Daley; 1988, Gaertner and Nollen; 1989, Niehoff et al; 1990 and Zeffane; 1994) can be equated to the characteristics demonstrated by the normative/re-educative strategy outlined by Chin and Benne (1985). Since this strategy suggests that the attitudes of organisational members and patterns of employee behaviour are influence by cultural norms, it follows that employees within this type of organisation are likely to show the highest commitment levels of the three case studies being examined in this research.

On the other hand, in light of converse findings in this area (for example; Michaels et al 1988) Legge's (1995b) reasoning that management should opt for normative/re-educative approach to elicit change cannot automatically be accepted without first adopting a comparative approach to measuring employee commitment levels in organisations that clearly demonstrate varying approaches to bringing about change. Only an investigation measuring levels of employee commitment in the varying types of organisations representing each of Chin and Benne (1985) strategies will enable the most superior model (of the three) to emerge.
Chin and Benne’s (1985) classification of strategies for bringing about planned change in human systems is used to differentiate the strategic approach to implementing organisational changes in this research. The selection of three appropriate case studies is addressed in chapter five.

4.5 Using one or two tailed tests for analysis in the current research

Hypothesis formation is most usually derived from the rationale of related studies or from what is already understood from previous research findings in the field, “In research...investigators would use a framework or theory to position or justify the statement of the problem they will address” (Schmitt and Klimoski;1991;14). This observation however, does seem to be more equated to non directional hypotheses, which are formulated from existing evidence, indicate direction and are most frequently used when undertaking a test of existing theory (Coolican;1994). Because of the diversity shown in the outcomes of related studies in the area of the process of change (above) it is difficult to predict the direction of the study’s outcomes. Hence, two tailed tests will be used in the analysis.

4.6 The content of change

4.6.1 Change variables under examination in this study

Changes under investigation are divided into SETS. SET ONE refers to changes that have occurred in all case studies, SET TWO changes are apparent in two of the three participating organisations, and finally, SET THREE identifies unique changes to individual case studies. Figure 4-3 illustrates the organisational changes that have occurred across and within case studies.
This section documents and provides a brief discussion of the changes being examined as the dependent variables in this study. This is necessary since some of the changes under examination in SET ONE have slightly varied meanings within each organisation. This became apparent from initial meetings with managers and employees in the form of focus groups conducted prior to data collection (see chapter five).

4.7 Changes in SET ONE

4.7.1 Organisational restructuring

At each of the case studies organisational restructuring mainly involved changes in office and shopfloor layout (referred to as channelling at case study one, and dealt with separately as a SET THREE change, see section 4.10.2). The restructuring
was initiated by either local business needs or changes directed at headquarters level in order to meet changing business situations. Changes were also made to reporting systems and lines of authority. Some merging of departments and the redeployment of some staff members also accompanied the restructuring process at each of the three organisations under investigation.

In case study one, the restructuring was accompanied in the organisation’s hierarchical structure, which resulted in redundancies. As channelling, the issue of redundancy has been isolated (see section 4.9.1).

4.7.2 Payment settlements and rewards

One of the changes that managers identified as having occurred in stage one of the research was that of payment settlements. This is an annual process of negotiation with the trade unions, or equivalent (i.e. Works Committee at case study three; see section 4.3.11), to agree on the wages and other conditions of employment for the contract year. Other conditions include sick pay schemes, hours worked and overtime rates.

4.7.3 Technological change

Changes to a process involving different equipment and/or systems that may alter the way an employee works to a greater to lesser extent. It has involved updating and replacing some manual systems and implementing computerised facilitates and telecommunications within the office environment, and is mainly concerned with; the updating of machinery and tools, increased automation and involved computerised stock control on the shopfloor.

4.7.4 Job re-organisation

This is a broad set of changes that involves empowerment and the development of an employee’s role, the abandoning of redundant tasks, the taking on of more responsibility and adaptation to new methods of working. The aims are to improve employee efficiency and the individual’s overall contribution to the company.
4.7.5 Antecedents to commitment

Section 4.3.1 recognised that the route to employee commitment is via its antecedents. It follows therefore that if the antecedents are changed, commitment changes. This following section is a brief discussion about the organisational changes under examination in SET ONE and, using the literature, the extent to which they are likely to impact on the antecedents and subsequently alter employee commitment levels.

For example, organisational restructuring involved some decentralisation of decision-making and scope for group independence and autonomy for local, departmental decisions in line with company policy, particularly amongst white collar workers at case studies one and three. Mowday et al (1982;26) suggest that "employees experiencing greater decentralisation, greater dependence on the work of others...felt more committed to the organisation than employees experiencing these factors to a lesser extent".

With regard to payment settlements and technological changes, the literature about the antecedents of commitment indicate that organisational dependability, (i.e. the extent to which employees consider that the organisation is concerned with their interests) was significantly related to commitment. Mowday et al (1982;34) state that employees' experiences of work are a major socialising force and "represent an important influence on the extent to which psychological attachments are formed with the organisation". In this respect, the extent to which employees consider that their organisation is looking after their interests at work, i.e. by investigating in new technology and financially rewarding them may encourage commitment levels.

Pay equity is related to commitment. Individuals base their perceptions of fairness relating to their pay on comparisons with others (Adams;1965), or what they consider they think they deserve (i.e. expectancy theory) in relation to what the organisation pays them. Thus, in organisations where employees expectations are
met by the payment settlements received they are likely to report an increase in their commitment towards the organisation.

Moreover, during the pilot stages of the research, managers at case studies one and three in particular reported that there was evidence of some duplication of tasks and "Certain employees are unsure of where their job starts and stops. We are re-defining their roles in line with the restructuring to provide them with a clearer job spec." (Manager; case study three). Similarly, Mowday et al (1982) note that role ambiguity and role conflict are important variables that relate to commitment. "The portrait that emerges with respect to the impact of role-related factors on commitment is that such influences may be positive so long as the employee has clear and challenging job assignments". Following the literature, it is expected that where job assignments or roles are ambiguous, or place the employee in a conflict situation, individuals are likely to report that their commitment is lowered.

The actual re-definition of jobs is concerned mainly with case studies one and three. At case study two, employees reported that they were fully aware of what is expected of them at work. The job re-organisation therefore referred to the learning of new tasks and re-organising these within the cell to ensure hourly targets are met. Some of the individuals within the focus groups at case study two suggested that the deadlines imposed on them, whilst not being unrealistic, maximised the level of employee effort required.

In the literature, role overload is shown to be strongly and inversely related with commitment. In this study, the qualitative analysis will determine the extent to which employees at case study two consider themselves overworked and discuss if their commitment to case study two is reduced by this. Finally, where job re-organisation leads to increased challenge for an employee, this may lead to increased commitment, assuming that the individual is favourably disposed to this.
4.8 Changes in SET TWO

4.8.1 Productivity workshops - case studies one and two

Following restructuring, case studies one and two initiated team based improvement activities in the areas such as quality and customer service. Their purpose is to focus on a given problem, analyse the root causes, develop a solution, implement and follow up. “Employees are encouraged to take small, achievable steps rather than trying to solve world hunger” (Manager at case study one).

4.8.2 Team briefs - case studies two and three

After the restructuring process, team briefs were set up at case studies two and three. These involved one or more of the management team verbally communicating recent activities and indicators of performance to the workforce. These are usually accompanied by a one page circular.

4.9 Changes in SET THREE

4.9.1 Redundancies - case study one

Coupled with organisational restructuring, redundancies occurred due to cut back in the business necessitating a reduction in the workforce.

4.9.2 Channelling - case study one

The creation of a logical process of product flow involving clearly defined operations for making a defined group of products. The operation involved heightened precision in planning and manufacturing. A channel has therefore become a ‘mini factory’ within the factory. In short, it refers to a new method of working on the shopfloor, which involved the re-organisation of existing work areas and machines into several lines to ease product flow.
4.9.3 Job rotation - case study two

Shopfloor workers move from one task to another usually within a “cell”, which comprises of between six to eight other team members. “Its purpose is to relieve boredom, but also enables our shopfloor workers to be a part of every shopfloor process” (Manager at Case study two).

4.9.4 Multiskilling - case study three

Multiskilling requires employees to demonstrate knowledge and skills in more than one area of work.

4.10 Developing model

The previous sections have argued that it is characteristic of industry to respond to competitive conditions and ultimately this can lead to changes in levels of employee commitment within an organisation. Hiltrop (1993) for example suggests that HR specialists and senior line managers in particular are required to anticipate a range of business trends, which leads to the implementation of new policies and practices “in order to continually improve their organisations” (in Mabey et al;1998;78). Similarly, Cave (1994;26) argues that external changes often have a profound effect “below the surface of organisations”.

By formulating a model, (shown as Figure 4-4) possible outcomes for employee commitment following changes in the work environment are illustrated. This provides a theoretical framework to serve as the basis for subsequent discussion.

The model assumes that organisational change disturbs the established order within the individual’s work environment, which in turn has the potential to enhance or weaken commitment levels of individuals who are affected by organisational change. Alternatively, employee experience of change may result in no alteration in commitment.
The model suggests that organisations implement policies that initiate changes due to forces that are external and/or internal to the organisation. Campbell (1997;112) notes that the changing external environment "has brought about the need for organisations to change internally in order to match more closely the new external conditions".

This investigation focuses specifically on the policies that management implement to bring about organisational change. Documenting the environmental changes that facilitate an impetus to change within an organisation, Campbell (1997) cites industrial change (i.e. suppliers, customers, competitors), economic changes, (particularly fiscal, and monetary pressures and currency fluctuations), sociological changes, (namely national and global demographics, cultures and market trends), as well as political and outside technological influences. He also maintains that internal changes are usually an indirect consequence of environmental influences, which in turn assists organisations to address their weaknesses.

The key areas for internal change include personnel and the manner in which employees are managed, the organisation's structure (and the extent to which this is appropriate to meet market demands), in-house systems (namely reporting, quality and administration), organisational culture and technology.

In summary, the importance of the process of change and antecedents of commitment have been discussed. These together with the content of change play a part in forming individuals' perceptions of change. From this, employee commitment levels are predicted to increase, remain unchanged or decrease.
Figure 4-4 Conceptual model illustrating the role of organisational change and possible outcomes for employee commitment levels

**Key**
- © Employee commitment
- ◊ Employee commitment levels decrease
- ◊ Employee commitment levels remain stable
- ◊ Employee commitment levels increase
4.10.1 Shape of model and dealing with the element of time

The model commences with management’s policy implementation to effect organisational change, this is the model’s input. Employees’ perceptions of change are then formed, (model’s process) and its related outcomes for commitment are then demonstrated in employee attitudes (or output). It is at this latter stage of the investigation that the present study measures the self reported attitudes of employees’ commitment. The developing framework is presented in circular form, because it is argued that past organisational changes influence the future shape of the organisation. The model is used to illustrate the impact of organisational change on employee commitment levels within a two to three year period. This time scale was determined by the initial meetings at the case studies where it was revealed that each of the three organisations had undergone all the changes in SET ONE during this period.

4.11 Measuring attitudinal commitment

4.11.1 The Organisational Commitment Questionnaire (OCQ)

Amongst the most popular of scales in the field is the Organisational Commitment Questionnaire (OCQ) which was developed by Porter et al in 1974 and is prevalent in the works of Mowday et al (1982). The OCQ has been used throughout an extensive range of studies (for example; Angle and Perry;1983, Barling et al;1990, Bateman and Strasser;1984, Curry et al;1986, Gaertner and Nollen;1989, McLoughlin and Gourlay;1994, Michaels et al;1988 and Mowday et al;1982, Niehoff et al;1990) perhaps because it has been found to have, “acceptable psychometrical properties” (Allen and Meyer;1990;2), and has received thorough and generally positive evaluation (Meyer and Allen;1997). It has even been dubbed as, “the” approach to commitment measurement (Reichers;1985;467).

It attempts to measure the concept of organisational commitment by evaluating employee’s identification, involvement and loyalty, originally derived from Buchanan’s (1974) definition. The OCQ operates on the basis of fifteen items
placed against a seven point Likert scale and some of the questions are deliberately negatively phrased in an attempt to reduce bias. The results are then summed and divided by the total amount of items (fifteen), to provide a summary indicator. A copy of the OCQ is reproduced in appendix 4.

4.11.2 Limitations of the OCQ

The components of the OCQ have been criticised. Caldwell et al (1990;247) for example suggests, "at least three of the questions on the OCQ measure a person's intent to behave...[and] this ambiguity has made it difficult to compare results of studies". In their comprehensive analysis of the dimensionality and stability of the OCQ, Tetrick and Farkas (1988) concluded that it composes of two separate, (albeit highly correlated) dimensions. Their study also suggested that there would not be any loss in terms of validity by applying the short form of the OCQ, which consists of positively worded items only.

Since the OCQ has been designed specifically for employees in the USA, the phrasing of some of the items are not necessarily appropriate for measuring the concept amongst a wider global audience (Cook and Wall;1980). Oppenheim (1992;47) also notes that, "...it should not be assumed that an American...questionnaire will work equally well in Britain". Consequently, this has lead to the development of other, alternative commitment measures, in particular that of the British Organisational Commitment Scale (or BOCS) developed by Cook and Wall (1980).

4.11.3 The British Organisational Commitment Scale (BOCS)

BOCS is patterned on the OCQ and also attempts to measure commitment by the three component method, identification, involvement, loyalty. The definitions have been adapted by Cook and Wall (1980) to include elements of Porter et al's (1974) understanding of the concept (Peccei and Guest;1993).
BOCS comprises of nine points in total, each component being measured by three items, with one item within each sub-scale being deliberately negatively phrased and reverse scored in an attempt to maintain impartiality. Having been designed initially for samples of full time ‘blue collar’ workers in the UK, its strength lies in the clarity of its language and wording, reflected in the phrasing of its items. BOCS has been shown to be “psychometrically adequate, stable and reliable” by its creators (Cook and Wall; 1980; 45) who reported a coefficient alpha of 0.87.

Support for the use of the BOCS also comes from Kemp, Wall, Clegg and Cordery (1983), who tested commitment using the full nine item version of the scale amongst a non unionised confectionery company situated in the UK (N=333). It scored an alpha of 0.77. Later, an extension of this research was undertaken by Wall, Kemp, Jackson and Clegg (1986). Its purpose was to “examine the effects of autonomous workgroups on employees’ attitudes and behaviours” (Wall et al; 1986; 283). This involved monitoring commitment at three points in time following the implementation of a new method of working, designed to recognise employee needs and capitalise upon the skills of confectionery workers. Wall et al (1986), reported Cronbach’s coefficient alphas of 0.77 (at the start up process, see Kemp et al; 1983), 0.70 and 0.74 over a three year time period in their longitudinal experiment. Oliver (1990) used BOCS amongst individuals in an employee owned firm, to test the relationship between demographic variables and commitment. The alpha coefficient of the instrument in his study was 0.79.

Moreover, following the development and testing of the full nine item version of BOCS on shopfloor workers, Clegg and Wall (1981) tested a shorter, six item version\(^1\) with workers occupying managerial and supervisory positions which they found to, “...have good reliability, to be factorially distinct and to reveal satisfactory construct validity” (Clegg and Wall; 1981; 225). They reported a coefficient alpha of 0.67. Noticeably, however, this score is below the 0.7 mark

\(^1\) Whilst Clegg and Wall (1981) state that they used a shortened six item version in which three items were deleted, (one from each sub-scale), they do not specify that these were the negatively phrased items apparent in the original nine item BOCS. However, it is assumed, that this is the case. Therefore, throughout this document, when reference to the six item version in relation to the Clegg and Wall (1981) study is made, it refers to the positively worded version of BOCS.
obtained in other studies (see above) using the full nine item version. From this evidence therefore, it is argued that with negatively worded items present in the scale, higher alphas might have emerged (although in order to verify this supposition, test and re-test scores are preferable and comparisons between nine and six item versions of the scale within the same research setting, taken from the same participants are necessary). Alternatively, following administration and analysis of the nine item BOCS, the negatively worded items can be removed to enable comparative reliability analysis to be performed on both scales.

4.11.4 Dimensionality of the BOCS

Possibly the first testing of the dimensionality and stability of the full nine item version of BOCS and the shorter, positively worded approach (comprising of six items) was undertaken by Peccei and Guest (1993). They sought to establish the reliability of the BOCS and used a factor analysis to find out, "...whether we are justified in combining [the sub-scales of the scale] into a single measure of OC. [As] one possible consequence of inappropriately combining sub dimensions is that we may distort or disguise the effects of the sub components..." (Peccei and Guest;1993;3). The authors found that BOCS is both a stable and reliable measure of employee commitment, which is made up of three distinct yet associated components, namely the sub-scales originally proposed by Cook and Wall (1980).

Schmitt and Stults (1985) have highlighted the limitations of utilising negatively worded items in attitude surveying, and question the, "validity of substantively interpreting factors defined by negatively keyed items" (in Tetrick and Farkas;1988;734). Their research suggests that any scale item that is not phrased in accordance with other items can elicit a response that is inconsistent with the remaining responses in the item pool and thus the responder's real position about the construct being measured. Schmitt and Stults (1985) found that a small portion of careless respondents, (as little as 10% of the total sample size) who read negative questionnaire items as positively keyed items, can be responsible for the
appearance of a factor consisting solely of negatively worded items when factor analysis is performed on the data. They warn, “researchers should be highly suspicious of factors loaded primarily with negatively keyed items” (Schmitt and Stults; 1985:371).

Following this argument, Peccei and Guest (1993) employed the full nine item version of BOCS amongst workers at British Rail, but found that discarding the three negatively worded items in their statistical analysis, resulted in the scale becoming psychometrically stronger and robust (than that of the full item version). They concluded, “...our data indicates that the...BOCS is confounded by the presence of negatively worded items in the scale” (Peccei and Guest; 1993:22). The six item version of the BOCS was later used successfully by these authors in their assessment of the impact of employee involvement on organisational commitment amongst British Rail workers (see Guest, Peccei and Thomas; 1993).

Peccei and Guest (1993) conclude that BOCS is a multidimensional construct and that the three subscales measure empirically distinct aspects of the commitment phenomenon. Finally, they advocate the need for further research in this area, such that the three factor solution found in their analysis can indeed be confirmed or refuted in other research environments.

Following this request for further testing of BOCS in the UK, Fenton-O’Creevy et al (1997:594), attempted to “explain how the BOCS is derived and describe its component parts” within an alternative research setting. Their research, situated in a British oil company privatised in 1983 (N=355), is, for the most part, a follow up to the study carried out by Peccei and Guest (1993). It examined one-, two and three-factor models of the structure of the BOCS to test the relative fit to their data. Unlike Peccei and Guest (1993) however, Fenton-O’Creevy et al (1997) also tested a four factor model. This has the same factors as the three factor model, comprising of each of the two positively worded items within the three subscales (identification, involvement, loyalty) in addition to one factor comprising all of the negatively worded items of the BOCS components.
Moreover, since Peccei and Guest (1993) found that the six item version of the scale is superior to the nine item version, it too was tested in the Fenton-O’Creevy et al (1997) study. From their findings, Fenton-O’Creevy et al (1997;604) concluded that BOCS “...has three distinct subdimensions...consistent with Peccei and Guest’s (1993) conclusion.” The negatively worded items in the instrument were found to be problematic since they constituted an overlapping factor. However, Fenton-O’Creevy et al (1997), do not advocate the removal of these negatively worded items from the scale. Rather, they argue that this finding raises an “interesting conceptual issue, because negatively worded questions cannot simply be taken as the exact obverse of the positive ones. [Indeed, the negatively worded items in the BOCS]...may be picking up something different” (Fenton-O’Creevy et al;1997;604).

4.11.5 The BOCS Vs the OCQ

BOCS is more evenly balanced with greater internal symmetry than the OCQ (Peccei and Guest;1993). The components of the OCQ are not equally represented by the items. Peccei and Guest (1993) found that there are two items that relate to organisational effort, four relating to loyalty and a desire to stay with the organisation, whilst the remaining seven items measure more general identification aspects “Some components of commitment are given more weight than others in the OCQ, so that overall OC scores based on this instrument will be biased in favour of these components” (Peccei and Guest;1993;7). In the BOCS however, there is equal weighting given to all three subscales.

The imbalance of the number of positive and negative items apparent in the OCQ makes it “...difficult to disentangle the effects of different substantive concepts from the methods used to measure those concepts. It can however, be addressed with the BOCS” (Peccei and Guest;1993;10). There is not uniform consensus to the construction of the positive and reversed scored items in the components of the OCQ, whereas in the BOCS, the negatively phrased items are equally represented by one in every component of the commitment subscales. To date, BOCS is
regarded as the main measure of commitment in the UK (Peccei and Guest;1993).
The full nine item version of the scale is shown in appendix 5, in accordance with
Cook and Wall’s (1980) original format.

4.11.6 The Affective Commitment Scale (ACS)

Meyer and Allen (1984) have also conceptualised commitment following
Buchanan’s (1974), development of the affective commitment concept (cited in
chapter two). They suggest that the construct can be assessed by “positive feelings
of identification with, attachment to and involvement in, the work organisation”
(Meyer and Allen;1984;372).

Their Affective Commitment Scale (or ACS) is an eight item scale developed to
“...measure the more explicitly affective aspects of organisational attachment, and
covers many of the same elements as the Identification subscale of BOCS” (Peccei
and Guest;1993;11). Given that the OCQ has been criticised for measuring
behavioural intentions as well as employees level of affective commitment
(Caldwell et al;1990, Reichers;1985), the items of the ACS have been constructed
to assess only employees’ affective orientation towards the organisation. The ACS
is shown in appendix 6.

After testing, Meyer and Allen (1984) found that the ACS was “shown to have
acceptable reliability (coefficient alpha = 0.87)” (Meyer and Allen;1984;375).
Similarly, McGee and Ford (1987;640) found that the ACS “...had good internal
consistency [and] reliability”. They recorded a Cronbach’s alpha of 0.88. Whitener
and Walz (1993) also utilised the eight item scale to measure levels of affective
commitment amongst bank tellers (N=578). They also established a high reliability
for the instrument. Their coefficient alpha measured 0.86. Based on these few
studies, the reliability of the ACS, when compared to Bryman and Cramer’s (1994)
benchmark of 0.8 on attitudinal scaling (using Cronbach’s alpha), is not disputed.
However, in their assessment of the scale’s factor structure, McGee and Ford
(1987;639) found that “only seven of eight affective-commitment items clearly
loaded on the first factor”. Item eight in particular was problematic. Meyer and Allen (1984) also found that this item exhibited a weak loading.

Blau et al (1993) also found that not all of the items loaded neatly onto the factors. These authors highlighted item six as the confounding variable. Taking into account the results of McGee and Ford (1987), Blau et al (1993) concluded that “this pattern of item loadings suggests that six-item version of the scale is most appropriate” (Blau et al; 1993; 305). Later, Meyer et al (1993) excluded items six and eight from the scale, although they claim that this was to shorten the measure, rather than because the items are inappropriate. “Modification in the case of affective commitment included eliminating the two items found to have the weakest loadings on the relevant factor....These items were excluded more for the sake of brevity than because they were inappropriate items” (Meyer et al; 1993; 541). Despite this, the collective evidence does indicate that the further testing of the ACS is required to establish its dimensionality. This is important if it is to be used with confidence by researchers to measure affective commitment.

4.12 Measurement of attitudinal commitment in light of organisational change

Baruch (1998) argues that some of the statements in the OCQ are not illustrative of the desired relationship that underpins attitudinal commitment between employees and their organisations. For example, taking the identification subscale, he suggests that organisational goals and values are rarely similar to those of employees and in light of recent business changes this is unrealistic and too much for organisations to expect. On the issue of involvement, Baruch (1998) considers that given the stress levels imposed on employees, many are already exerting efforts beyond what is contractually required, just to keep their job. He also maintains that life long employment has become a thing of the past and it is impractical for employees to feel a strong sense of loyalty towards one organisation. “Much of the material which, in recent past, would have well
represented the desired relationship between employees and their organisation does not seem to be so now” (Baruch;1998;137).

These criticisms of the OCQ can be transferred to other scales measuring attitudinal commitment like the BOCS or ACS since “...logical analysis of the content for many of the items/statements in most OC inventories would reveal the same” (Baruch;1998;137). The underlying tone of Baruch’s (1998) article suggests that affective commitment is becoming a thing of the past. He maintains that individuals are committed to their organisations through calculative means in view of the demands placed on organisations and changes undergone by business.

Based on his arguments and evaluation of the OCQ, the scale items fail to account for the pressures on organisations and the changes these subsequently force in the employment relationship. Whilst Baruch’s (1998) criticisms may be valid, he does not present any solutions about how these might be reflected in attitudinal scaling. He does note that much of the work about organisational commitment has ignored the importance of employer commitment to the employee and argues that given that commitment is a trust based concept, “This might be the missing link that hinders empirical investigations...” (Baruch;1998;137). Still, this does not provide any immediate recommendations for commitment measurement in the area of affective attachment.

The main criticism is that the concept and measures of commitment established in the literature are not wholly reflective of this new employer/employee relationship. However, the elements underpinning attitudinal measures remain desirable to employers (as shown in chapter three). Arguably they become more important after periods of organisational upheaval (Meyer and Allen;1997, Swailes;1995). Perhaps a re-conceptualisation of the scale including items about mutuality is what is required in the future. However, this element of reciprocation is not itself new (see Mowday et al;1982) although attention about the concept has been heightened in the literature about commitment and organisational change (Baruch;1998, Hirsch;1987, Meyer and Allen;1997).
A suitable alternative might be to suggest that attitudinal scales should not be used isolation in research. Rather, application of a variety of data collection techniques will enable exploration beyond the ‘objective overview’ provided by established measures. This would allow the examination of employees’ subjective experiences of contemporary organisational changes in light of the essential elements underpinning commitment scales. In this research the choice of quantitative measures are discussed next, although the broader picture is investigated with the use of qualitative methods also (see chapter five).

### 4.13 Measuring commitment in this research

The full nine item version of BOCS is used in this research since it is considered the superior measurement to that of the OCQ and ACS (the shortcomings of which have been documented above). However, it is noted that the BOCS was developed in the early 1980’s and is centred on male workers. It may therefore be justifiably criticised for being old fashioned and ‘gendered’. The sample in this research contains some female members. However, there is no reason why women in the workplace might have difficulty responding to the items of BOCS as each statement is asexual.

Overall, there is much support for the scale as an effective instrument (see Kemp et al;1983, Wall et al;1986, Oliver;1990, Peccei and Guest;1993) to measure attitudinal commitment and its use has also been widely acknowledged and applauded. Even Peccei and Guest (1993) who have assessed the scale extensively, conclude that the BOCS is sound and advocate its use in diverse settings, particularly in Britain. All this evidence suggests that there is little doubt about its use. However, taking into account the arguments of Baruch (1998) which suggest that existing attitudinal scales do not necessarily capture contemporary perspectives of commitment, the study evaluates the reliability and dimensionality of BOCS in this study. This is discussed in more depth below.
4.13.1 Why re-evaluate the BOCS in the context of this research?

Moser and Kalton (1994;353) argue that “whatever approach to attitude scaling one cares to adopt, there always remains the question (which ideally should be answered before a scale is put to research use) as to what extent the scale is reliable and valid”. This implies that attitudinal measuring instruments need to be assessed prior to using them for data collection (Sapsford and Jupp;1996). The continued assessment of such measures is an important methodological issue to enable support for the development of attitudinal scaling to be ongoing and sustained. As reflected in the works of Baruch (1998), as cited above, Swailes (1995), also argues that the concept of commitment and its associated measuring scales have not been developed in line with the changing nature and progression of organisations, “...much of the commitment literature measures commitment using scales that were developed...when background assumptions involved career ladders, long tenure and when employees could expect to work for a few organisations until a pensionable age” (Swailes;1995;1). It follows therefore that social attitudes may change over time and this may be reflected in attitudinal scales. A re-assessment of the BOCS is presented in chapter six. This involves an examination of the scale and subscales reliability and dimensionality. Although this deviates somewhat from the main purpose of the research (i.e. to investigate the impact of change on commitment), it is central to the methodology. Many authors in the social sciences (for example; Coolican;1994, Saunders et al;1997, Moser and Kalton;1992, Oppenheim; 1992, Saspford and Judd;1996 and Schmitt and Klimoski;1991), highlight the importance of periodically re-validating attitudinal scales. Kline (1994;1) also states that “factor analysis is a statistical technique used in psychology and the social sciences. Indeed, some branches of psychology, especially those in which tests or questionnaires have been administered, it is a necessity”.

Establishing the extent to which BOCS is uni or multi dimensional is important since one total score representing commitment is taken from the BOCS and used as a dependent variable in subsequent analysis, (see chapter seven). In this study, the presence of negatively keyed statements will be dealt with by piloting the
questionnaire and discussing with respondents the wording of these if and where necessary, forewarning participants by way of the questionnaire instructions (this issue is further discussed in chapter five). The measure was administered to employees in the format shown in appendix 5, although items are grouped under the relevant subscales (identification, involvement and loyalty) for purposes of analysis (see chapter six).

4.14 Chapter summary and conclusions

This chapter sought to develop the research focus by drawing from the relevant literature in the areas of the process of change and antecedents of commitment in particular. It argued that the rationale for this study is being able to work towards the creation of a conceptual framework, developing the understanding of the impact of organisational changes on outcomes of attitudinal commitment.

Following a review of the associations between personal and work related characteristics of individuals and their self reported outcomes for commitment, the moderating variables for measurement in this study were identified. The research seeks to find out which of these explain commitment.

An understanding of the process of change was then set out, and it was concluded that as a result of the divergent conclusions drawn from the studies reviewed, a framework of change is required for the current research by which to differentiate the case studies. This will be achieved by adopting Chin and Benne's (1985) general strategies for human systems. A theoretical outline of which was also presented. It was then acknowledged that two tailed tests would be used in the statistical analysis given that it is difficult to predict outcomes on the basis of previous studies in the area. The organisational changes under investigation were then identified and described and following this, the model devised for the purposes of this study was discussed.
The final part of the chapter evaluated the key measures in the field of attitudinal commitment. The rationale for adopting the BOCS for measuring commitment levels in this study was then set out and justified. It noted that this research has adopted the full, nine item version of Cook and Wall’s (1980) BOC Scale in order to measure the levels of attitudinal commitment in the three participating case study organisations, although reliability analysis will be performed on both nine and six item versions of the data. A factor analysis will thereafter be carried out to determine the dimensionality of the scale.

The following chapter is concerned with the research design and methods used to collect the data in this study. It also details which of the strategies presented by Chin and Benne (1985) are the most fitting to the case studies in this research.
5. CHAPTER FIVE : RESEARCH METHODOLOGY AND ETHICAL CONSIDERATIONS

5.1 Introduction

This chapter is concerned with the research design and the methods used to investigate the research area. It is therefore linked directly to chapter four. This chapter is split into five parts. The first part states the objectives of the investigation and considers the research design adopted.

This leads logically to part two which identifies the approach used and argues that a combination of methods, encompassing both quantitative and qualitative techniques is not only preferable, but necessary in order to adequately investigate the research problem.

Part three discusses the finer details of the case study work and presents the rationale used to distinguish the participating organisations by their approach to change. This is drawn from the strategies for effecting change amongst human systems presented by Chin and Benne (1985). Following this, part four deals with the composition and design of the case study questionnaire, the interviews and the sampling methods used. It provides a full discussion of the arguments surrounding the nature and purpose of conducting the interviews within the context of the research question. Finally, part five sets out the ethical considerations guiding the case study work.

5.2 Research design and study objectives

The primary research objective in this study is to investigate the impact of some organisational changes on employees' commitment. Following Oppenheim (1992), when deciding on the best design for research enquiry this should be based on that "which is most appropriate to the particular problem" (Oppenheim;1992;189).
Whilst this might point to the need for a longitudinal study with before and after measures and a control group, by nature of the constraints imposed on the research and other practical considerations this was not pursued (see section 5.2.1).

A combined cross sectional and factorial design was adopted. Firstly, the cross sectional design is the most common for use in the social sciences (Churchill; 1987). It allows a sample of elements selected from populations of interest at one point in time. More specifically, the type of cross sectional design most fitting to this research is the field study that is concerned with the in-depth evaluation of a few typical situations and the relationship of a number of factors to the dependent variable. In this case the examination of the content and process of change to commitment levels after change and the importance of moderating variables in relation to commitment in three case studies. As Churchill (1992;91) states, “The field study is particularly useful when a number of factors bear on a phenomenon and when it is difficult to understand the phenomenon without considering [these]”.

The key strength of field studies is that it is conducted in a natural environment and there is no attempt to manipulate the dependent variable. Given that the variables are permitted to correlate freely, their effects are strong.

However, an allowable weakness is the ex post facto character. This study for example is being carried out in an organisational context and it is therefore reasonable to consider that a great many variables could affect the outcome. In this research qualitative analysis is carried out to follow up some of the claims made by respondents in the quantitative, thereby seeking to separate their effects.

The study also follows the form of a factorial design, since this allows more than one independent variable to be incorporated into the research (Coolican;1994, Robson;1993). Factorial designs are therefore geared to making comparisons. Moser and Kalton (1992) highlight that there is much to be gained by studying several groups. This enables researchers to, not only, provide more information, but also with greater confidence (Coolican;1994, Oppenheim;1992).
However, since the approach adopted does not utilise a series of, or even a repeat of measures over time, it might be criticised for not being able to show real differences in the dependent variable. The research attempts to overcome this by employing a combination of data collection methods which will further the depth of understanding about commitment in light of change. Discussion about the choice of methods and how this depth will be achieved is discussed in section 5.3.

5.2.1 Impracticalities of longitudinal designs for this research

The nature of this study precludes a longitudinal designs for several reasons as discussed in this section.

Firstly, two of the three case studies approached were unable to commit to the research over time. This, it is appears, is one barrier amongst a series that researchers encounter when relying on organisations for data collection (Bryman;1988a, Crompton and Jones;1988, Bulmer;1988).

Secondly, it was explained by the managers at the first case study that a control group would be difficult to secure because the types of changes under investigation in SET ONE (particularly, organisational restructuring, job re-organisation) are implemented so that they will have an impact on employees lives at work.

Thirdly, whilst some of the changes in SET ONE occur on an annual basis and are therefore planned (for example; payment settlements), others are less predictable for example; technology changes. This makes it difficult to secure before and after measures.

Given that the longitudinal study does employ repeated measures on the same groups of respondents over time, allows genuine changes in the dependent variable to be detected. Whilst there is evidence that some studies have administered BOCS over time to measure commitment (as discussed in chapter four), it is argued that the depth required to fully understand commitment after change could
not necessarily be obtained solely by the analysis of BOCS scores at various points in time. This is not a problem with the commitment scale itself, but rather is an issue that pertains to the wider implications of using quantitative instruments which are not geared to providing subjectivity of meaning.

5.3 Research approach and methods used

This research aims to contribute to a relatively undeveloped area (Guest; 1998a). A case study approach is highly appropriate, because it typically combines exploratory and descriptive study (Cheethams et al; 1992 and Yin; 1994). This is the most preferable method of empirical data collection when the how and why questions are being posed, when the researcher has little control over organisational events or when the focus is on contemporary phenomena within the context of real life. It is particularly appropriate in management and organisational settings (Yin; 1994).

Other writers supporting the use of case studies (for example; Bell; 1993, Hakim; 1992 and Stake; 1995) suggest this approach often embraces a range of research instruments when the objectives of the research require a depth that can not necessarily be achieved by adopting a single approach to data gathering. Similarly, Hakim (1992) states that case studies should not necessarily be limited to a single source of evidence and that most rely on a wide variety of sources, as this assists in reinforcing the efficacy of a their findings. Bell (1993) also refers to the case study as an umbrella of terms that represent a family of research methods that usually involve data collection by means of questionnaires and interviews.

A combination of methods was not only considered preferable, but necessary in this research to achieve the depth of analysis about the issues under examination. In particular, the data collection comprised questionnaires, to identify the what and how questions generated by the research, and semi-structured interviews to explore the why. This would complement the quantitative findings by providing a more detailed account of individuals' experiences of change at work. Webb et al (1966)
argue that greater confidence can be placed in findings when more than one research method is employed.

Whilst these data collection procedures are not necessarily considered as the only ones imaginable (Atkinson; 1982), they are suited to investigating the research problem. The decision to adopt a combination of methods for the research is recommended by writers in the social sciences (see for example; Crompton and Jones; 1988, Gill and Johnson; 1991 Saunders et al; 1997 and Silverman; 1993). For example, Crompton and Jones (1988; 72) state that, the choice of methods is not "...a mutually exclusive decision between quantitative and qualitative methodology [because] in reality it is very difficult to study organisations without using both sorts of methods". Similarly, Gill and Johnson (1991) suggest that qualitative and quantitative researchers have much to learn from each other.

The case study approach adopted in this research involves the collection of detailed information about employees by way of quantitative and qualitative methods.

### 5.4 Case study work in this research

#### 5.4.1 Selection of participating case studies

The selection of organisations for participation in the study was based on two areas. Firstly, the project required case studies to have undergone some similar organisational changes, hence organisations were selected on the basis of the amount and nature of the changes undergone as this would enable cross case study analysis. Chapter four documents the changes under examination.

Secondly, the approach to effect change evident in each case study (prior to data collection) was assessed to acquire an understanding of and differentiate between each organisations’ strategy used to bring about change. This was achieved by application of the Chin and Benne (1985) framework discussed in chapter four.
5.4.2 The process of change

Following initial meetings with potential case studies at the outset of the research, it became evident that there were three distinct approaches to bringing about change. Chin and Benne’s (1985) model is used as a guide for differentiating between these.

The bringing together of a group of individuals with a common interest in the form of an informal interview, is referred to as a “focus group” by Coolican (1994;132) who considers that they are a particularly useful “starting point for research into a specific area” (Coolican;1994;132). Similarly, Schmitt and Klimoski (1991) suggest that in many situations, discussion groups and unstructured qualitative interviews can be conducted to learn more about a given subject, prior to embarking on in-depth, more demanding research.

Whilst these initial discussions were mainly centred around the nature by which each case study effects planned changes amongst their employees, they were also extended to included other areas of consideration derived from the Chin and Benne (1985) literature. This was necessary because at this stage in the study, it could only be inferred that indeed the organisations participating did pursue the strategies that had been assigned to them.

Making predictions based on little evidence prior to embarking on data collection and analysis is not uncommon in the social sciences. Scott (1988;36) for example; quoting Brown (1973) suggests that, “...to some extent, the selection of cases is something approaching guesswork, for details of case study specifics are not evident until detailed research has actually been initiated”.

Building on Guest’s (1984) criterion in which to assess the nature of organisations in relation to the Chin and Benne (1985) strategies (see chapter four) the focus groups conducted for the purposes of this research discussed employee and management perspectives on a broad set of issues at each of the three case studies, for example: Organisational culture, management and employees’ general
perspective of their employer, the purpose and treatment of employees (including the handling of dissent). Management style in dealing with the implementation of organisational changes (i.e. the emphasis placed on the use of knowledge and rational arguments, power and coercion, education and persuasion, cultural norms and values as effective mechanisms to implement change). Employee participation and involvement with regard to change. Communication amongst management and employees with regard to decision making about changes and the expectation of employee conformity after change. The underlying assumptions made about change, (for example; whether employees conform due to power constraints, knowledge and information (appealing to rational self interests) or through their values and norms.

5.4.3 Anonymity of case studies

At the request of each participating organisation, their actual identity will not be revealed throughout this dissertation (although some background information is provided below to set the scene). Instead reference will be made to each of the case studies by a numerical value, illustrative of the order in which the data was collected or a synonym. This is presented in Table 5-1 together with a brief description of each respective business type.

Table 5-1. Case study description and synonym used in this research

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Case study</th>
<th>Brief description</th>
<th>Synonym</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Case study one</td>
<td>Engineering component factory</td>
<td>Engco</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Case study two</td>
<td>Car part manufacturer</td>
<td>Carco</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Case study three</td>
<td>Aircraft engineering works</td>
<td>Airco</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
5.5 Case study background: Case study one

Engco (UK) Ltd or Engco, founded in 1910 is part of a large multinational company, Engco group. Engco is a producer of roller bearings. It manufactures more than 500 million in a total of 80 factories, situated in 23 countries. Customers are found globally in car, truck railway and general machinery, aerospace and electrical industries. In 1997 net sales amounted to £3 billion, yielding an operating gross profit of £234 million.

Since 1991, Engco has concentrated on manufacturing spherical roller bearings, primarily for the general engineering industry, including industrial gearboxes and fans. At the time of data collection, the organisation employed approximately 550 people located at two sites.

The factory is situated in Luton, together with an administration department called the “umbrella unit”. Another administration department located in Milton Keynes, referred to as Tilbrook, although in January 1998, after data collection had been completed, employees from this site were relocated and integrated into the umbrella unit at Luton.

5.5.1 Preliminary analysis at case study one

In introducing organisational changes at Engco, the preliminary analysis revealed that management emphases the use of both education and persuasion in eliciting changes. Management and employees indicated management’s use of information and rationality to inform employees about the implications of changes, coupled with the strength of the organisation’s cultural norms and values as effective mechanisms to bring about change. Similarly, both groups reported high emphasis on the organisation’s goals and values, which are, “an integral part of all target setting and action plans” (Manager, case study one). Thus, the strategy to bring about change at Engco was based on information and motivation. Emphasis was
also placed on corporate training days and many Engco employees referred to the Engco 100 day, details of which are illustrated in Figure 5-1.

Moreover, employees suggested that participation and involvement between management and themselves often occurred before, during and after the change process and that the changes introduced (for example organisational restructuring) are often complemented by workshops to provide in house training and, in the case of redundancy, counselling for survivors.

Chin and Benne (1985) suggest that normative/re-educative strategies often require involvement in working out programs for improvements during change, and that “clarification and reconstruction of values is of pivotal importance in changing” (Chin and Benne;1985;32).

Figure 5-1  Engco 100 day

“In the summer of 1996, the Engco group launched an ambitious growth and quality programme called ‘Engco 100’. The significance was not only to convey the fact that Engco will be 100 years old in 2007, but to promote the part that all employees can play in helping the company realise its vision.

To emphasise that Engco 100 is a joint effort involving everyone in the company, all employees of Engco (UK) Ltd were taken off site for a whole day to discuss how Engco100 affected them. The day consisted of a series of presentations and groups working sessions on the strategies, the Engco values and drivers and how they affect each player. Opportunities were also taken for some socialising and team building activities to re-enforce the corporate message”.

Source : Services/Personnel Manager : Engco

Engco personnel also reported high levels of effort on the part of managers in attempting to change not only employee patterns of behaviour at work, but attitudes and values. Management suggested that their employees have an inherent desire to work and can be empowered to work hard for the good of the organisation during and after times of change. They compared McGregor’s (1987) theory Y to their own style of management. Emphasis on strengthening subordinate and management relationships during periods of change was also
apparent, “Our style is consultative, open, honest, approachable and most of our employees have a high length of service and are extremely loyal to company principles” (Manager with staff responsibility, case study one).

When taken together, the above evidence indicates that the strategy pursued by case study one in eliciting change is most appropriate to Chin and Benne’s (1985) normative/re-educative strategy, since this suggests that, “action and practice are supported by social-cultural norms and by commitments on the part of the individuals to these norms [and] value systems of individuals - normative outlook with undergrid their commitments. Change in a pattern of practice or action...will occur only as the persons involved are brought to old patterns and develop commitments to new ones” (Chin and Benne;1985;23).

5.6 Case study background: Case study two

Carco is part of a large, multinational company (referred to as Carco International) and is a division of General Motors. It specialises in designing, manufacturing, delivering and servicing automotive systems and components. In 1995 the parent company was worth an estimated twenty six billion dollars and employed approximately 21,000 people world-wide. Carco International supplies vehicle stability enhancement systems, braking and suspension systems, modules and chassises to vehicle manufacturers globally.

Carco is one of six operating divisions, the only one in Britain, and is responsible for braking and suspension systems. Major customers are big car manufacturers, in particular Vauxhall, BMW, Rover, Ford and Volkswagen. It employs approximately 130 employees, predominately in the workshops and on the shopfloor. Prior to data collection is was made known that the possibility of a move within a forty mile radius had been extensively considered and eventually rejected. During the time the research was being conducted, other sites for Carco’s relocation were being considered.
5.6.1 Preliminary analysis at case study two

In undertaking several group discussions where both management and employees were present at Carco, it became apparent that their established relationships played a part in determining employee responses. This became more apparent when the groups were segregated and indeed employees reported an element of fear outside the mixed focus group sessions that they considered prevented them from expressing their true personal opinions. "You have to be careful in what you say, the system is corrupt. Sometimes you just don't want to speak up... its a boys club" (Shopfloor employee, case study two).

In establishing the strategy to effect change, employee focus groups at Carco revealed that employees considered the implementation of the changes described as SET ONE as legitimised by the use of coercion. Unlike case study one, the preliminary investigation at Carco revealed that little emphasis is placed on attempting to re-educate employees in light of change.

Management and employee groups at Carco reported that their organisation's culture is underpinned by a "business as usual" strategy regardless of change, driven by a "need for profit maximisation [because] time is money in this industry" (Manager at case study two). Of the employees participating with the group discussions, many indicated an expectation from shopfloor management from them to comply with change. "They keep us in the dark for ages, then spring it on you, there is no communication, no democratic system and they expect you to get on with it, or if you do not like it, get out" (Shopfloor cell leader, case study two).

This perspective is supported by the lack of evidence to suggest a clear commitment by management to consider the impact of change on employees, further acknowledged by the limited financial resources set aside for the re-education of employees in light of change. Thus, Chin and Benne's (1985) acknowledgement of a power/coercive strategy seems to be the most fitting in this situation.
Moreover, employees at Carco indicated low levels of communication amongst management and themselves in decision making about change and high expectations from management to conform to the organisation during change periods. Subsequently, opposition in the form of high union membership and other coalition groups have developed. This is necessary, "...to protect ourselves, you never know what is happening from one day to the next in this place" (Shopfloor employee, case study two). Chin and Benne (1985;40) suggest that "...as a part of the social system becomes aware that its interests are not being served by those in control of the system, the coercive power of those in control can be challenged" and active or non active subcultures may develop.

Based on this evidence, it appears that Carco is more in keeping with the coercive nature of power, and features at the coercive end of Mangham’s (1978) power based strategies model (as presented in chapter four).

5.7 Case study background: Case study three

Airco Aircraft Engineering (UK) Ltd (Airco), established in 1967 provides engineering support to many aircraft carriers, as well as Airco Airlines Ltd, a sister company. Based at London Luton Airport, it specialises in technical back up in the form of line maintenance, engineering services, spares and support and design and aircraft modification. Airco is approved to carry out all work from the UK’s Civil Aviation Authority and the Federal Aviation Administration of the USA, as well as from a number of other countries. It also has clearance from British Aerospace to work on its aircraft.

Furthermore, Airco was the first European maintenance organisation to obtain the joint Airworthiness Authority that is a standard for maintenance of large transport aircraft which has been providing training for apprentices and engineers since 1971. Indeed, all engineers are encouraged to gain qualifications on new or existing aircraft types at the Aeronautical Training Group based at London Luton Airport. At the time of data collection, Airco had approximately 610 employees.
5.7.1 Preliminary analysis at case study three

From the discussions at Airco, employees and management indicated that the organisational changes implemented at case study three are done so on the basis of reason and logic, where enhancing the knowledge of the benefits of change to employees underpins their introduction. Both parties considered that the changes (such as those presented in SET ONE, with the exception of payment settlements) occurred as a direct consequence of the rigorous standards enforced by the industry, which are usually based on safety issues. “We work in a dynamic organisation where safety is paramount. There are human factors involved. We have several one day seminars to help us cope with the changes to our methods of work, and believe me there are many. The importance of safety can not be underestimated in this industry. We, as engineers, must respond. New research is coming out all the time, and this promotes the changes dictated by the industry” (Shopfloor manager with staff responsibility, case study three).

The nature of the industry therefore limits employee participation and involvement in decision making about such changes, because the Civil Aviation Authority (CAA) requires them. Employees recognise and accept that the CAA as the governing safety body and therefore respond willingly to the changes directed by them.

The underlying assumption of the empirical/rational strategy presented by Chin and Benne (1985;23) suggests that “because the person is assumed to be rational...it is assumed that he (or they) will adopt the proposed change if it can be rationally justified to them”. In other words, what people know and understand will ultimately determine their acceptance of change. The empirical/rational strategy evident at Airco was also enhanced by the suggestion that employees adopt change on the basis of the knowledge given, although, “...it is not an option to refuse to comply with the changes dictated by the CAA” (Director of Personnel, case study three).
Similarly, Meyer and Allen (1997) note that organisations can foster commitment amongst their employees in many ways, one of which is by offering training programmes in order to provide employees with knowledge and skills they require to do their jobs effectively.

Thus, it is maintained that an empirical/rational strategy is the most fitting for effecting change at case study three, since changes there are predominately made on the basis of knowledge and research in the area and can therefore be reasonably justified to employees. Table 5-2 shows the perceived strategies assigned to each case study.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Case study</th>
<th>Synonym</th>
<th>Perceived strategy at the outset of the project</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Case study one</td>
<td>Engco</td>
<td>Normative/re-educative</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Case study two</td>
<td>Carco</td>
<td>Power/coercive</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Case study three</td>
<td>Airco</td>
<td>Empirical/rational</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

5.8 Questionnaire construction

Initially, questionnaire construction was carried out with the assistance and guidance of a sample group of employees and some managers at the first case study (Engco). Following Oppenheim (1992;57), "...at this stage...we are not trying to obtain some kind of true measurement of each respondent...we are trying to obtain ideas, concepts, forms of words and material for future questions". This preliminary work enabled all aspects of the questionnaire and instructions to be pre-tested and assisted in the decision to use the BOCS over the OCQ, (since employees indicated that they preferred the phrasing of the items in BOCS).
Several open questions were used to gain an insight into how these would be interpreted by respondents. This also helped to provide answer categories. Moreover, the types of answers received were also treated as indicators of respondents’ level of intelligence. This was used as a basis to ensure that the language used in the questionnaire covered the most basic level of literacy. The questionnaire layout was also given some consideration, a happy medium to ease self completion for the respondent and data input into a statistical package for the author.

5.8.1 Tailoring and pre-testing the questionnaire in the three case studies

Once the basis for the questionnaire had been completed, each was modified to embrace case specific changes within the three organisations. This involved tailoring the questionnaire to each individual case study, whilst also embracing the key changes that had occurred across cases studies (ensuring some standardisation for analytical comparisons could be made). Thereafter, each questionnaire was pre-tested with a representative stratified random sample group of employees from each case study. Guidelines were used to assess the successfulness of the pilot, these were adapted from Bell (1993;65) and are shown in Figure 5-2. Following the pilot process, company notices were put up in each of the three companies, informing employees about the research (see appendix 7).

5.8.2 Amendments to case study questionnaires

Extensive collaboration in devising and pre-testing the questionnaire resulted in few recommendations being proposed in any of the participating case studies following the pilot with sample groups. Copies of each case study’s questionnaire are presented in appendix 8, 9 and 10.
5.8.3 Questionnaire design

Whilst the main objective of the research is to find out if employee commitment levels are altered by organisational changes, the questionnaire was broken down into smaller, more workable subsections pertaining to the development of the research focus set out in chapter four. This is shown in Figure 5-3.

**Figure 5-3 Breakdown of questionnaire used for data collection in the three case studies**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Section</th>
<th>Brief description of each part</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Biographic and work related variables (enabling a profile of respondents to be made);</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>BOCS (to measure levels of employees' commitment);</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>A general section about employee and management views of commitment;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Examines the impact of specific changes on commitment levels (i.e. SET ONE, TWO and THREE);</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>Space made available for use by each case study.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
5.8.4 Determining the questioning approach

Sections two and four adopted Likert scaling methods to collate data. This has become an increasingly popular method in the social sciences for measuring attitudes, because it provides precise information about respondents’ extent of agreement or disagreement with a particular item (Moser and Kalton; 1992). Likert measures however, are criticised because the interpretation of the scores attributed to the scale are subject to interpretation by the respondent (as each item is not anchored by a description), (see Oppenheim; 1992).

Consequently, in attempting to standardise the meaning of the responses, the formation of items in part four of each case study questionnaire, has seen adoption of Likert scales accompanied with item descriptions. Whilst these perform much the same function as traditional Likert scales, they also attempt to combat the problems encountered by them.

It is noted that in this research a lot of weight is attached to a single item on whether commitment has increased or decreased as a result of employees’ experience of organisational changes. This is an important point concerned with the scale’s construct validity, namely, does the measure adequately reflect the construct under investigation. This issue is discussed below.

Finally, details of respondents’ income were deliberately omitted from the questionnaire. Firstly, this “is extremely difficult to determine accurately” (Moser and Kalton; 1992) and secondly, it is particularly intrusive and may deter participants. The item of employment status was favoured in order to indicate respondent seniority and is a suitable proxy for level of education and income.

5.8.5 Use of single item indicator in this research

Capturing employee attitudes is usually achieved by assembling a set of statements as reflected in the BOCS since “…attitude is a complex concept involving many
different facets” (Moser and Kalton; 1992; 376). However, a single item indicator rather than a series of statements was the approach developed in this research to measure the impact of change on commitment (part four of the questionnaire).

The reasons for this were largely practical and based on the results of the pilot study at case study one. Whilst pilotees at the initial phase of data collection and in general discussions were shown Mowday et al’s (1982) definition of attitudinal commitment, where the three underlying elements of commitment were explained, participants tended to use the term ‘commitment’ interchangeably with these. In other words, they did not distinguish between commitment as a term and the components of it. Moser and Kalton (1992; 376) advise that complex or ambiguous wording items should be avoided in questionnaire construction when trying to capture employees beliefs. The decision to use the term ‘commitment’ in preference to assessing the impact of change on employees’ identification, involvement and loyalty highlights the differences between the academic approach taken to viewing such terms and their use by participants of research. However, this subsequently raises the issue of validity associated with such indicators.

As stated in section 5.3, this study comprises a multiple case design utilising both quantitative and qualitative methods, examining both how and why employee commitment responds to organisational change. The information obtained by the respondent on part four of the questionnaire provides an initial indication of what will subsequently form the main purpose and discussion in the interviews. By further exploring the responses on the questionnaire about commitment after change will limit the problems that might otherwise be associated with validity. This issue is returned to in chapter eight where the compatibility of the organisational changes experienced by interviewees in the three case studies is established.
5.8.6 Sampling at case studies one and two

Stratified sampling is a method which involves the pre-defining of groups of people (i.e. identifying the strata of the parent population) and selecting a sample (usually by random means) of participants on the basis of this. Oppenheim (1994; 38) suggests that to understand the relationship between the sample and its parent population, "...we must be able to describe them in terms of characteristics which are common to them both...in order to show the success or accuracy of the sampling operation.

A stratified random sample of employees representative of the larger population in case studies one and two was selected. The purpose was to be able to gain a variety of perspectives from a cross section of employees in each organisation, (this included senior, middle and section managers, clerical staff and shopfloor personnel). The strata of pay grade was used since this reflects the varying types of employees required for the study. Following Saunders et al (1997), stratified random sampling offers greater reliability than mere random sampling (because groups determined by the strata are represented in the same proportions as in the parent population). Similarly, Bryman and Cramer (1994; 102) note, "...a stratified sample greatly enhances the likelihood of the proper representation of strata in the sample".

5.8.7 Sampling frame and sample sizes at case studies one and two

The sampling frame was drawn from personnel lists issued by each case study. In both organisations, employee names were categorised by pay grade which made selection relatively straight forward. The size of each strata was calculated from the total number of employees located within each grade. Diehl and Gay (1991), state that a major benefit of a stratified random sample is that it allows the researcher to select unequal sized samples from each of the subgroups (strata) (that represent the population) which allow for comparisons between groups to be made.
Since names were listed alphabetically within each pay grade, the lists were literally cut up and names were randomly selected. Bryman and Cramer's (1994) suggestion of increasing the sample size by an additional 20% was adopted to accommodate for those subjects who were on holiday or absent at the time of questionnaire testing, as well as those who are illiterate and also for non response.

5.8.8 Questionnaire distribution at case studies one and two

Employees selected for participation with the research at case studies one and two were invited to participate during work hours. This was achieved with authorisation and co-operation from management at both organisations. A room was also provided to enable the questionnaire completion to be carried out. Employees participated in batches of approximately ten to twenty at a time to minimise disruption.

5.8.9 Guidelines for questionnaire completion

In an attempt to secure the quality of the questionnaire data at case studies one and two, a ten minute presentation introducing the project and identifying guidelines for the successful accomplishment of the questionnaire was given to every respondent prior to requesting them to partake with this part of the research (see appendix 11). The guidelines were also illustrated via an overhead projector as they were discussed. Employees were then given thirty minutes to complete the questionnaire. This procedure was applied to case studies one and two only, as data at case three was collected by using the in house postal system in which every employee received a questionnaire (this is further addressed in section 5.10.10). Table 5-3 shows the response rates of questionnaires obtained at these organisations.
Table 5-3 Response rates of questionnaire in case studies one and two

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Case study</th>
<th>Total workforce</th>
<th>Number selected through strata</th>
<th>Number of subjects who participated</th>
<th>Number of questionnaires spoilt</th>
<th>% of the total workforce participating</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>One</td>
<td>550</td>
<td>150</td>
<td>122</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>22%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Two</td>
<td>133</td>
<td>75</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>45%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

5.8.10 Sampling frame at case study three

Management's commitment to the project at case studies one and two greatly helped to secure response rates of the questionnaire and assisted in justifying the selection of employees through random stratification. However, for practical reasons, (detailed below) the procedures used to distribute and receive questionnaires at case studies one and two could not be replicated at case study three.

The period of investigation at case three was undertaken during the summer months and due to the nature of the business, (i.e. maintaining aircraft), the volume of work is largely seasonal (typically, aeroplanes are maintained during the winter and in use during the summer). Thus, between the periods of June to August, employees at Airco are encouraged to take long holidays, are sent on training courses and are likely to work reduced shifts. In short, there is high employee absenteeism during this time, and it was considered that response rates to the questionnaire would reflect this.

In an attempt to maximise questionnaire returns, and limit non response by selecting a strata of employees to participate (which representatives from the works committee suggested may raise some suspicion about the purpose of this research), it was decided that all employees would be targeted. The in-house postal system was used to distribute questionnaires, and participants were asked to return them via locked ballot boxes emptied daily by the author. Details of the
research and questionnaire instructions were provided in a covering letter (see appendix 12).

Table 5-4 Response rates of questionnaires from respondents at case study three

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Case study</th>
<th>Total workforce</th>
<th>Number distributed</th>
<th>Number returned</th>
<th>Number spoilt</th>
<th>% of the total workforce participating</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Three</td>
<td>610</td>
<td>610</td>
<td>284</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>47%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The response rate of 47% was received following the initial distribution of the questionnaire. Since this is a particularly impressive return rate, a follow up procedure was not employed.

5.8.11 Sample size and sample representativeness

In light of researchers in the social sciences working to a 95% confidence level, Saunders et al (1997:128) have provided a "rough guide" to calculating appropriate sample sizes, predominately based on estimates for use with random sampling techniques. They suggest that approximately 217 participants are required if the total population is 500, and 79 respondents are necessary for a population of 100 (both with a 5% margin of error).

Although in this research, the sample sizes at case study one (i.e. 150 respondents from a total population of 550) and case study two (i.e. 60 participants from a total of 133) lie slightly below the values proposed by Saunders et al (1997), it is noted that a stratified random sample, (which provides more accuracy than random sampling) was adopted for use with these case studies. This sought to maximise the representativeness of the findings to the larger population in the two respective organisations. Given that no respondents refused to participate with the questionnaire at either of the two case studies, a high response rate was secured at each. This, coupled with the decision to employ the use of both questionnaires and
interviews as a means of collecting data, suggests that whilst the sample sizes in this research lie slightly outside the guide presented by Saunders et al (1997), this is less of an issue than it would have been if the data in this study was reliant on one sole method.

Where a census was employed (i.e. case study three), Saunders et al (1997) table was used as a guide. They suggest that with a total population of 750, 254 participants are required in order to obtain a 95% level of certainty that the sample is representative of the population from which it was extrapolated. In this research, 284 questionnaires were returned from a workforce of 610 (as shown in Table 5-4). This is well within their recommended range, and the sample was representative of the groups within the organisation. Hence it is considered to be representative of the larger population at case study three.

5.9 Nature and purpose of interviewing in this research

The purpose of conducting interviews. Firstly, it was carried out to find evidence to support or refute the initial prediction and assignment of Chin and Benne’s (1985) strategies, originally allocated to each of the three case studies. These were designated on the basis of the focus groups sessions with employees and management at the outset of the research (as discussed in section 5.5.3). Secondly, to clarify how each change under examination is perceived and provide explanations for demonstrating their outcomes for commitment after change, thereby probing beyond the ‘yes’ and ‘no’ responses obtained from the survey data (Jones; 1991). In this sense, interviewing is regarded as a tool used for an extending and enriching the quantitative data already obtained.

This is particularly important since the questionnaire relies on the employee’s response on a single item scale to indicate whether their commitment has increased, decreased or remained unchanged after each organisational change (see section 5.8.5).
Establishing the congruency between the questionnaire and interview data is addressed in chapter eight. Yin (1994) notes that corroborating interview data with information from other sources can provide a valuable depth of meaning to research findings. Indeed, “...case studies need not be limited to a single source of evidence. In fact, most of the better case studies rely on a wide variety of sources” (Yin;1994;94). Similarly, Schmitt and Klimoski (1991;151) note that qualitative data, when combined with quantitative results, “can produce more valid inferences than either one separately”.

Whilst the questionnaire was predominately concerned with collecting raw quantitative data (such that an objective measure of commitment towards the organisation and commitment after change could be obtained), due to the rigidity and structured nature of the questionnaire approach used, the why questions related to the project largely remain unanswered. Hence, the interviews were designed to explore the related experiences of individuals, thereby providing an in-depth understanding of the participants’ subjectivity and meaning by drawing on their experiences of work.

In order to gain some insight into these issues, it was necessary to ensure that all of those participating in the interview process had completed questionnaires. Hakim (1992), states that quantitative survey techniques are often employed as a means of data collection before embarking on qualitative research, as they provide a rich sampling frame for selecting respondents for depth interviewing.

However, one of the major limitations in qualitative research is the lack of analytical methods developed (Schmitt and Klimoski;1991). Following Miles, (1979) these authors also argue that there are very few operational guidelines that can be adhered to for protection against unreliable or invalid conclusions drawn. Strategies and appropriate analytical techniques have been ill defined in the past and as a result, there are “few fixed formulas or cookbook recipes” (Yin;1994;102). The general consensus, however, is that interview analysis usually involves teasing out implications from the script, inferring and interpreting the
subject’s meaning. This approach suggests that much depends on an investigator’s style of thinking and careful consideration of alternative interpretations.

In the current research a coding strategy was developed. This involved developing a variety of coding techniques to be subjected to the data to enable its analysis. Given that a total of five coding techniques were applied, it is appropriate to present this near to the point where the results are discussed. The coding and results of the qualitative data are therefore dealt with in chapter eight.

5.9.1 Interview timing and sample selection

In this research, interviewing commenced approximately within one week of questionnaire returns, since it was important for respondents to have a good recollection of their survey responses. However, this also meant that the collective questionnaires within each case study had not been fully analysed, such that any interesting or unusual findings could not be pursued in the interviews.

Table 5-5 Response rates for interviews (determined by questionnaire returns)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Case study</th>
<th>Total workforce</th>
<th>Total number of questionnaire returns</th>
<th>Total number selected (via strata of questionnaire returns)</th>
<th>Number of questionnaire returns who participated interviews</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>One</td>
<td>550</td>
<td>122</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>26</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Two</td>
<td>133</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Three</td>
<td>610</td>
<td>284</td>
<td>38</td>
<td>24</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Respondents were selected on the basis of their employment status and their questionnaire responses. Firstly, questionnaire returns were divided into categories (the strata of pay grade was used as before). Following this, the questionnaire responses were examined to enable a diversity of employee opinion to be obtained. Table 5-5 illustrates the number of interviews carried out at each case study, and Table 5-6 identifies the interviewees by employment status.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Case (by number)</th>
<th>Total number of interviews carried out</th>
<th>Management</th>
<th>Clerical</th>
<th>Shopfloor</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>One</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Two</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Three</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

5.9.2 Interview setting and questioning approach adopted

Authors writing about research conducted using interviews (for example, Jones;1991, Hammersley and Atkinson;1995 and Schmitt and Klimoski;1991) identify the importance of the setting in which they are carried out since, “different settings are likely to induce and constrain talk of particular kinds. In part, this will be a product of the possibility of being overheard. Or it may be that there are distractions” (Hammersley and Atkinson;1983;125). In each of the three case studies, a space free from distraction and interruption was dedicated for interviewing purposes.

A semi-structured style of interviewing was chosen as this is inherently more flexible than the standardised approach of the structured interview and was therefore more suited to the overall purpose within the confines of this research. Figure 5-4 illustrates the items detailed for discussion, although the approach used allowed for much impromptu discussion to take place and thus some important issues emerged from employees as a result of their personal experiences and account of events. Burman (1996;51) notes that flexibility of the schedule is a key part of this type of interviewing as “...you are not bound by the codes of a standardisation and replicability to soldier on through your interview schedule irrespective of how appropriate it is for your interviewee”.
### Figure 5-4 Areas and questions for discussion in interviews

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Question</th>
<th>Answer</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>What is the most positive thing that has happened to you during your</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>employment at (company name)? Do you consider that this has shaped or</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>altered your commitment to (company name)? If yes, how?</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>What is the most negative thing that has happened to you during your</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>employment at (company name)? Do you consider that this has impacted</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>on your commitment to (company name)? In what way?</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Refer to individual's questionnaire and specifically the questions on</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>change. Go through all questions on change the employee has marked as</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>personally experienced or seen happen to others. State;</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Your questionnaire indicates that you have personally experienced (or</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>seen it happen to others) (specific change). Can you describe what this</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>change means for you?</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I also see from your questionnaire that you indicate that (specific</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>change) has (increased/decreased) your commitment towards (company</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>name). Can you tell me why? (i.e. Have you been affected by this change</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>during your day to day routine? How? Long term?) Or,</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I see from your questionnaire that you indicate that (specific change)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>has had not impact on your commitment towards the (company name). Can</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>you tell me why?</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Other questions:</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>We talked about some of the changes that have happened at (company</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>name) and you have indicated to me why your commitment has changed or</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>remained the same as a result of these. On the whole, do you consider</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>that your commitment towards (company name) does vary as a result of</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>the changes you have experienced, or do you consider that it is</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>relatively stable.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>How would you describe the management approach to implementing changes</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>such as those on the questionnaire.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Please describe (choose a random section of issues which are important</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>in the process of change note 5.4.2) at (company name) For example;</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>What are management/employee relations like?</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>What (if anything) would you differently if you were bringing about</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>some of the changes to we have discussed to (company name)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Would you like to add anything else either not already discussed that</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>you consider may be important to my research?</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Do you think that Airco would be a different place to work if it had a</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>union? How? (Airco only) Can you tell me about the promotion system at</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Carco? (Carco only)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Prior to this however, a full introduction, specifying the purpose, nature, timing of the interview was given to each respondent, this was followed by a series of warm up questions in an attempt to establish a rapport between parties (see appendix 13).

5.9.3 Piloting and method of recording respondent information

The interview schedule underwent a pre-test with a small representative stratified sample of about four or five employees at each case study. Thereafter, each interview lasted for approximately one hour in which copious notes (at the discretion of the interviewee) were taken since tape recording facilities were not permitted.

All interviewees partaking in this research agreed that notes could be taken throughout the interview process. However, this was time consuming, and required parallel listening (Burman;1996), or “listening beyond” (Measor;1985;63) what the interviewee said in order to explore some issues in greater depth. Despite this, this method was highly beneficial to the research, since at times, there were pauses in speech from the interviewee as they waited for the interviewer to catch up. These brief silences subsequently prompted the continuation of speech from the interviewee which, on more than one occasion summed up their feelings absolutely precisely and revealed more depth to their account which may otherwise not have been captured.

Immediately following each interview, every script was reviewed in privacy by the interviewer to ensure sentence structure and grammar was appropriated to ease transcribing. Moreover, it was also undertaken to captivate the interviewers thoughts and impressions which, although is a highly subjective task, would later assist in contextualising the data and clarify ambiguity of meaning. The interview scripts were transcribed verbatim.
5.10 Continuation or duplication of case study data collection

Both the quantitative and qualitative data collection in the case studies was undertaken individually and sequentially. This meant that at no point throughout the duration of the project was data collected from more than one organisation at a time. This approach, whilst being more time consuming than if the data had been collected concurrently, enabled modification and refining of the questioning approach used in the questionnaires and interviews. In this sense, the approach was one of continuation rather than mere duplication of the survey and interview questions. For example; the questioning techniques concerned with the organisational changes in case study one firstly aimed to differentiate between those employees who had not experienced change and those who had, and secondly, identify how the latter had impacted on commitment levels.

Following questionnaire completion at the first case study, it emerged that the extent of an employees' experience of change may be a possible factor in determining commitment levels. Ultimately, this lead to the differentiation, in subsequent case work, between those respondents who had experienced change personally, or seen change happen to others (see questionnaires devised for use in case study's two and three in appendix 9 and 10). This development to the research question is shown as an amendment on the model, shown as figure 5-5.

A key disadvantage of adopting a continuous approach to data collection is that some of the case study data is not directly comparable because of the evolving nature of the research question. This is important because it determines the type of statistical analysis that can be performed on the data (see chapter seven).
Figure 5-5 Conceptual model illustrating the role of organisational change and possible outcomes for employee commitment levels

Key
- © Employee commitment
- O Employee commitment levels remain stable
- O Employee commitment levels decrease
- O Employee commitment levels increase
- O Employee commitment levels increase
- O Employee commitment levels decrease
- O Employee commitment levels remain stable
5.11 Ethical considerations and the data protection in the research

The data collection in stages one and two of this research were carried out in accordance with the Ethical Principles for Conducting Research with Human Participants (1991) published by the British Psychological Society (BPS). It states that, "in all circumstances, investigators must consider the ethical implications and psychological consequences for the participants in their research. The essential principle is that the investigation should be considered from the standpoint of all participants..." (BPS;1991;7)

Subject to the requirements of the Data Protection Act (1984), information obtained from respondents during the investigation was treated as confidential, since the "participants in psychological research have a right to expect that information they provide will be treated confidentially and, if published, will not be identifiable as theirs" (BPS;1991;9).

Moreover, access to questionnaires and interview scripts was only allocated to the research team and individual's opinions and quotations were not attributed to named participants. Appendix 14 documents the process adhered to for retaining confidential information for the purposes of this study.

5.11.1 Application of The Data Protection Act (DPA) to this research

DPA principles (see Figure 5-6) were applied in this research. In particular, the personal information collated about the organisations and respondents involved is required (by law) to be registered with the Data Protection Authority. This was achieved through the Legal Office at the University of Luton.
Figure 5-6. Data Protection Act: Principles used in this research

Obtain and process personal data fairly and lawfully and hold the data only for the purposes specified in Register entry;

Use the data only for the purposes, and disclosed only to the people, listed in your Register entry;

Only hold the data that are adequate, relevant. Ensure personal data are accurate and where necessary, kept up to date;

Hold the data for not longer than is necessary;

Allow individuals access to the information held about them and, where appropriate, correct it or erase it;

Take security measures to prevent unauthorised or accidental access to, alteration, disclosure, or loss and destruction of information

Source: DPA;1984

5.12 Chapter summary and conclusions

The chapter commenced by re-stating the overarching research objective, namely to investigate employee commitment after change. It then went on to discuss the research design, acknowledging that although a longitudinal approach would be beneficial to the investigation, this was not practically possible. The design used is cross sectional with a hint of factorial.

It was then argued that a multi method approach using quantitative and qualitative techniques was most suited to researching the subject area. This was incorporated to the case study approach adopted. The case study organisations were then distinguished by application of the Chin and Benne (1985) framework.

The design and administration of the case study questionnaires, and interviewing schedule was then discussed. Finally, it was noted that the research was carried out with guidelines from the Data Protection Act and Ethical Principles for Conducting Research with Human Participants (1991). In conclusion to this chapter, a flow diagram of the research sequence in both stages one and two of this investigation is presented as Figure 5-7.
Figure 5-7: The research sequence in this investigation

Review and conceptualisation of employee commitment

Preliminary study - national survey (stage one)

Conclusions drawn from data collection (stage one), coupled with literature review about employee commitment and organisational change

Main study - combined cross sectional and factorial design
Multiple case studies utilising quantitative and qualitative techniques (stage two)

Stage two - Case study questionnaires
Stage two interviews (used to supplement and complement quantitative analysis)

Conclusions drawn from data interpretation

Confirmation or refutation of hypotheses

Contribution to the literature
6. CHAPTER SIX : EVALUATION OF THE BOCS

6.1 Introduction

As the title suggests, this chapter provides an assessment of the BOCS scale. This is an important methodological issue central to the research since the scale is used as a dependent variable in later analysis (see chapter seven). Moreover, inferences about how the measure is likely to behave in other research settings are made on the basis of the analysis carried out. The chapter is split into four parts. The first part discusses what is involved in undertaking an evaluation of Cook and Wall’s (1980) measure. In short, this includes establishing the reliability and dimensionality of the BOCS. The analysis reveals that BOCS is not the stable measurement of commitment it is portrayed to be throughout the literature, (see for example Peccei and Guest;1993, Fenton-O’Greevy et al;1997). This finding subsequently leads to a fuller, more in-depth analysis of the factor structure of the scale presented on the individual case data obtained in this investigation. This is presented in part two.

From this, the optimum BOCS solution and its subscales are identified. The descriptive statistics of the BOCS in this research are then compared with Peccei and Guest’s (1993) British Rail scores in the third part of the chapter and following this, a presentation and discussion of BOCS scores obtained from each of the three case studies, Engco, Carco and Aircoc is documented in the fourth and final part.

6.2 Selecting and assessing the BOCS

Mirroring, as closely as possible, the Peccei and Guest (1993) analysis, the reliability of the scale is firstly established. Secondly a factor analysis is carried out and comparisons with other studies, which have assessed the scale, are made. Throughout the remainder of this dissertation, the term BOCS, or any of the three respective subscales of the instrument, followed by the number of items will be
used as an abbreviation. For example; BOCS9 will be used to indicate the full version of BOCS comprising all nine items, whereas, BOCS6 will be used to indicate the shorter version, omitting the negatively keyed items. Moreover, identification3, involvement3 and loyalty3 refer to the three item subscales. The three, two item subscales, identification2, involvement2 and loyalty2 have had the negatively worded item removed.

6.3 Reliability analysis

6.3.1 Reliability of BOCS in this research

Following the Peccei and Guest (1993) study, reliability analysis is performed on both nine and six item versions of BOCS to establish which would emerge as the most reliable scale for measuring commitment. Analysis is also performed on the three subscales of the instrument, with and without the negatively worded items.

Bryman and Cramer (1994) suggest that a result of 0.8 or more is required to infer the precision of interval measuring scales (like BOCS). Whilst this may appear high (in relation to Oppenheim's; 1992 suggestion of 0.65 on attitude scaling), this level was considered achievable following Cook and Wall's (1980) analysis which obtained a score of 0.87 for the nine item scale and loyalty, involvement and identification subscale values of 0.82, 0.87, and 0.74 respectively.

Since its creation, the BOCS has become a well established tool for measuring commitment, which has been tested in a variety of settings. Peccei and Guest (1993;8), note that, “subsequent studies [using BOCS], [for example], (Kemp, Wall, Clegg and Cordery; 1983, Wall, Kemp, Jackson and Clegg, 1986) obtained alpha coefficients ranging from 0.70 to 0.77, thereby providing additional support for the internal consistency of the scale”. Thus, alpha coefficients of at least 0.7 were anticipated. Cronbach's alpha coefficient was used. According to Coolican (1994) is the natural choice when dealing with ordinal or interval type data, like, for example, BOCS. The results are shown in Table 6-1.
Table 6.1 Reliability of BOCS

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Case study one</th>
<th>Case study two</th>
<th>Case study three</th>
<th>Combined case</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>BOCS9</td>
<td>0.8398</td>
<td>0.8288</td>
<td>0.8476</td>
<td>0.8423</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>BOCS6</td>
<td>0.8201</td>
<td>0.8236</td>
<td>0.8292</td>
<td>0.8243</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mean number of valid cases</td>
<td>118</td>
<td>56</td>
<td>284</td>
<td>458</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

6.3.2 Nine and six item versions of BOCS

Both six and nine item scales are reliable measures of commitment, each obtaining a score above that of 0.8. However, the full nine item scale of the BOCS instrument is shown to be statistically more reliable (albeit marginally) than the six item scale within each of three independent case studies as well as on the combined case data. This suggests that the negatively worded items on the scale did not confound the employees who responded. BOCS9 is therefore the superior scale for measuring commitment within the context of this study. This result is not compatible with that of Peccei and Guest (1993). They hypothesised that the reliability check and the factor structure of BOCS would perform better on the positively worded version in relation to the full nine item version, which includes the negatively worded items. In short, their results support their hypothesis, such that they suggest, “...that there is nothing to be gained by retaining [the negatively worded] items in the scale” (Peccei and Guest;1993;22).

The full scale is the most superior. There is no evidence to indicate that the negatively worded items in the BOCS confused participants. This could perhaps be attributed to the instructions, which were produced following comments after the questionnaire pilot (see chapter five). These forewarned respondents that some of the questions on the questionnaire are negatively phrased (full questionnaire instructions are shown in appendix 11).

Alternatively, the reason for obtaining the highest reliability scores on BOCS9 in relation to BOCS6 may be located in the sample composition of this study. BOCS
was tested on blue and white collar workers. The ratio being approximately 50:50 on the combined data set, (the sample composition is discussed in detail in chapter seven). It is suggested that the respondents were better able to cope with the negatively worded items in relation to Cook and Wall's (1980) sample (which consisted solely of blue collar workers). Further comparative analysis between groups of white and blue collar workers located in the same working environment, is nevertheless required to support or refute this supposition.

Bryman and Cramer (1994), suggest that when a concept comprises of underlying dimensions (like BOCS) it is normal to also calculate reliability estimates for each of the constituent dimensions as well as for the measure as a whole. This presents a more balanced picture of the scale and its dimensions.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Question</th>
<th>Subscale</th>
<th>BOCS statement</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Q12</td>
<td>Identification</td>
<td>I am quite proud to be able to tell people that I work for (company name)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q13r</td>
<td>Loyalty</td>
<td>I sometimes feel like leaving this employment for good.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q14r</td>
<td>Involvement</td>
<td>I'm not willing to put myself out just to help the organisation.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q15</td>
<td>Loyalty</td>
<td>Even if (company name) were not doing too well financially, I would be reluctant to change to another employer.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q16</td>
<td>Identification</td>
<td>I feel myself to be a part of (company name)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q17</td>
<td>Involvement</td>
<td>In my work I like to feel that I am making some effort not just for myself, but for the organisation as well.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q18</td>
<td>Loyalty</td>
<td>The offer of a bit more money with another employer would not seriously make me think of changing my job.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q19r</td>
<td>Identification</td>
<td>I would not recommend a close friend to join our staff.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q20</td>
<td>Involvement</td>
<td>To know that my own work had made a contribution to the good of the organisation would please me.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 6-2. BOCS items on combined data set
Table 6-2 shows the individual BOCS items and the corresponding question numbers on the combined data set. Q19r, Q14r, and Q15r represent the negatively keyed variables. The reliability of the BOCS subscales is presented in Table 6-3.

**Table 6-3  Reliability of the BOCS subscales**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Identification3</th>
<th>Case study one</th>
<th>Case study two</th>
<th>Case study three</th>
<th>Combined case</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Identification2</td>
<td>0.6991</td>
<td>0.7345</td>
<td>0.7096</td>
<td>0.7052</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(without Q19r)</td>
<td>0.7108</td>
<td>0.8428</td>
<td>0.7035</td>
<td>0.7120</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Involvement3</td>
<td>0.5185</td>
<td>0.6195</td>
<td>0.6306</td>
<td>0.6090</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Involvement2</td>
<td>0.7098</td>
<td>0.8356</td>
<td>0.7798</td>
<td>0.7770</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(without Q14r)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Loyalty3</td>
<td>0.7384</td>
<td>0.5990</td>
<td>0.7491</td>
<td>0.7318</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Loyalty2 (without Q13r)</td>
<td>0.7035</td>
<td>0.4999</td>
<td>0.7134</td>
<td>0.6925</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mean number of valid cases</td>
<td>118</td>
<td>56</td>
<td>284</td>
<td>458</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

6.3.3 BOCS subscales - two and three items compared

Table 6-3 shows that reliability of the involvement subscale in each of the case study organisations is higher on the two item subscale in comparison to the full three item versions in both individual and combined case study data sets. This suggests that the negatively worded item in this scale (*I am not willing to put myself out for just to help the organisation*), may have confused respondents or that they may have read and answered this item as a positively worded statement.

Similarly, the identification subscale scored higher in the two item subscale when performed on both individual and combined case data in relation to the subscale with three items (with the exception of case study three, which reports similar scores between these). This indicates that the negatively keyed items (in the involvement and identification subscales), initially incorporated into the scale by Cook and Wall (1980) to reduce bias, may have inadvertently had the opposite affect, confusing respondents at case studies one and two particularly.
Conversely, the three item subscale measuring employee loyalty is shown to be more reliable in both the individual and the combined data set, when all the negatively keyed items remain. From this, two conclusions may be inferred. Firstly, that respondents consider that the negatively worded loyalty item (*I sometimes feel like leaving this employment for good*), is a good measure of their loyalty towards the organisation and hence responded to it. Alternatively, there does appear to be some inconsistency between the phrasing of the reversed scored items within the BOCS (for example in the negatively worded items of the identification and involvement subscales in relation to the loyalty subscale) and this in turn, may have attributed to the reliability scores obtained.

Noticeably, negatively worded items of identification and involvement are phrased in such a manner that the removal of the word “not” would make the statement positive. For example, the negatively phrased item in the identification states: *I would not recommend a close friend to join company name*. Similar phraseology is used in the involvement subscale; *I am not willing to put myself out just to help the organisation*. However, the negative item in the loyalty subscale does not adhere to this diction. Rather, it is phrased in such a way that it reads more coherently as a negative statement to respondents in this sample. This observation emerged during the piloting stages of the questionnaire at case study one and two, where respondents reported that identification and involvement negatively worded items, “are a bit confusing” (Shopfloor worker at case study two) and may result in “a bit of a muddle in the end result” (*ibid*). Whereas the negatively phrased item in the loyalty subscale in comparison, “is clearer and easier to read than the other two...[and] it makes more sense” (Shopfloor worker at case study one).

Despite these comments, the pilotees in both organisations considered that retaining all the negatively worded items of BOCS would not constitute a problem for their participating colleagues if clear questionnaire instructions forewarned them that some negatively worded items were included, (see appendix 11 and 12). Schmitt and Stults (1985) also recommend that questionnaire instructions include a warning to potential respondents that some of the questions are negatively keyed.
However, given the results in Table 6-3 together with the comments obtained from piloting the questionnaire at case study one and two it is suggested that the negatively phrased item in the identification3 and involvement3 subscales has confounded reliability. Conversely, the negatively worded item in the loyalty3 subscale appears to have achieved its intention of reducing bias in the scale. Despite this, additional testing of BOCS is required if the wording of the negatively keyed items is to be further questioned.

6.3.4 Maximising reliability of the BOCS

To obtain the maximum reliability of BOCS in this research, further analysis (again using Cronbach’s alpha coefficient) was undertaken such that the reliability of the scale is shown when each of the scale items has in turn been deleted. This analysis was performed on the full version of BOCS. Table 6-4 shows that by removing Q14r (I am not willing to put myself out for the organisation) of BOCS9 raises its overall internal reliability score (albeit slightly).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>BOCS question number</th>
<th>Alpha if item is deleted (BOCS9)</th>
<th>Alpha if item is deleted (BOCS8)</th>
<th>Alpha if item is deleted (BOCS6)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Q12</td>
<td>0.8153</td>
<td>0.8207</td>
<td>0.7828</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q13r</td>
<td>0.8188</td>
<td>0.8291</td>
<td>Item removed</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q14r</td>
<td>0.8497</td>
<td>Item removed</td>
<td>Item removed</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q15</td>
<td>0.8232</td>
<td>0.8298</td>
<td>0.8012</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q16</td>
<td>0.8141</td>
<td>0.8196</td>
<td>0.7762</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q17</td>
<td>0.8229</td>
<td>0.8310</td>
<td>0.7899</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q18</td>
<td>0.8282</td>
<td>0.8379</td>
<td>0.8162</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q19r</td>
<td>0.8292</td>
<td>0.8438</td>
<td>Item removed</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q20</td>
<td>0.8298</td>
<td>0.8401</td>
<td>0.8111</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Reliability score of scales</td>
<td>0.8423</td>
<td>0.8495</td>
<td>0.8243</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Valid number of observations</td>
<td>455</td>
<td>456</td>
<td>457</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

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To therefore gain maximum reliability from the BOCS instrument, using the data collated in this research, BOCS8 (omitting Q14r) could be used. However, given that the difference between the coefficient alphas of BOCS9 and BOCS8 is not statistically significant, retaining the full version of the scale in subsequent analysis would also be statistically acceptable. However, deletion of each of the positively worded items from the six item version of BOCS did not make it a more reliable scale. This finding adds weight to the conclusions already drawn which refute Fenton-O’Creevy et al.’s (1997) and Peccei and Guest’s (1993) suggestion that BOCS6 is more reliable than the full nine item version.

6.3.5 Conclusion

This section has assessed the reliability of the BOCS and its dimensions. Its purpose was to identify the optimum scale and subscales. Contrary to the literature, the full nine item scale has shown to be more reliable than the six item version. BOCS8 was shown to be marginally superior to BOCS9, although the difference was not significant such that BOCS8 should be selected over the full item scale. Table 6-5 recognises the optimum BOC Scale and its subscales.

Table 6-5 Scale preference in subsequent research

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Full nine item version of BOCS</th>
<th>Involvement - two item subscale</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Identification - two item subscale</td>
<td>Loyalty - three item subscale</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

6.4 Factor analysis of the BOCS

Following the statistical method adopted by Peccei and Guest (1993), who assessed the dimensionality of BOCS on data collected from British Rail employees (N=218), a factor analysis was performed on the measure in this research. It was carried out on the data obtained from the three participating case studies to determine whether the three BOCS subscales when placed together represent a

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1 This part of chapter six has formed the basis of a conference paper (see Shepherd and Mathews;1998b).
unidimensional concept of employee commitment or constitute three
distinguishable, albeit related dimensions. Following the works of Schmitt and
Srults (1985), Pececi and Guest (1993) hypothesised that reverse scored items
would confound the factor structure of the scale since they would confuse
respondents. Therefore, the factor loadings (i.e. correlations between the variables
and factors) would identify BOCS6 to be the superior model in assessing the
dimensionality of the commitment scale over BOCS9.

6.4.1 Exploratory and confirmatory factor analysis

Kline (1994) and Kim and Mueller (1978) differentiate between the two types of
factor analysis, namely exploratory and confirmatory. Firstly, exploratory factor
analysis developed by Spearman (1904) attempts to reduce a set of many variables
into one or two key underlying factors and is the method used by the SPSS
package. Thus, it is used to discover the main constructs that underpin the
dimensions of an instrument and seeks to allocate a number of variables to
underlying factors (Kline;1994). Confirmatory factor analysis adopted by LISREL
is used to find out if there are dimensions to an instrument and that certain
variables belong to one dimension whilst other variables to other dimensions.

6.4.2 Factor analysis: Comparison of BOCS in this research with that of
Pececi and Guest’s (1993) British Rail study

Pececi and Guest (1993) established the dimensionality of BOCS6 and BOCS9
using LISREL. In this study, SPSS is used to find out if the variables (i.e. BOCS
items) load onto the relevant identification, involvement and loyalty factors as
proposed by Cook and Wall (1980). This will establish the, "factorial validity of
the question which make up our scales by telling us the extent to which they seem
to be measuring the same concepts of variables" (Bryman and Cramer,1994;257).

Factor analysis is used to determine which questionnaire items are related to the
factors (and which are not) by describing the variation which is shared by the
scores provided by respondents, the variables were related to each other and had correlation coefficients larger than 0.3 as recommended by Coolican (1994).

As well as the use of different statistical packages, there are other differences between the two studies, located in the sample size and composition. Firstly, it is noted that Pececi and Guest (1993) collected their data via face to face interviews using structured questionnaires. This consisted of a two wave longitudinal approach (N= 382 at time 1) and (N=278 at time 2) although they report that there are no differences in the demographic profile of the respondents present in the first and second sample, N=218. This study's design is cross sectional where data was collected at one point in time using self administered questionnaires from three independent case studies (N=462).

Maximum Likelihood estimation was used and oblique factors were tested. Since these are assumed to be related to each other, they were firstly allowed to correlate freely. However, following disparity of the outcome in relation to the Pececi and Guest (1993) analysis, a three factor solution was forced. Direct oblimin was used, since this is a method in which rotation is performed on data where the underlying dimensions are related.

Analysis was performed on the combined data-set and the structure matrix is presented in Table 6-6. Factors with dual loadings were subsequently removed from the analysis and it was re-run in order that the optimum factor structure could be found.

For convenience to the reader, positive and negatively phrased items of the scale are abbreviated, for example, a positive item under the identification, involvement and loyalty subscales would be referred to as; ident +, invol + and loyal + respectively. Negative items under these subscales are abbreviated to; ident -, invol - and loyal -.
6.4.3 Factor analysis – Combined data set

Table 6-6, shows under half of the total variance has been extracted. 52% of the variance remains unexplained by this analysis. Table 6-7 indicates that the two factors are correlated. Following Peccei and Guest (1993) this is to be expected.

There is a two factor solution emerging which comprises of all identification and loyalty items on the first factor. There are two possible explanations for this dual loading. Firstly, it may be inferred that the identification and loyalty dimensions of commitment are strongly related and hence the analysis is not able to distinguish between them. Similarly, Fenton-O’Creevy et al (1997;606) found that “loyalty and identification are highly correlated”. Alternatively, the identification and loyalty subscales may be measuring the same construct. If this is the case, then there is a problem with the original design of the BOCS.

Table 6-6 Factor analysis of BOCS9 using combined data set

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>BOCS</th>
<th>Factor 1</th>
<th>Factor 2</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Q12 (ident +)</td>
<td>0.70518</td>
<td>-0.67182</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q13r (loyal -)</td>
<td>0.70520</td>
<td>-0.41902</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q14r (invol -)</td>
<td>0.30359</td>
<td>-0.30803</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q15 (loyal +)</td>
<td>0.70004</td>
<td>-0.39977</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q16 (ident +)</td>
<td>0.70807</td>
<td>-0.62349</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q17 (invol +)</td>
<td>0.56469</td>
<td>-0.79826</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q18 (loyal +)</td>
<td>0.65638</td>
<td>-0.34312</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q19r (ident -)</td>
<td>0.54658</td>
<td>-0.39934</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q20 (invol +)</td>
<td>0.44465</td>
<td>-0.82105</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total variance explained (cumulative %)</td>
<td>41.0</td>
<td>48.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 6-7. Factor correlation matrix of Table 6-6

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Factor 1</th>
<th>Factor 2</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Factor 1</td>
<td>1.0</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Factor 2</td>
<td>-6.08</td>
<td>1.00</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The second factor comprises solely of the positively worded involvement items. This suggests that involvement is a distinct dimension of commitment. Despite this however, Table 6-6 also presents evidence to suggest that Q14r loads on both factors equally. This variable has low factor loadings on each and is therefore treated as a confounding variable and removed from subsequent analysis. The revised factor structure is presented as Table 6-8.

Noticeably over half of the variation is explained if Q14r is omitted from the analysis. However, neither Table 6-6 nor Table 6-8 present a three factor solution distinguishing the subscales of BOCS or equating the relevant items to them. In this research therefore, the components of the scale can not be considered as universally distinct. However, removal of the negatively worded item on the involvement subscale (Q14r) has enabled a clearer two factor solution to emerge. Hence, it is evident that this variable: (I am not willing to put myself out just to help the organisation) does appear to confound the factor structure of the scale.

Table 6-8 Factor analysis of BOCS8 (omitting Q14r) using combined data set

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>BOCS</th>
<th>Factor 1</th>
<th>Factor 2</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Q12 (iden+)</td>
<td>0.70484</td>
<td>-0.67197</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q13r (loyal-)</td>
<td>0.70035</td>
<td>-0.40878</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q15 (loyal+)</td>
<td>0.70484</td>
<td>-0.39891</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q16 (iden+)</td>
<td>0.70781</td>
<td>-0.62827</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q17 (invol+)</td>
<td>0.55820</td>
<td>-0.80833</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q18 (loyal+)</td>
<td>0.65856</td>
<td>-0.33631</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q19r (iden-)</td>
<td>0.53647</td>
<td>-0.38861</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q20 (invol+)</td>
<td>0.43851</td>
<td>-0.80571</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total variance explained (cumulative %)</td>
<td>44.7</td>
<td>52.5</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

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Table 6-9 Factor correlation matrix of Table 6-8

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Factor 1</th>
<th>Factor 2</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Factor 1</td>
<td>1.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Factor 2</td>
<td>-0.6</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The reliability analysis also revealed that by deleting Q14r a higher Cronbach’s alpha is achieved (BOCS8 in comparison to BOCS9). It is concluded that Q14r is problematic since it confounds the reliability and factor loadings of the BOCS in this study, at least when applying the analysis to the combined data set.

From their confirmatory analysis, Peccei and Guest (1993;21) concluded that the oblique six item version of their three factor model emerges as “the best fit model”. This suggests that there are three distinguishable, yet related constructs which underpin BOCS and furthermore, these components of commitment represent those originally defined by Cook and Wall (1980). Hence the decision to force a three factor solution to find out if BOCS9 items resort to their respective subscales using the data obtained in this study.

Table 6-10 Factor analysis of BOCS9 forcing a three factor solution using combined data set

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>BOCS</th>
<th>Factor 1</th>
<th>Factor 2</th>
<th>Factor 3</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Q12 (ident +)</td>
<td>0.64814</td>
<td>-0.65868</td>
<td>0.54285</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q13r (loyal -)</td>
<td>0.66214</td>
<td>-0.40029</td>
<td>0.56123</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q14r (invol -)</td>
<td>0.21224</td>
<td>-0.28640</td>
<td>0.51018</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q15 (loyal +)</td>
<td>0.72551</td>
<td>-0.3986</td>
<td>0.35222</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q16 (ident +)</td>
<td>0.68886</td>
<td>-0.63138</td>
<td>0.42448</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q17 (invol +)</td>
<td>0.50816</td>
<td>-0.82016</td>
<td>0.41322</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q18 (loyal +)</td>
<td>0.67592</td>
<td>-0.33956</td>
<td>0.32687</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q19r (ident -)</td>
<td>0.47089</td>
<td>-0.37040</td>
<td>0.68472</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q20 (invol +)</td>
<td>0.35915</td>
<td>-0.80138</td>
<td>0.44877</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total variance explained (cumulative %)</td>
<td>41.5</td>
<td>48.5</td>
<td>52.9</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table 6-11  Factor correlation matrix of Table 6-10

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Factor 1</th>
<th>Factor 2</th>
<th>Factor 3</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Factor 1</td>
<td>1.00</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Factor 2</td>
<td>-0.51</td>
<td></td>
<td>1.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Factor 3</td>
<td>0.49</td>
<td>-0.5</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

By loading three factors, the three sub-scales fail to emerge as distinct components of the BOC Scale, (see Table 6-10). As before, these results are in contrast to the Peccei and Guest (1993;30) analysis, which concluded that, “dividing the BOCS into three oblique factors, corresponding to the three component subscales of the instrument, provided the best fit to the data”.

Noticeably, all the loyalty items have loaded onto the first factor together with one item from the identification subscale, which explains 42% of the total variance extracted. Table 6-8 and Table 6-10 show that factor two comprises of the positively worded items of the involvement subscale. There is also evidence of cross loading on Q12. Q13r also indicates similar values on factors 1 and 3.

6.4.4 Conclusion

Whilst in their confirmatory analysis, Peccei and Guest (1993;21) concluded that “...weaker support was found for a one factor interpretation of the BOCS than for either a three-, or a two-factor solution”, the findings of this study indicate greater support for the two factor interpretation of the scale, even when a three factor solution was forced. BOCS is therefore regarded as a bi-dimensional construct, comprising of two separate but correlated dimensions, rather than a multidimensional instrument comprising of three distinct, yet related components as initially outlined by Cook and Wall (1980).

As a result of the incongruous findings between the factor loadings found in this research and the comparisons made between findings from this study with that of Peccei and Guest’s (1993), subsequent factor analysis will be performed on the individual case study data. This will also establish if Q14r (invol-) should be
completely removed from any subsequent analysis, which involves BOCS in this research.

6.4.5 Case study one

From examination of Table 6-12, it is clear that Q14r (invol-) fails to load onto factor two with the other involvement items. Similar to that of the combined case data, both identification and loyalty subscales load onto the first factor, which accounts for 40% of the total variance extracted. The two dimensions are related (see Table 6-13).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>BOCS</th>
<th>Factor 1</th>
<th>Factor 2</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Q12 (ident +)</td>
<td>0.80314</td>
<td>-0.55888</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q13r (loyal-)</td>
<td>0.71678</td>
<td>-0.35573</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q14r (invol-)</td>
<td>0.32759</td>
<td>-0.19872</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q15 (loyal+)</td>
<td>0.73336</td>
<td>-0.44383</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q16 (ident+)</td>
<td>0.71760</td>
<td>-0.57424</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q17 (invol+)</td>
<td>0.47507</td>
<td>-0.90548</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q18 (loyal+)</td>
<td>0.65314</td>
<td>-0.26473</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q19r (ident-)</td>
<td>0.57167</td>
<td>-0.35796</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q20 (invol+)</td>
<td>0.45360</td>
<td>-0.60807</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total variance explained (cumulative %)</td>
<td>40.0</td>
<td>48.5</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 6-13 Factor correlation matrix of Table 6-12

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Factor 1</th>
<th>Factor 2</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Factor 1</td>
<td>1.00</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Factor 2</td>
<td>-0.56</td>
<td>1.00</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table 6-14  Factor analysis of BOCS8 (omitting Q14r) using case study one data

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>BOCS</th>
<th>Factor 1</th>
<th>Factor 2</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Q12 (ident +)</td>
<td>0.80681</td>
<td>-0.57169</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q13r (loyal -)</td>
<td>0.71232</td>
<td>-0.35495</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q15 (loyal +)</td>
<td>0.73348</td>
<td>-0.44749</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q16 (ident +)</td>
<td>0.70970</td>
<td>-0.58262</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q17 (invol +)</td>
<td>0.46164</td>
<td>-0.89280</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q18 (loyal +)</td>
<td>0.66258</td>
<td>-0.26957</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q19r (ident -)</td>
<td>0.55717</td>
<td>-0.36263</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q20 (invol +)</td>
<td>0.43826</td>
<td>-0.61770</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total variance explained (cumulative %)</td>
<td>44.0</td>
<td>53.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 6-14 indicates that removal of this variable from the analysis results in a two factor solution, where again factor one constitutes all of the identification and loyalty subscale variables and factor two constitutes the remaining items of the involvement element of commitment. As with the combined case study data, a two factor solution is presented where the positive items of the involvement subscales are shown to load separately in Table 6-14. This component of commitment can therefore be regarded as a distinct element of BOCS, separate from the combined identification and loyalty subscales. A three factor solution was then forced, the results of which are shown in Table 6-16.

Table 6-15  Factor correlation matrix of Table 6-14

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Factor 1</th>
<th>Factor 2</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Factor 1</td>
<td>1.00</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Factor 2</td>
<td>-0.55</td>
<td>1.00</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

192
Table 6-16  Factor analysis of BOCS9 forcing three factors using case study one data

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>BOCS</th>
<th>Factor 1</th>
<th>Factor 2</th>
<th>Factor 3</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Q12 (ident +)</td>
<td>0.82465</td>
<td>-0.60659</td>
<td>0.44116</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q13r (loyal -)</td>
<td>0.70042</td>
<td>-0.37775</td>
<td>0.51508</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q14r (invol -)</td>
<td>0.26008</td>
<td>-0.19794</td>
<td>0.50052</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q15 (loyal +)</td>
<td>0.70866</td>
<td>-0.45795</td>
<td>0.53076</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q16 (ident +)</td>
<td>0.67735</td>
<td>-0.59600</td>
<td>0.53103</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q17 (invol +)</td>
<td>0.40808</td>
<td>-0.86775</td>
<td>0.37215</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q18 (loyal +)</td>
<td>0.67481</td>
<td>-0.29396</td>
<td>0.34252</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q19r (ident -)</td>
<td>0.51199</td>
<td>-0.35319</td>
<td>0.72423</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q20 (invol +)</td>
<td>0.42624</td>
<td>-0.63638</td>
<td>0.27647</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total variance explained (cumulative %)</td>
<td>41.3</td>
<td>48.6</td>
<td>52.9</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Forcing a three factor solution does not necessarily provide the best fit to the data at case study one. The positively worded involvement items emerge as a separate dimension in Table 6-16, whilst factor two constitutes some identification items and all loyalty items. Factor three comprises of two negatively worded keyed items which pilotees previously identified as having ambiguous wording (as discussed in section 6.3.5).

Table 6-17  Factor correlation matrix of Table 6-16

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Factor 1</th>
<th>Factor 2</th>
<th>Factor 3</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Factor 1</td>
<td>1.00</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Factor 2</td>
<td>-0.53</td>
<td>1.00</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Factor 3</td>
<td>0.56</td>
<td>-0.41</td>
<td>1.00</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table 6-18  Factor analysis of BOCS8 (omitting Q14r) forcing three factors using case study one data

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>BOCS</th>
<th>Factor 1</th>
<th>Factor 2</th>
<th>Factor 3</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Q12 (ident +)</td>
<td>0.51900</td>
<td>0.80061</td>
<td>0.13581</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q13r (loyal -)</td>
<td>0.29534</td>
<td>0.69550</td>
<td>0.02491</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q15 (loyal +)</td>
<td>0.29778</td>
<td>0.75213</td>
<td>0.06601</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q16 (ident +)</td>
<td>0.42118</td>
<td>0.73755</td>
<td>0.33511</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q17 (invol +)</td>
<td>0.57779</td>
<td>0.51423</td>
<td>0.49225</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q18 (loyal +)</td>
<td>0.30008</td>
<td>0.66644</td>
<td>-0.26590</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q19r (ident -)</td>
<td>0.26644</td>
<td>0.56196</td>
<td>0.15199</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q20 (invol +)</td>
<td>0.99764</td>
<td>0.42584</td>
<td>0.17426</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total variance explained (cumulative %)</td>
<td>24.8</td>
<td>55.4</td>
<td>59.7</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 6-19  Factor correlation matrix of Table 6-18

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Factor 1</th>
<th>Factor 2</th>
<th>Factor 3</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Factor 1</td>
<td>1.00</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Factor 2</td>
<td>0.46</td>
<td>1.00</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Factor 3</td>
<td>0.22</td>
<td>0.11</td>
<td>1.00</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Forcing a three factor solution on BOCS8 provides a model that comprises mainly of two factors since the third accounts for a mere 4.3 of the total variance explained.

Table 6-18 confirms that the presence of Q14r had confounded the factor structure of BOCS9 when a three factor solution is forced. Following the omission of this variable, the two factor structure remaining constitutes one factor comprising of all identification and loyalty items and remaining involvement items on the other. From this, it is once again concluded that BOCS comprises of two distinct, yet related factors.
6.4.6 Case study two

There is no distinct pattern to the factor loadings of BOCS9 at case study two. Table 6-20 shows some positively worded items load onto one factor together and all the negatively keyed items in the scale load onto the second. This supports Schmitt and Stults' (1985;369) recognition that, "the result of factor analyses on scales with negatively keyed items frequently leads to...a factor defined wholly or mostly by these negatively keyed items".

Table 6-20 Factor analysis of BOCS9 using case study two data

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>BOCS</th>
<th>Factor 1</th>
<th>Factor 2</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Q12  (ident +)</td>
<td>0.81260</td>
<td>0.52526</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q13r (loyal -)</td>
<td>0.38525</td>
<td>0.79763</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q14r (invol -)</td>
<td>0.24640</td>
<td>0.40684</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q15 (loyal +)</td>
<td>0.46069</td>
<td>0.39367</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q16 (ident +)</td>
<td>0.77639</td>
<td>0.73940</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q17 (invol +)</td>
<td>0.80569</td>
<td>0.36073</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q18 (loyal +)</td>
<td>0.26743</td>
<td>0.53816</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q19r (ident -)</td>
<td>0.38299</td>
<td>0.55021</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q20 (invol +)</td>
<td>0.84017</td>
<td>0.43072</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total variance explained (cumulative %)</td>
<td>40.3</td>
<td>49.2</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 6-21 Factor correlation matrix of Table 6-20

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Factor 1</th>
<th>Factor 2</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Factor 1</td>
<td>1.00</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Factor 2</td>
<td>0.55</td>
<td>1.00</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The results however, do not provide an adequate explanation for the loading of Q18, a positive loyalty item; (The offer of a bit more money with another employer would not seriously make me think of changing my job) onto factor two. This variable distorts the interpretation that can be drawn from the table. There is also evidence of cross loadings by Q16. This adds to the ambiguous picture presented...
by this cases’ factor structure. Despite this, the factors are positively correlated.

Based on the analysis of Table 6-20, case study two shows no indication of the scale items pertaining to the original BOCS subscales. This is unlike the combined case study data findings or those of case study one, both of which show the involvement subscale at least emerging as a distinct component.

Table 6-22 Factor analysis of BOCS9 forcing a three factor solution on case study two data

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>BOCS</th>
<th>Factor 1</th>
<th>Factor 2</th>
<th>Factor 3</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Q12 (ident +)</td>
<td>0.73149</td>
<td>0.46394</td>
<td>-0.61019</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q13r (loyal -)</td>
<td>0.33098</td>
<td>0.83307</td>
<td>-0.19448</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q14r (invol -)</td>
<td>0.28490</td>
<td>0.45657</td>
<td>0.9572</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q15 (loyal +)</td>
<td>0.37103</td>
<td>0.32654</td>
<td>-0.47555</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q16 (ident +)</td>
<td>0.68939</td>
<td>0.69989</td>
<td>-0.59719</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q17 (invol +)</td>
<td>0.75947</td>
<td>0.36057</td>
<td>-0.33588</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q18 (loyal +)</td>
<td>0.19671</td>
<td>0.51570</td>
<td>-0.24057</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q19r (ident -)</td>
<td>0.35691</td>
<td>0.54850</td>
<td>0.16855</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q20 (invol +)</td>
<td>0.98746</td>
<td>0.45646</td>
<td>-0.11505</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total variance explained (cumulative %)</td>
<td>31.0</td>
<td>49.0</td>
<td>55.4</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

As with that of Table 6-20, the items of BOCS do not neatly load onto the identification, involvement and loyalty subscales in Table 6-22, despite forcing a three factor solution. Although over half of the variance is explained by the factor structure, the results are a jumbled compilation and there is no evidence to support the Peccei and Guest (1993) study. Noticeably however, all of the negatively keyed items load onto factor 2.
Table 6-23 Factor correlation matrix of Table 6-22

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Factor 1</th>
<th>Factor 2</th>
<th>Factor 3</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Factor 1</td>
<td>1.00</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Factor 2</td>
<td>0.47</td>
<td>1.00</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Factor 3</td>
<td>-0.27</td>
<td>-0.23</td>
<td>1.00</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

6.4.7 Case study three

Table 6-24 Factor analysis of BOCS9 using case study three data

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>BOCS</th>
<th>Factor 1</th>
<th>Factor 2</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Q12 (ident +)</td>
<td>0.73211</td>
<td>-0.63851</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q13r (loyal -)</td>
<td>0.73543</td>
<td>-0.44249</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q14r (invol -)</td>
<td>0.30754</td>
<td>-0.32197</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q15 (loyal +)</td>
<td>0.69509</td>
<td>-0.44188</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q16 (ident +)</td>
<td>0.68784</td>
<td>-0.67550</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q17 (invol +)</td>
<td>0.59804</td>
<td>-0.88995</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q18 (loyal +)</td>
<td>0.65775</td>
<td>-0.41908</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q19r (ident -)</td>
<td>0.55797</td>
<td>-0.40757</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q20 (invol +)</td>
<td>0.47320</td>
<td>-0.75336</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total variance explained (cumulative %)</td>
<td>41.9</td>
<td>48.8</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 6-25 Factor correlation matrix of Table 6-24

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Factor 1</th>
<th>Factor 2</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Factor 1</td>
<td>1.00</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Factor 2</td>
<td>-0.66</td>
<td>1.00</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 6-24 presents a two factor solution where all loyalty items load onto the first factor, together with the identification items. Q14r and Q16 however, appear to confound the factor structure of BOCS9 at case study three, since they both show evidence of cross loading on factors one and two. Furthermore, Q14r in particular shows low values on both of these factors. Subsequent analysis (although not shown here) involved the removal of these items from the analysis (individually and then together), however, this resulted in a one factor solution which could not be rotated. Table 6-24 therefore provides the optimum solution to the factor structure.
when the factors were are left unconstrained. Forcing a three factor solution on case study three data reveals that the loyalty items represent a distinct element of employee commitment, since all of these have loaded onto one factor (see Table 6-26).

Table 6-26 Factor analysis of BOCS9 forcing three factors on case study three data

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>BOCS</th>
<th>Factor 1</th>
<th>Factor 2</th>
<th>Factor 3</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Q12 (ident +)</td>
<td>0.65296</td>
<td>-0.61140</td>
<td>0.60794</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q13r (loyal-)</td>
<td>0.67064</td>
<td>-0.40929</td>
<td>0.56199</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q14r (invol-)</td>
<td>0.20359</td>
<td>-0.13218</td>
<td>0.46550</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q15 (loyal +)</td>
<td>0.73909</td>
<td>-0.40597</td>
<td>0.36400</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q16 (ident +)</td>
<td>0.67000</td>
<td>-0.65861</td>
<td>0.42924</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q17 (invol +)</td>
<td>0.53094</td>
<td>-0.89219</td>
<td>0.47094</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q18 (loyal +)</td>
<td>0.70682</td>
<td>-0.38645</td>
<td>0.31856</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q19r (ident -)</td>
<td>0.44671</td>
<td>-0.37562</td>
<td>0.74012</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q20 (invol +)</td>
<td>0.38428</td>
<td>-0.75200</td>
<td>0.45018</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total variance explained (cumulative %)</td>
<td>42.4</td>
<td>49.5</td>
<td>54.4</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 6-27 Factor correlation matrix of Table 6-26

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Factor 1</th>
<th>Factor 2</th>
<th>Factor 3</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Factor 1</td>
<td>1.00</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Factor 2</td>
<td>-0.52</td>
<td>1.00</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Factor 3</td>
<td>0.48</td>
<td>-0.52</td>
<td>1.00</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Similarly, the positively worded items of involvement have loaded concisely onto factor two. Despite this, the interpretation of the model is overshadowed by the presence of Q12 and Q16, both of which load onto more than one factor.
6.4.8 Conclusions and implications for further analysis using BOCS in this study

There is no predominate, succinct pattern which indicates that BOCS is a multidimensional scale comprising of the three subscales outlined by Cook and Wall (1980). The factor analysis performed on the data failed to validate that the BOCS items loaded neatly onto the three respective subscales or that a three factor solution provides the best model fit. Hence, the procedure undertaken can only be referred to as a method of exploration (rather than of confirmation) of the dimensionality of the instrument. The three factor solution found in the Fenton-O’Creevy et al (1997) and Peccei and Guest (1993) studies is not confirmed by this analysis.

There was some evidence of Peccei and Guest’s (1993) Model B (methods model): Negative Vs. Positive items. In particular when three factors were forced on the combined data set using BOCS8 and again forcing three factors, using BOCS9 at case study one and three (although in all case studies Q13r did not conform to this). Their model B is most applicable to the analysis of case study two, in particular when factors were allowed to correlate freely. Despite all of the negatively keyed items loading onto one factor, these were coupled with one loyalty item. Thus, whilst no distinct conclusion can be drawn, Schmitt and Stults’ (1985) suggestion that negatively worded items may load on a separate factor is confirmed.

Resemblance to Peccei and Guest’s (1993) model D (affective model) is also made from the outcomes of the factor structure in this research. In short, model D denotes a two factor solution where identification and loyalty Vs. the involvement subscale. Peccei and Guest (1993) derived this model from the works of Meyer and Allen (1984) who developed the ACS (see chapter four). Following Allen and Meyer (1984), Peccei and Guest (1993) consider that the loyalty subscale on the BOCS has strong similarities to the scale items which seek to measure calculative commitment (see Hrebiniak and Alutto 1972 and Ritzer and Trice 1969). Allen
and Meyer (1984;3) also showed that these calculative/continuance scales are "saturated with affective commitment", since they correlate highly with the ACS.

Designed to measure the more explicitly affective aspects of commitment, which includes many similar items to that of the BOCS, "the work of Meyer and Allen suggests that the desire to stay component of the BOCS measured by the loyalty subscale, is not a separate construct in its own right. Rather, it is part of a more general affective commitment construct which also includes other elements of OC such as organisational pride and identification" (Peccei and Guest;1993;11/12).

Based on this argument, Peccei and Guest (1993) suggested that one expectation of the BOCS may suggest that it comprises of two factors, (namely identification and loyalty on one factor and involvement on the other).

All loyalty and identification items loaded onto the same, distinct factor at case study one and the combined case data when variables were unconstrained. The involvement subscale emerged as a separate dimension of commitment at case studies one, three and on the combined data set, although the negatively keyed item within this component (i.e. Q14r) did not behave in the same manner but continued to load elsewhere. However, since cross loadings of Q14r (invol -) featured at case studies one, three and also on the combined case data set, it is argued that if this variable is omitted from the analysis altogether and BOCS8 is used, this would optimise the scale. This is important since BOCS is used as a dependent variable to establish the impact of change on commitment.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>BOCS question number (all identification and loyalty items)</th>
<th>Alpha if item is deleted</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Q12 (ident +)</td>
<td>0.7889</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q16 (ident +)</td>
<td>0.7867</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q19r (ident -)</td>
<td>0.8173</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q13r (loyal -)</td>
<td>0.7864</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q15 (loyal +)</td>
<td>0.7900</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q18 (loyal +)</td>
<td>0.8021</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Reliability score of Idloyal</td>
<td>0.8235</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Valid number of observations</td>
<td>457</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The results from the factor analysis suggest that BOCS must be treated as a bi-dimensional construct in this research mainly as a result of the disparity between the case study factor loadings. Prior to making the decision to use BOCS8 in subsequent analysis, the reliability of the new two factor structure is established. Factor one comprises of both loyalty and identification items and is presented as Table 6-28, (it will be referred to as Idloyal hereafter).

Factor two (presented as Table 6-29 shows the reliability of the involvement subscale when Q14r is omitted), hereafter involvement2.

**Table 6-29 Factor two: Reliability of involvement2 subscale**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Reliability score of involvement subscale (positively keyed items only)</th>
<th>0.7770</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Valid number of observations</td>
<td>457</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Comparisons between the reliability analysis performed on the BOCS data in this research in relation to those obtained by factor one (presented in Table 6-28) reveals that higher alphas have been achieved when the identification and loyalty subscales are combined ($\alpha=0.8235$), than if they are treated as these separate constructs of BOCS, (identification3; $\alpha=0.7052$ and loyalty3; $\alpha=0.7318$, as illustrated in Table 6-3 presented earlier).

In light of the reliability and factor analysis performed on the data, it is concluded that the optimum scale is BOCS8. Thus, subsequent analysis in this research on BOCS will be performed on BOCS8 in preference to BOCS9. Similarly, the two subscales shown in Table 6-28 and Table 6-29 will be used over the traditional three subscales presented by Cook and Wall (1980).

In completion to this section, it is recommended that researchers in the future should continue to clarify the dimensionality of the BOCS instrument and establish if a two factor solution as found in this research, (or in the case of Fenton-
O’Creevy et al;1997 and Peccei and Guest;1993, a three factor solution) does indeed hold across different organisational settings and with other respondent samples.

6.5 The BOCS and BOCS subscales

The purpose of this section is to establish levels of attitudinal commitment in the case studies. Since the participating organisations are differentiated by their approach to change, it is anticipated that there will be differences in BOCS scores. Three, one way ANOVAs (using company as factor), were carried out on BOCS8 and the Idloyal and involvement2 subscales. Table 6-30 shows that no two groups differed at the p<0.05 level.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Scale and number of items</th>
<th>F probability</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>BOCS8</td>
<td>0.53</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Idloyal</td>
<td>0.36</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Involvement2</td>
<td>0.14</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

This result begs the question as to whether BOCS really does behave differently within different research settings, or indeed if universal values are prevalent regardless of the environment in which it is tested. Thus, items were compared to Peccei and Guest’s (1993) study amongst British Rail employees.

Table 6-31 presents descriptive information (namely means and standard deviations) of the scale items (combined data set), placed against the respective values presented by Peccei and Guest (1993).
Table 6-31: Descriptive information and Z scores for each of the nine items of BOCS in this research compared to those presented by Peccei and Guset (1993) in their study amongst British Rail workers

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>BOCS subscales</th>
<th>This study</th>
<th>British Rail</th>
<th>Z score</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Question number</td>
<td>Mean</td>
<td>St. d</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Identification</td>
<td>Q12 (ident +)</td>
<td>5.35</td>
<td>1.40</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Q16 (ident +)</td>
<td>4.98</td>
<td>1.65</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Q19r (ident -)</td>
<td>5.02</td>
<td>1.86</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Involvement</td>
<td>Q20 (invol +)</td>
<td>5.99</td>
<td>1.28</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Q17 (invol +)</td>
<td>5.65</td>
<td>1.28</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Q14r (invol -)</td>
<td>5.27</td>
<td>1.79</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Loyalty</td>
<td>Q15 (loyal +)</td>
<td>4.49</td>
<td>1.91</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Q18 (loyal +)</td>
<td>4.26</td>
<td>1.93</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Q13r (loyal -)</td>
<td>4.67</td>
<td>1.96</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mean number of valid observations</td>
<td>460</td>
<td>382</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

A seven point Likert scale was used where 1=strongly disagree and 7 = strongly agree

*p<0.05, **p<0.01

1 combined data set
Comparison of the descriptive statistics between the groups shows differences between some of the subscale scores, particularly amongst all items on the identification subscales (for example; 1.00, 0.39 and 0.83 on questions Q12, Q16 and Q19r respectively). Whilst the sample in this research scored highest on the negatively keyed item and on Q12 (I am quite proud to be able to tell people that I work for company name), Peccei and Guest (1993) report a higher mean value amongst British Rail employees on Q16 (I feel myself to be a part of company name).

Similarly, there are observed differences between the positively worded items on the loyalty subscale of 0.32 and 0.82 between the groups. Conversely, however, only two differences between British Rail scores and those obtained in this research are apparent on the involvement subscale and the highest of these is only 0.11 between the two studies. In order to find out if the observed differences of the descriptive data are statistically significant between British Rail and the employee responses in this research, Z scores were calculated (also shown in Table 6-31).

Table 6-32. Determining significance levels of Z scores

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Level of significance</th>
<th>0.10</th>
<th>0.05</th>
<th>0.01</th>
<th>0.005</th>
<th>0.002</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Critical values of Z for two tailed tests</td>
<td>-1.645</td>
<td>-1.96</td>
<td>-2.58</td>
<td>-2.81</td>
<td>-3.08</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>and 1.645</td>
<td>and 1.96</td>
<td>and 2.58</td>
<td>and 2.81</td>
<td>and 3.08</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Adapted from Spiegel; 1972; 169

Applying Spiegel’s critical values (shown in Table 6-32) four of the nine values lie inside the range of -1.96 to +1.96 on Table 6-31. These are within the “region of acceptance” (Spiegel; 1972; 168) which indicates that there are no differences between groups.
Table 6-31 also shows that there are four Z scores (presented in bold type) which lie outside the range \((z > -1.96\) to \(<1.96)\). Since this denotes the “region of significance” (Spiegel; 1972; 168), differences between groups are inferred (at the 5% significance level). In particular, all items within the identification subscale between British Rail respondents and participants in this research are significantly different. However, no items within the involvement subscale show material differences \((z > 0.05)\).

Moreover, the negatively worded item in the loyalty subscale between the groups compared does show a significant difference at the 5% significance level, whereas \(z \geq 0.01\) on one of the positively worded loyalty items, (i.e. *The offer of a bit more money would not seriously make me think of changing my job*).

In summary, there are some material differences between the two studies, namely in the identification and loyalty subscales. There are also some clear statistically identical values suggesting that BOCS may comprise some universal values when tested in divergent circumstances. For example, there is no evidence to suggest that the scores on the involvement scale will differ in other research settings.

This has lead to a more in-depth examination of the BOCS between the companies participating in this research. As with that of Table 6-31, this will be performed on the individual items of the scale, such that any differences between the companies can be pin pointed. Examination of Table 6-33 suggests that there are no differences in the separate BOCS items between the case studies, with the exception of one identification question; *I am quite proud to be able to tell people that I work for company name*.

Table 6-34 shows means of case studies, and post hoc multiple comparisons using the Least Significant Difference (LSD) test. Differences between case studies one and three and two and three are indicated.
Table 6-33 Descriptive information and comparison of BOCS items

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>BOCS subscales</th>
<th>Case one</th>
<th>Case two</th>
<th>Case three</th>
<th>F Prob</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Mean</td>
<td>St.d</td>
<td>Mean</td>
<td>St.d</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Identification</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I am quite proud to be able to tell people that I work for (company name) Q12</td>
<td>5.19</td>
<td>1.31</td>
<td>4.98</td>
<td>1.72</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I feel myself to be part of (company name) Q16</td>
<td>5.16</td>
<td>1.40</td>
<td>5.16</td>
<td>1.59</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I would not recommend a close friend to join (company name) Q19r</td>
<td>4.79</td>
<td>1.89</td>
<td>4.79</td>
<td>1.89</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Involvement</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>To know that my own work had made a contribution to the good of the organisation would please me Q20</td>
<td>5.97</td>
<td>1.21</td>
<td>5.63</td>
<td>1.64</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>In my work, I like to feel that I am making some effort not just for myself, but for the organisation as well Q17</td>
<td>5.64</td>
<td>1.10</td>
<td>5.43</td>
<td>1.37</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I am not willing to put myself out just to help the organisation Q14r</td>
<td>5.18</td>
<td>1.80</td>
<td>4.96</td>
<td>2.04</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Loyalty</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Even if (company name) were not doing too well financially, I would be reluctant to change to another employer Q15</td>
<td>4.61</td>
<td>1.86</td>
<td>4.66</td>
<td>1.77</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The offer of a bit more money would not seriously make me think of changing my job Q18</td>
<td>4.48</td>
<td>1.73</td>
<td>4.32</td>
<td>1.85</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I sometimes feel like leaving this employment for good Q13r</td>
<td>4.91</td>
<td>1.84</td>
<td>4.16</td>
<td>1.82</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mean number of valid observations</td>
<td>120</td>
<td>56</td>
<td>284</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

A seven point Likert scale was used where 1 = strongly disagree and 7 = strongly agree *p* = <0.05
This result suggests that of the total number of respondents tested, those at case study three (Airco, the aircraft engineering works), were more proud to tell others that they work there in comparison to those at case study one, (the engineering component factory; Engco) or case study two (the car part manufacturer; Carco). On possible explanation for this result is that at Airco many employees expressed a personal interest in the product, namely aircraft.

Table 6-34 Comparison of means of Q12

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Company</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>5.19</td>
<td>Case study one</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.98</td>
<td>Case study two</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5.50</td>
<td>Case study three</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

F value sig: 0.013

The IPM study (1992) (see also Fletcher and Williams; 1996) involved administering the BOCS in questionnaire form to eleven UK organisations which in turn agreed to distribute it to employees. Completed questionnaires were returned from nine organisations in total (n=860), three public and six located in the private sector. Mean ratings of overall commitment by company revealed that respondents were fairly well committed to their respective organisations. Only one of the nine organisations significantly differed from the others on the BOCS. This finding is further evidence that adds weight to the suggestion that the scale is likely to behave similarly in organisations. Mean ratings were also calculated on the three subscales of commitment in the IPM study and there were no differences at all amongst the organisations on involvement (IPM; 1992). Similarly, the comparison of BOCS items on the three independent case studies in this research revealed no differences between them relating to involvement. Also, there were no significant differences on the involvement dimension of commitment between the combined data set and Peccei and Guest’s (1993) data.

From this collective evidence, it is concluded that levels of involvement may not necessarily be organisational specific. In terms of loyalty and identification, the IPM (1992) study reported that one organisation differed from the others overall.
6.6 Chapter summary and conclusions

The main purpose of this chapter was to undertake an assessment of Cook and Wall’s (1980) BOCS scale, establishing its reliability and dimensionality. This revealed that BOCS9 is superior to BOCS6. This result is contrary to the conclusions drawn from the Fenton-O’Creevy et al (1997) and Peccei and Guest (1993) studies where the six item scale was shown to be the most preferable scale for measuring commitment. The factor analysis revealed that BOCS is a two dimensional scale comprising of identification and loyalty items on the first factor and the positively worded involvement items on the second. This finding does not support that of Peccei and Guest (1993) who suggested that the negatively worded items should be omitted from the scale prior to administering it to respondents. In this study, only the negatively worded variable from the involvement scale was shown to be problematic in both the reliability and dimensionality of the scale, and this will therefore be removed in subsequent analysis and BOCS8 used (see chapter seven).

As Fenton-O’Creevey et al (1997), discarding the negatively worded items should not be automatic in further research, despite failing to load appropriately as these items may be measuring an item not otherwise captured and hence should not be regarded as simply the opposite of the positively worded statements in the scale.

A comparison of BOCS items between the three case studies revealed eight out of nine of the scale variables did not differ between the participating organisations. Whilst the Cook and Wall (1980) measure showed some differences between the combined data set when compared to the outcomes of Peccei and Guest’s (1993) study, it also demonstrated some identical values. Similarly, the results of the IPM (1992) study also revealed that commitment was much the same amongst the organisations studied, and so too was involvement. This constancy is perplexing and it is difficult to see, based on this wide range of values, the basis by which differences between BOCS would be expected in studies that administer the scale in organisations.
EMLOYEE COMMITMENT AFTER
CHANGE AT WORK

JERYL LYNNE SHEPHERD
Ph.D.

JUNE 1999

UNIVERSITY OF LUTON

VOLUME II
7. CHAPTER SEVEN : QUANTITATIVE FINDINGS

7.1 Introduction

This chapter is concerned with the outcomes of the questionnaires in stage two of the research. In particular, its purpose is to present the findings of the statistical analysis performed on the data obtained from the three case studies investigated. The chapter is split into five main parts. The first part involves returning to the initial research question and restates the main objectives underlying the quantitative research. The second part is concerned with the sample composition of the case study participants, highlighting both similarities and differences in the profile of respondents. The third part of the chapter is concerned with the moderating variables, and seeks to find out which (if any) of the personal and work related variables of employees are significant in understanding commitment (i.e. BOCS). The results are then compared to other studies in the area of commitment, as presented in chapter four.

The impact of organisational changes on employee commitment levels is thereafter examined in the fourth part (i.e. content of change) and the extent to which employees' exposure to organisational changes is an issue in altering commitment is also investigated. The fifth and final part deals with the process of change, seeking to establish which organisational strategy is the most preferable in obtaining high commitment towards the organisation after change.

7.1.1 Objectives of the quantitative phase

I. provide an overview of the sample composition;

II. find out if biographic and work related variables are significant in determining BOCS in this research;
III. investigate if employee commitment is altered by individuals' experience of organisational changes in SET ONE; This is achieved by comparing the value of the scores obtained with the value on the scale that would indicate no change;

IV. compare commitment levels after changes in SET ONE across case studies;

V. find out if the extent of an individuals' experience of organisational changes in SET ONE is an important variable in the outcomes of commitment levels;

VI. determine if the strategies used by the organisations participating in the research are significant in explaining commitment levels of individuals after experience of changes in SET ONE;

VII. find out if commitment is altered by individuals' experience of organisational changes in SET TWO and SET THREE (analysis as III);

VIII. compare commitment levels after changes in SET TWO across case studies;

IX. investigate if the extent of an employee's experience of organisational changes in SET TWO and SET THREE is important in understanding commitment towards the employing organisation.

7.1.2 Sample composition

Table 7-1 shows individual and combined case study sample details classified by twelve categories and the percentage composition within each. The purpose of this descriptive data is to show the respondent profile and this will subsequently place additional analysis into a lucid context and determine if later comparisons between the data sets are comparing like with like. Moreover, some of the forthcoming analysis will be performed on the combined data set in order to present the holistic outcomes and totals.
Table 7-1 Characteristics of sampled population

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>Response categories</th>
<th>Case 1</th>
<th>Case 2</th>
<th>Case 3</th>
<th>All cases</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Gender</td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>80%</td>
<td>70%</td>
<td>82%</td>
<td>80%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>20%</td>
<td>30%</td>
<td>18%</td>
<td>20%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Marital status</td>
<td>Co-habit/Married</td>
<td>75%</td>
<td>70%</td>
<td>69%</td>
<td>71%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Single/Widowed</td>
<td>25%</td>
<td>30%</td>
<td>31%</td>
<td>29%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Divorced</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Breadwinner*</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>73%</td>
<td>54%</td>
<td>69%</td>
<td>68%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>No</td>
<td>27%</td>
<td>46%</td>
<td>31%</td>
<td>32%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Income dependants</td>
<td>None</td>
<td>34%</td>
<td>36%</td>
<td>31%</td>
<td>33%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>One or more</td>
<td>66%</td>
<td>64%</td>
<td>69%</td>
<td>67%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Employment status (1)</td>
<td>Manager</td>
<td>12%</td>
<td>11%</td>
<td>15%</td>
<td>14%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Non manager</td>
<td>88%</td>
<td>89%</td>
<td>85%</td>
<td>86%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Employment status (2)**</td>
<td>White collar (All managers, and staff)</td>
<td>47%</td>
<td>25%</td>
<td>51%</td>
<td>47%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Blue collar (shopfloor, skilled and non skilled)</td>
<td>53%</td>
<td>75%</td>
<td>49%</td>
<td>53%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Work area**</td>
<td>Skilled shopfloor</td>
<td>37%</td>
<td>68%</td>
<td>48%</td>
<td>48%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Non skilled shopfloor</td>
<td>18%</td>
<td>11%</td>
<td>14%</td>
<td>15%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Quality/Marketing/Sales</td>
<td>13%</td>
<td>9%</td>
<td>3%</td>
<td>6%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Projects/Materials Mgt</td>
<td>15%</td>
<td>4%</td>
<td>14%</td>
<td>13%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Admin + Other</td>
<td>17%</td>
<td>9%</td>
<td>21%</td>
<td>18%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nature of employment</td>
<td>Full time</td>
<td>100%</td>
<td>96%</td>
<td>98%</td>
<td>99%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Part time</td>
<td>None</td>
<td>4%</td>
<td>2%</td>
<td>1%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Employment contract**</td>
<td>Permanent</td>
<td>98%</td>
<td>93%</td>
<td>92%</td>
<td>94%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Fixed term + other</td>
<td>2%</td>
<td>7%</td>
<td>7%</td>
<td>6%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Employment hours**</td>
<td>Non shift</td>
<td>47%</td>
<td>29%</td>
<td>70%</td>
<td>59%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Shift</td>
<td>53%</td>
<td>71%</td>
<td>30%</td>
<td>42%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Length of service**</td>
<td>0-10 years</td>
<td>47%</td>
<td>97%</td>
<td>66%</td>
<td>65%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>11+ years</td>
<td>52%</td>
<td>3%</td>
<td>34%</td>
<td>35%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Union membership</td>
<td>Member</td>
<td>62%</td>
<td>71%</td>
<td>Unknown</td>
<td>65%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Non member</td>
<td>38%</td>
<td>29%</td>
<td>Unknown</td>
<td>35%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Valid no. of observations</td>
<td></td>
<td>122</td>
<td>56</td>
<td>284</td>
<td>462</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* p<0.05 ** p<0.01
The study seeks to test the associations between antecedent variables (for example; gender, marital status, and number of income dependants, employment status, and length of service and union membership) with commitment. However, the case study questionnaire comprised other response categories concerning the demographic and work related variables of individuals. These emerged following initial meetings with the three case studies which revealed disparity in the sample was likely due to a number of other factors (for example; breadwinner status, area of work, nature of employment, type of contract, employment hours). Hence all of the moderating variables are included in the analysis of the sample composition. This would add considerable depth to the literature about commitment since previous studies to date have failed to measure the full range of antecedent variables included in this analysis.

Overall, the sample derived from the three case studies participating with this research is dominated by employees who are: male; married and with one or more income dependants. Moreover, of the respondents surveyed, the majority in each case is likely to be the main breadwinner in their household, (although this is least obvious in case two). The table also shows that participating individuals are non managers, namely office or shopfloor workers (skilled or non skilled). The employee work area statistic denotes that they are likely to be skilled tradesman. Moreover, within each of the three case studies, nearly all are full time, permanent organisational members.

The sample of the three case studies appears similar in terms of the eight categories discussed above. However, the remaining categories show some disparity between the samples. Firstly, the pattern of employment hours amongst respondents shows that whilst the number of individuals sampled at case two work on a shift basis, at case studies one and three the majority of employees surveyed do not.

Although the questionnaire did not explicitly request respondents to indicate if they considered themselves to be blue or white collar, this was calculated from the response categories. Employment status (2), as it is referred, suggests that, whilst the ratio of blue to white collar workers in case studies one and three is
approximately 50:50, blue collar employees represent three quarters of the total sample at case study two. It is also evident that union membership is predominant amongst the majority of participating employees in case studies one and two. Since the inclusion of union related questions was prohibited at case study three, the percentage shown in the combined case data column is based solely on the total number of responses presented in case studies one and two only (N=178). Finally, Table 7-1 shows incongruent tenure lengths demonstrated amongst respondents’ at each of the three organisations. A varied pattern is apparent with case study one employees having the longest service lengths overall.

7.1.3 Chi squared analysis

In order to determine if the differences in the observed frequencies presented in Table 7-1 are significant, chi square analysis was performed on the data. The purpose of undertaking this analysis is to provide preliminary indicators of the associations between the variables of the sample, which more sophisticated statistical techniques carried out later will utilise. For example; the one way independent measures ANOVA seeking to test the impact of antecedent variables on the outcomes of BOCS (in section 7.2).

Of the twelve categories determining the profile of respondents participating in this research, five of these, (namely bread winner and employment status (2), work area, employment contract, employment hours and employee service lengths) significantly differed between the case studies partaking with this research. Hence, such differences may obscure the levels of commitment obtained within each organisation. The samples within each of the case studies do not differ significantly with regard to gender, marital status, number of income dependants, employment status (1), and nature of employment. Similarly, there are no significant differences between the levels of union membership at case studies one and two.
7.2 The antecedents of commitment

To establish the importance of these moderating variables on commitment, one way analysis of variance using BOCS8 as the dependent variable was undertaken. This sought to establish which (if any) of the demographic and work related variables in the sample could be identified as being significantly influential in determining BOCS8. The analysis was performed on the combined data set. Table 7-2 shows an overview of those demographic variables examined in this research and then looks at the detail at the significant ones. In the event that low frequencies were obtained for some of the questionnaire categories, variables similar by nature were computed together. For example; the frequency data of the marital status question initially comprised four categories; single, married, co-habit and other (i.e. divorcees and those who are widowed). However, only seventeen members of the total sample (N= 462) acknowledged that they fell into the "other" category. Hence, this was combined with respondents who indicated that they were "single".

Unlike the chi squared analysis performed on this data (which required 20% of the cells to contain a value of five or more to be able to function), the re-coding of the data for the purposes of the ANOVAs presented as Table 7-2 was kept to a minimum. This was necessary to enable subsequent post hoc multiple comparisons to pin point exactly where any significant differences between the variables lie. Comparisons of means are shown in Table 7-3 to Table 7-9.

Table 7-2 shows the scores obtained and the categories containing the antecedent variables on which the analysis was performed. From the eleven variables tested, seven emerged as influential in the outcome of BOCS8. Noticeably however, four variables failed to be identified as significant in influencing commitment using BOCS8 namely; gender, breadwinner status, nature of employment and union membership. From Table 7-2, commitment is shown to be most heavily influenced by; an individual's marital status, their employment hours, the status they hold within the
Table 7-2. The influence of antecedent variables on outcomes of BOCS8 (combined data set)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>Response categories</th>
<th>F probability</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Gender</td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>0.94</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Female</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Marital status</td>
<td>Single/Widowed/Divorced</td>
<td>0.00**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Co-habit/married</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Breadwinner</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>0.83</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>No</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Income dependants</td>
<td>None</td>
<td>0.02*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>One</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Two</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>More than two</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Employment status</td>
<td>Manager</td>
<td>0.00**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Staff</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Shopfloor</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Work area</td>
<td>Skilled shopfloor</td>
<td>0.03*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Non skilled shopfloor</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Quality/Marketing/Sales</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Projects/Materials Mgt</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Admin + Other</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nature of employment</td>
<td>Full time</td>
<td>0.25</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Part time</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Employment contract</td>
<td>Permanent</td>
<td>0.03*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Fixed term + other</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Employment hours</td>
<td>Non shift</td>
<td>0.01**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Shift</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Length of service</td>
<td>0-3 years</td>
<td>0.00**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>4-10 years</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>11-20 years</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>More than 20 years</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Union membership</td>
<td>Member</td>
<td>0.47</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Non member</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*p<0.05  **p<0.01
organisation, as well as their length of service. Moreover, the number of income dependants responsible to the participant and the nature of their employment contract also emerged as significant variables for determining BOCS8 amongst those surveyed.

7.2.1 Marital status

Comparison of means suggests that those respondents who are married or co-habit reported significantly higher BOCS8 scores in comparison to those who are single (as shown in Table 7-3). This finding is consistent with the literature (see Hrebiniak and Alutto; 1972 and Ritzer and Trice; 1969) who found that those who are married associate higher costs to leaving the organisation (in relation to single employees) and therefore demonstrate higher commitment towards their current employer.

Table 7-3 Comparison on means of marital status in influencing BOCS8

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Variable</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>37.70</td>
<td>Single/other</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>41.55</td>
<td>Married/Co-habit</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

7.2.2 Number of income dependants

From the three case studies, it is evident that those with no income dependants show least commitment, presumably because such individuals are more favourably disposed to other employment alternatives (Becker; 1960). However, the level of employee commitment is not shown to increase in direct relation to the number of income dependants the respondent has. The Least Significant Difference test (LSD) indicates significant differences between the number of sampled respondents with one income dependent in relation to those with none as well as those with two or more (see Table 7-4).
Table 7-4  Comparison of means for number of income dependants in influencing BOCS8

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Variable</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>39.12</td>
<td>None</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>39.50</td>
<td>More than two</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>40.98</td>
<td>Two</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>42.42</td>
<td>One</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

7.2.3 Employment status

Comparisons of means shown in Table 7-5 indicate that management shows the highest commitment levels in relation to shopfloor and office personnel. Moreover, post hoc multiple comparisons using LSD revealed significant differences between groups in influencing the dependent variable (BOCS8) between shopfloor employees and management and also between staff and management (see Table 7-5). This finding is contrary to Ritzer and Trice (1969) who suggest that those with the lowest paid jobs show highest levels of commitment, as they have few perceived job alternatives.

Table 7-5  Comparison of means for employment status in influencing BOCS8

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Variable</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>38.62</td>
<td>Shopfloor</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>40.42</td>
<td>Staff</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>46.60</td>
<td>All management</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

7.2.4 Work area

Table 7-6 shows that there are significant differences in the outcomes of BOCS8 between some work area groups on the combined data set. In particular between those that are non skilled and skilled and also between those who fall under the projects/material management heading in comparison to those in administration (+ other) departments. This result is inconsistent with other studies which suggest non skilled workers demonstrate the highest commitment levels (see chapter four). The finding however, is consistent with the result shown in Table 7-5, which
suggests that non skilled workers show least commitment overall. In this study, all non skilled workers in this research are situated on the shopfloor.

Table 7-6 Comparison of means for work area in influencing BOCS8

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Variable</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>39.04</td>
<td>Skilled</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>40.49</td>
<td>Admin + other</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>41.88</td>
<td>Non skilled</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>42.34</td>
<td>Quality/Marketing/Sales</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>42.63</td>
<td>Projects/Materials Management</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

7.2.5 Employment contract

Table 7-7 shows that those who hold permanent positions of employment indicated higher levels of attitudinal commitment towards their organisation than those who are employed under other contractual situations, i.e. fixed term. This result is reinforced by some of the comments from respondents during the pilot stages of the questionnaire. A shopfloor worker at case study two, remarked; “Of course you will show more commitment if you have a permanent position, it means you truly belong and the company wants you”. Similarly, a manager with personnel responsibility at case study three commented, “One of my staff is temporary and whilst he may be part of my team, he is not really treated as a member (of Airco) in the same manner as his colleagues, in terms of the personnel package i.e. sick pay, salary, holidays I mean... whilst he may like his job, he may not show his commitment in the same way as if he were permanent, because he works for a different reason, (he works) for money”.

Table 7-7 Comparison of means for employment contract in influencing BOCS8

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Variable</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>40.61</td>
<td>Permanent</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>36.71</td>
<td>Other (including fixed term)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
7.2.6 Employment hours

Comparison of means in Table 7-8 shows that respondents who do not work on a shift system (i.e. they work 9am to 5pm) scored significantly higher on BOCS, indicating higher commitment than their shift working colleagues. This result is rationalised in light of one manager's comment made when the organisation was first approached to participate with this research. He asked, "Will you be surveying a cross section of our employees?...As I understand it, those on shift do not always feel a part of Engco like the nine to fivers and an atmosphere of segregation is not one we relish. It will be interesting to see if you may get different responses from them".

Table 7-8  Comparison of means of employment hours in influencing BOCS8

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Variable</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>41.32</td>
<td>Non shift</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>38.99</td>
<td>Shift</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

7.2.7 Length of service

Throughout the commitment literature, tenure is considered as amongst the most influential of the moderating variables in explaining commitment levels (Mowday et al;1982). The findings of this study suggest that there is a consistent positive correlation between service lengths and commitment levels.

Table 7-9  Comparison of means of length of service in influencing BOCS8

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Variable</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>38.84</td>
<td>0-3 years</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>39.00</td>
<td>4-10 years</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>41.37</td>
<td>11-20 years</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>44.24</td>
<td>20+ years</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Comparison of mean scores of BOCS8 (see Table 7-9), shows significant differences between those with 0-3 years service and those with 20 years or more and also between those within the four to ten year service category in relation to those employees who have 20+ years tenure with the same organisation. This
pattern is compatible with other studies in the area of commitment (see chapter four).

7.2.8 Summary

The above analysis has provided a general overview of the types of moderating variables that have been shown to explain BOCS8 across the case studies surveyed. Whilst some of the findings are consistent with the literature, (i.e. marital status, number of income dependants, length of service), others are not (for example; employment status, contractual hours and work area).

7.3 The content of organisational change: Assessing the impact of organisational changes on employee commitment

Chapter five documented that case study research was undertaken sequentially throughout this study, since this allowed the questioning techniques adopted to be refined and improved on in light of previous case study outcomes. Table 7-10 summaries the questionnaire options on the three case study questionnaires. In terms of the analysis therefore, comparable data sets are required to enable the commitment scores of those individuals who have personally experienced change to be differentiated from those who have seen change happen to others.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Case study</th>
<th>Questionnaire options on case study questionnaires</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Case study 1</td>
<td>Experienced or not</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Case study 2</td>
<td>Personally experienced only or Seen it happen to others</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Case study 3</td>
<td>Personally experienced only or Seen it happen to others</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Figure 7-1 summarises the rules governing the analysis in each set of changes.
Figure 7-1 Rules governing statistical analysis in each set of organisational changes

**ORGANISATIONAL CHANGES IN SET ONE**

Compare commitment scores of those who have personally experienced each change in relation to the remained unchanged indicator (i.e. scale mean = 3).

Compare commitment scores of those who have seen each change happen to others in relation to the remained unchanged indicator (applies to case studies two and three only).

Compare commitment scores of those who have personally experienced each change across all three case studies;

Compare commitment scores of those who have seen change happen to others across case studies (applies to case studies two and three only).

**ORGANISATIONAL CHANGES IN SET TWO**

Compare commitment scores of those who have personally experienced each change in relation to the remained unchanged indicator (i.e. scale mean = 3).

Compare commitment scores of those who have seen each change happen to others in relation to the remained unchanged indicator (applies to case studies two and three only).

Compare responses of those who have personally experienced each change and indicated how it has impacted on their commitment levels in case studies that have matched changes;

Compare responses of those who have seen organisational changes happen to others in case studies two and three only, (there is only one change in this category, that is team briefs).

**ORGANISATIONAL CHANGES IN SET THREE**

Compare commitment scores of those who have personally experienced each change in relation to the remained unchanged indicator (i.e. scale mean = 3).

Compare commitment scores of those who have seen each change happen to others in relation to the remained unchanged indicator (applies to case studies two and three only).

Comparisons can not be made across case studies as organisational changes in SET THREE are unique to each individual organisation.

All case study one data (with the exception of redundancy) is treated as *personally experienced* since this allows comparisons between organisational changes with those at case studies two and three. As indicated in chapter five, redundancy constitutes a SET THREE change, since it is unique to case study one. In the presentation of the analysis using this variable, however, inferences about whether
this change has been personally experienced or is a change observed by
respondents in others are not made because the data comprises of some individuals
who have observed this change in their organisation, and others who were made
redundant and were then reinstated.

7.4 Commitment levels after change - Changes in SET ONE

Table 7-11 to Table 7-18 show descriptive information of employee commitment
levels after change (namely those in SET ONE which have occurred in all of the
three case studies participating with this study).

Table 7-11 to Table 7-14 deals with the SET ONE changes that have been
personally experienced by individuals at all three case studies. Table 7-15 to Table
7-18, report commitment levels of those who have indicated that they have seen
the changes in SET ONE happen to others within their organisation and therefore
only deals with case two and three data (see section 7.5). In both instances,
respondents were asked to indicate how each organisational change has affected
the level of commitment they felt towards the organisation. Section four of the
questionnaire (discussed in chapter five) shows that scale items of commitment
levels after change were accompanied by item descriptors (1=considerably
increased, 2=increased, 3= remained constant, 4=decreased, 5=considerably
decreased).

One-sample T tests were carried out (on each change) to establish if the
commitment scores reported could be considered as significantly different from
"remained constant" (i.e. scale mean or test value = 3). The p value of the T test
indicates the differences between the sample means and the scale mean (i.e. 3,
remained constant).
7.4.1 Personally experienced changes in SET ONE

Table 7-11 Organisational restructuring, Table 7-12 Payment settlements

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Organisational restructuring</th>
<th>Payment settlements</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Table 7-11</td>
<td>Table 7-12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>N</td>
<td>Mean</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-----</td>
<td>------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Case 1</td>
<td>107</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Case 2</td>
<td>28</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Case 3</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Combined case</td>
<td>235</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*p<0.05  **p<0.01  
Scale: 1=Increased considerably, 5=Considerably decreased

7.4.2 Personally experienced change : Organisational restructuring

Table 7-11 indicates that for case studies two and three, the commitment scores of respondents reported significant differences (from the scale mean of 3) when individuals indicated that they had personally experienced organisational restructuring. Comparison of means shows that where material differences are apparent, all employees report an increase in commitment levels after this change.

7.4.3 Personally experienced change : Payment settlements

Table 7-12, shows that personally experiencing changes in pay levels has an impact on the level of commitment employees demonstrate, since there are material differences between the sample means (of case studies one, two and combined) in relation to the scale mean of 3. The mean scores of commitment shown in Table 7-12 demonstrate that all respondents within the organisations under examination reported increased commitment levels as a result of this change (with the exception of case study three, where employees’ commitment remained unaltered).
7.4.4 Personally experienced change: Technological change

From Table 7-13, it is evident that all groups show increased levels of commitment as a result of personally experiencing technological changes within their respective organisations.

Table 7-13 Technological change

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Case 1</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>St. d.</th>
<th>P value</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>91</td>
<td>2.40</td>
<td>0.81</td>
<td>0.00**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Case 2</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>2.21</td>
<td>0.77</td>
<td>0.00**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Case 3</td>
<td>157</td>
<td>2.59</td>
<td>0.74</td>
<td>0.00**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Combined case</td>
<td>282</td>
<td>2.48</td>
<td>0.78</td>
<td>0.00**</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* p<0.05  ** p<0.01

Scale: 1 = Increased considerably, 5 = Considerably decreased

7.4.5 Personally experienced change: Job re-organisation

Similar to the pattern of commitment scores obtained from respondents who indicated that they have experienced changes in technology, employees who reported that they have undergone some job re-organisation also suggested that as a result of this, their commitment levels have increased. Table 7-14 shows that all the results are shown to be significantly different from the scale mean.

Table 7-14 Job re-organisation

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Case 1</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>St. d.</th>
<th>P value</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>94</td>
<td>2.69</td>
<td>1.20</td>
<td>0.01*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Case 2</td>
<td>43</td>
<td>2.49</td>
<td>1.08</td>
<td>0.00**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Case 3</td>
<td>116</td>
<td>2.56</td>
<td>1.08</td>
<td>0.00**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Combined case</td>
<td>253</td>
<td>2.60</td>
<td>1.12</td>
<td>0.00**</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

7.4.6 Summary

The above analysis has examined the impact of the changes in SET ONE on individuals who have personally experienced them. From this, it is concluded that each of the four changes play a significant part in determining the commitment scores of respondents (with the exception of organisational restructuring in case study one and payment settlements in case study three). It is also evident that in
case studies where commitment levels have altered as a result of the changes personally experienced, employees reported an increase.

7.4.7 Seen organisation changes in SET ONE happen to others (case studies two and three only)

The extent to which the organisational changes in SET ONE (when seen happen to others in the organisation) may impact on commitment levels of individuals is also examined. Noticeably however, there are fewer number of valid observations (in comparison to Table 7-11 to Table 7-14) on which to base this analysis (particularly at case study two) and it is acknowledged that this may mask some of the conclusions that are drawn.

Table 7-15 Organisational restructuring Table 7-16 Payment settlements

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Organisational restructuring</th>
<th>Payment settlements</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Table 7-15</td>
<td>Table 7-16</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>N</td>
<td>Mean</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Case 2</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>3.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Case 3</td>
<td>106</td>
<td>3.16</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Combined case</td>
<td>125</td>
<td>3.14</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*p<0.05  Scale: 1=Increased considerably, 5=Considerably decreased

**p<0.01

7.4.8 Seen change happen to others : Organisational restructuring

Table 7-15 suggests that when individuals do not experience organisational restructuring for themselves, their commitment levels remain unchanged.

7.4.9 Seen change happen to others : Payment settlements

Given that the standard deviation is equal to zero, SPSS could not perform the analysis which would establish if there are (or are not) significant differences between the sample mean scores and the scale mean in Table 7-16. However, there is a difference of one between the means, this indicates that there is 100% confidence in the suggestion that commitment levels are increased amongst respondents in instances where they observed changes to the level of their
colleagues' pay at case studies two and three. Frequency data reveals that of those who indicated an increase in their commitment levels, 8% are managers, whilst the remainder (92%) are shopfloor and staff members.

Table 7-17 Technological change  Table 7-18 Job re-organisation

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Technological change</th>
<th>Job re-organisation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Table 7-17</strong></td>
<td><strong>Table 7-18</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>N</td>
<td>Mean</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>---</td>
<td>------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Case 2 8</td>
<td>2.62</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Case 3 48</td>
<td>2.96</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Combined case 56</td>
<td>2.91</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*p<0.05  Scale: 1=Increased considerably, 5=Considerably decreased
**p<0.01

7.4.10 Seen change happen to others : Technological change

Table 7-17 indicates that there are no significant differences between mean scores of commitment in case studies two and three or on the combined data set when individuals indicated that they have seen changes in technology happen to others within their organisation. Thus, it is concluded that this change, coupled with the extent to which employees in this research experience it, (i.e. not first hand) has resulted in no significant change in the commitment of those surveyed.

7.4.11 Seen change happen to others : Job re-organisation

A similar set of scores to Table 7-17 is obtained. Consequently, it is argued that of those employees who indicate that they have seen their work colleagues' jobs re-organised, none indicate that this has significantly altered their own commitment level, see Table 7-18.
7.4.12 Conclusion

Comparison between the scores obtained in Table 7-11 to Table 7-14 in relation to those of Table 7-15 to Table 7-18 shows that an employees' experience of change is important in determining commitment. On the whole, those who have seen changes happen to others, are more likely to report no change in the level of their commitment as a result. The exception is changes in the level of pay where it can be seen that in all cases, others' pay increases raised employees' own commitment.

A series of one way independent measures ANOVA are then carried out to establish if there are significant differences between commitment scores after the changes in SET ONE as differentiated by the extent to which respondents have experienced them (i.e. personally experienced or seen the change happen to others). This is performed firstly on the case study two and case three data (since the extent to which each change has been experienced was only collected from respondents within these organisations). Secondly, it is performed on the combined data set (although again, in dealing with changes that employees have seen happen to others, only case two and three data sets are compared).

7.4.13 The extent of change experience: Organisational changes in SET ONE: Case study two data

Table 7-19 reveals no significant differences between personally experiencing changes in SET ONE in relation to those who have seen the same changes happen to others at case study two. However, this may be attributed to the extremely small sample sizes at this organisation (particularly of those employees who have seen changes in question happen to others). These may mask any differences that may be apparent between the commitment scores of each group.
Table 7-19 One way ANOVA of case study two employees who have personally experienced changes in SET ONE in comparison to those who have seen them happen to others

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Changes in SET ONE</th>
<th>Personally experienced change</th>
<th>Seen change happen to others</th>
<th>F prob</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>N</td>
<td>Mean</td>
<td>St. d.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Organisational restructuring</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>2.32</td>
<td>1.09</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Payment settlements</td>
<td>39</td>
<td>2.44</td>
<td>0.91</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Technological change</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>2.21</td>
<td>0.77</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Job re-organisation</td>
<td>43</td>
<td>2.49</td>
<td>2.49</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*p<0.05  **p<0.01  
Scale: 1=Increased considerably, 5=Considerably decreased

7.4.14 The extent of change experience: Organisational changes in SET ONE: Case study three data

Table 7-20 One way ANOVA of case study three employees who have personally experienced changes in SET ONE in comparison to those who have seen them happen to others

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Changes in SET ONE</th>
<th>Personally experienced change</th>
<th>Seen change happen to others</th>
<th>F prob</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>N</td>
<td>Mean</td>
<td>St. d.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Organisational restructuring</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>2.73</td>
<td>1.04</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Payment settlements</td>
<td>210</td>
<td>2.93</td>
<td>0.87</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Technological change</td>
<td>157</td>
<td>2.59</td>
<td>0.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Job re-organisation</td>
<td>116</td>
<td>2.56</td>
<td>1.08</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*p<0.05  **p<0.01  
Scale: 1=Increased considerably, 5=Considerably decreased

Table 7-20 provides evidence to suggest that there are significant differences between the commitment scores of those employees employed at case study three who have experienced the changes in SET ONE for themselves in relation to those who have seen them happen to others within their organisation. Comparison of means suggests that whilst commitment levels have increased amongst those who have experienced personally the changes under examination, these tended to remain unaltered for those who have seen such changes happen to others. Thus, as before, the extent to which an employee is exposed to change does appear to have an impact on the level of commitment they demonstrate thereafter.
The exception is payment settlements. Table 7-20 shows that although 21 individuals had not experienced this change for themselves at case study three, they reported an increase in their level of commitment after observing this change in others. Further analysis shows that all of these individuals are single, male, breadwinners and full time non managers, (43% are staff and some 57% shopfloor workers) and the majority are permanent (81%). More importantly however, all were new recruits having worked for a period of between 0-3 years.

It appears that employees observation of others receiving increased remuneration has subsequently increased their own commitment perhaps because they consider that this how they will be rewarded in the future. The basis for this explanation is located in expectancy theory. Expectancy theory introduces the element of time into the basic exchange model. It suggests that the transaction may involve exchanging present contributions in the expectation that they will receive rewards in the future (Lykda;1994, Vroom;1964).

7.5 The process of change

One way analysis of variance was carried out to establish if there are differences between case studies one, two and three when individuals have: 1) personally experienced changes in SET ONE and; 2) seen changes in SET ONE happen to others (case studies two and three only).

Table 7-21 shows the results of the first analysis. In the event that there are material differences, this will suggest that the strategies used by each organisation to elicit change are influential in the outcomes of commitment after change.
7.5.1 Personally experienced change: SET ONE

Table 7-21 One way ANOVA of employees who have personally experienced changes in SET ONE at the three case studies participating with this research

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Changes in set one</th>
<th>Number of valid observations</th>
<th>F probability</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Case 1</td>
<td>Case 2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Organisational restructuring</td>
<td>107</td>
<td>28</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Payment settlements</td>
<td>105</td>
<td>39</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Technological change</td>
<td>91</td>
<td>34</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Job re-organisation</td>
<td>94</td>
<td>43</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*p<0.05 **p<0.01

Scale: 1=Increased considerably, 5=Considerably decreased

7.5.2 Personally experienced change: Organisational restructuring

Table 7-21 shows significant differences between commitment levels of employees who indicated that they personally experienced organisational restructuring.

Multiple ranges tests using LSD pin points significant differences between those employed at case study one in comparison to case study two, but not three.

Comparison of means are shown in Table 7-22.

Table 7-22 Comparison of mean scores of commitment levels after experience of organisational restructuring (by company)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Case study</th>
<th>Synonym</th>
<th>Strategy used to elicit change</th>
<th>Mean score</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Case study one</td>
<td>Engco</td>
<td>Normative/re-educative</td>
<td>2.92</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Case study two</td>
<td>Carco</td>
<td>Power/coercive</td>
<td>2.32</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Case study three</td>
<td>Airco</td>
<td>Empirical/rational</td>
<td>2.73</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Scale: 1=Increased considerably, 5=Considerably decreased

One way ANOVA F= 3.29, P = 0.04

7.5.3 Personally experienced change: Payment settlements

With regard to establishing significant differences between employees at the three case studies who have personally experienced changes in the level of their pay, Table 7-23 shows that multiple ranges tests using LSD revealed significant
differences between case study two in relation to all other remaining groups (i.e. case studies one and three).

Table 7-23  Comparison of mean scores of commitment after experience of payment settlements (by company)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Case study</th>
<th>Synonym</th>
<th>Strategy used to elicit change</th>
<th>Mean score</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Case study one</td>
<td>Engco</td>
<td>Normative/re-educative</td>
<td>2.81</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Case study two</td>
<td>Carco</td>
<td>Power/coercive</td>
<td>2.44</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Case study three</td>
<td>Airco</td>
<td>Empirical/rational</td>
<td>2.93</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Scale: 1=Increased considerably, 5=Considerably decreased
One way ANOVA  F= 5.05,  P = 0.007

7.5.4 Personally experienced change: Technological change

Of those employees at the three case studies who indicated that they had personally experienced changes in technology at their place of work, those at case study three reported the lowest levels of commitment towards their employing organisation (Airco) thereafter. The least-significant difference test established significant differences between case study three and case study two only (means are shown in Table 7-24).

Table 7-24  Comparison of mean scores of commitment levels after experience of technological change (by company)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Case study</th>
<th>Synonym</th>
<th>Strategy used to elicit change</th>
<th>Mean score</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Case study one</td>
<td>Engco</td>
<td>Normative/re-educative</td>
<td>2.40</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Case study two</td>
<td>Carco</td>
<td>Power/coercive</td>
<td>2.21</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Case study three</td>
<td>Airco</td>
<td>Empirical/rational</td>
<td>2.59</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Scale: 1=Increased considerably, 5=Considerably decreased
One way ANOVA  F= 0.134,  P = 0.01

231
7.5.5 Personally experienced change: Job re-organisation

Table 7-21 reveals no significant differences between commitment levels of employees within each of the three case studies, after personally experiencing this change (p<0.05).

7.5.6 Seen change happen to others: SET ONE

The second part of the analysis is concerned with employee commitment levels after change when employees indicated that they had seen changes (in SET ONE) happen to others within their organisation.

Table 7-25 One way ANOVA of employees who have seen changes in SET ONE happen to others at the three case studies

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Changes in set one</th>
<th>Number of valid observations</th>
<th>F probability</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Case 2</td>
<td>Case 3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Organisational restructuring</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>106</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Payment settlements</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>21</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Technological change</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>48</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Job re-organisation</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>54</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*p<0.05 **p<0.01

Table 7-25 shows that there are no significant differences between employee commitment levels at case studies two and three when individuals indicated that they had seen changes in SET ONE happen to others.

7.5.7 Discussion

The process adopted by an organisation to elicit organisational changes (SET ONE) does play a part in determining employee commitment levels thereafter (i.e. when an individual has personally experienced change). The above analysis has established that three of the four changes under examination resulted in significant differences between employee commitment scores.
Moreover, there is a consistent pattern shown in Table 7-22, Table 7-23 and Table 7-24 which indicates that a power/coercive strategy resulted in achieving the lowest mean scores of the three case studies. This suggests that employees there indicated the highest commitment after changes in corporate restructuring, pay and technology in relation to the other case studies. A power/coercive strategy therefore appears to be the most effective for increasing commitment after change, perhaps because it is a managerial approach which is based on rules and regulations. This in turn is considered to reduce role ambiguity and hence, role stress for employees (Michaels et al;1988). This important finding is further investigated via the qualitative research (see chapter eight).

Furthermore, in all instances where the ANOVA is shown to be significant, multiple ranges tests using LSD shows no evidence of significant differences between case studies one and three. From this, it is inferred that a normative/re-educative strategy is not materialistically different in determining commitment levels after changes in SET ONE from that of an empirical/rational strategy.

This is somewhat surprising given that these two strategies are distinct. The former seeking to build on assumptions about human motivation, attempting to change employee attitudes and values, whereas empirical/rational strategies are predominately knowledge and information based. However, there are also some similarities. For example, when discussing normative/re-educative strategy characteristics, Chin and Benne (1985;23) state “that the rationality of men are not denied,” as they are suppressed in the power/coercive strategy. In this sense, the normative/re-educative strategy is an extension of the empirical/rational approach appealing to the intelligence of employees whilst appreciating that “clarification and reconstruction of values is of pivotal importance in changing” (Chin and Benne;1985;32). Finally, the process of change did not appear to be significant in the outcome for commitment levels after change (SET ONE) when individual’s in any of the three case studies saw these changes happen to others in their organisation.
7.6 Commitment levels after change - Changes in SET TWO

SET TWO changes have occurred within two of the three case studies under examination. These are, Total Quality Assurance (TQA) Workshops experienced by employees in case studies one and two and team briefs at cases two and three.

The following analysis (presented in Table 7-26 to Table 7-28) utilised a series of one-sample T tests to establish if commitment scores of those who have personally experienced the changes in SET TWO significantly differed from the scale mean (3, remained unchanged) as indicated by the p value. Thereafter, a series of one way ANOVAs were used to detect any differences with regard to employees' commitment levels between companies which had implemented changes in SET TWO.

7.6.1 Changes in case study one and two

Table 7-26 Personally experienced change: TQA Workshops

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Change</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Std</th>
<th>P value</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>TQA Workshops - Case study one</td>
<td>108</td>
<td>2.54</td>
<td>0.84</td>
<td>0.00**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TQA Workshops - Case study two</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>2.41</td>
<td>1.06</td>
<td>0.04*</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*p<0.05, **p<0.01

Scale: 1=Increased considerably, 5=Considerably decreased

Table 7-26 shows that in both case studies there are significant differences between commitment levels of those who have personally experienced TQA workshops in relation to the test score. Employees at cases one and two report an increase in their level of commitment having personally experienced this change.

Following this analysis, a one way independent measures ANOVA was undertaken to find out if the commitment levels of employees at case study one (which pursues a normative/re-educative approach to change) would markedly differ in relation to those employees at case study two (i.e. power/coercive organisation) since this would be in-keeping with the results of SET ONE changes. However, the analysis, based on seventeen pairs, revealed a result of 0.581. This suggests that there are no differences between the two companies.
Despite the small sample size on which this analysis is based, (which may have masked differences between the case studies), it is concluded that the process of change is not influential in the outcomes of commitment levels amongst employees who have personally experienced TQA workshops, (at least between organisations which adopt normative/re-educative and power/coercive change environments).

7.6.2 Changes in case study two and three

Table 7-27 shows commitment scores of those who have personally experienced team briefs as differentiated by case study (namely two and three) in relation to the scale mean (3, remained unchanged). Whereas only those at case study two report any increase in commitment following this change, personal experience of team briefs do not have any significant impact on commitment levels at case study three. In other words, employees who have personally experienced team briefs within a power/coercive environment indicated that their commitment had risen thereafter. However, no fluctuation in commitment was apparent from employees who had experienced this change within an empirical/rational work environment.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Change</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>St.d</th>
<th>P value</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Team Briefs - Case study two</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>2.67</td>
<td>0.82</td>
<td>0.03*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Team Briefs - Case study three</td>
<td>152</td>
<td>2.75</td>
<td>0.77</td>
<td>0.06</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*p<0.05  **p<0.01  Scale: 1=Increased considerably, 5=Considerably decreased

The f probability of the ANOVA equals 0.576 suggesting no significant differences between employee’s level of commitment after personal experience of team briefs between these two case studies.

Table 7-28 shows that case study two employees also reported an increase in their own commitment levels when their colleagues have experienced team briefing sessions.
Table 7-28  Seen change happen to others: Team briefs

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Change</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>St.d</th>
<th>P value</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Team Briefs - Case study two</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>2.50</td>
<td>0.53</td>
<td>0.02*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Team Briefs - Case study three</td>
<td>31</td>
<td>3.06</td>
<td>0.63</td>
<td>0.57</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*p<0.05    **p<0.01

Scale: 1=Increased considerably, 5=Considerably decreased

Following the results in Table 7-28, a one way ANOVA was undertaken to find out if the strategies used by the two organisations participating in this research, which had introduced team briefs, could be considered as influential in the outcomes of commitment when individuals reported that they had seen others within their organisation experience this change. The result of 0.015 suggests that there are significant differences between the case studies. The means of the commitment scores show increased commitment at case study two whilst at case study three this remained unchanged.

7.6.3 Section summary

TQA workshops have increased commitment in both the normative/re-educative organisation (case study one) and the power/coercive environment (case study two) when employees have personally experienced this change. However, comparative analysis between the personally experienced scores of these two case studies suggests that the process of change plays no part in commitment after employees experience of TQA workshops.

Moreover, whilst personal experience of team briefs resulted in no change in commitment amongst employees in the empirical/rational environment (Airco), it increased in the power/coercive organisation (Carco). As with that of TQA workshops, no statistical differences were apparent between employee commitment levels when these results were compared. Hence, it can only be concluded that the process of change has no impact on commitment after this change.
7.7 Commitment levels after change - Changes in SET THREE

Following the statistical method adopted to analyse the changes in SET ONE and SET TWO, Table 7-29 to Table 7-31 compares commitment scores of those who have experienced (personally or observed in others, where appropriate) each change within SET THREE to the remained unchanged indicator (scale mean of 3). Use of one-sample T-tests are adopted. However, unlike the previous analysis, comparison of means between case studies are not undertaken thereafter, since all changes within SET THREE are unique to each participating case study.

7.7.1 Case study one

Table 7-29 SET THREE changes at case study one

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Change</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>St.d</th>
<th>P value</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Redundancy</td>
<td>97</td>
<td>3.22</td>
<td>0.98</td>
<td>0.03*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Channelling - Personally</td>
<td>64</td>
<td>2.83</td>
<td>0.94</td>
<td>0.15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>experienced</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*p<0.05 Scale: 1=Increased considerably, 5=Considerably decreased

**p<0.01

Noticeably there are significant differences between redundancy and the “remained constant” indicator of 3. In particular, this change has decreased the level of commitment shown by employees within their normative/re-educative work environment. Channelling has not significantly altered the level of commitment of employees in case study one.

7.7.2 Case study two

Table 7-30 SET THREE changes at case study two

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Change</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>St.d</th>
<th>P value</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Job rotation - Personally</td>
<td>41</td>
<td>2.44</td>
<td>1.00</td>
<td>0.00**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>experienced</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Job rotation - Seen it</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>2.89</td>
<td>0.78</td>
<td>0.68</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>happen to others</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*p<0.05 Scale: 1=Increased considerably, 5=Considerably decreased

**p<0.01

There are differences between scores of the scale mean and the commitment levels of employees’ who have personally experienced job rotation. However, when individuals indicated that they have seen this change happen to others, no
significant differences between their commitment levels and the "unchanged" indicator were apparent. Furthermore, no significant differences between the extent to which individuals had personally experienced change and seen this happen to others, were found when the two means were compared (F=0.213).

7.7.3 Case study three

Finally, the result in Table 7-31 shows a similar pattern of scores to that of Table 7-30 (job rotation) when comparisons are made between the scores obtained in relation to the scale mean.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Change</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>St.d</th>
<th>P value</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Multiskilling - Personally</td>
<td>120</td>
<td>2.58</td>
<td>0.77</td>
<td>0.00**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>experienced</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Multiskilling - Seen it happen</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>2.97</td>
<td>0.67</td>
<td>0.80</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>to others</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*p<0.05 **p<0.01

It shows employee commitment levels are altered in circumstances where individuals have personally experienced multiskilling, whilst no change in commitment is apparent in employees who observe this in others. Following this analysis, a one way ANOVA was subjected to the data, such that any significant differences between the extent to which multiskilling has been experienced could be established. The f probability of 0.009 indicates that there are material differences between these groups at case study three. Thus, the extent to which individuals' experience multiskilling (within an empirical/rational organisational setting) can be considered to have an impact on their commitment.

7.8 Determining commitment

The final analysis used in this research is regression. This is the appropriate technique to be applied when a set of predictor variables, each of which correlates to some extent with the criterion (or dependent) variable. In this research, the
criterion variable is BOCS as this has been shown to be the superior scale in this research (see chapter six). The predictor variables were fed in, in turn and consisted of: background and work related variables; followed by organisation, as a proxy for strategy for change and the organisational changes in SET ONE which were measured by a five point scale to establish individuals’ perception of whether their commitment has altered as a result of change (as discussed in section 7.4).

A stepwise regression was used. This technique shows the extent to which the significant predictor variables contribute in determining the criterion variable. In the hierarchy of regression analysis, stepwise is a more sophisticated technique than that of multiple regression since it shows the saliency level associated with the predictor variables. The predictor variables in the technique of stepwise regression are entered individually. The first variable entered into the equation most likely accounts for a “disproportionally large” (Sapsford and Jupp;1996;271) part of the total variance, hence the beta values should be examined to provide a whole picture of the contribution made by each of the significant variables.

In this research, the regression was conducted four times, each time entering the moderating variables, ‘case study’ and one of the changes from SET ONE because when the four change variables were initially entered simultaneously, this resulted in greatly reducing the number of valid observations.

The majority of the information collected in this study (i.e. BOCS and commitment after change), is ordinal. With ordinal scales, the magnitude of the differences between the numbers on the scale is not known. Interval variables are most appropriate for multiple regression because the linear equation requires information based on real numbers. However, ordinal variables are commonly used in regression when there is no suitable alternative (Allison;1999). Dummy variables were used to incorporate nominal variables into the analysis and in particular this applied to the majority of the biographic and work related variables and the case study as a proxy for change process. Where there were more than two answer categories, the dummy variables were created by collapsing the categories and assigning the scores: 0 to one category; and 1 to the other (e.g. marital status).
The following analysis was performed on the combined data set and reports: the B coefficient, which is the value which forms part of the equation to determine a respondent’s BOCS score; the beta coefficients which indicate the extent to which one variable is influential in the overall equation in the presence of the other variables found to be significant in predicting the criterion variable; and the T value, which shows if B is or is not significant when compared to zero.

7.8.1 Determining BOCS8

Table 7-32 Determining BOCS8 incorporating organisational restructuring

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>B</th>
<th>Beta</th>
<th>T</th>
<th>Sig T</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Marital status</td>
<td>2.6</td>
<td>0.13</td>
<td>2.27</td>
<td>0.02</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Employment status</td>
<td>-3.18</td>
<td>-0.12</td>
<td>-2.16</td>
<td>0.03</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Length of service</td>
<td>3.29</td>
<td>0.17</td>
<td>3.03</td>
<td>0.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Organisational</td>
<td>-4.14</td>
<td>-0.49</td>
<td>-8.96</td>
<td>0.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>restructuring</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(Constant)</td>
<td>48.86</td>
<td></td>
<td>12.95</td>
<td>0.00</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

N=233, Adjusted R squared = 0.34

Noticeably, Table 7-32 shows that organisational restructuring accounts for much of the variance in the overall equation. This means that this change is the most important in determining BOCS8.

Table 7-33 Determining BOCS8 incorporating payment settlements

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>B</th>
<th>Beta</th>
<th>T</th>
<th>Sig T</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Marital status</td>
<td>2.68</td>
<td>0.13</td>
<td>2.59</td>
<td>0.01</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Employment status</td>
<td>-5.19</td>
<td>-0.20</td>
<td>-3.95</td>
<td>0.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Length of service</td>
<td>2.9</td>
<td>0.15</td>
<td>2.95</td>
<td>0.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Payment settlements</td>
<td>-2.75</td>
<td>-0.27</td>
<td>-5.41</td>
<td>0.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(Constant)</td>
<td>49.32</td>
<td></td>
<td>14.02</td>
<td>0.00</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

N=351, Adjusted R squared = 0.18

Some antecedent variables are also identified as being influential in the outcome of commitment, whilst the process of change was not found to be significant.
As with that of Table 7-32, the beta values in Table 7-33 show that the SET ONE change, namely payment settlements, plays an important part in determining commitment, although the total variance extracted (i.e. all the variables together that are significant in the equation illustrated by adjusted R squared) is below 20%.

### Table 7-34 Determining BOCS8 incorporating technological change

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>B</th>
<th>Beta</th>
<th>T</th>
<th>Sig T</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Marital status</td>
<td>3.91</td>
<td>0.19</td>
<td>2.84</td>
<td>0.04</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Income dependants</td>
<td>-1.05</td>
<td>-0.13</td>
<td>-1.97</td>
<td>0.04</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Employment status</td>
<td>-5.5</td>
<td>-0.13</td>
<td>-1.97</td>
<td>0.04</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Length of service</td>
<td>3.11</td>
<td>0.16</td>
<td>2.80</td>
<td>0.04</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Technological change</td>
<td>-2.81</td>
<td>-0.23</td>
<td>-0.42</td>
<td>0.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(Constant)</td>
<td>49.09</td>
<td></td>
<td>12.33</td>
<td>0.00</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

N=280, Adjusted R squared = 0.17

Again, the beta values show that the majority of commitment can be explained by the presence of the change incorporated into the equation, in this case, technological change, as shown in Table 7-34.

### Table 7-35 Determining BOCS8 incorporating job re-organisation

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>B</th>
<th>Beta</th>
<th>T</th>
<th>Sig T</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Marital status</td>
<td>2.43</td>
<td>0.12</td>
<td>2.15</td>
<td>0.03</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Employment status</td>
<td>-4.01</td>
<td>-0.15</td>
<td>-2.79</td>
<td>0.01</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Length of service</td>
<td>3.47</td>
<td>0.17</td>
<td>3.23</td>
<td>0.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Job re-organisation</td>
<td>-3.76</td>
<td>-0.45</td>
<td>-8.37</td>
<td>0.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(Constant)</td>
<td>48.75</td>
<td></td>
<td>13.06</td>
<td>0.00</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

N=251, Adjusted R squared = 0.30

Finally, job re-organisation is shown to be the most important variable in the equation, (see Table 7-35) demonstrating a higher beta value than any other of the significant variables shown to affect the outcome of BOCS8.
In summary, the variance in BOCS8 can be explained by marital status, employment status, length of service as well as each of the changes in SET ONE. The strategy of change did not emerge as an important part of commitment in this set of analysis. Each of the organisational changes however, were shown to be an essential part of an individual's BOCS score. This is an important finding because it signifies that the single item scale used in the questionnaire to detect alterations in commitment after organisational changes is valid.

7.8.2 Predicting the commitment subscales

Chapter six indicated that the BOCS comprises of two subscales termed Idloyal and Involvement2. Using these as the criterion variables, the regression was extended to investigate if the predictor variables are important to the dimensions of the scale. This would show which of the variables impacted on the responses to the subscales. The same variables cited in section 7.8.1 formed the predictor variables used in this part of the analysis.

Table 7-36 Determining IDLOYAL incorporating organisational restructuring

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>B</th>
<th>Beta</th>
<th>T</th>
<th>Sig T</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Marital status</td>
<td>1.98</td>
<td>0.12</td>
<td>2.05</td>
<td>0.04</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Employment status</td>
<td>-2.54</td>
<td>-0.12</td>
<td>-2.03</td>
<td>0.04</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Length of service</td>
<td>2.88</td>
<td>0.18</td>
<td>3.14</td>
<td>0.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Organisational</td>
<td>-3.39</td>
<td>-0.48</td>
<td>-8.64</td>
<td>0.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>restructuring</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(Constant)</td>
<td>35.53</td>
<td></td>
<td>11.11</td>
<td>0.00</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

N=233, Adjusted R squared = 0.32

As with the regression using BOCS8 as the criterion variable, Table 7-36 shows that organisational restructuring makes the largest contribution to the overall equation in relation to the other significant variables which together represent 32% of the Idloyal dimension of commitment.
The same variables and a similar set of beta values to that of Table 7-36 are shown in Table 7-37. Employment status makes an important contribution in Table 7-37 followed by length of service. There is also a consistent pattern where the change in SET ONE signified by the analysis as affecting the subscale contributes the most overall.

Table 7-37 Determining IDLOYAL incorporating payment settlements

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>B</th>
<th>Beta</th>
<th>T</th>
<th>Sig T</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Marital status</td>
<td>2.06</td>
<td>0.12</td>
<td>2.36</td>
<td>0.02</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Employment status</td>
<td>-4.15</td>
<td>0.19</td>
<td>3.77</td>
<td>0.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Length of service</td>
<td>2.56</td>
<td>0.16</td>
<td>3.11</td>
<td>0.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Payment settlements</td>
<td>-2.31</td>
<td>-0.27</td>
<td>-5.42</td>
<td>0.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(Constant)</td>
<td>36.02</td>
<td></td>
<td>12.19</td>
<td>0.00</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

N=351, Adjusted R squared = 0.18

Table 7-38 Determining IDLOYAL incorporating technological change

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>B</th>
<th>Beta</th>
<th>T</th>
<th>Sig T</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Employment status</td>
<td>-4.8</td>
<td>-0.21</td>
<td>-3.9</td>
<td>0.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Length of service</td>
<td>3.14</td>
<td>0.19</td>
<td>3.41</td>
<td>0.01</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Technological change</td>
<td>-2.11</td>
<td>-0.21</td>
<td>-3.72</td>
<td>0.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(Constant)</td>
<td>38.61</td>
<td></td>
<td>13.16</td>
<td>0.00</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

N=280, Adjusted R squared = 0.14

Much of the variance in Table 7-38 can be explained by both employment status and technological change since the beta values show that both of these variables make the same significant contribution in predicting Idloyal. Unlike the previous tables however, marital status does not appear to be significant in determining the criterion variable. Finally, the table shows that only 14% of the total variance in this subscale can be explained by the variables shown in Table 7-38.
Table 7-39 Determining IDLOYAL incorporating job re-organisation

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>B</th>
<th>Beta</th>
<th>T</th>
<th>Sig T</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Employment status</td>
<td>-3.61</td>
<td>-0.16</td>
<td>-2.95</td>
<td>0.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Length of service</td>
<td>3.39</td>
<td>0.21</td>
<td>3.77</td>
<td>0.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Job re-organisation</td>
<td>-2.94</td>
<td>-0.42</td>
<td>-7.60</td>
<td>0.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(Constant)</td>
<td>38.5</td>
<td>14.09</td>
<td>0.00</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

N= 251, Adjusted R squared = 0.26

Clearly, the presence of the job re-organisation variable accounts for much of the variance in the Idloyal subscale as shown in Table 7-39. In each of the tables shown, the contribution made by the predictor variables in determining Idloyal are, employment status and length of service. However, as before (see section 7.8.1), in almost every case, the organisational change incorporated into the analysis made the largest contribution in predicting the dependent variable. This reinforces the importance of change as a necessary part of organisational commitment.

Table 7-40 Determining INVOLVEMENT2 incorporating organisational restructuring

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>B</th>
<th>Beta</th>
<th>T</th>
<th>Sig T</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Marital status</td>
<td>0.76</td>
<td>0.15</td>
<td>2.50</td>
<td>0.01</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Case study one</td>
<td>-1.06</td>
<td>-0.15</td>
<td>-2.48</td>
<td>0.01</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Organisational restructuring</td>
<td>-0.81</td>
<td>-0.39</td>
<td>-6.48</td>
<td>0.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(Constant)</td>
<td>12.71</td>
<td></td>
<td>19.91</td>
<td>0.00</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

N=234, Adjusted R squared = 0.17

The third and final set of analysis determines involvement2. Most noticeably, Table 7-41 shows that organisational restructuring is not only a variable that affects the outcome of involvement2, but is the most significant of the variables in the analysis. Moreover, unlike any of the other preceding tables, the process of change was also found to be important in determining involvement2. However, only case study one is cited, suggesting that the only strategy influential in determining the dependent variable is that of normative/re-educative. Given that
not all three strategies are shown to be influential this result is difficult to make sense of.

Table 7-41 shows that much of the contribution to involvement2 can be attributed to the change from SET ONE. On the whole though, BOCS can be explained by a combination of predictor variables which are mainly biographic and work related. These contribute equally in the overall equation. Noticeably, union membership emerged as significant variable for the first time.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>B</th>
<th>Beta</th>
<th>T</th>
<th>Sig T</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Marital status</td>
<td>0.7</td>
<td>0.14</td>
<td>2.66</td>
<td>0.01</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Employment status</td>
<td>-0.95</td>
<td>-0.15</td>
<td>-2.80</td>
<td>0.01</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Union membership</td>
<td>0.74</td>
<td>0.14</td>
<td>2.70</td>
<td>0.01</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Payment settlements</td>
<td>-0.47</td>
<td>-0.18</td>
<td>-3.54</td>
<td>0.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(Constant)</td>
<td>12.22</td>
<td></td>
<td>11.84</td>
<td>0.00</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

N=352, Adjusted R squared =0.10

The pattern of variables explaining involvement2 presented in Table 7-42 is similar to that of Table 7-41 in that each of the predictor variables make a similar contribution in determining commitment. Although technological change emerges as the most significant variable in the equation overall, it does not make a big an impact as the change variable in Table 7-40.
Noticeably, Table 7-42 shows that employment hours has also emerged as a variable that can affect the outcomes of involvement2, although this has not been previously cited in any of the above analyses by SPSS and its presence therefore is questionable. Finally, in Table 7-43 job re-organisation is identified as the most useful variable in determining involvement2.

7.8.3 Discussion

Firstly, BOCS8 and Idloyal were found to be determined by a combination of biographic and work related variables including: marital and employment status, length of service as well as the respective change variable from SET ONE. A similar, but not identical pattern of responses is shown to explain Involvement2. These include marital status, employment status and the change in SET ONE, but not length of service. This result is intriguing since it indicates that employees,
regardless of their tenure, are not likely to show differences in their levels of involvement towards their employing organisation.

Secondly, in each of the twelve tables, the change from SET ONE is shown to be an integral part of the criterion variable. That is, each of the changes measured has a direct relationship with employee commitment. In particular, organisational restructuring was found to be more influential in predicting BOCS8, Idloyal and Involvement2 than the other organisational changes. This was closely followed by job re-organisation. Overall, the Beta values signify that the changes in SET ONE are responsible for the majority of the contribution in the dependent variable although this was most apparent when BOCS8 was predicted. This signifies that the change element plays an important part in the commitment level of individuals participating with this study. This result also provides verification that the single item measure which was used in this research to find out if organisational changes have altered commitment towards the organisation, is appropriate and valid.

Finally, the process of change can not be considered as influential in the outcomes of commitment or the subscales of this analysis. Despite being significant in the equation predicting involvement2 (incorporating organisational restructuring), inferences from this result are tenuous since this has occurred as a one off.

7.9 Chapter summary and conclusions

This chapter has been concerned with the results of the case study questionnaires. Firstly, it described the respondent profile between the case studies and noted some incongruous variables in the composition. Following this, the relationship between work/personal characteristics and commitment were examined. Some of the findings were shown to be in contrast to other studies in the area. Hence, some of the key parts of the literature presented in chapter four were returned to.

Examining the extent to which employees’ exposure to organisational changes is a factor in changing commitment, revealed that those who have personally
experienced organisational changes are more likely to indicate a change in their commitment than when they had seen change happen to others. Dealing with the process of change, comparative analysis of individuals' commitment after changes in SET ONE suggested the power/coercive strategy was the approach most likely to increase commitment. Despite this, commitment levels (after changes in SET ONE) also increased in both the normative/re-educative and the empirical/rational organisation environments (when compared to the scale mean of 3). When taken together, these results are perplexing as they suggest that all three strategies lead to positive outcomes for commitment.

Finally, the regression analysis performed on the data revealed that the organisational changes in SET ONE played the most prominent part in the outcomes of commitment and its subscales (i.e. Idloyal and Involvement2). Some biographic and work related variables were also cited as significant, whereas the process of change did not appear influential.
8. CHAPTER EIGHT : QUALITATIVE FINDINGS

8.1 Introduction

This chapter is concerned with the transcribing, coding, analysis and presentation of the qualitative data and it is split into six parts. It commences by setting out the objectives for undertaking the qualitative research and also re-highlights the number of respondents on which the interviews are based. Following this, part two discusses the qualitative strategy adopted to organise and code the data, which in turn has facilitated the analysis of the transcripts. This section is detailed and covers the coding and methods used. It is placed here as opposed to the methodology chapter (i.e. chapter five) because a variety of coding techniques (five in total) were devised and then applied. The findings are presented immediately after.

Part three is concerned with verifying or refuting the strategies assigned to each of the three case studies with regard to their approach to effecting change based on the focus groups (see chapter five). Following this, part four provides a comparison of questionnaire and interview responses to determine the appropriateness of using a mixed methodological approach to data collection in this research. It also provides an important foundation for interpreting the scripts, since any disparity between questionnaire and interview responses needs to be dealt with prior to inferring from the self reported evidence.

Thereafter, employee narratives are drawn from the interview data to provide single and cross case analysis in part five. Inferences from the anecdotal evidence form an important part of the chapter and are drawn from throughout the thesis to distinguish between the social scientific analysis of the commitment construct and its use in everyday life. Finally, in part six, the qualitative data is used to illustrate both the solidity and mobility of commitment after change.
8.2 Objectives of the qualitative phase

Its purpose is to enrich the quantitative findings hence the questioning approach used in the interviews was driven by the results emerging from the questionnaire data. The qualitative questions were mainly concerned with individuals' personal experiences of organisational change, although in instances where employees had only observed change in others, this became the main focus. There are four main objectives in undertaking the qualitative research and these are stated below, together with brief details of how each has been accomplished:

I. To support or refute the original suppositions made about the strategies used by each case study to elicit change (based on the work of Chin and Benne; 1985). This involved questioning each individual about their understanding of how organisational changes are implemented as well as the attitude of management towards employees, decision making within the organisation and organisational culture. Many of these issues emerged implicitly as each individual discussed their own personal experiences at work and their perception of the organisation.

Drawing from individuals' perceptions of the implementation of the changes under investigation and equating these to Chin and Benne's (1985) organisational strategies, has assisted in providing possible explanations for the statistically diverse outcomes for commitment after change (see objective IV);

II. To establish the congruency between the quantitative and qualitative information sought, in order to clarify employees' perception of the organisational changes under examination, thereby providing a depth of understanding to their commitment levels after organisational change.

III. To further the understanding of the causal effects of organisational change on employees' commitment within the context of the three case studies, (i.e. single case analysis).
IV. To undertake cross case analysis, by documenting commonalties and differences between employees' anecdotal evidence. Thereby investigating why employees at case study two have reported significantly higher commitment levels after change in relation to employees at case study one or three in the quantitative analysis (presented in chapter seven).

8.3 Transcribing and coding the interview transcripts

Due to the semi-structured nature of the interviews, which addressed each change separately, transcribed scripts were divided into topic related sections or “thematic headings” (Burman; 1996; 57). This is a logical, structured and coherent way of organising the data, which enables the reading of interview material in relation to specific questions. Whilst it does not necessarily add to meaning, it does facilitate retrieval of the data quickly and conveniently (Tesch; 1990).

8.3.1 Coding strategy

Firstly, analysis of every transcript within the context of each of the three case studies was undertaken to find evidence supporting or refuting the original hypothetical judgement made at the outset of the investigation regarding the process of change. This part of the coding process will be referred to as coding 1.

Secondly, given that the interview scripts are an extension of the questionnaire analysis, coding was also undertaken to establish if a positive relationship between the words used to describe each change in the interview and the level of commitment reported on each respective interviewee's questionnaire was apparent. For example, if an individual had reported an increase in their commitment after a specific change on the questionnaire, it would be reasonable to consider that they would speak favourably about or 'talk up' the said change during the interview. Without cross referencing the quantitative and qualitative responses however, this could necessarily be assumed. Thus, a matrix was created to establish the extent of compatibility. This part of the coding process is referred to as coding 2.
Following this, each individual transcript was read thoroughly and highlighter pens used to differentiate between usable parts of the text. This is referred to as coding 3. In particular, those sections from the transcripts, which explicitly relate to the issue of commitment and change were differentiated from more subtle anecdotal evidence. Both are later shown to be central to enabling inferences to be drawn. Thereafter, key headings were put at the side of each section, to enable segments of the script to be identified at a glance (i.e. coding 4). Finally, at the end of each script, a summary of the key issues and a brief description of each individual’s account was made, thereby reducing key parts of the text to short, concise sentences and thus workable units of data (hereafter coding 5).

Table 8-1 has matched the objectives stated in section 8.2 to the various coding techniques outlined above.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Research objective</th>
<th>Coding used</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1 To establish the process of change in each of the three cases</td>
<td>Coding 1, 3 and 4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2 &amp; 3 To establish the congruency between questionnaire and interview responses and examine the qualitative outcomes for employee commitment after organisational changes by case study</td>
<td>Coding 2, 3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4 To draw inferences about the outcomes for employee commitment after organisational change between case studies</td>
<td>Coding 3, 4 and 5</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The dominant coding strategy used in analysis is presented in bold type.

8.3.2 Analysis of the interview transcripts in this research

Drawing from the anecdotal evidence, the current research identifies the unit of analysis as it draws on perspectives from management, office staff and manual employees at Engco, Carco and Airco. In instances where individuals’ accounts are used to illustrate key points, this is referred to by acknowledging the case study by number and the employee’s questionnaire number (assigned to them prior to questionnaire administration; see appendix 15). For example; Engco;255 would refer to participant 255, at case study one. Full corresponding demographic details of interviewees are also presented in appendix 15. Finally, quotations marks are
used in the following text to indicate direct quotes selected from individuals’ accounts.

8.4 Establishing the process of change in the current research: Qualitative analysis using coding 1

8.4.1 Case study one

Following the focus group sessions undertaken prior to data collection with employees at case study one, it was hypothesised that Engco represented a normative/re-educative strategy. This was confirmed based on many aspects identified in the interview scripts by Engco members. For example; high emphasis on the importance of the organisation’s goals and values is reported. This was evident particularly amongst management who regard them as essential guidelines by which to work and encourage others to work within. Awareness of the organisation’s philosophy was also prevalent amongst blue collar workers, although this did not manifest itself as strongly as it did with managerial members of the organisation.

A largely consultative management style was described particularly by managerial members and shopfloor employees in the organisation, suggesting that Engco is characteristic of an operational approach where employee motivation at a personal level, rather than compliance of a collective workforce, is central to the organisation’s strategy (Chin and Benne;1985, Pascale;1990). Moreover, continuous recognition placed on ongoing training and workshops for organisational members and the prominent aspect of a strong team based, family culture on the shopfloor characterised by a sense of pride in doing the job was evident. In this sense, the organisation’s value of ‘quality’ prevails the environment. Chin and Benne (1985) note that the culture of normative/re-educative organisations is largely transpired in socially communicated norms and goals.
The factory is planned in a logical structured way in which to ease product flow. It is a clean environment and employees are divided into channels. They are not 'tied' to machines, but rather have the freedom to discuss and observe product movement. Communication is usually formal and shopfloor employees consider that they are kept informed. There is evidence of high union membership at Engco, but union representatives report good working relationships with management.

8.4.2 Case study two

It was hypothesised in chapter five that employees and management at case study two identified that Carco has predominately adopted a power/coercive strategy to elicit change. In light of the analysis this supposition is upheld. In short, employees suggest that the team leaders located on the shopfloor control the organisation. These individuals are identified as the power groups that are behind courses of action and the majority of shopfloor changes. This perspective is commonplace in coercive organisations and "reinforces the importance of managerial skills" according to Fincham and Rhodes (1992;424).

The factory at Carco is split up into cells or lines which comprise about eight individuals and a cell leader. The nature of work is repetitive and employees describe the shopfloor environment as smelly and dirty. Although there is some evidence of technological advances, the majority of the machines are old. Training is 'on the job' and responsibility for this appears to lie with cell leaders. Work on the shopfloor is considered stressful since it is constrained by deadlines. Authority and control are dominant features of the culture and there is evidence of verbal bullying (i.e. the use of threats as punishments).

Subcultures (or 'cliques') have been formed, particularly amongst employees on the shopfloor. Promotion prospects appear to be decided at the discretion of the team leaders. This suggests that managers are "wheeler dealers" (Fincham and Rhodes;1992;424), orchestrating the career advancement of their friends at the
expense of others. Throughout the period of data collection there loomed the threat of the factory's closure. The attitude and management style was described as autocratic and employees suggested that the implementation of organisational changes is undertaken by way of a dictatorial manner. Formal communication mechanisms are reportedly underused and employees consider that they are often left uniformed or 'kept in the dark'. Collectively, this evidence places Carco at the coercive end of the power/coercive model presented by Chin and Benne (1985).

Moreover, shopfloor workers suggest that knowledge is considered and used as power by shopfloor managers at Carco and is often withheld deliberately. However, employees consider that their own informal grapevine is reliable. In-house politics is predominately regarded with distaste at Carco and appeared to be the main barrier to 'getting on with the job' amongst those on the shopfloor. Power playing was also reportedly rife and there was evidence of coalition groups with various goals and interests, not necessarily matching those of the organisation. On the whole, the majority of blue collar workers resented 'politicking'.

8.4.3 Case study three

In chapter five, it was hypothesised that an empirical/rational strategy where changes are predominately brought about by the presentation of new information was considered to be the most fitting to case study three. Evidence within the interview transcripts supports this supposition. The nature of the industry in which Airco is located (namely; aircraft maintenance) is central to this. Unlike case studies one and two, there was evidence that some organisational members have a personal interest in the product, i.e. aircraft.

Research and development dominates the culture of Airco and emphasis on training and development for shopfloor members in particular is brought about in light of new regulations in the industry. This is undertaken to inform rather than convince (distinguishing it from a normative/re-educative strategy) employees of changes in working practice.
Similarly, in house decisions are based predominately around safety issues and there is little scope for employees to question or oppose them. Rather, they acknowledge and accept that the Civil Aviation Authority is the governing body from which the majority of decisions stem. Chin and Benne (1985) note that knowledge replaces ignorance and becomes the principal agent in the spread of reason within organisations that follow the empirical/rational approach.

Communication at Airco is mainly formal and used as a tool to disseminate key information to employees in order that necessary adjustments are made in accordance with new guidelines. Organisational changes in technology are also reflective of the research and learning environment, and emphasis placed on research projects have assisted in associating the organisation to that of an empirical/rational environment.

8.5 Content analysis in the current research: Qualitative analysis using coding 2

Establishing consistency between the questionnaire and interview data was designed to overcome the limitations that might otherwise be highlighted by using a single item indicator for capturing employee commitment levels after individual changes on the questionnaire. Comparisons between qualitative and quantitative outcomes will establish the appropriateness of using a combined methodological approach to data collection in this study. To compare the responses, the interview data was subjected to content analysis. This is a “quantifying instrument for descriptive information” (Coolican;1994;108). Following Weber (1985;13), however, “there is no simple right way to do content analysis. Instead, each investigator must judge what methods are appropriate for her or his substantive problem”.

In preparation for content analysis, it was firstly necessary to condense the volume of information. Questionnaire response categories of commitment levels after change were therefore converted into appropriate symbols to illustrate participants’ responses (see Figure 8-1). Following this, each interview script was then read and
a judgement made by the author about the tone and the severity of language used to describe commitment after each respective change. From this, three categories were derived to indicate whether the interviewee has *talked up, talked down* or *talked about* each of the changes under examination. The codes used for the interviews are illustrated in Figure 8-1.

Figure 8-2 shows an example of interview text and the judgement made using the key presented in figure 8-1. Thereafter, the case study from which the example was taken and the individual’s research number is detailed.

**Figure 8-1 Key to questionnaire and interview responses**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Key</th>
<th>Questionnaire responses as a measure of commitment after change</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>++</td>
<td>Considerably increased</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>+</td>
<td>Increased slightly</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0</td>
<td>Commitment has remained constant despite change</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-</td>
<td>Decreased slightly</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>--</td>
<td>Considerably decreased</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Key</th>
<th>Interview responses as an indicator of commitment after change</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>↑</td>
<td>language used by interviewee when discussing change is predominately positive (<em>talked up</em>)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>⇑</td>
<td>language used by interviewee when discussing change is indifferent, or contains relatively equal amounts of negative and positive terms (<em>talked about</em>)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>↓</td>
<td>language used by interviewee when discussing change is predominately negative (<em>talked down</em>)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

After judging all the transcripts using the coding presented in Figure 8-1, a summary of both the questionnaire and interview responses were tabled, in SETS, by case study. The discussion thereafter is based on a comparison between the *total number* of congruent questionnaire and interview answers, in relation to the *total number* of inconsistent responses obtained. Details and discussion of
organisational changes in SET ONE are shown in appendix 16 and SET TWO and SET THREE shown in appendix 17.

Figure 8-2 Judging the interview transcripts

On the issue of job re-organisation for example;

"I am in the same factory, but I get moved around a lot. It can be a good thing and also a bad thing. If you do not spend long enough on a machine, then obviously you have not the same experience as the guy who has worked the machine for 20 years, and you can not produce the same quality, but you can go over there in the section and keep the machines running if he is sick" (255;Engco)

Commitment level indicated on 255’s questionnaire (-)
Interview judgement made using coding shown in Figure 8-1: talked about ($\bowtie$)
Result: Incongruent questionnaire and interview response

Krippendorff (1980) suggests that semantic validity is important to content analysis. This exists when interview transcripts are examined and it is agreed that the words, sentences have similar meanings or connotations. Since there are multiple ways of reading scripts (Burman; 1996), the semantic validity of coding 2 was secured by asking a fellow researcher to randomly choose twenty transcripts and to code them using the techniques in Figure 8-1. Discussion thereafter revealed that the semantic validity was established at 90%.

8.5.1 Congruency between questionnaire and interview responses

Table 8-2 indicates the extent to which changes in SET ONE are shown to be consistent, based on the results presented in appendix 16. Firstly, it is concluded that employees at case study one showed evidence of dissimilarity in three out of four of the changes under examination. Congruent responses were only established between questionnaire and interview replies with regard to technological changes
at Engco. Initially this caused some concern since it suggests that the two methods used to collect data are probing different areas.

However, prior to critiquing the manner by which the content of the interview transcripts are judged (presented in Figure 8-1), the questions used in this study to measure commitment levels after change, or the role of self report questionnaire data, the compatibility of questionnaire and interview responses within case studies two and three were examined.

Table 8-2. Result of congruent and incongruent responses to organisational changes (SET ONE), by case study

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Change</th>
<th>Case study one (✓ or ×)</th>
<th>Case study two (✓ or ×)</th>
<th>Case study three (✓ or ×)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Organisational restructuring</td>
<td>×</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Payment settlements</td>
<td>×</td>
<td>×</td>
<td>×</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Technological change</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Job re-organisation</td>
<td>×</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

✓ = congruency between the questionnaire responses and the language used in the interview in discussing the respective organisational change; × = no evidence of congruent questionnaire and interview responses.

Unlike Engco, three out a total of four responses are shown to be similar with regard to the changes in SET ONE at case study two (see appendix 16). However, there was evidence of disparity with regard to payment settlements, as shown in Table 8-2.

High levels of consistency were demonstrated by respondents’ answers at case study three in both their questionnaires and interviews. A total of three congruent responses were achieved out of a possible four that were investigated. Similar to that of case study two, the exception was changes to payment settlements at case study three.
8.5.2 Section summary

In summary, the content analysis performed on the data sought to establish if the objective indicator of employee commitment after changes in SET ONE reported on the questionnaire, was compatible with the language used by the respective participant in their interview to describe the impact of change on his/her attitudinal level of commitment towards the company.

This was achieved by examining the total number of questionnaire answers in relation to the total number of responses obtained from the interview transcripts (see appendix 16). Disparity amongst responses with regard to changes in pay is noted in all of the three case studies. Moreover, the analysis revealed that employee responses at Engco were least consistent overall. The following section addresses some possible explanations for divergent responses using these two methods.

8.6 Explanations for incongruity and limitations of the analysis

Firstly, the research design and methodological implications of the study were returned to. In all case studies interviewing commenced within one week of the questionnaires being returned as it was important for individuals to have a good recollection of their questionnaire responses. The answers provided by individuals on their questionnaire was a focal point from which the interview was conducted. Credible explanations for disparity evident amongst the questionnaire and interview findings do not appear to lie with the methodology.

It is noted that since the above analysis is based on the total number of collective questionnaire and interview responses, one fundamental limitation is that it falls short of identifying which individuals have provided consistent responses and which have not. Thus, further analysis is required in this area to identify with more accuracy with which in the sample any discrepancies may lie.
8.6.1 Further analysis of coding 2

Firstly, it is noted that there are five possible response categories for participants to illustrate how changes have impacted on their commitment on the questionnaire and only three ways of coding their narratives about how organisational changes have (or have not) affected them in the interviews (namely; *talked up*, *talked down*, *talked about*, as shown in Figure 8-1).

Thus, in order to establish the compatibility between individual’s questionnaire and interview responses, an extension of the key presented in Figure 8-1 was first created. This is shown in Table 8-3 and indicates that unity of responses is obtained when individuals have indicated on their questionnaire that their commitment has increased slightly or considerably and they have *talked up* the change. Similarly, if on the questionnaire, individuals’ responses have considerably decreased or decreased slightly and the change in question has been *talked down* in the interview.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Questionnaire key</th>
<th>Interview key</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>++</td>
<td>↑</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>+</td>
<td>→</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0</td>
<td>↔</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-</td>
<td>↓</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- -</td>
<td>↓</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Analysis commenced by counting up the number of times responses were shown to be congruent. In the event that either the questionnaire or interview cell was empty, neither was included in the analysis. Given that such a small number of interviews were carried out with Carco employees (N=11) of which only one participant was of managerial status, Table 8-4 shows the congruity between questionnaire and interview responses of the combined case study data, rather than by individual case study.
Similarly, due to the limited number of interviews undertaken with nightshift employees at Engco, the responses from this group have been combined with those who are categorised as manual employees. This is appropriate since all nightshift interviewees are shopfloor workers.

Subsequent discussion thereafter is not based on examination of the similarities and differences between questionnaires and interview scripts by case study, but rather by employment status. This variable is a proxy for pay grade, the variable initially used to differentiate between groups sampled within the three organisations to obtain a cross section of employee responses (see chapter five).

Table 8-4 Congruity between questionnaire and interview responses (combined case study data)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Change</th>
<th>Management</th>
<th>Office staff</th>
<th>Manual employees</th>
<th>Number of cases excluded</th>
<th>Number of valid cases</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Organisation restructuring</td>
<td>11 (✓) 7 (✓)</td>
<td>10 (✓) 4 (✓)</td>
<td>18 (✓) 5 (✓)</td>
<td>6 (✓)</td>
<td>55</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Payment settlements</td>
<td>14 (✓) 4 (✓)</td>
<td>7 (✓) 7 (✓)</td>
<td>18 (✓) 8 (✓)</td>
<td>3 (✓)</td>
<td>58</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Technological change</td>
<td>10 (✓) 6 (✓)</td>
<td>7 (✓) 7 (✓)</td>
<td>15 (✓) 5 (✓)</td>
<td>11 (✓)</td>
<td>50</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Job reorganisation</td>
<td>5 (✓) 9 (✓)</td>
<td>5 (✓) 5 (✓)</td>
<td>12 (✓) 4 (✓)</td>
<td>21 (✓)</td>
<td>40</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>40 (✓) 26 (✓)</td>
<td>29 (✓) 23 (✓)</td>
<td>63 (✓) 22 (✓)</td>
<td>41 (✓)</td>
<td>203</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

✓ = congruency between the questionnaire responses and the language used in the interview in discussing the respective organisational change;

✗ = no evidence of congruent questionnaire and interview responses.
8.6.2 Analysis of Table 8-4

Firstly, Table 8-4 shows that of the three groups of participants distinguished by their employment status, manual employees across all three case studies show the highest levels of consistency in their answers (over any other group). A similar set of responses has been obtained in all changes in SET ONE. Secondly, questionnaire answers provided by management in each of the three case studies are akin to their interview responses in three of the four changes under investigation (with the exception of job re-organisation). However, compatibility of questionnaire and interview answers is least evident amongst office staff. It shows similar questionnaire and interview responses were obtained with regard to organisational restructuring, although this pattern is not evident amongst the other three changes being examined in SET ONE. Table 8-5 shows the breakdown of office staff responses featured in Table 8-4, by individual case study and from this it is noted that office workers at case study three show least congruency in relation to all the office workers participating in the study.

Table 8-5 Congruity of interview and questionnaire responses for office workers (individual case study data)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Change</th>
<th>Case study one</th>
<th>Case study two</th>
<th>Case study three</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Payment settlements</td>
<td>5 2</td>
<td>1 1</td>
<td>1 4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Technological change</td>
<td>5 2</td>
<td>2 0</td>
<td>0 5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Job re-organisation</td>
<td>3 4</td>
<td>1 0</td>
<td>1 1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

✓ = congruency between the questionnaire responses and the language used in the interview in discussing the respective organisational change; 
× = no evidence of congruent questionnaire and interview responses.
8.6.3 Conclusion

The initial conclusion that case study one employees show the least consistent evidence in their responses is not verified. Subsequent analysis has shown that dissimilar responses are derived from management at case study three with regard to job re-organisation, and staff at case study three with regard to payment settlements, technological changes and job re-organisation.

The additional analysis of coding 2 has heightened the importance of using a combined approach to data collection. It has provided a thorough insight into the level of congruence between employee questionnaire and interview responses and identified with whom, unification and disparity lie.

Evidence of inconsistent responses signifies the complex nature of the topic being investigated. It also suggests that questionnaires alone may not be wholly suitable for capturing employees' experiences at work. This is a methodological issue, rather than one unique to this study. Silverman (1993) for example, states that qualitative research provides an in-depth insight believed to be absent from data gathered solely by a quantitative approach. This was also illustrated by one shopfloor worker, after participating with the piloting of the questionnaire at Engco. He stated, “I enjoyed filling out the questionnaire because I like things like that, but you feel that you want to say more, you know, the reason I ticked this box is because...” (anonymous; manual employee; Engco).

8.7 Understanding employee commitment levels after change: Qualitative analysis using coding 3, 4 and 5

Using anecdotal evidence to illustrate relevant examples, this section discusses the qualitative results of employee’s self reported commitment levels after changes in SET ONE. This was undertaken using coding 3, 4 and 5, thereby facilitating cross case analysis. Given that the main purpose of the qualitative data sought to develop the understanding of the outcomes of commitment after change, this
section follows on from chapter seven. For convenience to the reader, Table 8-6 illustrates the key findings of the questionnaire analysis when commitment outcomes after changes in SET ONE (personally experienced) are compared to the scale mean (i.e. 3 = remained constant).

Table 8-6 Outcomes for commitment levels after organisational changes (SET ONE) when compared to the scale mean (i.e. 3 = remained constant)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Organisational changes in SET ONE</th>
<th>Personally experienced change</th>
<th>Seen change happen to others</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Engeco: Normative/re-educative strategy</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Organisational restructuring</td>
<td>⇨</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Payment settlements</td>
<td>⇨</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Technological change</td>
<td>⇨</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Job re-organisation</td>
<td>⇨</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Carco: Power/coercive strategy</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Organisational restructuring</td>
<td>⇨</td>
<td>⇨</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Payment settlements</td>
<td>⇨</td>
<td>⇨</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Technological change</td>
<td>⇨</td>
<td>⇨</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Job re-organisation</td>
<td>⇨</td>
<td>⇨</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Airco: Empirical/rational strategy</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Organisational restructuring</td>
<td>⇨</td>
<td>⇨</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Payment settlements</td>
<td>⇨</td>
<td>⇨</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Technological change</td>
<td>⇨</td>
<td>⇨</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Job re-organisation</td>
<td>⇨</td>
<td>⇨</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Figure 8-3 Key to Table 8-6 and Table 8-7

- Up: Commitment has increased
- Down/Up: Commitment has not changed
- Down: Commitment has decreased

Table 8-7 illustrates the outcomes of commitment after changes in SET ONE (personally experienced) when compared across case studies. This shows that the process of change is a factor determining commitment levels after three of the four changes in SET ONE.
Table 8-7 Organisational changes in SET ONE: Comparisons between all three case studies: Personally experienced change

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>CHANGES IN SET ONE</th>
<th>Case study/strategy with significantly higher commitment levels overall</th>
<th>Outcomes for commitment</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Organisational restructuring</td>
<td>Power/coercive strategy</td>
<td>↑</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Payment settlements</td>
<td>Power/coercive strategy</td>
<td>↑</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Technological change</td>
<td>Power/coercive strategy</td>
<td>↑</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Job re-organisation</td>
<td>The process of change is not a factor in determining commitment levels</td>
<td>⇔</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

8.8 Organisational restructuring

Table 8-6 presents evidence to suggest that employee commitment has not changed amongst management, staff and manual workers after personally experiencing organisational restructuring at case study one. Additionally, employees at Carco report increased commitment levels in relation to the scale mean (see Table 8-6) and also in comparison to case studies one and three (Table 8-7). Similar that of case study two, employee commitment levels have reportedly increased as a result of organisational restructuring (in relation to the scale mean) at Airco (see Table 8-6). However, unlike Carco, there are no material differences between commitment levels after this change when compared to other case studies participating with this research (see Table 8-7).

The qualitative analysis revealed that whilst organisational restructuring takes the general form of that described in chapter four, there are important distinctions between the three case studies with regard to this change (unlike the remaining changes in SET ONE). For this reason, organisational restructuring is the only change in SET ONE that is firstly dealt with on a case by case basis, with cross case inferences drawn thereafter. Subsequent discussion about the remaining three changes in SET ONE are made on the basis of comparisons between the case studies.
8.8.1 Case study one: Organisational restructuring

Firstly, those participating with the interview process at case study one described Engco as once having a hierarchical structure, with duplication of management. On the whole, it was considered that the purpose of undertaking a restructuring programme was to slim down the hierarchy and "...get rid of the fat cats" (Engco;617). However, this also involved "...severe blood letting...of good people" (Engco;616) in the form of redundancy. Despite this, the general consensus is that organisational restructuring has led to a more pleasant work environment and a stronger organisational culture. In particular, management and employees report that a reduction in management headcount has lead to an increase in in-house communication that has sharpened corporate direction. One manager reported that, "After [restructuring] I thought, yes this is the company I can believe in" (Engco;617). Similarly, others suggest that the restructuring has, "...worked in my favour. It's a good people company to work in" (Engco;529).

In spite of positive employee accounts however, the quantitative analysis revealed that commitment has remained constant. One explanation emerging from the transcripts that is proposed to account for this suggests that, whilst commitment can change as a result of certain organisational changes, after a period of time employee attitudes return to their previous state.

One office member of staff for example, noted that after corporate restructuring, the amount of time he was permitted to allocate to project work was reduced. He explained that whilst he considered that this lead to a decrease in the level of commitment he felt towards the company at that time, in hind sight, this attitude had not been sustained over a lengthy period. "Looking back, it affected my view of the company at the time, and if you had asked me then, I would have said that it [his commitment] was rock bottom. I guess I just deal with it now. It's been integrated into my job and has become part of everyday life at work. My commitment has returned to what it was before" (Engco;552). This suggests that some employee commitment levels may be an alterable by change, but eventually stabilise themselves after such events. It does appear to account for the quantitative response with regards to this change at case study one.
8.8.2 Case study two: Organisational restructuring

Discussing the role of organisational restructuring at case study two, members refer to how the company has grown extensively over the past few years. Noticeably, the sample composition at Carco comprises mainly (i.e. 75%) of blue collar workers (see chapter seven). Indeed, employee commitment seems to have increased amongst these individuals in spite of reports that the factory environment is particularly unpleasant to work in, although there has recently been some attention to improve lines. “We had the old Vauxhall line that has been ripped up and a new track put in. We are still being trained up on the new line, it’s more interesting. I know the whole line. I think the line is better, we can get more work out on the line now than ever before, it is more efficient” (Carco;106). Similarly, some commitment theory suggests “employees are thought to respond positively when provided with more challenge in their jobs”. (Mowday et al;1982;32).

It was also reported that the restructuring on the shopfloor has meant that the workload is heavier, deadlines more demanding and work considerably more stressful for employees. However, of the workers who participated with the study, the majority showed an overwhelmingly positive reaction to this in terms of their commitment. This is contrary to other studies (see chapter four) which have examined role related correlates of employee commitment. In brief, the literature suggests that perceived role overload is strongly and inversely related to commitment and where employees perceive excess stress associated with their job, commitment is lessened. However, the qualitative discussions at case study two indicated that although shopfloor individuals consider their jobs are more stressful, an increase in the number of orders is an assured indication that there is work available. Subsequently, this appears to have increased their feeling of job security and ultimately their commitment towards their employing organisation.

Moreover, chapter four stated that Carco is dominated by rigid rules and corporate procedures and the quantitative data verifies this. Table 8-6 and Table 8-7 indicate that a power/coercive strategy is the most effective strategy for increasing commitment after change, particularly when compared to normative/re-educative
and empirical/rational strategies. This approach, although based on rules and regulations, has been found to reduce role ambiguity and lessen employees' stress levels associated with the organisation (Michaels et al; 1988). The qualitative data confirmed this and the consensus was that interviewees, particularly shopfloor workers, were aware of what is expected of them and roles are clearly defined. For example, after the changes in corporate structure, one employee reported “we were told where to go and what to do... It was all decided, all laid out. We knew what to do, what was expected” (Carco;106). This finding supports Mowday et al (1982) who argue that employees who experience greater formality of rules feel more committed than employees who did not experience these.

Also highly evident amongst the transcripts of employees at Carco was the constant reference to and comparisons made between having a job and experiencing unemployment. This was often used as an explanation as to why commitment had reportedly increased. “They have to sell the product as cheap as possible, so that we have a job. They had to change some of the lines, scale down some of the people on the lines from six to four. That has happened to me three or four times now. Sometimes I feel bitter that they are making us work harder for less money, but then you look at others, they do not have a job, so its time to stop whining. That is why commitment has increased. We know there is a future and it makes you want to work harder” (Carco;86).

8.8.3 Case study three: Organisational restructuring

Organisational restructuring appeared to be largely concerned with changes to the senior management structure at case study three. “Before, there was one MD and everyone was answerable to him” (Airco;384). It also involved, “a combination of many things...the splitting up of some departments...the way in which the directorship is set up...changes in management personnel, ways of working, the whole structure” (Airco;492). It was also, “...restructuring in physical sense. We moved our office but also inside there are different responsibilities and goals...it
gave people more of an idea, more of a sense of what was required of them (Airco;532).

Employees and management also emphasised that a clearer focus of the future has been formulated which has subsequently shaped their perception of their employing organisation. “We must keep moving forward. I like to have a vision that me and my team can work towards. This is based on the developments in the industry. This has given me a clear focus, the new structure has driven me, and it's in everything I do. It’s definitely improved my commitment to the company, there is a purpose of vision based on our learning environment which makes coming to work a greater joy” (Airco;492). This supports the literature that suggests that commitment is enhanced when employees perceive their roles to be clearly defined. Reducing role ambiguity is positively related to commitment.

For the shopfloor personnel at case study three, restructuring was largely concerned with “…the working practices. New ways of working, new organisational skills, without compromising safety, from an engineering point of view” (Airco;286), and the grading system which, “has been brought about by changes in management at the top, and the new methods they have put in place” (Airco;307).

8.8.4 Cross case analysis: Organisational restructuring

At case study one commitment appears to be essentially stable, but has suffered a temporary change as a result of organisational restructuring. However, at case study two, there are more definite indications that employees’ commitment has been altered by changes to the structure and growth of the organisation. Similarly, commitment at case study three has been altered by employees’ personal experience of corporate and management restructuring.

The qualitative analysis also reveals that employee commitment has increased in both Carco and Airco after restructuring for two different reasons. Firstly, there is a high sense of job insecurity and perceived factory closure at case study two and
increases in commitment levels there have occurred since organisational changes have raised employees’ confidence about the future of the organisation, although this has led to an increase in workloads and pressure at work. At case study three however, commitment was increased because employees’ reported that their perceptions and experiences of this change are positive for them and their employing organisation.

8.9 Payment settlements

Table 8-6 shows that employee changes in pay have resulted in increased commitment levels at case studies one and two (in relation to the scale mean). There was no change in commitment at case study three. Moreover, of the three case studies, case study two emerged with the highest commitment levels overall (see Table 8-7). It was evident amongst the transcripts that management in each of the three case studies considered that money is not the reason that they work. However, the general consensus was that the majority were more than content with their pay. “If you do a job you like doing in an environment, you’re well up on self actualisation aren’t you? Money is not my driver” (Engco; 617). Management and employees at each of the three case studies indicated that changes in their pay are illustrative of the company’s commitment to them and that management in particular consider that, “money is not why I come to work...[rather], I want to make a difference” (Airco; 539). Key writers of commitment theory (Buchanan; 1974, Mowday et al; 1982 and Steers; 1977) also report that a strong feeling of personal importance to the organisation was related to commitment, and “…when employees felt they were needed or important to the organisation’s mission, commitment attitudes increased” (Mowday et al; 1988; 34). Similarly, Rhodes and Steers (in press) concluded that employees, who participated in decision making, showed higher commitment than those who did not.

It also became evident that employees at case study one consider that increases in their pay are illustrative of corporate success and that the company values its human resources. One junior office member of staff at Engco suggested that, “I
have had a pay increase, it has made me happier, more confident, more motivated
to come to work and enjoy my work more. It makes you feel you are worth more
to the company, more equal to everyone else in terms of wages, because I am the
youngest and earn less than everyone in my department" (Engco;610). Thus pay
changes have resulted in strengthening this individuals’ attachment and
identification with Engco. Mowday et al (1982) also note that when individuals’
perceive that their employing organisation is concerned for their welfare at work,
their commitment towards the organisation is, in turn, enhanced. Thus, part of an
employee’s commitment is the consideration that this is reciprocated.

One manual worker at case study one considered that, “The last pay award issued
to me was excessive that is my opinion. It’s made me work harder, no that’s not
the right word, work more conscientiously. I want to work hard for Engco
because I know that I am important to them. I must be, otherwise they would not
reward me as they have done. I am pleased about that. It shows they value me
and that they can afford it so the company must be doing OK. There is a feeling in
the back of your mind when you come to work, that they want you” (Engco;96).
As with that of organisational restructuring, employees at case study two who had
experienced unemployment or other menial, low paid jobs were highly appreciative
of a job at Carco. Furthermore, any increase in pay was gratefully received, since
this not only provided them with more job security, but has also increased their
level of disposable income. “On the whole I don’t mind coming to work…and the
pay is a lot better here. I worked in Kwik Save before, I hated it. I felt sick going
to work there. I do not feel sick in all the years I have worked here…Its better
than not working at all and you have more money to spend” (Carco;86). In a
similar vein, others suggested that, “You have got to be content because you can
do overtime. Around here its not exactly skilled labour is it, so we should be
grateful for what we get” (Carco;120). This evidence indicates that employees at
case study two consider that they have few perceived job alternatives elsewhere.
Consistent with the literature this leads to increased attitudinal levels of
commitment towards their current employer.
At case study three, a slightly different pattern of responses emerged to that of case studies one and two. These are proposed to explain why no change in commitment is apparent amongst respondents at Airco after personal experience of pay changes (see Table 8-6). There was strong evidence that whilst some management and employees considered that although they have personally benefited from increases in their pay, their perception of the manner in which the settlements are negotiated have counter balanced the level of commitment they feel able to show to their employer. "On a personal level, it's made me more positive because I got a decent rise and especially as I have a family to support. But money is not the be all and end all. I was not happy with the negotiations and the Works Committee is not particularly effective and I tend to think that management give you what they want to. I think there should be a Union here to deal with the pay related issues, rather than our own staff" (Airco;532).

The qualitative findings strongly suggest that around the pay negotiation period, a sense of perceived inequity permeates the organisation. Buchanan (1974) has argued that positive attitudes towards the organisation from some individuals can bring out much of the same amongst their colleagues. With regard to case study three employees, this principle seems to apply to the opposite circumstance. Negative attitudes of employees at case study three who are unhappy with the way in which their pay is determined have rubbed off onto their co-workers, including those whose own pay is not negotiated by the Works Committee. For example, one shopfloor manager with employee responsibility remarked, "I am happy with my pay...I am not particularly impressed with the negotiating procedure for the men though. There has always been at atmosphere around the pay negotiating area. You see it time and time again, the management never give any consideration to the men. The Works Committee represent them. The management will sit around with the Works Committee and ask, "How much do you want this year?" It all ends up in a shambles. Experience has shown that management will pay what they can afford and not a penny more. It is the same every year" (Airco;577).

Another manager explains, "I am content with my pay, but not with the way it's negotiated. I am not too happy with that actually. It seems to be that we do not
get consulted. You know, about the pay negotiation time, I feel very disheartened, I do not like to come to work, and I complain to my wife about it, (or at least that is what she says). It's like a cloud that looms over your head until the negotiations are finished. I think it must affect my commitment then don't you? The thing is though, it does not last forever, even though I am angry. When I think about it some time afterwards, the pain goes away or is replaced with more pressing matters. I think that the directors know that, that is why they play the negotiation game” (Airco;608).

Chapter four addressed the work experience correlates of employees' commitment and reported that organisational dependability, i.e. the extent to which individuals at work consider that they could rely on the organisation to look after their interests, was significantly related to commitment levels. This does appear to be an important aspect in explaining why there is no change in commitment levels of individuals after pay changes at case study three. Similarly, to that of organisational restructuring at case study one, there is some evidence to suggest that commitment may be altered in light of organisational commitment but, this returns to its original position after time. The identification element of attitudinal commitment in particular, does appear to be questioned after the pay negotiation period at Airco. Employees report that they neither regard nor talk about the organisation favourably during this time, even if they themselves are generously rewarded.

8.10 Technological changes

At each of the three case studies respondents showed increases in their commitment towards their employing organisation (in comparison to the scale mean of 3; see Table 8-6). Case study two employees showed higher commitment levels after this change in relation to the other two organisations (see Table 8-7).

Distinct commonalties across case studies indicate that information technology and the updating of systems have clearly assisted management, office employees and manual workers with their jobs and have become essential for the day to day
functioning of all the organisations involved with this study. The major difference that appeared amongst the case studies based on the interview transcripts was that, individuals at case study two indicated that their commitment had increased because even the slightest improvements to their work environment make going to work for them more endurable.

Participants with managerial status at each of the case studies, highlighted the benefits of laptop computers, since this allows them to work at weekends and away from the office. Moreover, the interview transcripts in general suggest that there appears to be "...a much better attitude in the organisation than before" the investment in technology (Carco;149). As with that of payment settlements, financial resources dedicated to updating or implementing technology were considered to be central to senior management's vision for the organisation and indicative of their financial commitment to employees. Subsequently, employees' perceptions of organisational dependability has been enhanced. One employee at Engco describes, "There have been rapid advances in IT and PC's. In the bearing market itself there have been significant increases in bearing knowledge and technology. The systems at Engco have increased people's ability and knowledge. We see investment being made in our future and we know that the company is going from strength to strength" (Engco;621).

Thus, when individuals' perceive that their organisation is making investments in such resources, employees' job security and subsequently their commitment increased. In some cases this is translated as a personal investment by the employee, particularly amongst white collar workers. One office worker explains, "before I had to do everything by hand....Now I have the latest 486...[and] this part of my job has definitely improved. I would say that my job is a lot more straightforward now that I have information at the touch of a button...I feel extremely committed right now. They are investing in me" (Engco;500). Management and office workers at case studies one and three report encouraged and enhanced communication between sites as a result of email. Tracking of goods and information regarding customer orders is more easily obtainable. Tasks are more efficient with assistance from technology and orders are more easily met. In this
sense, changes and advances in technology have assisted in clarifying, and for some individuals, simplifying their roles at work.

As a result of new machines on the shopfloor, work has become "...more interesting and varied... We are more advanced now than ever before... I could not work on a moving conveyor like at Vauxhall" (Engco; 146). At Airco, the implementation appeared to be taken more in stride by shopfloor workers, due to the nature of the empirical/rational environment. "We have to modernise our own technology in line with the new regulations. It's good for us, we get to work with different systems, but it's a necessity at the end of the day" (ibid).

Blue collar workers at Carco described the environment before and after the introduction of technology on the shopfloor. "Within the quality department we use more high tech equipment now than we did when I first joined. The measuring machine for instance, it's a big jump. When I first came here, there were few PC's. Within two years they installed a LAN. I came from an environment where technology was far higher, the whole manufacturing operation was run by computer systems. Whatever you needed to know you would find out. When I came here it was archaic, so any technological advances are welcomed" (Carco; 149). Other blue collar workers who were aware of technological changes in the company explained that because Carco is such an unpleasant environment to work in, any improvement to the workplace has resulted in increased commitment. "We have had a lot of new machines in here to be honest. It's ten times better than it was before. It means that we will not close, if they can afford to put that much money into IT." (Carco; 122). Another stated, "When you see them ploughing money into the business, it means that there is a future for us" (Carco; 100).

8.11 Job re-organisation

Job re-organisation was, on the whole, described similarly in each of the three case studies by employees in the interviews. This largely involved the taking over of other or additional functions, employees moving departments, perhaps as a result
of a new position within the company, or departmental merging. Those who have experienced job re-organisation discussed how they have adapted to new roles and how this may or may not have changed their commitment towards their employing organisation.

Table 8-6 suggests commitment has increased in all three case studies with regard to this change (i.e. when personally experienced), although there are no material differences between commitment levels of the organisations (see Table 8-7). Some employees and management report that their jobs have become more specialised and this has assisted in their understanding of the organisation as a whole, providing them with more insight into the business and adjusting to new systems. Chapter four noted that reduced role ambiguity leads to increased commitment and the results of the qualitative analysis in this study are consistent with the literature. For example; “My job has developed and I can see clearly how I contribute to Engco and the new values that we have been taught. It did involve some re-organisation of tasks. Some of the practices have changed too, mainly as a result of the technological systems. I have to readapt to the new systems, it’s not a problem, just a challenge. Its a learning curve...” (Engco;621).

For others however, although their job is “more exciting” (Engco;133), they explained that working within important time constraints as a result of re-organisation has added to their stress level at work. “I prefer my new job, that is what I was trained to do. It is more interesting, but more stressful. You never know what is happening next. It’s a good thing in a way. Before I was on production. There you know what you’ll be doing in the next hour, day, week, or 20 years” (Engco;133). In contrast, some employees describe how the taking on of additional roles have enriched their job and increased their level of involvement with the organisation. For example, one suggests, “I’ve taken on a different role. We have different areas of responsibility. I’ve taken over steel. I used to be in general machinery. Someone was leaving and another took early retirement so I got steel. I used to do a bit of everything, but now I am more specialised, it’s a step up the ladder. I probably work a bit harder and will stay another half an hour, whereas before I would leave stuff until the next day. I feel happier in the job, its
definitely more interesting” (Engco;610). Thus, in situations at work where employees are given, what they perceive, as more challenging roles and responsibilities their job scope is increased and commitment raised (Mowday et al;1982).

It was evident from the transcripts at case study two, that the restructuring and re-organisation of jobs has also lead to the taking on of unnecessary additional responsibilities, particularly by some managerial members interviewed. One manager for example considers that, “My role has developed internally...[but]...the greater organisation does not appreciate the things that need doing everyday. ‘Peripheral crap’ I call it. It has increased enormously, and I must report so much. Europe subgroups, you can make it a full time job. I should be doing other things” (Carco;149). Consistent with the literature, perceived role overload is shown here to be inversely related to commitment.

For some manual workers, particularly at case study two, job re-organisation was considered to have increased commitment as employees considered that if they have more skills they are likely to be regarded as more valuable to the organisation. “Each line is similar...its the more you know really that counts...The work is the same, but you know more of it when you move up the grades...then you know that you are useful to the firm” (Carco;106). Likewise one manager at case study three, reported that, “when we first started we were engineering and now the job has changed. We embrace other sections now, it’s good, it makes you feel that you are a part of the company” (Airco;331).

At case study three, there were mixed views about job re-organisation amongst employees, “I have to be flexible. I have had to learn computers and take on alternative roles. It has enhanced my job, and helped to make my learning curve vertical” (Airco;321). In other instances, job re-organisation has lead to the reduction of peripheral responsibilities. For example, “…to some extent there has been subtle changes to my position over time. We don’t get involved with some of the more mundane things, but that is how the job has gone” (Airco;286). Conversely, some employees participating at case study three considered that
opportunities to learn new skills and branch out into other parts of the company provides them with more perceived alternatives within other organisations. "Our jobs have been re-organised. It's a good thing because it gives you more experience and makes you more marketable" (Airco;601). Similarly, "I have moved within the firm, because I wanted another string to my bow" (Airco;69).

8.11.1 Discussion

This section sought to draw from the qualitative discussions to find out more about why employees' commitment levels change, (or remain constant) after organisational changes in SET ONE. The interview transcripts, concerned with employee responses of commitment levels after organisational change, revealed that employees spoke freely about their everyday experiences of work. Many of these experiences are implicit in the literature about employee commitment and its antecedents. The usage of the term 'commitment' by employees in an everyday context has been equated to the literature, in particular, employees inadvertently made reference to: role related correlates of commitment (i.e. job scope and role ambiguity, stress level, responsibility); structural correlates of commitment (i.e. formality of rules, participation in decision making) and; work related experiences (namely, organisational dependability, perceived personal importance to the organisation, perceived job security, job satisfaction).

These are all important indicators of commitment formation and represent the antecedents to the concept (as discussed in chapter four). These issues, raised by employees in discussion about their work related experiences, form a fundamental part of the explanation as to why their commitment levels reportedly altered or have remained the same after change. The antecedents of commitment are therefore key variables in determining the affects of change on employees at work.

Further drawing from the anecdotal evidence, the extent to which commitment is changed by organisational changes is briefly summed up.
Some of the organisational changes in SET ONE examined were found to have altered commitment. In particular: organisational restructuring at case studies two and three; payment settlements at case study one and case study two and technological changes at each of the three case studies.

Other changes examined have had minor alterations on employee commitment for example, some employees at case study one reported that their commitment level had fluctuated after experience of organisational restructuring, but the attitudes of these individuals have since returned to their original state, after time. Similarly, commitment was also reportedly restored to normal, after weakening, by individuals at case study three. These employees indicated in the interviews that they were affected by the manner in which the pay negotiations were conducted.

Thus, commitment can be changed by organisational changes. Where changes are shown to have little impact, commitment can be considered as largely stable overall, but may suffer oscillations. However, most of the changes experienced in the three case studies did alter commitment.

There are three subsequent conclusions drawn from the analysis in section 8.8. The first draws from the qualitative data to account for why employees at case study two have shown higher commitment than those at case studies one and three in the quantitative analysis. The second is concerned with the nature of managerial coercion with regard to pay changes at case study three. Finally, the extent to which employee commitment is changed after organisational changes is considered. Firstly, it is argued that case study two employees showed highest levels of commitment on the questionnaire (see Table 8-5 and Table 8-6) in comparison to other respondents participating in the research, because their perception of the level of investment made by senior management in the company (i.e. improvements in information technology and increases in pay in particular) heightens organisation dependability, thereby making their own jobs seem more secure.

Moreover, the background variables of employees working in this organisation and their self reported experiences of being unemployed were also found to play an
important part in increasing their commitment to Carco. Indeed, from the qualitative results, commitment was raised amongst blue collar workers by the implementation of the changes in SET ONE because there is already a high degree of uncertainty in the organisation. However, whether employees are really demonstrating attitudinal commitment is questionable. Rather, this seems to have increased as the majority of employees consider that they have few perceived alternatives. Thus, Carco employees do not appear to be committed because they want to be, but rather because they are fearful of losing their jobs, particularly when unemployment is a realistic possibility and likely to have been experienced previously. This observation is more in keeping with the continuance/calculative commitment theory advocated by Becker (1960) and Kanter (1968), and suggests that commitment is obtained by default. Attitudinal and behavioural commitment are however inherently interrelated. “Rather than viewing a causal arrow between committing attitudes and behaviours pointing in one direction or the other, as many researchers have done, it is more useful to consider the two as reciprocally related” (Mowday et al;1982;47).

Since no differences in BOCS scores were found between the case studies, it is proposed that employees at case study two may have become more attitudinally committed to Carco than they might have been if their perceived level of job alternatives was higher. This, coupled with employees' anecdotal evidence, which suggests that any improvements to the working environment indicate a future for, what they consider to be, an uncertain organisation, are proposed as the reasons why Carco personnel have shown higher commitment levels in comparison to participants at case study one and three. Following Mowday et al (1982;47), the underlying explanation is therefore based on the consideration that commitment is characterised by the “reciprocal influence of attitudes and behaviours”.

This result however, is not consistent with other studies, which have measured commitment in uncertain organisational environments. Hallier and Lyon (1996a;1996b) for example studied the effects of the threat of redundancy on forty two, long serving engineering managers over a twelve month period. They found that employee commitment levels were reduced when managers considered that
they could become victims. The authors concluded by stating that, "...we may expect difficulties in the development of organisational commitment to emerge as the personal risk to managers increase" (Hallier and Lyon; 1996a; 107). Rajan (1996) noted that changes in the financial sector have lead to job losses and he sought to examine commitment levels during turbulent times. His conclusions indicate that employers, rather than creating job security, are attempting to improve individual’s employability since, “the pressures of the restructuring process have conspired against preparing staff for life after their current job” (Rajan; 1996; 78).

Similarly, Patch et al (1992), suggest that the uncertainty surrounding contemporary organisations has profoundly changed the way in which they and their employees relate. “In the traditional corporate paradigm, loyalty was rewarded with security...this meant a job, regular pay raises and promotions, recognition, identity and other tangible and intangible benefits...[However], companies are no longer able or willing to guarantee lifelong employment” (Patch et al; 1992; 47). The authors also argue that such organisations should not expect their employees to be *attitudinally* committed since employers can no longer reciprocate in terms of securing employment. Rather, they advocate a ‘new’ contract based on mutual commitment between parties. Described as a “strategic partnership” (Patch et al; 1992; 51). Organisations commit to helping employees achieve their own personal goals and the employee commits to helping the organisation achieve its goals. “The success of the new contract will depend on each party’s dedication to carrying out those responsibilities” (Patch et al; 1992; 51). In essence, organisations have shifted the responsibility for securing employee futures onto the employees themselves. Following Hirsch (1987), this shift in emphasis signifies the end of affective commitment of employees to organisations.

Also contributing to the debate about the impact of uncertainty on employee commitment, Brockner et al (1993) sought to examine some of the factors of redundancy which affect survivors. They found that, “in general, survivors react more negatively (e.g. their organisational commitment suffers) when: (a) the
layoffs are judged as unfair, and (b) the changes in working conditions are experienced more as threats rather than opportunities” (Brockner et al; 1993; 153). Moreover, the perceived possibility of additional layoffs were found to influence the work motivation of those who remained, particularly with regard to survivors’ self esteem and level of worry. “Specifically, worry was (positively) related to work motivation when the threat of future layoffs was high and survivors self esteem was low” (Brockner et al; 1993; 163). Although redundancies have not been implemented at case study two, employees report a perceived threat of job losses. In light of this, Brockner et al’s (1993) research (above) does provide some understanding about the attitudes of employees’ during unstable periods in organisations where the possibility of job losses is a reality. The outcomes of studies reviewed in this area do not support the findings in this research, which indicate commitment has increased at case study two despite the threat of factory closure.

Job security however, was found to be a related aspect of organisational dependability in this study, (i.e. the extent to which employees consider that they can rely on the organisation to look after them). Organisational dependability has been shown to be strongly related to employee commitment levels in the literature. More specifically, some studies (see Mowday et al; 1982) indicate employees’ perception of their importance towards the organisation is positively related to employee commitment, and these findings are supported by the outcomes of this research. Another feasible explanation for this inconsistent result can be found in the close relationship between attitudinal and behavioural commitment, although it does suggest that poor employers get higher commitment when job security increases. Despite this, there was clear evidence that when individuals consider that they have few perceived alternatives elsewhere, they becomes more attitudinally committed towards their current organisation.

Secondly, it is noted that whilst a power/coercive strategy resulted in increased levels of commitment at case study two after payment settlements, this did not lead to increased commitment levels at case study three. Rather, senior management’s use of coercive tactics, according to employees and some management, within an
empirical/rational environment (i.e. Airco), resulted in no increases to commitment levels after pay changes, (even when individuals had personally benefited from an increase in financial reward). This finding draws attention to the issue of the process of change in determining outcomes for commitment. It raises questions about the associated importance attached to administering alternative approaches to the norm pursued by top management. In particular, it heightens awareness of conducting changes by application of one consistent strategy. In this study, the qualitative research has been drawn from to indicate that deviation from the traditional approach to eliciting change has confused and worried Airco employees and they have reacted against this, in terms of their identification, involvement and loyalty towards the company.

Finally, there is some evidence to suggest that employee commitment returns to its original level after changes that result in negative perceptions or experiences, (i.e. as in the case of organisational restructuring at case study one and payment settlements at case study three). This suggests that commitment may not be the stable construct that it is portrayed to be in the literature. In light of this finding, the following section goes on to debate the feasibility of changing employee commitment, providing examples from individuals’ personal accounts of work related experiences. Of those who suggest it is stable, reference to the commitment theories, detailed in chapter two, are made. Where employees consider that commitment is alterable, inferences are made from commonalities emerging from the transcripts in order to provide explanations for this.

8.12 Can employee commitment be changed?

The literature about employee commitment suggests that it is typically stable over time and unlikely to change in light of organisational changes (Guest;1998a, Mowday et al;1982). However, the quantitative analysis has shown that employee commitment can be altered as a result of some organisational changes (as shown in Table 8-6 and Table 8-7). To investigate this supposition further using qualitative analysis, respondents were asked in general in the interviewing process, if they
considered that their own commitment levels can sometimes alter, or if these are more likely to remain stable as a result of the organisational changes discussed. As with the questionnaire administration, respondents were given a copy of Mowday et al’s (1982) definition of attitudinal commitment. Central to the design of this study is the continuation rather than duplication of the case study data collection (see chapter five). This has enabled the questions formulated for the purposes of interviewing to be continually refined. In light of this, the following analysis is based on extracts from case study three (Airco).

There was evidence to support the literature that employee commitment is a stable construct. However, consistent with that of chapter seven, the majority of interviewees did consider that their commitment could be altered by organisational changes (as shown in Table 8-6 and Table 8-7). The following section has categorised responses of; those who consider commitment is stable and; those who consider that it is alterable in light of organisational change.

8.13 Employee commitment is stable

Firstly, comparisons between individuals who, on their questionnaire had indicated that their commitment had not changed, were compared with their personal profile. This group of respondents is categorised as follows; Male and the main breadwinner in their household. All but one work in the area of maintenance on a shift basis, and all but two are married.

There were varying attitudes portrayed by these individuals who sought to explain why their commitment does not fluctuate as a result of organisational change. These are equated to some of the theories of employee commitment discussed in chapter two. Whilst there was some evidence of attitudinal commitment to organisational change manifested as “organisation man” (White;1957), this was scarce. However consistent with the literature, individuals who expressed a high level of attitudinal commitment had high tenure. More apparent were individuals who consider that external sources central to their lives (i.e. family) are the only
reason they go to work. This is shown in the calculative/continuance commitment theory and was evident amongst office and manual workers as categorised above.

Normative commitment was also prevalent amongst individuals who considered that being committed towards the organisation was appropriate and necessary, even during times of change where the change itself may not be perceived positively. Allen and Meyer (1990;11) note that “although the desire to remain with an organisation is not synonymous with the feeling of obligation to do so, there is a tendency for these feelings to co-occur”. The majority of individuals who demonstrated elements of normative and attitudinal commitment were middle aged male managers who consider that, “its important to have a social conscience, for one’s own well being” (Airco;608). One manager provided a metaphor to illustrate his commitment during periods of change at Airco stating, “A ship should not be abandoned as it travels through rough seas because that will lead to the downfall of the vessel. If the crew pull together the voyage can continue, the storm will eventually subside, and what lies ahead is worth braving the storm for. It’s only the rats that should be thrown overboard”.

8.13.1 Attitudinal commitment

The interview results support the outcomes of the quantitative findings shown in chapter seven, where significant differences were found between employees with 0-3 years service and 20+ years on the combined data set (means = 38.84 and 44.24 respectively). There does appear to be a consistent, positive correlation between tenure and those individuals who show high attitudinal commitment after periods of organisational change. This is evident in the following extract from a transcript of an employee with 20+ years of working at Airco, “I often see folks leaving, and I ask why. Some want a career, some are not happy. There are a lot of us that stay because we like it here. We are not worried. We like it here, which is why we stay. It’s not because we are frightened of moving [to other organisations], we do not want to” (Airco;281).
8.13.2 Attitudinal/normative commitment

Normative/affective commitments featured amongst transcripts, particularly of those who regarded the organisation in a positive light even when they perceived that management has implemented unwelcome organisational changes. For example; one manager with personnel responsibility suggested, “...when you feel that things are not right, despite what they are doing, we must crack on. I never feel that I must seek other employment. On the whole, they have been a good company, it’s a competitive business so changes are necessary. If they could have made the changes by retaining the key parts of the business they would have” (Airco;331). From this quotation it is inferred that this individual remains with the organisation in light of negative change as a result of his personal values (i.e. “...we must crack on”). However, he is also clearly affectively (rather than calculatively) committed since he does not feel the need to find alternative employment. There was also some evidence (see below) that this individual had a duty not to report anything negative about the company, because other members of his family work at Airco. Closer examination of his use of language also suggests that he does not want to, since he does appear to regard the company highly. “There is an upside to Airco, they have given me, my son, my wife employment, so anything I say is hopefully constructive as I do enjoy my job. They have given us a good living and I applaud that” (Airco;331).

Likewise, another manager with personnel responsibility communicated a strong duty and will to be committed. This seemed to stem heavily from his social values and thus also fits within the normative framework. In the following extract he suggests that work is a focal point of his life, hence the reasoning why his commitment is stable. He also advocates that others should share his view. “My commitment has not changed despite the changes I have seen here or been a part of, and in order to tell you why, well, we have to go back to my basic personal attitude. I believe in doing the best I can for the company I work for, even if I am contracted. I suppose it comes from a military background and it helps you either skive well or get on with the job. I chose the latter, and anyway I am not good at
skiving!...In my opinion, anyone who does not give 100% is throwing their life away” (Airco;608).

Others who work for Airco also demonstrated normative/attitudinal commitment. One workshop employee considers that, “commitment to me means the way you view work and how that shapes your frame of mind. The manager who left, he was a killer, you could not communicate with him but you have to carry on, you should still work your hardest otherwise the company will suffer. You must be stronger than any individual who may want to make life hell. Then and only then can you get a lot of pleasure from your work. Last night I was shattered when I got home, but I had felt that I had done a really honest day for the company, and so tomorrow, I will work that hard again” (Airco;585). The theory about these two constructs indicates “experiences found to correlate with affective commitment also tended to correlate, albeit more weakly, with normative commitment. Having positive experiences at work “may contribute to both an employee’s desire to remain in the organisation and their sense of obligation to remain” (Meyer et al; 1998;32).

8.13.3 Continuance/calculative commitment

Other employees presented a more continuance/calculative view of why their commitment remains unchanged. These tended to be male, married, breadwinners, with one or more income dependants, staff or shopfloor, non shift employees with 4-10 years of service. One office worker suggested that, “I work for my family. My commitment is to feed my family, so my commitment remains constant. They pay my wages so for the time I work they get 100%. I do not consider myself as not committed, but I accept that we live in a capitalist society and if they want my time and commitment, they have to buy it” (Airco;411).

Another office staff employee at Airco who had formerly been made redundant from another company, to which he explained he had devoted a major part of his life, suggested that his previously high attitudinal levels of commitment had been
damaged to such an extent that his emotional attachment towards Airco could only
be weakly maintained and hence organisational changes neither positively or
negatively affect him. “I will not let myself get too committed, because of what
happened before. Whole families worked in (previous employer), like here, and it
[being made redundant] affected me deeply. I had a career with them. After that
my attitude changed. I do not want a career, I want a nine to five. I do not go
home and worry about things. I turn off, my commitment deep down is [therefore]
stable” (Airco;543).

Hallier and Lyon (1996a), who researched the effects on managers created by
working within an uncertain organisational environment, (cited earlier) suggest that
those individuals who subsequently found alternative employment showed a more
cautious level of commitment to their new employers and were more cynical about
the treatment they might expect. The authors also found that such managers had
reservations about the amount of trust they felt that they could invest in their new
employing organisation. Hallier and Lyon (1996b;38/39) concluded that,
“...demise of the job for life is making workers ill” [and] the threat of redundancy
has a considerable impact on managerial perceptions of security, commitment and
the psychological contract. And if the threat becomes a reality, the shift in
attitudes resulting from the trauma of being made redundant might not fit easily
with the needs of new employers”.

Some manual workers at Airco who have previously experienced unemployment,
described their commitment as stable and this was also based on calculative
aspects. The following extract highlights that this individual’s number of perceived
alternatives was limited such that he was just content to have a job. “My
commitment remains the same regardless of what changes they bring in. I have
been out of work on many occasions before I came here. The way I look at it is
that they did not have to take me on. This job is a lot better than claiming the dole
and I have had many spells where I have been on the dole, or working black,
yeah...moonlighting” (Airco;592).
8.14 Employee commitment is changeable

Firstly, there did not appear to be any pattern between individuals who consider that commitment can change following organisational changes, at least amongst those who responded to the question in their interviews at Airco. Rather, they represented various positions in the organisation's hierarchy, ranging from managers (with personnel responsibility) to other managers, office and blue collar employees. Similarly, there was no standard service length. Every tenure group on the questionnaire was represented with the exception of the 20+ years category. Neither was there any pattern between those who suggested commitment can be changed and their number of income dependants.

Firstly, the views of one manager (with personnel responsibility), educated to MBA level, emphasised the importance of work in his life but suggested that his commitment towards the organisation is likely to fluctuate when he feels pressured at work. “My commitment is self generated, it is formed internally. Certain things at work however, have changed my attitude, and how I feel when I come to work and it fluctuates even more when I am tired and if I feel that I am overworked and probably taken for granted...I often talk about my job to my partner, she’s a good listener”. This employee goes on to suggest that during periods when he considers that an unfavourable change has been implemented (for example; some aspects of the organisation’s restructuring) the extent to which he considers that Airco is a good employer is questioned. In this respect, his level of identification with the organisation is weakened.

This particular manager was also able to appreciate the difference between commitment and job satisfaction. “It is not job satisfaction, not really, if commitment is constituted three dimensionally as you have shown, then I am definitely describing it. I suppose I live to work, I think I know that because I like my job better than my family. I spend too much time at work and not enough living. My job is probably more important than my personal life, and I often cancel social engagements because I have to work, or need to rest because of overwork.
I think the changes I have described [on the questionnaire] have altered it without a doubt” (Airco;539).

Similarly, another manager also with a responsibility for some Airco personnel, explained, “I think that the organisational changes we have talked about can make your commitment change” (Airco;321). He went on to heighten the importance of the strategy used by the organisation in which to effect change and he too distinguished between commitment and job satisfaction. “It’s the way they are brought about that affects you more than the change itself...Some [organisational changes] really do mean that the whole environment changes, that work is not the place it once was, there is less free rein. If a change is bad then it tends to alter your commitment for the worse, like the pay negotiations....Certainly I have looked around for other jobs before (Airco;321). In this example, the process of change is again highlighted as important in determining commitment after change. Secondly, this individual is suggesting that his loyalty towards Airco is questioned after his experience of a change that he perceives as unfavourable.

Many managers located in the factory suggested that their commitment is directly related to the level of work and their perception of whether deadlines are, in their opinion, reasonable and can be met. As noted in chapter five, work at Airco is largely seasonal, with aircraft in use during the summer months and in the hangar requiring maintenance during the winter period. In light of this, one manager explains that, “generally, it [his commitment] does fluctuate. Sometimes when work in general is going well, then we have a hard winter and you feel drained, you have to put in a lot of extra hours and more effort as the work load is bigger, you take an anti view. I have had my moments. Some changes are good, like the restructuring and some not so good, like re-negotiation of wages...but the company is bigger than anyone here. Nobody is indispensable, so it does not benefit you to take too much of an anti attitude when senior management make changes that you do not like. Things usually come round for me in the end though” (Airco;286). He goes on to suggest that his commitment returns to stable state despite fluctuating during the “not so good times” (Airco;286).
Likewise, another manager with staff responsibility located in the Hangar indicates that, “sometimes it does change, in periods when you feel it [i.e. work] is not going well. Sometimes you ask, what is the company up to? Then its passes...As an overall trend its right down the middle, although there are good parts and bad parts of the company that do affect how much I want to come to work, whether I think about moving on, how much work I put in when I get here, that kind of thing. That’s what you’re talking about isn’t it? That’s what it says there (points to Mowday et al’s; 1982 definition of attitudinal commitment)...I think that the good things counterbalance the bad, but even when I have a really bad day, I do not feel ‘uncommitted’, maybe not happy with the job, but that is more of a feeling on the day, tomorrow is a new day. When I have pointed out the changes on your questionnaire, I was thinking more about how I find them straight after. So when I say that it [commitment] has changed, that is what I mean, but usually gets back to normal eventually” (Airco;363).

Conversely, others provide examples where their commitment has been changed by organisational changes. Office members of staff in particular suggested that when they have what they consider, as positive experiences at work, commitment can be enhanced, for example, “When I got my promotion it shot up, some things make it change, if they are positive” (Airco;86).

Others report that their commitment has been altered by their perception of the level of commitment shown to them by the organisation. “My commitment changes from time to time, when you have a downer it does decrease. The management show that they do not value employees here enough. I see how many people we have lost and that makes me think that perhaps I should be looking around. I think those who work here though, do genuinely want to do their best and the company to be a success. Sometimes, when management do not seem to appreciate what people do they are shooting themselves in the foot, because things around here will only work if the shopfloor want them to work. If the guy on the shopfloor has the answers, he may not always use them for whatever reason. Management will also find that they will lose the flexibility of the employees and their will to work harder and extra hours during the winter period when we are at
our most busiest, oh yeah, that goodwill all goes" (Airco;401). Some blue collar workers themselves also demonstrate this perspective. One stated that his level of commitment is highly fickle, capable of fluctuating on a daily basis. “Some days you do not mind putting yourself out, but on others, well I think why should I when they are only bothered about feathering their own nest...on those days I don’t do extra...” (Airco;471). Clearly involvement is an issue here. Another employee openly admitted that he has, “never been a committed sort of person. My family come first, I could leave tomorrow” (Airco;223). However, this individual (a blue collar worker) goes on to explain that he came to Airco with expectations and now feels disheartened with his job and disillusioned with the organisation as he considers that these have not been met (see Meyer and Allen;1997). “I suppose when I first came here, I thought, yeah I could work here for a few years. I do not hate it, but I am not happy, I am fed up with engineering in general, I think that skilled trade is not a profession as it used to be” (Airco;223).

Similarly, another manual employee commented, “my commitment definitely fluctuates. When I started it was excellent, really high, you are keen. Some of the jobs are not at all what they are cracked up to be. The commitment is still there, but you have to work hard and no one says, “well done”, that affects your attitude more. It shapes how you feel before you even get to work, and you think about that when you are looking in the paper on a Sunday. You think, I will just have a peek at the situations vacant” (Airco;601). From this example, it appears that negative experiences can damage employees’ commitment levels to such an extent, that their propensity to want to leave the organisation becomes a serious consideration.

8.14.1 Conclusion

Accounts of individuals who consider that their commitment is not changed by organisational changes were equated to the various conceptualisations of attitudinal, calculative/continuance and normative commitment. In this research, normative commitment featured heavily as a justification as to why individuals
remain with their organisation after periods of perceived negative or unpopular organisational change. To date, normative commitment has not been examined in depth amongst the employee commitment or organisational change literature. Other worthwhile studies should therefore investigate its role in times of change.

When commitment is shown to change, perceived negative experiences, like initial expectations not being met by the employing organisation and changes, for example; the pay negotiations are shown to affect all three elements of attitudinal commitment, namely the extent to which employees talk up the organisation in and out of work (i.e. identification), the level of effort they put into their job at work (i.e. involvement) and extent to which they consider leaving the organisation (i.e. loyalty). In other cases, positive changes like promotion have reportedly enhanced employees' commitment. A few of the individuals who consider that their commitment towards Airco is changeable as a result of organisational changes examined, also reported that eventually this is likely to return to a its original position. However, the time taken to restore employee commitment is not identifiable from this piece of research and may in later studies be shown to be unique to the individual.

It is noted from close examination of the transcripts, that commitment more readily fluctuates amongst blue collar workers with many such individuals suggesting that their level of involvement and loyalty in particular can change on a daily basis. Others (i.e. managers and staff) hinted that changes may affect them deeper and for longer. However, more clarification is required to develop the understanding of the employee profile in this area. Another fruitful area for additional research will investigate the time it takes for employee commitment to be normalised amongst such groups and the reasoning for this (see chapter nine).
8.15 Chapter summary and conclusions

This chapter has been concerned with the purpose, role and outcomes of the qualitative research in this study. The interview data was used to determine if the organisational strategies hypothesised at the outset of data collection were the most fitting to the participating case studies. In each case, this was confirmed. It also sought to supplement and complement the quantitative data and establish the reliability of the questionnaire data and analyse in more depth disparity between respondents’ outcomes. Thus, they dealt mainly with the why questions, necessary to obtain a depth and richness to the quantitative analysis undertaken.

A matrix created to compare interview and questionnaire responses revealed that on the whole, the data had semantic validity and thus could be drawn from for purposes of single and cross case analysis. However, some discrepancies were noted with regard to managers and staff at case study three with regard to job re-organisation in particular. It also argued that whilst established scales like BOCS are highly useful in providing an objective measure of employee commitment, coupled with the follow up interviews, they provide a richer source of data collection upon which to draw conclusions about employee attitudes following organisational changes.

Employee perspectives of commitment as a changeable or static concept were then identified and discussed. In particular, individuals who had indicated that their commitment level fluctuates, could not be classified from the evidence gathered, into a certain type. This chapter culminates with the suggestion that employees’ commitment after change takes one of three forms: Firstly, commitment is stable regardless of change. Secondly, commitment is predominately stable, but may suffer minor oscillations. However, it eventually returns to its original state. Thirdly, commitment is altered as a result of the changes in SET ONE.
9. CHAPTER NINE : CONCLUSIONS, LIMITATIONS AND FURTHER RESEARCH

9.1 Introduction

This study has been concerned with developing the understanding of the impact of organisational changes on employee commitment levels. The main purpose of this final chapter is to set out the conclusions drawn from this investigation and it highlights the implications of these in respect of existing theoretical debates in the area. The chapter is divided into five parts. The first part returns to the original research question and re-states the objectives of the research. The second part brings together the major findings and shows these in a series of models. These build on the initial model designed for the purposes of this research (as set out in chapter five). The section ends with the presentation of one final model which identifies the variables to be considered by practitioners and academics concerned with the issue of commitment after change in the future. The third part deals with the extent to which the findings are generalisable and details the limitations of the investigation. The chapter culminates by discussing the implications for future studies in the area as well as those for management.

9.2 Scope for research and objectives of the study

The purpose of conducting this research was to find out how organisational changes affect employee commitment. This would be accomplished by developing an understanding of the outcomes for change following individuals' experiences of them. Up until now, this issue has not been empirically researched, hence the impetus for the current study.
9.2.1 Main objectives of the study

I. to explain how the concept of commitment can be understood by biographic and work related variables;
II. to find out if the process of change is important in explaining commitment levels after organisational changes;
III. to investigate the impact of a variety of organisational changes on employee commitment levels (content of change);
IV. to examine if the extent to which organisational changes are experienced is influential in determining employees' commitment.

9.3 Antecedents of commitment

The study sought to establish the impact of employees' demographic and work associated variables on commitment levels (i.e. BOCS8) and add to the literature by incorporating a large range of variables not included in previous analysis. Figure 9-1 shows high/low outcomes for commitment based on employees' biographic/work related variables.

In some cases the findings further confirm the literature. Those variables found to be influential in explaining BOCS included marital status, with employees who are cohabiting or married showing higher commitment levels than single respondents, presumably because they are behaviourally tied to the organisation as a result of commitments outside (i.e. partner/spouse). This result is consistent with the findings of Alutto et al's (1973) and those of Ritzer and Trice (1969). Similarly, those with no income dependants showed least commitment towards the organisation. However, the commitment level of breadwinners and non breadwinners was the same. This result is incongruent with the literature, which suggests that breadwinners associate higher costs with leaving the organisation.
Figure 9-1: Model illustrating the significant demographic and work related variables which are shown to by significant in determining outcomes for high/low commitment scores (BOCS8)

Key
© Employee commitment
♀ High commitment scores on BOCS8
♀ Low commitment scores on BOCS8

Organisation

Moderating variables
Married/Co-habiting
One or more income dependants
Management
Projects/materials
management dept.
Permanent
Non shift

Potential impact of change

Policy to implement change

External forces

Internal forces

Moderating variables
Single/other
Less than one income dependent
Shopfloor/staff
Manual/Admin
Temporary
Shift
< 20 years service
Other findings in this research are contrary to existing studies that have correlated biographic and work related variables of individuals with commitment. For example, shopfloor employees showed least commitment towards their organisation in this study, whereas management showed the highest. This pattern is also demonstrated on the basis of work area (for example, those who occupy the white-collar positions, particularly, projects, marketing, quality) showed higher commitment than skilled employees. This evidence is intriguing since it is contrary to suggestions in the literature which indicate that lower status employees are likely to show higher commitment than other organisational members. (Angle and Perry;1981, Guest;1987, Mottaz;1988 and White;1987). This is because shopfloor workers have few transferable skills, hence their employment options elsewhere are limited. In the qualitative part of this study, management and staff were shown to demonstrate high perceived organisational dependability, considered themselves to be generally treated better than other organisational members and have more participation with decision making. These factors are strongly linked with attitudinal levels of commitment and are a justification for the result.

Employee commitment levels in this research were also influenced by employee tenure, with optimum levels being shown by those with 20+ years service (see also Mowday et al.;1982). This finding is consistent with the literature. Finally, there were no differences between union members’ commitment and those without union membership at case studies one and two.

A small subset of antecedent variables were repeatedly shown to be influential in determining commitment for example; marital status, employment status and length of service were consistently found to be significant in the regression analysis. This also heightens the importance attached to personal/biographic variables when studying commitment.

In conclusion, this part of the research has increased awareness about the antecedents to commitment and has added to the literature in the area by studying a broad set of biographic and work related variables not previously captured. Researchers in the future should include this range of variables in studies not least
because these are important and can assist with the justification for variation in commitment scores, but also because inconsistencies of results are prevalent when set against the literature and thus more confidence is needed in this area.

9.4 The process of organisational change

The participating case studies were differentiated by the strategies used to effect change drawing from the works of Chin and Benne (1985). The study sought to find out if the varying strategies were significant in determining commitment levels after change. The Chin and Benne (1985) characterisation applied was based on the focus groups and confirmed by the qualitative findings. The quantitative data revealed that commitment had increased after organisational changes in SET ONE in all the cases. This occurred when individuals' scores of commitment (after these changes) were compared to the test score. Given that this finding occurred at each of the three organisations (with the exception of organisational restructuring at case study one, and payment settlements at case study three) suggests that whatever strategic approach to change organisations use, increased commitment is likely to ensue. Hence, the process of change may not necessarily be a particularly good indicator of commitment. This suggestion is further confirmed by the results of the regression analysis, where 'organisation', the variable used as a proxy for strategy of change, failed to emerge as a determinant of commitment.

Later comparisons of commitment levels after organisational changes in SET ONE between the three case studies, resulted in case study two having the most success in raising commitment (after change) overall. A power/coercive strategy was found to be the most effective for increasing commitment after organisational changes in this research (this is reflected in the model shown as Figure 9-2). This is an important finding that adds to the literature in the area of employee commitment and change. It also refutes suggestions that a non HR approach is unlikely to be successful in obtaining high commitment (Cascio; 1995, Legge; 1995b, Orrell-Jones; 1996 Pascale and Athos; 1981, Zaltman and Duncan; 1978). However, Zeffane's (1994) argument that commitment will be
increased in circumstances where employees have favourable perceptions of management style is not supported by this research. Rather, the qualitative research revealed that employees at case study two generally disliked the nature of the power/coercive management style they associated with their employing organisation.

There are three conclusions proposed as to why commitment was shown to be significantly higher at the power/coercive organisation when compared to normative/re-educative and empirical/rational organisations. Firstly, the majority of Carco employees are unskilled, shopfloor workers, (some of which have experienced unemployment). The literature about the antecedents of commitment suggests that employees with few perceived employment alternatives are likely to become more committed to their current employing organisation (see chapter four). However, it was noted that manual workers in this study have lower commitment in general and management the highest (see section 9.3). Thus, the antecedents to commitment located in the wider literature can be drawn from to develop an understanding about why employees at case study two report higher commitment in comparison to organisational members located at the other case studies. However, it is also noted that this explanation is not wholly supported by other key conclusions drawn in this study about the biographic and work related variables of commitment.

Secondly, there is evidence at Carco that supports Michael’s (1988) theory that organisational regulations and rules lead to positive outcomes for commitment. This is because rigid practices reduce ambiguity associated with employees’ roles. Unclear employee expectations decrease attitudinal commitment and role ambiguity is negatively correlated with the OCQ (Mayer and Schoorman; 1998).
The model illustrates the outcomes for commitment following three of the four changes in SET ONE when "organisation" is used as a proxy for the process of change. In particular, commitment levels after organisational restructuring, payment settlements, and technological changes are shown. Job re-organisation is excluded from the model since it does not follow the universal pattern as demonstrated by the other changes. Commitment however, is shown to be unchanged after this change in each of the three organisations.
At case study two, it became evident that employee roles and employer expectations from organisational members are clearly defined, hence limited ambiguity.

Thirdly, employees’ perception of the organisational changes under examination (i.e. SET ONE) require corporate investment. This suggests that the organisation is willing and able to invest in its human resource capability and there is a future for the organisation and it will not close. This in turn indicates to employees, particularly skilled workers, that future work is available and their future employment secure. This subsequently increases their perception of organisational dependability and job security, and the result for the organisation is increased commitment. However, whether this type of commitment shown by such individuals is really attitudinal commitment is questionable. The qualitative analysis in particular noted that this finding is more in keeping with Becker’s (1960) calculative theory. However, Mowday et al’s (1982) reinforcing cycle of committing attitudes and behavioural intentions (see chapter two) assists with explanation.

Collectively the above evidence suggests that factors other than the process of change alone are important in determining commitment (after changes in SET ONE). Again, this raises doubt as to how much influence the process of change has on the outcomes of commitment.

9.5 A typology of commitment after change

The literature about commitment discussed in previous chapters shows that it has been long been regarded as a stable construct (Guest;1998a). A key finding of this research however shows that commitment can be changed. This contribution to the literature about commitment is important since it challenges the notion of stability which has dominated the literature up until now. This finding also shows that the content of change is an essential part of employees’ commitment (after change).
In essence there are three main conclusions drawn from this part of the study. They suggest that employees' commitment is either: altered by organisational changes; suffers oscillations as a result of changes in the workplace, thereby changing temporarily; or does not change after organisational changes. These conclusions together represent a typology of commitment as shown in Table 9-1.

**Table 9-1  Typology of commitment after change**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Typology</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Commitment is altered by organisational changes</td>
<td>Employees indicate changed commitment levels as a result of organisational restructuring (case studies two and three), payment settlements (case studies one and two) and technological changes (all case studies)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Commitment is changed, but reverts back to its original state over time</td>
<td>Employees report that some organisational changes have an impact on their commitment, but their commitment returns to its previous state after periods of time (i.e. organisational restructuring at case study one and payment settlements at case study three)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Commitment is stable despite employees’ experience of organisational changes</td>
<td>After organisational changes, employees report no change in their commitment, (i.e. job re-organisation at all three case studies) because they:</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>1. want to be committed no matter what (attitudinal commitment) or</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>2. want and feel they ought to show commitment towards the organisation after changes (attitudinal/ and normative commitment) or</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>3. are committed to the organisation because of external reasons. Such individuals are emotionally divorced from the organisation, but remain with it after change because of calculative reasons (calculative/continuance commitment).</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Firstly, some organisational changes (i.e. organisational restructuring, payment settlements and technological changes) resulted in alterations to the level of commitment employees felt able to demonstrate towards their employing organisation. This was the most common response overall.
Employees who considered that their commitment had been altered as a result of organisational changes referred to how such changes had impacted on their loyalty towards the organisation, their involvement and identification with it. These components are clearly elements of the attitudinal construct as measured in this research. In particular, the perceptions of individuals towards their organisations when their commitment was changed revealed that this: 1) increased/decreased their propensity to leave (i.e. affected their loyalty towards their employing organisation); 2) increased/decreased their level of involvement (in some cases, employees who indicated that their commitment decreased following certain organisational changes suggested that they would do what was required of them, but would not run the extra mile for the organisation) and 3) damaged/heightened the identification element of commitment, since individuals reported that they would talk down/up the company both internally and externally.

No reference was made to the characteristics of either normative or calculative theories in explaining why commitment alters after change. Thus, the organisational changes investigated in this research seemed to have little or no effect on an employee's duty to remain (i.e. normative) or their level of investments with the organisation (calculative). Further research should pursue the impact of change on other forms of commitment by using measures like the CCS or NCS, although in this study, these were the forms of commitment which were shown to be influential securing its stability.

Secondly, the study also revealed that some organisational changes resulted in minor fluctuations in employees' commitment levels, although such individuals reported that their commitment returns to its original position after time. In this sense, the term commitment is best understood, not as an stable concept per se, but a stable one that is capable of deviating after periods of organisational change. This suggests that the construct is aberrant since it is shown to be capable of deviating from the expected norm or what is expected. This finding, albeit being the least common of those presented in the typology, subsequently raises an important issue with regard to the period of time taken for commitment to return.
to a stable situation. In particular, there did not appear to be any consensus with regard to the time taken for respondents’ commitment to return to its previous state after their experiences of organisational change. Further research should therefore investigate this.

Alternatively, if commitment does return to its original state, then it could be argued that managers in organisations do not necessarily need to measure commitment levels more thoroughly than indicated by the national survey (i.e. stage one). Neither do they require knowledge of measuring techniques (i.e. BOCS, OCQ, and ACS). Rather, if commitment is capable of declining and peaking, but eventually returns to its previous state of normality, then arguably it is essentially stable.

Third and finally, commitment amongst some individuals was found to have remained unaltered after organisational change. The reasons for this are located in the various definitions of commitment. This is also a key finding emerging from this study, but is second to changed commitment. A review of the literature presented in chapter two identified that commitment takes various forms, namely: attitudinal; behavioural; calculative and normative. Following Meyer and Allen (1997) it is considered that each of these become important in securing employee membership with the organisation at different points in an employee’s working life. This understanding of commitment is also valuable in explaining why employees’ commitment levels remain unaltered after change.

Throughout data collection, employees’ attention was directed to the Mowday et al (1982) definition of attitudinal commitment. However, respondents’ explanations as to why commitment remains unaltered after change featured characteristics that can be attributed to other commitment theories (see chapter eight). In particular, employees reported no change in commitment towards the organisation because they are either attitudinally, attitudinally and normatively, or calculatively committed to it. There were limited responses of the attitudinal view (i.e. I want to be committed to the organisation after change, no matter what) in the research. This is important because at its extreme it could imply blind
commitment which suggests that employees are indoctrinated by corporate principles and accept the status quo, whatever. This, according to Randall (1987), stifles innovation and creativity. A combined attitudinal/normative approach to commitment towards the organisation after change was more prominent (i.e. I want to show commitment to the company, and after periods of change I still consider that I have a duty to do so). Similarly, the literature suggests that these two forms of commitment are correlated (see chapter four).

There was some evidence that employees remain with the organisation after change because they are calculatively tied to it. Consistent with the literature on commitment, these individuals showed little emotional orientation towards the organisation, and generally appeared to accept the new organisational consensus because their commitment at work is formed by issues external to the organisation (for example; providing for their family). Throughout the transcripts, these employees expressed a desire for continued employment with the organisation regardless of change, not because they want to stay, or feel obliged to remain, but because they associate a high cost with leaving the institution.

In summary therefore, commitment is not necessarily a fixed construct, but rather it can be altered after periods of organisational change. However, in some instances after change, for some individuals, commitment reportedly normalises itself after time, whilst for other respondents it does not change. One important question emerging from this, is who, in the organisations studied expressed the views reflected in the typology?

Firstly, the majority of organisational members (but not all) from whom it was deduced that commitment is stable after changes were categorised as: male; married; breadwinners; likely to work on a shift basis located on the shopfloor. There is no clear commitment profile of individuals who showed aberrant commitment or changed commitment. Rather these individuals represented a variety of individuals within the organisations and covered the range of biographic and work related variables as measured in this study. Thus, it is difficult to be clear about the personal profile of individuals who indicate commitment is changeable on
the basis of this study's findings. This suggests that changed commitment may be best understood as psychological state rather than determined by demographic or work associated variables.

The importance of this contribution to the area of commitment is heightened when set against the backdrop of the literature. Up until now this has assumed commitment to be a static and rigid construct. This conclusion adds a fresh dimension to the way in which commitment can be viewed, understood and operationalised in further studies.

9.6 Experiencing organisational change

The extent to which change is experienced (i.e. personally experienced, or seen happen to others) became an important factor following data collection at case study one (see chapter five for details of the development of the questioning approach used). In particular, when individuals are not directly party to organisational changes, commitment levels are unlikely to be altered. This is shown in Figure 9-3. The categories, 'personally experienced change' and 'seen change happen to others' were differentiated on the questionnaire, whereas the interviews focused mainly on participants' direct observation/involvement of change.

The findings show that the individuals in case studies two and three were more likely to experience changes in their commitment if they had personally experienced these, rather than seen such changes happen to others. Thus, reduced exposure to change lessens the affects on employees' commitment.
Figure 9-3: Model illustrating the extent to which the experience of change impacts on levels of commitment

Key
© Employee commitment
⊕ Employee commitment levels remain stable
♪ Employee commitment levels increase

The model illustrates the outcomes for commitment following the four changes in SET ONE. It shows that commitment is more likely to increase when individuals have personally experienced organisational changes in SET ONE, although there are some exceptions, namely organisational restructuring within a normative/re-educative strategy and payment settlements within the context of an empirical/rational strategy. In both instances commitment is shown to be aberrant. Chapter nine provides a more detailed discussion of this. When participants indicated that they had seen change happen to others in SET ONE, they were more likely to report no change in commitment levels, although again there are some exceptions. For example, payment settlements within a power/coercive framework and organisational restructuring and payment settlements within the context of an empirical/rational strategy. In all instances, these changes resulted in increases in the levels of commitment.
Small sample sizes of those who have observed organisational changes to others were evident particularly at case study two, which in later analysis was shown to mask comparisons with commitment levels of individuals who have personally experienced change (see chapter seven).

In the light of this, more research about the extent to which employees’ experience of organisational change is influential on commitment is needed, preferably within similar organisational settings to this research. This will enable the conclusions drawn here to be supported or refuted. However, attention should be paid to sample sizes, such that employee opinions of those who indirectly experience change can be adequately represented.

9.7 Contributions to the employee commitment literature

The research has examined a number of independent variables, seeking to find out how these impact on individuals’ perceptions and the subsequent shaping of these on the commitment levels of organisational members. To date, researchers who have written in the area of commitment and change have not previously examined this range of variables collectively.

The concluding model of the thesis, shown as Figure 9-4, draws together the evidence about the perceived impact of the various independent variables on employee commitment levels and highlights a number of items as central to moulding commitment to the organisation after change (as discussed in the previous sections). These represent employees’ perceptions of change and are important since they have been shown to lead to positive outcomes and enhanced employee commitment towards the organisation. Both management and researchers in the future need to concentrate on these when pursuing this topic (this is discussed in further depth in section 9.13). Thus, when operationalising and measuring commitment in light of change, these key variables will need to be considered.
Figure 9-4 Conceptual model illustrating the perceptions of change and outcomes for employee commitment levels

Key
© Employee commitment
Ω Employee commitment levels increase

- Employee perceptions of change
  - Heightened organisational dependability
  - Reduced role ambiguity
  - Participation with decision making
  - Increased job security
  - Formalised work environment

- Moderating variables
- Process of change
- Content of change
- Experience of change

Potential impact of change

Organisation

External forces

Internal forces

Policy to implement change
9.8 Evaluation of the British Organisational Commitment Scale

An evaluation of the BOCS was undertaken. The data was collected using BOCS9 to enable some comparative analysis to be performed on BOCS9 and BOCS6. Reliability revealed both versions are internally consistent measures of commitment, although BOCS9 was found to be marginally superior. This finding is contrary to Peccei and Guest's (1993;30) suggestion that the three negatively worded items from the scale should be discarded to enable, "use of the short, positive version of the instrument instead". It is however, consistent with Fenton-O'Creevy et al's (1997) conclusion that suggests that the negatively worded items from the scale should remain. The results of the analysis in this study add to the literature and from these it is recommended that researchers in the future employ the nine item version of BOCS for purposes of data collection, although they should perform analysis on both six and nine item scales to find the optimum BOCS solution for their research.

Administrators of the BOCS are also advised that the instrument should be accompanied by clear and concise instructions informing respondents of the presence of negatively worded items. As this research has shown, such instructions do appear to be sufficient for respondents to read and respond to the items appropriately. However, half of the sample in this research (combined data set) comprised of office employees and management which are presumably better equipped to cope with negatively keyed wording in comparison to blue collar workers (i.e. Peccei and Guest's;1993 study at British Rail).

The negatively worded item on the involvement subscale was shown to confound respondents in this research. The reliability and factor structure of the scale was maximised by the removal of this item. Noticeably the wording of this variable (I am not willing to put myself out just to help the organisation) is different from the other negatively worded items in the BOCS. Further research should attempt to reword this so that it reads more coherently as a negatively worded statement. This will make it a more purposeful item for limiting bias in the measure.
9.8.1 Factor structure of the BOCS

Two distinct constructs of BOCS emerged. Identification and loyalty subscales found to be so highly correlated that they loaded onto the same factor. The two positively worded involvement items loaded together on the second factor. The negatively worded involvement item (Q14r) was problematic, and consistently failed to load with the others in the involvement subscale. It could not therefore be considered as an integral part of the measure. Involvement is considered to be a separate dimension of commitment. Also, there were no significant differences of involvement levels between the three case studies and there is little evidence to suggest that levels of involvement should be any different in other organisations. (see also; Fletcher and Williams;1996). It follows therefore that there is no rationale to suggest that levels of involvement may differ amongst other UK companies. Rather, this subscale is considered problematic since it does not provide a valuable output in terms of the overall BOCS measure. Subsequently, this dimension of the scale needs to be reviewed.

A three factor solution did not provide the best fit to the data obtained in this research as advocated in the literature. BOCS comprises of two distinct components, making it a bi-dimensional rather than a multi-dimensional construct as implied by previous studies (see Fenton-O'Creevy et al;1997, Peccei and Guest;1993). The results of the reliability and factor analysis in this study have not necessarily eased the decision for other researchers to employ the nine or six item version of BOCS. Indeed, considerably more research is required in this area to develop the instrument and its administration.

9.8.2 Commitment paradox

The quantitative analysis of the BOCS revealed that commitment was the same in each of the case studies. This finding is intriguing given that the case studies have been differentiated by their strategy for effecting change. However, it is noted that the sample composition is different in each of the organisations studied and this
may be attributed as a viable explanation for the similarity of BOCS scores obtained. This finding however, is compatible with that of Fletcher and Williams (1996) who also concluded no differences in the commitment scores of organisational members in eight out of nine companies studied.

Moreover, in this research, commitment levels after change (i.e. SET ONE) were shown to be distinct amongst the participating case studies. The literature suggests that nothing seems to change an individual's commitment towards the organisation (Guest; 1998a). This study however, has shown that commitment can be altered by organisational changes.

Collectively, what this evidence amounts to is the suggestion that whilst on the one hand commitment is stable, on the other it was shown to be changeable. These conflicting conclusions represent a paradox associated with the understanding of the concept that should be further researched in subsequent studies.

9.9 Making generalisations from the findings of this research

The relevance that research results have to other contexts is a matter of generalisation. This issue is concerned with a study's 'external validity'. It is important since, "generalisations generated from research assist in our understanding within a wider context of reoccurring situations and also within a boundary of limitations which are rigorous and demanding" (Phillips and Pugh; 1992; 349).

Whilst the strength of case studies are in their richness of information, their weakness is in their generalisability (Coolican; 1994). However, the case studies selected in this research were not primarily undertaken to illustrate others. They were chosen so that the impact of organisational changes on self reported employee commitment levels could be examined in three diverse organisational settings. Each case study was distinctively differentiated by its approach to effecting change.
Generalisations from the case study material in this research are used to refine and modify existing theory about commitment and therefore analytical generalisations are made, particularly with regard to the stability that can be associated with employee commitment. The study found that commitment is not only altered by the content of organisational changes, but the change process and biographic and work related variables of employees and their experience of change. It is further argued that these variables are likely to emerge when determining commitment in other research settings, particularly as all three processes of change presented by Chin and Benne (1985) have been investigated. In other words, there is no reason to suggest that researchers who replicate this investigation would not obtain similar findings. It is further recommended that other researchers should, as far as is possible, attempt to investigate the claims made in this study utilising the framework of Chin and Benne (1985) and the criteria formulated for the purposes of this research to distinguish participating organisations. This would provide a comparative measure. Yin (1994;36) suggests that a theory must be tested, “in a second or third neighbourhood where the theory has specified that the same results should occur” (ibid). This would enhance the validity of the conclusions drawn.

9.10 Limitations of the current study

9.10.1 Research design

Typically caution is exercised in inferring causality from research based on cross sectional data because it provides a snapshot of events. However, the use of both qualitative and quantitative methods for data collection has been shown to be beneficial in this cross sectional study. For example, one key finding that has emerged is that some employees’ commitment is reportedly constant overall, but is capable of wavering in certain circumstances after organisational change. Some of the findings from case study three in particular, identified that individuals report that their commitment undergoes peaks and/or declines before returning to a level of constancy. Arguably this finding would not necessarily be captured by traditional longitudinal designs utilising quantitative measures (like BOCS for
example) because these usually involve taking a baseline measurement, implementing an experimental variable and taking a second measurement, sometimes months or even years afterwards (Oppenhiem;1992).

Further research in this field could incorporate several pre and post measurements (i.e. time series design). Panel studies as they are known (preferably with a control group) would be suitable as these are the most successful in attributing cause and effect (Moser and Kalton;1992, Oppenheim;1992, Spector;1994). This would be particularly useful in detecting minor oscillations in commitment reported by some employees after change.

9.10.2 Self report data/single item indicator

The research utilised interview and questionnaire methods in which to collect data and typically these techniques rely heavily on subjects to report the influence of events and the experiences to which they are exposed. Whilst the limitations associated with reliance on self report data are not unique to this study, this research, like any other which utilises self report data, is restricted to the information that subjects are willing to provide. The use of self report data has attracted much criticism in the social sciences. Spector (1994;385) for example suggests that, “many researchers are sceptical about results that come from questionnaires that ask people to report about themselves and their jobs”. Whilst criticisms are often directed at cross sectional studies like this one, other designs do not necessarily remove these. Spector (1994;385) suggests that whilst there are good reasons to be cautious about the use of self report measures these are, “every bit as important for other methodologies as well”. The use of self report data is not therefore inextricably related to the research design but rather its purpose, “since the relevant question is whether the method(s) of measurement and the research design allow one to derive appropriate conclusions” (Schmitt;1994;394).

Whilst the limitations of self report data are recognised, it is argued that this is the only way in which to assess subjective experiences, like that of an employee’s
commitment towards the organisation after periods of change. Amplifying the confidence levels of the self report data in this research was enhanced by using multiple methods to collect the data, as recommended by Mathews and Diamantopoulos (1995) and Moser and Kalton (1992). This has assisted in establishing the study’s validity. Coolican (1994) states that, comparing information gained from different sources can make some check on validity. The mixed methodological approach utilising both quantitative and qualitative methods to obtain the required depth of analysis has maximised the validity of the inferences drawn from the data.

Establishing validity is particularly important in this study because this research also utilised a single item measure on the questionnaire to detect if commitment levels had been altered by organisational change. The regression analysis however, confirmed that the majority of the variance extracted was explained by the change variables, which utilised the single item approach. The level of congruency obtained from the questionnaire and interview data was also established. This showed that on the whole participants’ responses were generally consistent, although there was some evidence of disparity amongst some employees (namely staff at case study three). This is largely attributed to the complex nature of the topic and general methodological implications surrounding questionnaires (namely that they are geared to collecting objective data).

9.10.3 Memory error

A related issue of self report data is that of memory error, in particular, recall loss. This issue discussed by Moser and Kalton (1992) recognises the problems caused to research by individuals whom, for whatever reason, are unable to recall the events being investigated. In an attempt to make some comparability between the case studies, organisations, which had implemented a broad, yet similar, set of changes were selected. However, it is noted that the case studies did not undergo these changes at the same time and employees were therefore asked to recall their experiences of the changes under examination.
The combined approach to data collection sought to combat the problems associated with that of memory error. In particular, it was explained to employees prior to completing the questionnaire that if they were unsure how to respond, they should indicate that they “do not know”. They were also informed that some of them would be selected and invited to participate in a follow up interview. These measures, it was hoped, would encourage individuals to respond to the questions honestly, such that the information being collated is representative of their recollection of events.

9.10.4 Sampling

Collection of the questionnaire data at the three case studies would have ideally been undertaken using identical sampling techniques, namely that of the stratified sample utilised at case studies one and two. However, as documented in chapter five, this was not possible due to management constraints at Airco. Therefore a census was used at case study three. Commenting on the access and resources necessary for conducting research in organisations, Bryman (1988) notes that these are powerful determinants of both the choice of theoretical problem and also the methods used to study it. In retrospect, the imbalance in the way that the sample sizes were constructed does not appear to have impacted on the reliability of the data collected. For example; BOCS maintained a consistently high alpha (over 0.7 on the nine item scale) in each of the three case studies.

9.11 Areas for further research

Many of the considerations for additional study have been identified in the above sections, since they follow on naturally from the areas discussed. These are summarised below, together with other recommendations for continued research in the area of commitment which have emerged from the concluding discussions.
Firstly, the paradox of commitment. An important contribution to the literature is that the study shows the commitment construct is both stable yet changeable (see section 9.8.2). This is perplexing and needs further consideration, not least because these findings are in part contrary to the understanding of commitment portrayed in the literature, but because confidence about research findings are "...bolstered with replications..." (Schmitt and Klimoski;1991;33). In particular, further research is needed to find out about the period of time taken for some employees' commitment to return to this state of normality after experience of organisational changes.

To obtain a representative measure of the impact of change on employee commitment over time, each change needs to be measured individually and a time series design is proposed. Whilst this approach would be most suited to action research, it would undoubtedly be difficult for organisations to commit to such rigorous methodological requirements. Yet, with the assistance of HRM strategists, panel studies could be set up to assess the dynamics of commitment over time. Panel studies are recommended over traditional before and after designs because they minimise the interactive testing effect, i.e. when individuals' react to knowledge of the measure. However, this approach does have practical problems, so it would not be simple for a researcher to carry out without considerable organisational support.

9.11.1 Process of change

Future case study based research distinguishing between organisations on the basis of Chin and Benne's (1985) framework and/or other approaches in the change literature would be a particularly fruitful area if conducted over time. However, it would also be problematic since organisations rarely use one strategy for long periods (Guest;1984). Further studies however should attempt to account for this by evaluating the process of change at the various stages of data collection. This would provide useful indicators to managers about how change strategies contribute to formulating commitment levels after change over periods of time.
It is also noted that the process of change was treated as an independent variable in this research and used to predict commitment. However, the extent to which employees are committed to an organisation may determine their perception of the strategy used by it to bring about change. In other words, employee perception of the process of change may be affected by prior commitment. Thus, the change strategy may not be independent of commitment, but rather a part of it. Further studies using a panel design should seek to measure this when testing commitment over long periods.

9.11.2 Quantitative methods for assessing employee commitment after organisational change

 Whilst chapter four identified that established instruments measuring attitudinal commitment (like BOCS, ACS and OCQ) provide reliable, objective measures of the construct, these are not geared to capturing the inner most feelings of employees who have experienced organisational change. This issue is a methodological one concerned with the shortcomings of relying solely on quantitative data for attitudinal research. In this study, a combined quantitative and qualitative methodological approach was adopted, and this is further advocated in subsequent research. This will also allow any inconsistencies within employees' accounts to be identified and pursued. This is important in order to secure the validity of research in the area of commitment since it relies on self-report data.

9.11.3 Use of the BOCS in further commitment based research

 BOCS has been shown to be a multi-dimensional scale in some research studies (i.e. Peccei and Guest; 1993 and Fenton-O’Creery et al; 1997) and a bi-dimensional measure in this investigation. It is recommended that researchers in the future who use BOCS, should administer BOCS9 and forewarn respondents of the presence of negatively worded items, then assess the reliability and dimensionality of the scale. This needs to be undertaken as a matter of caution, prior to using BOCS as a dependent variable.
9.12 *Implications for commitment models*

It is difficult to study the area of employee commitment to the organisation in isolation without making reference to other types of work and also non-work orientated commitments which employees engage in. In this research these other commitments (for example, commitment to union, career and family) highlighted as important to individuals, assist with providing a basis for explanation as to why employees remain with their organisation after change. This is reflected in the typology, where it is evident that one explanation proposed for stable commitment after change is that individuals are committed to their place of work for reasons external to the organisation (for example; their domestic set up).

The qualitative research also drew extensively from individuals’ work related experiences and employees’ regularly referred to elements exemplified in other types of commitment theory when discussing their sense of attitudinal commitment towards the organisation after change. These inadvertent references are reflected in the range of commitment models and are indicative of the multi-component approach described as the most contemporary perspective of commitment within the literature (Iles et al;1996, Jaros;1997, Meyer and Allen; 1997). In particular, the qualitative research in this study found that these various conceptualisations do play a large part in retaining the individual with his/her employing organisation at various points after organisational changes have been introduced.

In light of this evidence, the unitary frame of reference which has governed organisational commitment previously (see chapter two) should be abandoned since it is unrealistic to presuppose that employees are unlikely to embark on or have more than one commitment in or outside of work. Rather, individuals have many related but separate interests and it is becoming more accepted that there is existence of “rival sources” (Fox;1966;4) amongst the commitments made (Coopey and Hartley (1991; Iles et al;1990, Iles et al;1996, Meyer and Allen;1997, Reichers;1985). In this sense, the organisation is viewed as a “plural society” (Fox;1966;4) and commitment after change should be viewed as a pluralist
construct. Thus, it should be researched and measured in the future by way of a multi-dimensional approach. This is a relatively new understanding of commitment and takes the basic three component framework proposed by Meyer and Allen (1997).

This study has brought to the fore the issue that individuals' live in a multiple-commitment world and, "...it must be shown that examining commitment to various constituencies and domains refines our understanding of work related behaviour" (Meyer and Allen; 1997;98). The net sum of an individual's commitment after change is likely to reflect each of the three psychological states (affective, normative, calculative) previously identified as the main approaches to understanding organisational commitment (see chapter two). The evidence resulting from this study indicates that conceptually the three key components of commitment need considering in light of organisational change. This makes commitment considerably more complex than first thought. Commitment should not therefore be considered as a set of interdependent constructs, but rather a multi-dimensional approach to viewing employees' attachment to the organisation. This is necessary if it is to have any value theoretically and practically since an employee's working life is likely to reflect varying degrees of each construct, thus binding them to their organisations for different reasons at different times.. Despite overwhelming evidence in the literature which suggests that attitudinal commitment is ultimately what employers want, these other commitments do assist in shedding light on the subject of commitment after change. Hence they need to be incorporated into further studies in this area.

Further valuable research will embrace the three component conceptualisation, thereby seeking to establish how organisational changes have impacted on the various conceptualisations. This will be achieved in part by employing measures such as the NCS and CCS presented by Allen and Meyer (1990) and ideally followed up with qualitative discussions with employees.
9.13 Implications for management

There are some key considerations for management derived from the conclusions drawn. First and foremost, it is clear that policy makers and line management need to be aware of the importance and benefits of high levels of attitudinal commitment. They also need to be mindful that organisational changes such as those investigated in this study can alter affective commitment. If they do not pay attention to levels of employees’ psychological attachment in light of change, they run the risk of reducing genuine commitment towards the organisation from the workforce.

In particular, managers need to be aware of the issues that are correlated with commitment after change, for example, organisational dependability, job security, job enrichment, role ambiguity and formalised work environment. Taking organisational dependability, some groups within the organisation consider themselves more vulnerable and hence more dependent on the organisation than others. This applies mainly to shopfloor workers and those semi-skilled individuals with few employment alternatives. It is important for these individuals to consider that they can depend on the organisation after change for continued employment. Hence changes that are brought about which are not job threatening need to be communicated as such, otherwise management run the risk of creating an uncertain environment which can have unnecessary detrimental effects on commitment. This also provides signposts to management to consider the most effective ways of communicating such information and may encourage some re-evaluation of methods currently in place. The issue of organisational dependability is a fundamental part of the employee/employer relationship. The extent to which employees consider the organisation looks after their interests is a priority. To a certain extent, this can be manipulated and controlled by management during and after periods of change. If senior organisational members can create policies to bring about change without damaging organisational dependability then commitment is likely to be maintained or in some cases enhanced.
A related aspect of organisational dependability is job security. In particular, employers who are successful at implementing changes for the good of the organisation, whilst enhancing employee perceptions of work availability, are likely to see increased commitment after change. This applies particularly to shopfloor workers or those semi skilled employees who have few perceived alternatives. It also suggests that skilled labour want long tenure. Thus, where possible, some reassurance that employment is secured after change (when it is) is necessary for such employees and hence worthwhile to employers given that it is positively correlated with commitment levels. However, in instances where change affects the employment contract of individuals, as in the case of redundancy, employers may see a decline in commitment from survivors.

On the issue of role ambiguity and job enrichment, inevitably, some changed circumstances within the organisation will require modifications to employee roles, duties and responsibilities. The task of line management is to set out clearly what these will be and what they mean for the employee and his/her job. Employers also need to be aware that commitment can be heightened by providing individuals with scope for independent thought and participation in decision making. This should be encouraged where it complements change.

Additionally, given that employees' commitment is positively related to the formalised work environment, managers are encouraged to provide guidance by way of clear policies, rules and regulations. This provides a framework for employees to work within and therefore reduces role ambiguity.

Commitment is a reciprocal process and individuals who perceive that their employing organisation is concerned about them after change are more likely to respond with high attitudinal commitment. Where organisations can show that they value their employees by making changes which require investment (for example, new technology) they should expect to see enhanced commitment amongst the workforce. Moreover, where employees regard a change as necessary, they are more likely to react positively to it. Management should therefore highlight current problems and identify how they anticipate these will be overcome by making essential changes and outlining the potential benefits for the
organisation. These should be reassuring yet realistic since commitment is also related to employee expectations and will decline if these are not met. Implementing change therefore requires effective communication procedures. Where strategies for change used by management are perceived by employees as problematic or inconsistent with the dominant strategy or cultural norm of the organisation, employers should be aware that calculative commitment might become the key determinant by which employees remain. Moreover, following situations where change has negatively impacted on employees' perception of organisational dependability and where the job market is favourable for individuals, employers should expect to see an increase in staff turnover, with employees taking the decision to leave. Under these circumstances the evidence is clear; employees will be more inclined to pursue posts with other organisations if they are discontented with their current organisation after change.

BOCS provides an objective and valuable measure of commitment. However, it does not delve into the more substantive issues in the topic area of commitment after change. Commitment scales should be periodically administered to track commitment over time and complemented by subjective methods based on managerial insights such as management by walking about. This would provide a balanced rather than ad hoc approach to evaluating commitment after change if conducted properly. This in turn will permit the effective management of commitment after change that might not otherwise be provided by less formal approaches to evaluation.

Whilst it is line management who takes immediate responsibility for implementing methods of best practice, it is top management who are ultimately responsible for creating an organisational culture which is commitment orientated. It is therefore the role of these senior executives to ensure that key individuals placed within the organisation are aware of the importance and are capable of engendering commitment after change amongst workers. These senior members will need to think through the changes and what these mean for the future of the organisation and employees if they are to safeguard commitment.
Finally, it is evident that there is a challenge for organisations to ensure attitudinal commitment in light of the changing nature of work. In this study, as in others, (see Baruch;1998, Hallier and Lyon, 1996a, Patch et al;1992 and Rajan;1996) organisational changes have been shown to change the implicit parts of the employee/employer relationship. However, commitment can be enhanced if management pay attention to the factors identified and discussed above. Employers who fail to follow a commitment centred approach to managing the workforce and do not consider the implications of change on employees can not expect to maintain commitment thereafter, and are likely to suffer by loosing the future goodwill or retention of employees.
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Appendix 3 : NATIONAL QUESTIONNAIRE

Questionnaire 1 : Assessing the importance of commitment in UK organisations

Target audience : 300 human resource managers nation-wide

Section 1 General Details

Please indicate your answer by circling one number in the left hand margin.

Q1 Please indicate in which industry your organisation is located?

Private Sector Industries
1 Manufacturing
2 Financial Services
3 Retailing
4 Other

Public Sector Industries
5 Local Government
6 Central Government
7 Health
8 Education
9 Other

Q2 Approximately, how many people does your organisation employ?

1 1 - 249
2 250 - 499
3 500 - 999
4 1000 - 4999
5 5000 - 9999
6 10,000+
7 Do not know

Q3 In which department do you work?

1 Human Resource Management/Personnel
2 Development and Training
3 Other (please specify)
Section 2  Organisational Views of Employee Commitment

Q4  For question 4 only, please rank on the left hand side next to each sentence in order of importance, which statement most likely reflects your organisation's view of employee commitment:

1 = most important

☐ Individuals who are loyal to and wish to remain with their organisation
☐ Individuals who exert effort to enable the organisation to accomplish its goals and values
☐ Individuals who see the organisation as their best bet and wish to stay
☐ Individuals who identify with the goals and values of the organisation
☐ Other (please specify and rank)

For the remainder of section 2, please circle the number in the left hand margin relating to the statement nearest to the view held by your organisation. Please ensure you circle one choice only except when indicated otherwise.

Q5  Your organisation views employee commitment as:

1   Its most important issue
2   A very important issue
3   Important
4   Not very important
5   Unimportant
6   Do not know

Q6  The responsibility for implementing and maintaining employee commitment within your organisation currently lies with:

1   Senior management
2   Middle management
3   Line management
4   All management to a certain extent
5   Personnel/human resource departments
6   Staff
7   Management and staff alike
8   Do not know
9   Other (please specify)
Q7 For question 7 only, please rank on the left hand side, in order of importance, from the list below, policies and practices which your organisation currently utilises to encourage employee commitment: (please rank more than one answer if required)

1= the most important

- Share ownership schemes
- Pay settlements
- Job rotation
- Continuous improvement schemes
- Training and development
- Bonuses
- An emphasis on team building
- Team meetings
- Management by walking around
- A non compulsory redundancy policy
- Performance related payments
- Flexible working hours
- Do not know
- Other (please specify and rank)

Q8 A possible disadvantage of having committed employees may be that:
(please circle more than one answer if required)

1. It is difficult to make them redundant
2. The costs involved in maintaining committed employees
3. They may be resistant to organisational change
4. There are no disadvantages to having committed employees
5. Do not know
6. Other (please specify)

Q9 For question 9 only, please rank on the left hand side, in order of importance from the list below, any of the formal mechanisms used by your organisation to specifically measure employee commitment: (please rank more than one answer if required)

- Anonymous questionnaires
- Questionnaires
- Management by walking around
- Regular group meetings between management and employees
- Meetings with individual staff members
- Appraisal
- Examining employee performance levels
- Examining individual output
- Examining absenteeism levels
- Examining labour turnover
- Do not know
- My organisation does not specifically measure employee commitment levels
- Other (please specify and rank)
Section 3 Your Personal Views of Employee Commitment

Please circle the number in the left hand margin relating to the statement nearest to your own personal view. Please ensure you circle one choice only except when indicated otherwise.

Q10 Employees in your organisation view employee commitment as:

1. The most important part of their employment with the organisation
2. A very important part of their employment
3. Important
4. Not very important
5. Unimportant
6. Do not know

Q11 In your opinion, the responsibility for implementing and maintaining employee commitment within your organisation should lie with:

1. Senior management
2. Middle management
3. Line management
4. All management to a certain extent
5. Personnel/human resource departments
6. Staff
7. Management and staff alike
8. Do not know
9. Other (please specify)

Q12 Implementing and maintaining employee commitment is:

1. One of your key management tasks
2. One of your many responsibilities
3. Not really your responsibility
4. Not something you concern yourself with
5. Undecided
6. Other (please specify)
Q13 For question 13 only, please indicate from the list below (by circling the appropriate number answer) what changes (if any) have occurred in your organisation (over the past five years) and how they have affected the levels of employee commitment:

13.1 **Organisational restructuring**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Has not occurred</th>
<th>Do not know</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Has occurred* and as a result of organisational restructuring, employee commitment has:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Considerably increased</th>
<th>Increased</th>
<th>Remained</th>
<th>Declined</th>
<th>Considerably Declined</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>7</td>
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</tbody>
</table>

13.2 **Redundancies**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Have not occurred</th>
<th>Do not know</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Have occurred* and as a result of redundancies, employee commitment has:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Considerably increased</th>
<th>Increased</th>
<th>Remained</th>
<th>Declined</th>
<th>Considerably Declined</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

13.3 **Level of payment settlements**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Has not occurred</th>
<th>Do not know</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Has occurred* and as a result of payment increases, employee commitment has:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Considerably increased</th>
<th>Increased</th>
<th>Remained</th>
<th>Declined</th>
<th>Considerably Declined</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

13.4 **Culture change**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Has not occurred</th>
<th>Do not know</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Has occurred* and as a result of culture change, employee commitment has:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Considerably increased</th>
<th>Increased</th>
<th>Remained</th>
<th>Declined</th>
<th>Considerably Declined</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

13.5 **Technological change**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Has not occurred</th>
<th>Do not know</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Has occurred* and as a result of technological change, employee commitment has:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Considerably increased</th>
<th>Increased</th>
<th>Remained</th>
<th>Declined</th>
<th>Considerably Declined</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

13.6 **Any other changes** (please specify)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Has occurred, and as a result of this change, employee commitment has:</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Considerably increased</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Q14  For question 14 only, please rank on the left hand side, in order of importance from the list below, the best method(s) of specifically measuring employee commitment in your organisation: (please rank more than one answer if required)

1= most important

☐ Anonymous questionnaires
☐ Questionnaires
☐ Management by walking around
☐ Regular group meetings between management and employees
☐ Meetings with individual staff members
☐ Appraisal
☐ Examining employee performance levels
☐ Examining individual output
☐ Examining absenteeism levels
☐ Examining labour turnover
☐ Do not know
☐ Other (please specify and rank)

Q15  A committed employee can best be distinguished from a non committed employee by his/her: (please circle up to five answers only)

1  Attitude
2  Length of service
3  Amount of extra unpaid hours work
4  Amount of paid hours overtime
5  Promotion seeking within the organisation
6  Employment seeking outside the organisation
7  Demonstration of job satisfaction
8  Attendance record
9  General behaviour
10  Do not know
11  Other attitudes and behaviours (please specify)

Q16  Employees committed to a changing organisation are more valuable than employees who are committed to long tenure:

1  I strongly agree with this statement
2  I agree with this statement
3  I neither agree nor disagree with this statement
4  I disagree with this statement
5  I strongly disagree with this statement
6  Do not know

Q17  An employee who does not identify with organisational goals and values can nevertheless still be a committed employee:

1  I strongly agree with this statement
2  I agree with this statement
3  I neither agree nor disagree with this statement
4  I disagree with this statement
5  I strongly disagree with this statement
6  Do not know
Q18 Individuals who are not committed to the organisation can nevertheless benefit it:
1 I strongly agree with this statement
2 I agree with this statement
3 I neither agree nor disagree with this statement
4 I disagree with this statement
5 I strongly disagree with this statement
6 Do not know

Q19 Your organisation accepts that committed employees sometimes express a range of opinions contrary to organisational thinking and that this can be helpful in decision making.
1 I strongly agree with this statement
2 I agree with this statement
3 I neither agree nor disagree with this statement
4 I disagree with this statement
5 I strongly disagree with this statement
6 Do not know

Q20 This space is available for you to add any additional points you would like to make on the subject of employee commitment.

_________________________________________________________________
_________________________________________________________________
_________________________________________________________________
_________________________________________________________________
_________________________________________________________________
_________________________________________________________________

Thank you for your time and co-operation. Please return by using the enclosed FREEPOST envelope.
Appendix 4: THE ORGANISATIONAL COMMITMENT QUESTIONNAIRE (OCQ)¹

1 I am willing to put in a great deal of effort beyond that normally expected in order to help this organisation be successful
2 I talk up this organisation to my friends as a great organisation to work for
3 I feel very little loyalty to this organisation (R)
4 I would accept almost any type of job assignment in order to keep working for this organisation
5 I find that my values and the organisation's values are very similar
6 I am proud to tell others that I am part of this organisation
7 I could just as well be working for a different organisation as long as the type of work were similar (R)
8 This organisation really inspires the very best in me in the way of job performance
9 It would take very little change in my present circumstances to cause me to leave this organisation
10 I am extremely glad that I chose this organisation to work for over others I was considering at the time I joined
11 There’s not too much to be gained by sticking with this organisation indefinitely (R)
12 Often, I find it difficult to agree with this organisation’s policies on important matters relating to its employees (R)
13 I really care about the fate of this organisation
14 For me this is the best of all possible organisations for which to work
15 Deciding to work for this organisation was a definite mistake on my part (R)

Responses to each item are measured on a 7-point scale, (1) strongly disagree; (2) moderately disagree; (3) slightly disagree; (4) neither disagree nor agree; (5) slightly agree; (6) moderately agree; (7) strongly agree. An R denotes a negatively phrased and reversed scored item

Appendix 5: THE BRITISH ORGANISATIONAL COMMITMENT SCALE (BOCS)

1. I am quite proud to be able to tell people that I work for (company name).
2. I sometimes feel like leaving this employment for good.
3. I'm not willing to put myself out just to help the organisation.
4. Even if (company name) were not doing too well financially, I would be reluctant to change to another employer.
5. I feel myself to be a part of (company name).
6. In my work I like to feel that I am making some effort not just for myself, but for the organisation as well.
7. The offer of a bit more money with another employer would not seriously make me think of changing my job.
8. I would not recommend a close friend to join our staff.
9. To know that my own work had made a contribution to the good of the organisation would please me.

Responses to each item are measured on a 7-point scale, (1) strongly disagree; (2) moderately disagree; (3) slightly disagree; (4) neither disagree nor agree; (5) slightly agree; (6) moderately agree; (7) strongly agree. An R denotes a negatively phrased and reversed scored item.

---

Appendix 6: AFFECTIVE COMMITMENT SCALE (ACS)

1. I do not feel a strong sense of belonging to my organisation (R)
2. I do not feel “emotionally attached” to this organisation (R)
3. This organisation has a great deal of personal meaning for me
4. I do not feel like “part of the family” at this organisation (R)
5. I would be very happy to spend the rest of my career with this organisation
6. I enjoy discussing my organisation with people outside it
7. I really feel as if this organisation’s problems are my own
8. I think I could easily become as attached to another organisation as I am to this one (R).

Responses to each item are measured on a 7-point scale, (1) strongly disagree; (2) moderately disagree; (3) slightly disagree; (4) neither disagree nor agree; (5) slightly agree; (6) moderately agree; (7) strongly agree. An R denotes a negatively phrased and reversed scored item.

Appendix 7 : SAMPLE COMPANY NOTICE

(Company headed note paper)

Company Notice

This is to introduce Jeryl Shepherd, a research student who has been commissioned by the University of Luton to conduct some research at (company name) on employee commitment. She would like to undertake a series of questionnaires and interviews with some (company name) employees. This research is an important part of Jeryl’s PhD.

The questionnaire she will be conducting will ask questions about how committed you feel towards (company name), what changes you have experienced and how these have shaped your view towards (company name).

Whist we actively support this research, the University of Luton has guaranteed that your individual responses will not be disclosed to other members of (company name) or (union names). However, a general synopsis of the outcomes will be provided at the end of the research period for everyone and we anticipate this to be useful for the future decisions of the company.

Jeryl will invite at random some of you to give your time, experiences and patience to her research during company time.

Finally, the University of Luton and Jeryl wish to express their gratitude for your assistance.

Signed: Personnel manager (or middle management representative) and shop floor manager

Union representatives
Appendix 8 : CASE STUDY ONE QUESTIONNAIRE

All sites (insert added)

Questionnaire No _______________________

For questions 1 - 11, please circle one number in the left hand margin to indicate the response most applicable to you.

Q1 Gender:

1 Male
2 Female

Q2 Marital status:

1 Single
2 Co-habitation
3 Married
4 Other

Q3 Are you the main bread winner in your household?

1 Yes
2 No

Q4 (Apart from yourself), how many other dependants on your income are there in your household?

1 None
2 One
3 Two
4 More than two

Q5 Employment Status:

1 Manager (with personnel responsibility)
2 Other manager
3 Staff
4 Skilled trade
5 Hourly paid

The University of Luton stresses the confidentiality of the answers you provide.
Q6  In which area do you work?
1 Production channels (i.e. Bearing and Roller factory production channels)
2 Maintenance (including tool maintenance)
3 Product and Process development (i.e. production engineering)
4 Quality
5 Other production service and support (including store keeping)
6 Marketing and sales
7 Technical sales and application engineering
8 Sales support (i.e. order handling, indoor sales)
9 Logistics/Purchasing
10 Administration (including finance, personnel, training, secretary etc.)
11 Other

Q7  Nature of Employment :
1 Full time
2 Part time

Q8  Employment Contract:
1 Permanent
2 Fixed Term
3 Other

Q9  Employment Hours:
1 Day shift
2 2 Shift
3 Night shift
4 Rolling 3 shift

Q10 Length of Service in years:
1 0 - 3 years
2 4 - 10 years
3 11 - 20 years
4 More than 20 years

Q11 Union Membership:
1 AEEU
2 GMB
3 Other
4 None

The University of Luton stresses the confidentiality of the answers you provide.
The British Organisational Commitment Questionnaire (BOCS)

Please circle one number for each of the statements below which best reflects how you feel about (company name):

For example: For question 12, if you are quite proud to tell people that you work for (company name) then you should circle one of the numbers between 5 and 7. If on the other hand, you are not proud to tell others you work for (company name), then you should indicate your answer by circling one of the lower numbers between 1 and 3.

Q12 I am quite proud to be able to tell people that I work for (company name).

strongly disagree 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 strongly agree

Q13 I sometimes feel like leaving this employment for good.

strongly disagree 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 strongly agree

Q14 I'm not willing to put myself out just to help the organisation.

strongly disagree 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 strongly agree

Q15 Even if (company name) were not doing too well financially, I would be reluctant to change to another employer.

strongly disagree 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 strongly agree

The University of Luton stresses the confidentiality of the answers you provide.

Q16  I feel myself to be a part of (company name).

strongly disagree 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 strongly agree

Q17  In my work I like to feel that I am making some effort not just for myself, but for the organisation as well.

strongly disagree 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 strongly agree

Q18  The offer of a bit more money with another employer would not seriously make me think of changing my job.

strongly disagree 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 strongly agree

Q19  I would not recommend a close friend to join our staff.

strongly disagree 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 strongly agree

Q20  To know that my own work had made a contribution to the good of the organisation would please me.

strongly disagree 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 strongly agree

The University of Luton stresses the confidentiality of the answers you provide.
For questions 21 - 24, please indicate your answer by **circling one number** for each of the statements below which best reflects how you feel about (company name):

**Q21** I am committed to (company name)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>strongly disagree</th>
<th>1</th>
<th>2</th>
<th>3</th>
<th>4</th>
<th>5</th>
<th>6</th>
<th>7</th>
<th>strongly agree</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>

**Q22** Most of my work colleagues are committed to (company name).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>strongly disagree</th>
<th>1</th>
<th>2</th>
<th>3</th>
<th>4</th>
<th>5</th>
<th>6</th>
<th>7</th>
<th>strongly agree</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>

**Q23** On the whole, I think (company name) has committed employees.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>strongly disagree</th>
<th>1</th>
<th>2</th>
<th>3</th>
<th>4</th>
<th>5</th>
<th>6</th>
<th>7</th>
<th>strongly agree</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>

**Q24** (company name) shows to its employees that it is committed to them.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>strongly disagree</th>
<th>1</th>
<th>2</th>
<th>3</th>
<th>4</th>
<th>5</th>
<th>6</th>
<th>7</th>
<th>strongly agree</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>

For questions 25 to 28 only, please circle the number in the left hand margin relating to the statement nearest to your own personal view. Please ensure you **circle one choice** only.

**Q25** (company name) views employee commitment as:

1. Its most important issue
2. A very important issue
3. Important
4. Not very important
5. Unimportant
6. Do not know

---

*The University of Luton stresses the confidentiality of the answers you provide.*
Q26 You view your commitment to (company name) as:
1. The most important part of your employment
2. Very important
3. Important
4. Not very important
5. Unimportant
6. Do not know

Q27 The responsibility for implementing and maintaining employee commitment within (company name) currently lies with:
1. Senior Management
2. Departmental Management
3. Immediate Supervisor
4. All management to a certain extent
5. Human resource department
6. Employees
7. Management and employees alike
8. Unions
9. Unions and management
10. Unions, management and employees
11. Nobody is currently responsible for implementing employee commitment at (company name)
12. Do not know
13. Other

Q28 In your opinion, the responsibility for implementing and maintaining employee commitment within your organisation should lie with:
1. Senior Management
2. Departmental Management
3. Immediate Supervisor
4. All management to a certain extent
5. Human resource department
6. Employees
7. Management and employees alike
8. Unions
9. Unions and management
10. Unions, management and employees
11. Nobody is currently responsible for implementing employee commitment at (company name)
12. Do not know
13. Other

The University of Luton stresses the confidentiality of the answers you provide.

Possible answers to Q27 and Q28 depending on site
### Production site

1. Production Management
2. Channel Management
3. Team Rep/Line leader
4. All management to a certain extent
5. Human resource department
6. Employees/Operators
7. Management and employees alike
8. Unions
9. Unions and management
10. Unions, management and employees
11. Nobody is currently responsible for implementing employee commitment at (company name)
12. Do not know
13. Other

### Clerical and administration sites

1. Senior Management
2. Departmental Management
3. Immediate Supervisor
4. All management to a certain extent
5. Human resource department
6. Employees
7. Management and employees alike
8. Unions
9. Unions and management
10. Unions, management and employees
11. Nobody is currently responsible for implementing employee commitment at (company name)
12. Do not know
13. Other

The University of Luton stresses the confidentiality of the answers you provide.
Q29 From the list below, please indicate which of the following is likely to improve your commitment to your organisation: (please circle up to six answers if required)

1. Improved working conditions
2. Reduced work load
3. Increased work load
4. Increased responsibility
5. Reduced responsibility
6. Promotion and development opportunities
7. Increased job security
8. Flexible working hours
9. Shorter working week
10. Improved relations between management and unions
11. Improved relations between management and employees
12. More participation in decision making
13. None of the above

Q30 Committed employees at (company name) can best be distinguished from non-committed employees by their: (please circle up to five answers if required)

1. Overall attitude towards the company
2. Length of service
3. Amount of extra unpaid hours work
4. Amount of paid hours overtime
5. Willingness to take on additional responsibilities
6. High work load
7. Demonstration of job satisfaction
8. Promotion seeking within the company
9. Employment seeking outside the company
10. Attendance record
11. General behaviour at work
12. Willingness to change with the organisation
13. Do not know

The University of Luton stresses the confidentiality of the answers you provide.
For questions 31 - 38, please indicate how the following changes at (company name) has influenced your commitment. Please indicate your answer to each question by circling one of the numbers in the left hand margin.

There are two parts to each question. If you indicate your answer in part 1 to be either

1. Not experienced or
2. Do not know

then you do not need to circle an answer in the second part of the question. If on the other hand, you have experienced the change, please circle a number between 3 and 7 to indicate how this change has affected your commitment to the company.

For example: For question 31, if you have not experienced organisational restructuring circle 1, or if you do not know then circle 2.

If you have experienced organisational restructuring circle a number between 3 and 7 to indicate how this change has affected your commitment to (company name)

**Q31 Organisational restructuring**

Part 1
1. Not experienced
2. Do not know

Part 2 As a result of restructuring at (case study one), my commitment has:

3. Considerably increased
4. Increased slightly
5. Remained constant
6. Declined slightly
7. Considerably declined

**Q32 Redundancies in the organisation**

Part 1
1. Not experienced
2. Do not know

Part 2 As a result of redundancies at (case study one) my commitment has:

3. Considerably increased
4. Increased slightly
5. Remained constant
6. Declined slightly
7. Considerably declined

The University of Luton stresses the confidentiality of the answers you provide.
Q33 **Level of payment settlements/awards**

Part 1
1. Not experienced
2. Do not know

Part 2 As a result of payment settlements/awards my commitment has:
3. Considerably increased
4. Increased slightly
5. Remained constant
6. Declined slightly
7. Considerably declined

Q34 **Technological change**

Part 1
1. Not experienced
2. Do not know

Part 2 As a result of technological change, my commitment has:
3. Considerably increased
4. Increased slightly
5. Remained constant
6. Declined slightly
7. Considerably declined

Q35 **TQA 2 day workshops**

Part 1
1. Not experienced
2. Do not know

Part 2 As a result of the Total Quality Advantage Workshops my commitment has:
3. Considerably increased
4. Increased slightly
5. Remained constant
6. Declined slightly
7. Considerably declined

The University of Luton stresses the confidentiality of the answers you provide.
Q36  **Your job re-organisation**

Part 1
1  Not experienced
2  Do not know

Part 2  As a result of my job re-organisation my commitment has:

3  Considerably increased
4  Increased slightly
5  Remained constant
6  Declined slightly
7  Considerably declined

Q37  **Channelling**

Part 1
1  Not experienced
2  Do not know

Part 2  As a result of channelling my commitment has:

3  Considerably increased
4  Increased slightly
5  Remained constant
6  Declined slightly
7  Considerably declined

Thank you for your time and co-operation. The University of Luton stresses the anonymity and confidentiality of the answers you provide. Please use the enclosed envelope to put your completed questionnaire in, and post in the wooden box on your way out.
Appendix 9: CASE STUDY TWO QUESTIONNAIRE

Questionnaire No ____________________

Section 1

For questions 1 - 11, please circle one number in the left hand margin to indicate the response most applicable to you.

Q1 Gender:
1 Male
2 Female

Q2 Marital status:
1 Single
2 Co-habitation
3 Married
4 Other

Q3 Are you the main bread winner in your household?
1 Yes
2 No

Q4 (Apart from yourself), how many other dependants on your income are there?
1 None
2 One
3 Two
4 More than two

Q5 Employment Status:
1 Manager (with personnel responsibility)
2 Other manager
3 Staff
4 Team member

The University of Luton stresses the confidentiality of the answers you provide.
Q6  Which is the ONE main area that you work in?

1  Production (team member)
2  Maintenance
3  Manufacturing engineering
4  Quality
5  Other production service and support (including store keeping)
6  Marketing and sales
7  Technical sales and application engineering
8  Purchasing
9  Materials Management/Logistics
10  Administration (including finance, personnel, training, secretary etc.)
11  Other

Q7  Nature of Employment:

1  Full time
2  Part time

Q8  Employment Contract:

1  Permanent
2  Fixed Term
3  Other

Q9  Employment Hours:

1  Day shift
2  2 Shift

Q10  Length of Service in years:

1  0 - 3 years
2  4 - 10 years
3  11 - 20 years
4  More than 20 years

Q11  Union Membership:

1  AEEU
2  Other
3  None

The University of Luton stresses the confidentiality of the answers you provide.
Section 2

The British Organisational Commitment Scale (BOCS)

Please circle one number for each of the statements below which best reflects how you feel about (company name):

For example: For question 12, if you are quite proud to tell people that you work for (company name) then you should circle one of the numbers between 5 and 7. If on the other hand, you are not proud to tell others you work for (company name), then you should indicate your answer by circling one of the lower numbers between 1 and 3.

Q12 I am quite proud to be able to tell people that I work for (company name).

strongly disagree 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 strongly agree

Q13 I sometimes feel like leaving this employment for good.

strongly disagree 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 strongly agree

Q14 I'm not willing to put myself out just to help the organisation.

strongly disagree 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 strongly agree

Q15 Even if (company name) were not doing too well financially, I would be reluctant to change to another employer.

strongly disagree 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 strongly agree

The University of Luton stresses the confidentiality of the answers you provide.

Q16 I feel myself to be a part of (company name).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Strongly disagree</th>
<th>1</th>
<th>2</th>
<th>3</th>
<th>4</th>
<th>5</th>
<th>6</th>
<th>7</th>
<th>Strongly agree</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>

Q17 In my work I like to feel that I am making some effort not just for myself, but for the organisation as well.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Strongly disagree</th>
<th>1</th>
<th>2</th>
<th>3</th>
<th>4</th>
<th>5</th>
<th>6</th>
<th>7</th>
<th>Strongly agree</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>

Q18 The offer of a bit more money with another employer would not seriously make me think of changing my job.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Strongly disagree</th>
<th>1</th>
<th>2</th>
<th>3</th>
<th>4</th>
<th>5</th>
<th>6</th>
<th>7</th>
<th>Strongly agree</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>

Q19 I would not recommend a close friend to join our staff.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Strongly disagree</th>
<th>1</th>
<th>2</th>
<th>3</th>
<th>4</th>
<th>5</th>
<th>6</th>
<th>7</th>
<th>Strongly agree</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>

Q20 To know that my own work had made a contribution to the good of the organisation would please me.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Strongly disagree</th>
<th>1</th>
<th>2</th>
<th>3</th>
<th>4</th>
<th>5</th>
<th>6</th>
<th>7</th>
<th>Strongly agree</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>

The University of Luton stresses the confidentiality of the answers you provide.
Section 3

For questions 21 - 24, please indicate your answer by circling one number for each of the statements below which best reflects how you feel about (company name)

Q21 I am committed to (company name).

strongly disagree 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 strongly agree

Q22 Most of my work colleagues are committed to (company name).

strongly disagree 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 strongly agree

Q23 On the whole, I think (company name) has committed employees.

strongly disagree 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 strongly agree

Q24 (Company name) shows to its employees that it is committed to them.

strongly disagree 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 strongly agree

For questions 25 to 28 only, please circle the number in the left hand margin relating to the statement nearest to your own personal view. Please ensure you circle one choice only.

Q25 (company name) views employee commitment as:

1 Its most important issue
2 A very important issue
3 Important
4 Not very important
5 Unimportant
6 Do not know

The University of Luton stresses the confidentiality of the answers you provide.
Q26  You view your commitment to (company name) as:
1  The most important part of your employment
2  Very important
3  Important
4  Not very important
5  Unimportant
6  Do not know

Q27  The main responsibility for implementing and maintaining employee commitment within (company name) currently lies with: (Please circle one choice only)
1  Production management
2  Team leader
3  Cell leader
4  All management to a certain extent
5  Personnel
6  Employees/Operators
7  Management and employees alike
8  Unions
9  Unions and management
10 Unions, management and employees
11 Nobody is currently responsible for implementing employee commitment at (company name)
12 Do not know
13 Other

Q28  In your opinion, the main responsibility for implementing and maintaining employee commitment within your organisation should lie with: (Please circle one choice only)
1  Production management
2  Team leader
3  Cell leader
4  All management to a certain extent
5  Personnel
6  Employees/Operators
7  Management and employees alike
8  Unions
9  Unions and management
10 Unions, management and employees
11 Nobody should be responsible for implementing employee commitment at (company name)
12 Do not know
13 Other

The University of Luton stresses the confidentiality of the answers you provide.
Q29  From the list below, please indicate which of the following is likely to improve your commitment to (company name): (Please circle up to six answers if required)

1. Improved working conditions
2. Reduced work load
3. Increased work load
4. Increased responsibility
5. Reduced responsibility
6. Promotion and development opportunities
7. Increased job security
8. Flexible working hours
9. Shorter working week
10. Improved relations between management and unions
11. Improved relations between management and employees
12. More participation in decision making
13. None of the above

Q30  Committed employees at (company name) can best be distinguished from non committed employees by their: (please circle up to five answers if required)

1. Overall attitude towards the company
2. Length of service
3. Amount of extra unpaid hours work
4. Amount of paid hours overtime
5. Willingness to take on additional responsibilities
6. High work load
7. Demonstration of job satisfaction
8. Promotion seeking within the company
9. Employment seeking outside the company
10. Attendance record
11. General behaviour at work
12. Willingness to change with the organisation
13. Do not know

The University of Luton stresses the confidentiality of the answers you provide.
For questions 31 - 34 please indicate your answer by circling one number only for each the questions below, that best reflects how important you think (company name) regards:

Q31  Healthy profits:
1  Its most important issue
2  A very important issue
3  Important
4  Not very important
5  Unimportant
6  Do not know

Q32  Quality:
1  Its most important issue
2  A very important issue
3  Important
4  Not very important
5  Unimportant
6  Do not know

Q33  Productivity:
1  Its most important issue
2  A very important issue
3  Important
4  Not very important
5  Unimportant
6  Do not know

Q34  Ability to retain employees:
1  Its most important issue
2  A very important issue
3  Important
4  Not very important
5  Unimportant
6  Do not know

The University of Luton stresses the confidentiality of the answers you provide.
Section 4

This section asks questions about the changes that (company name) has implemented and the affects they have had on your commitment. Please indicate your answer by circling one number only in the left hand margin.

For example, for Q35a, if you have personally experienced organisational restructuring, you should circle the number 1 in the left hand margin, and move to Q35b to indicate how this has affected your commitment.

Q35a Have you experienced organisational restructuring? (Please circle one number only)

1  Personally experienced  (go to Q35b)
2  Seen it happen to others in (company name)  (go to Q35b)
3  Not seen it at (company name)  (go to Q36a)
4  Do not know  (go to Q36a)

Q35b As a result of organisational restructuring at (company name), has your commitment: (Please circle one number only)

1  Considerably increased
2  Increased slightly
3  Remained constant
4  Decreased slightly
5  Considerably decreased

Q36a Have you experienced the quarterly team briefings? (Please circle one number only)

1  Personally experienced  (go to Q36b)
2  Seen it happen to others in (company name)  (go to Q36b)
3  Not seen it at (company name)  (go to Q37a)
4  Do not know  (go to Q37a)

Q36b As a result of the quarterly team briefings, has your commitment: (Please circle one number only)

1  Considerably increased
2  Increased slightly
3  Remained constant
4  Decreased slightly
5  Considerably decreased

The University of Luton stresses the confidentiality of the answers you provide.
Q37a  Have you experienced any changes in the level of your payment settlements?
(Please circle one number only)

1  Personally experienced  (go to Q37b)
2  Seen it happen to others in (company name)  (go to Q37b)
3  Not seen it at (company name)  (go to Q38a)
4  Do not know  (go to Q38a)

Q37b  As a result of changed payment settlements, has your commitment:
(Please circle one number only)

1  Considerably increased
2  Increased slightly
3  Remained constant
4  Decreased slightly
5  Considerably decreased

Q38a  Have you experienced any technological changes whilst employed at (company name)?
(Please circle one number only)

1  Personally experienced  (go to Q38b)
2  Seen it happen to others in (company name)  (go to Q38b)
3  Not seen it at (company name)  (go to Q39a)
4  Do not know  (go to Q39a)

Q38b  As a result of technological change at (company name), has your commitment:
(Please circle one number only)

1  Considerably increased
2  Increased slightly
3  Remained constant
4  Decreased slightly
5  Considerably decreased

Q39a  Have you experienced the productivity workshops? (Please circle one number only)

1  Personally experienced  (go to Q39b)
2  Seen it happen to others in (company name)  (go to Q39b)
3  Not seen it at (company name)  (go to Q40a)
4  Do not know  (go to Q40a)

---

The University of Luton stresses the confidentiality of the answers you provide.
Q39b  As a result of the productivity workshops has your commitment:
(Please circle ONE number only)

1  Considerably increased
2  Increased slightly
3  Remained constant
4  Decreased slightly
5  Considerably decreased

Q40a  Since working at (company name) has your job been re-organised?
(Please circle ONE number only)

1  Personally experienced  (go to Q40b)
2  Seen it happen to others in (company name)  (go to Q40b)
3  Not seen it at (company name)  (go to Q41a)
4  Do not know  (go to Q41a)

Q40b  As a result of your job being re-organised, has your commitment:
(Please circle ONE number only)

1  Considerably increased
2  Increased slightly
3  Remained constant
4  Decreased slightly
5  Considerably decreased

Q41a  Have you experienced job rotation whilst employed at (company name)?
(Please circle ONE number only)

1  Personally experienced  (go to Q41b)
2  Seen it happen to others in (company name)  (go to Q41b)
3  Not seen it at (company name)  (go to Q42)
4  Do not know  (go to Q42)

Q41b  As a result of job rotation at (company name), has your commitment: (Please circle ONE number only)

1  Considerably increased
2  Increased slightly
3  Remained constant
4  Decreased slightly
5  Considerably decreased

The University of Luton stresses the confidentiality of the answers you provide.
Q42 Please indicate the ONE most important experience/change (positive or negative) that has affected your commitment to (company name)?

1. Organisational restructuring
2. Quarterly team briefings
3. Payment settlements
4. Technological change
5. Productivity workshops
6. Job re-organisation
7. Job rotation
8. Change in supervisor
9. Redundancies
10. Other please specify __________________

Q43 Did you: (please circle one choice only)

1. Personally experience this?
2. See it happen to others in (company name)?
3. Personally experience and see it happen to others?

Q44 As a result of this experience/change, your commitment has: (please circle one choice only)

1. Considerably increased
2. Increased slightly
3. Remained constant
4. Decreased slightly
5. Considerably decreased

Q45 Please indicate why your commitment has altered (or remained the same) as a result of this experience/change?

________________________________________________________________________
________________________________________________________________________
________________________________________________________________________
________________________________________________________________________
________________________________________________________________________

The University of Luton stresses the confidentiality of the answers you provide.
Section 5

For questions 46 - 49, please indicate your answer by **circling one number** for each of the statements below.

**Q46** (Company name) is well known within the local area:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>strongly disagree</th>
<th>1</th>
<th>2</th>
<th>3</th>
<th>4</th>
<th>5</th>
<th>6</th>
<th>7</th>
<th>strongly agree</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>

**Q47** The extent to which (company name) is well known within the local area is important to my commitment:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>strongly disagree</th>
<th>1</th>
<th>2</th>
<th>3</th>
<th>4</th>
<th>5</th>
<th>6</th>
<th>7</th>
<th>strongly agree</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>

**Q48** (Company name) is well known nationally:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>strongly disagree</th>
<th>1</th>
<th>2</th>
<th>3</th>
<th>4</th>
<th>5</th>
<th>6</th>
<th>7</th>
<th>strongly agree</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>

**Q49** The extent to which (company name) is well known nationally is important to my commitment:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>strongly disagree</th>
<th>1</th>
<th>2</th>
<th>3</th>
<th>4</th>
<th>5</th>
<th>6</th>
<th>7</th>
<th>strongly agree</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>

Thank you for your time and co-operation. The University of Luton stresses the confidentiality of the answers you provide. Please use the enclosed envelope to put your completed questionnaire in and post in the wooden box on your way out.
Appendix 10 : CASE STUDY THREE QUESTIONNAIRE

Questionnaire No

Section 1

For questions 1 - 10, please circle one number in the left hand margin to indicate the response most applicable to you.

Q1 Gender:

1 Male
2 Female

Q2 Marital status:

1 Single
2 Co-habitation
3 Married
4 Other

Q3 Are you the main bread winner in your household?

1 Yes
2 No

Q4 (Apart from yourself), how many other dependants on your income are there?

1 None
2 One
3 Two
4 More than two

Q5 Employment Status:

1 Manager (with staff responsibility)
2 Other manager
3 Office staff
4 Hangar/Workshop staff

The University of Luton stresses the confidentiality of the answers you provide.
Q6 Which is the ONE main area that you work in?
1. Maintenance
2. Quality
3. Other maintenance service and support (including store keeping)
4. Marketing and sales
5. Technical projects and design
6. Purchasing
7. Materials Management/Logistics
8. Administration (including finance, personnel, training, secretary etc.)
9. Other

Q7 Nature of Employment:
1. Full time
2. Part time

Q8 Employment Contract:
1. Permanent
2. Fixed Term
3. Other

Q9 Employment Hours:
1. Non shift
2. Shift

Q10 Length of Service in years:
1. 0 - 3 years
2. 4 - 10 years
3. 11 - 20 years
4. More than 20 years

The University of Luton stresses the confidentiality of the answers you provide.
Section 2

The British Organisational Commitment Scale (BOCS)

For questions 11 to 19, please circle one number for each of the statements below which best reflects how you feel about (company name):

For example: For question 11, if you are quite proud to tell people that you work for (company name) then you should circle one of the numbers between 5 and 7. If on the other hand, you are not proud to tell others you work for (company name), then you should indicate your answer by circling one of the lower numbers between 1 and 3.

Q11 I am quite proud to be able to tell people that I work for (company name).

strongly disagree 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 strongly agree

Q12 I sometimes feel like leaving this employment for good.

strongly disagree 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 strongly agree

Q13 I'm not willing to put myself out just to help the organisation.

strongly disagree 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 strongly agree

Q14 Even if (company name) were not doing too well financially, I would be reluctant to change to another employer.

strongly disagree 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 strongly agree

The University of Luton stresses the confidentiality of the answers you provide.

Q15  I feel myself to be a part of (company name).  

| strongly disagree | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | strongly agree |

Q16  In my work I like to feel that I am making some effort not just for myself, but for the organisation as well.  

| strongly disagree | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | strongly agree |

Q17  The offer of a bit more money with another employer would not seriously make me think of changing my job.  

| strongly disagree | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | strongly agree |

Q18  I would not recommend a close friend to join our staff.  

| strongly disagree | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | strongly agree |

Q19  To know that my own work had made a contribution to the good of the organisation would please me.  

| strongly disagree | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | strongly agree |

The University of Luton stresses the confidentiality of the answers you provide.
Section 3

For questions 20 to 23, please indicate your answer by circling one number for each of the statements below which best reflects how you feel about (company name).

Q20 I am committed to (company name).
   strongly disagree 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 strongly agree

Q21 Most of my work colleagues are committed to (company name).
   strongly disagree 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 strongly agree

Q22 On the whole, I think (company name) has committed employees.
   strongly disagree 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 strongly agree

Q23 (Company name) shows to its employees that it is committed to them.
   strongly disagree 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 strongly agree

For questions 24 to 27 only, please circle the number in the left hand margin relating to the statement nearest to your own personal view. Please ensure you circle one choice only.

Q24 (Company name) views employee commitment as:
1 Its most important issue
2 A very important issue
3 Important
4 Not very important
5 Unimportant
6 Do not know

The University of Luton stresses the confidentiality of the answers you provide.
Q25 You currently view your commitment to (company name) as:
1. The most important part of your employment
2. Very important
3. Important
4. Not very important
5. Unimportant
6. Do not know

Q26 The main responsibility for implementing and maintaining employee commitment within (company name) currently lies with: (Please circle one choice only)
1. Senior management
2. Immediate supervisor
3. All management to a certain extent
4. Personnel
5. Staff
6. Management and staff alike
7. Works committee
8. Works committee and management
9. Nobody is currently responsible for employee commitment at (company name)
10. Do not know
11. Other (please specify)

Q27 In your opinion, the main responsibility for implementing and maintaining employee commitment within (company name) should lie with: (Please circle one choice only)
1. Senior management
2. Immediate supervisor
3. All management to a certain extent
4. Personnel
5. Staff
6. Management and staff alike
7. Works committee
8. Works committee and management
9. Nobody should be responsible for employee commitment at (company name)
10. Do not know
11. Other (please specify)

The University of Luton stresses the confidentiality of the answers you provide.
Q28 From the list below, please indicate which of the following is likely to improve your commitment to (company name): (please circle up to six answers if required)

1 Improved working conditions/environment
2 Reduced work load
3 Increased work load
4 Increased responsibility
5 Reduced responsibility
6 Promotion and development opportunities
7 Increased job security
8 Flexible working hours
9 Shorter working week
10 Improved relations between management and works committee
11 Improved relations between management and staff
12 More participation in decision making
13 None of the above

Q29 Committed employees at (company name) can best be distinguished from non committed employees by their: (please circle up to five answers if required)

1 Overall attitude towards the company
2 Length of service
3 Amount of extra unpaid hours work
4 Amount of paid hours overtime
5 Willingness to take on additional responsibilities
6 High work load
7 Demonstration of job satisfaction
8 Promotion seeking within (company name)
9 Employment seeking outside the company
10 Attendance record
11 General behaviour at work
12 Willingness to change with the organisation
13 Do not know

The University of Luton stresses the confidentiality of the answers you provide.
For questions 30 - 34 please indicate your answer by **circling one number only** for each the questions below, that best reflects how important you think (company name) regards:

**Q30 Healthy profits:**
1. Its most important issue
2. A very important issue
3. Important
4. Not very important
5. Unimportant
6. Do not know

**Q31 Quality:**
1. Its most important issue
2. A very important issue
3. Important
4. Not very important
5. Unimportant
6. Do not know

**Q32 Productivity:**
1. Its most important issue
2. A very important issue
3. Important
4. Not very important
5. Unimportant
6. Do not know

**Q33 Ability to retain staff:**
1. Its most important issue
2. A very important issue
3. Important
4. Not very important
5. Unimportant
6. Do not know

**Q34 Safety:**
1. Its most important issue
2. A very important issue
3. Important
4. Not very important
5. Unimportant
6. Do not know

---

The University of Luton stresses the confidentiality of the answers you provide.
Section 4

This section asks questions about the changes that (company name) has implemented and the effects they have had on your commitment. Please indicate your answer by circling one number only in the left hand margin.

For example, for Q35a, if you have personally experienced organisational restructuring, you should circle the number 1 in the left hand margin, and move to Q35b to indicate how this has impacted on your commitment towards (company name).

Q35a Have you experienced organisational restructuring? (Please circle one number only)

1 Personally experienced (go to Q35b)
2 Seen it happen to others in (company name) (go to Q35b)
3 Not seen it at (company name) (go to Q36a)
4 Do not know (go to Q36a)

Q35b As a result of organisational restructuring at (company name), has your commitment: (Please circle one number only)

1 Considerably increased
2 Increased slightly
3 Remained constant
4 Decreased slightly
5 Considerably decreased

Q36a Have you experienced any team briefings? (Please circle one number only)

1 Personally experienced (go to Q36b)
2 Seen it happen to others in (company name) (go to Q36b)
3 Not seen it at (company name) (go to Q37a)
4 Do not know (go to Q37a)

Q36b As a result of the team briefings, has your commitment: (Please circle one number only)

1 Considerably increased
2 Increased slightly
3 Remained constant
4 Decreased slightly
5 Considerably decreased

The University of Luton stresses the confidentiality of the answers you provide.
Q37a  Have you experienced any changes in the level of your pay settlements? (Please circle one number only)

1   Personally experienced (go to Q37b)
2   Seen it happen to others in (company name) (go to Q37b)
3   Not seen it at (company name) (go to Q38a)
4   Do not know (go to Q38a)

Q37b  As a result of changed pay settlements, has your commitment:
      (Please circle one number only)

1   Considerably increased
2   Increased slightly
3   Remained constant
4   Decreased slightly
5   Considerably decreased

Q38a  Have you experienced any technological changes whilst employed at (company name)? (Please circle one number only)

1   Personally experienced (go to Q38b)
2   Seen it happen to others in (company name) (go to Q38b)
3   Not seen it at (company name) (go to Q39a)
4   Do not know (go to Q39a)

Q38b  As a result of technological change at (company name), has your commitment:
      (Please circle one number only)

1   Considerably increased
2   Increased slightly
3   Remained constant
4   Decreased slightly
5   Considerably decreased

The University of Luton stresses the confidentiality of the answers you provide.
Q39a Since working at (company name) has your job been re-organised?  
(Please circle one number only)  
1 Personally experienced (go to Q39b)  
2 Seen it happen to others in (company name) (go to Q39b)  
3 Not seen it at (company name) (go to Q40a)  
4 Do not know (go to Q40a)  

Q39b As a result of your job being re-organised, has your commitment:  
(Please circle one number only)  
1 Considerably increased  
2 Increased slightly  
3 Remained constant  
4 Decreased slightly  
5 Considerably decreased  

Q40a Have you experienced multi-skilling whilst employed at (company name)?  
(Please circle one number only)  
1 Personally experienced (go to Q40b)  
2 Seen it happen to others in (company name) (go to Q40b)  
3 Not seen it at (company name) (go to Q41)  
4 Do not know (go to Q41)  

Q40b As a result of multi-skilling at (company name), has your commitment: (Please circle one number only)  
1 Considerably increased  
2 Increased slightly  
3 Remained constant  
4 Decreased slightly  
5 Considerably decreased

The University of Luton stresses the confidentiality of the answers you provide.
Q41 Please indicate the ONE most important experience/change (positive or negative) that has affected your commitment to (company name)?

1 Organisational restructuring
2 Team briefings
3 Payment settlements
4 Technological change
5 Job re-organisation
6 Multi-skilling
7 Change in supervisor
8 Other please specify ___________________

Q42 Did you: (please circle one choice only)

1 Personally experience this?
2 See it happen to others in (company name)?
3 Personally experience and see it happen to others?

Q43 As a result of this experience/change, your commitment has:
(please circle one choice only)

1 Considerably increased
2 Increased slightly
3 Remained constant
4 Decreased slightly
5 Considerably decreased

Q44 Please indicate why your commitment has altered (or remained the same) as a result of this experience/change?

__________________________________________________________________________
__________________________________________________________________________
__________________________________________________________________________

Thank you for your time and co-operation. The University of Luton stresses the confidentiality of the answers you provide. Please put your completed questionnaire in the enclosed envelope and post it in either of the locked ballot boxes located at the entrances of Hangars 127 or 7&8.
Appendix 11: NOTES ABOUT QUESTIONNAIRE COMPLETION

Issues to cover, prior to questionnaire administration in case studies one and two. Introduce myself: Jeryl Shepherd, University of Luton.

Description of study area

The research is about employee commitment and how certain changes at work may or may not have effected your level of commitment towards [company name].

Employee commitment refers to:-
* a strong acceptance of [company name] goals and values;
* a willingness to exert considerable effort on behalf of [company name]; and
* a strong desire to stay employed at [company name]

Questionnaire piloting undertaken: to assess the user friendliness of the language being used and whether the questions and instructions can be easily understood.

Your role:

You have been selected at random to participate with the questionnaire. Although it is not mandatory for you to complete a questionnaire, your responses are very important to my research.

There are instructions at the top of each section on the questionnaire explaining how the questions should be answered.

For all questions, please answer by circling the appropriate number(s) indicating your answer, for example, for question 3:

Are you the main bread winner in your household?

You should circle the number 1, to indicate Yes as your answer;

or circle the number 2, to indicate No as your answer.

Other questions ask you to circle up to 6 answers.

Please take your time to work through the questionnaire and try to answer every question (even if your answer is that you do not know). Some of the questions are deliberately negatively phrased to please read them carefully.
If you have any questions whilst filling out the questionnaire, please ask.

Please put your completed questionnaire in the envelope provided and post in the wooden box on your way out. Please leave once you have finished.

In practice, the completion times of the questionnaire took between 8 and 25 minutes, so please do not be put off by others finishing before you.

Confidentiality:

On behalf of the University of Luton I guarantee the confidentiality of all your individual responses.

Each questionnaire is coded, the codes known only to me. This is necessary to enable me to invite some of you to participate with a follow up, confidential interview, giving you the opportunity to share some of your experiences at work.

The results:

I will provide a general synopsis of the collective results, made available to everyone at (company name).

And finally...

Please work individually, and try to refrain from discussing the content of the questionnaire with your colleagues, since the questionnaire requires a response that is representative of how you feel.

There are no right or wrong answers.

Does anybody have any points of clarification...or questions?

On hearing about my research, is there anyone who does not wish to participate?
Appendix 12: DETAILS OF THE RESEARCH AND QUESTIONNAIRE INSTRUCTIONS: COVERING LETTER FOR CASE STUDY THREE EMPLOYEES

(University headed note paper)

Monday 02 June 1997

Dear Colleague

The enclosed questionnaire is part of a study being funded by the University of Luton. It is about employee commitment and how change at work may or may not effect the levels of commitment employees' feel towards their organisation. (Company name) is one of three local organisations which have been selected to participate.

Whilst the completion of the questionnaire is not compulsory, your responses are very important as the research hopes to create new theory in the area of employee commitment and is part of my PhD. Representatives of the works committee and management at (company name) lend their support to this project.

Employee commitment is categorised by three features:

1. a strong acceptance of (company name) goals and values;
2. a willingness to exert considerable effort on behalf of (company name) and
3. a strong desire to stay employed with (company name).

The questionnaire has undergone a pre-test with some members of (company name) and the works committee, and is now being distributed to all (company name) employees based at (name of area branch). It takes approximately 10 - 20 minutes to complete, and most of the questions require you to make a simple choice between alternatives. You will notice that the questionnaire is divided into sections and there are instructions at the top of each section explaining how the questions should be answered, for example:

Questions 1 to 10, questions 24 to 27 and questions 30 to 34 all require you to provide one answer only by circling the appropriate number answer in the left hand margin.

Questions 11 to 23 ask you to circle one number on a horizontal scale to indicate how much you agree or disagree with each statement. Some of these sentences are deliberately negatively phrased, so please read them carefully! It is also important to answer each question, even if your answer is that you 'do not know'.
Please put your completed questionnaire in the envelope provided and post in either of the two locked ballot boxes which are located at the security points in the entrances of Hangars 127 and 7 & 8. The closing date for completed questionnaires is **Friday 20 June 1997**.

Following the questionnaire, I will invite about twenty five (company name) employees (at random) to participate in a confidential interview. The purpose of the interviews are to explore some of the questionnaire answers in more depth. For this reason, each questionnaire has been assigned a research number which is **KNOWN ONLY TO ME**. On behalf of the University of Luton, I guarantee the confidentiality of all your individual responses.

Please work individually, and although it may be difficult, please try and refrain from discussing your specific answers with your colleagues, as each question requires a response which is representative of what you think and how you feel at the time of completing the questionnaire. There are no right or wrong answers.

I will provide a copy of the collective questionnaire results to (company name) which will be made available to everyone. The interviews however, will be strictly for research purposes.

Finally, I hope that you find the questions interesting and I appreciate the time and thought you are able to give the questionnaire.

Thank you in anticipation.

Yours faithfully

Jeryl Shepherd
Research Student
Enclosures
Appendix 13: INTRODUCTION TO INTERVIEWS AND WARM UP QUESTIONS

Introduction to interviews

- Offer refreshments
- Thank you for agreeing to participate with this follow up session. It is an important part of my research and follows on from the questionnaire you completed last week.
- Rather than writing names on each of the questionnaires, you will probably remember that each was given a unique coded, please could you confirm that this is your questionnaire.
- The conversation we are about to have is strictly confidential, and I will not reveal your answers to anyone other than my Director of Studies. I would ask you in return not to reveal any part of our conversation to others working at (company name).
- You'll remember that the questionnaire was structured and asked you to provide an answer that was already predetermined. It did not provide any scope to express your opinions further and therefore the purpose of these interviews is to allow you to express your views and tell me more about the changes at (company name) and your experiences at work.
- Some of the questions I will ask you, you may find more relevant than others, so please do not feel that you have to make up or elaborate your answer just for the purposes of the research. There are no right or wrong answers, neither I am I looking for a desired answer.
- I would like to ask you some questions about the changes you have experienced whilst employed at (company name) and how these have or have not effected your commitment to (company name). It is important for you to know that I am not here to pass judgement on how committed you feel towards (company name), my project is concerned with finding out if changes at work effect or do not effect employee commitment. Please just take your time and be as frank, honest and open as you want to be.
- The whole process should take no longer than one hour and many of those who have participated have said that they have enjoyed taking part. However, you have the right to withdraw from the interview at any time.
- Do you mind if I take some notes? (if yes), Could I please ask you to speak slowly!
- Do you have any questions you would like to ask me?

Warm up interview questions
- Have long have you worked at (company name)?
- Do you like working here?
Appendix 14: RETAINING CONFIDENTIAL INFORMATION

Like that of stage one, a numbering system was employed to case study questionnaires to enable them to be traced back to the participating organisation and individual respondent if and when necessary. This was achieved by assigning an identification number unique to each participant. The numbering system was mainly utilised to enable participating individuals to be re-located for the purposes of interviewing.

Thus, it was necessary to compile and retain personnel lists together with the allocated research number since:

1. The return rate of questionnaires could not be guaranteed in case study three, as it was in case study one and two and therefore a follow up procedure may have been necessary;

2. Individual responses to the questionnaires formed the basis of the interview questions, and thus only participants who had completed a questionnaire would be selected for interviewing.

This information was held together on a manual filing system, which at the time of the research was within the legality of the DPA.

Moreover, reference to each participant by their research number (rather than their name), would ease the input of data into an appropriate statistical package which would be used for analysis, since it is often necessary to assign a value to each observation.

Indeed, Savage and Edwards (1984:36) suggest that, “...as a precaution, any organisation that processes statistical and/or research data should, as far as is possible in terms of the objectives of the research, seek to delete from the data, the names and addresses of respondents along with any other possible identifiers”.

Moreover, the coding system also prevented the individual being identified by examination of their questionnaire (on its return), in for example, the unlikely event of loss.
Appendix 15: DEMOGRAPHIC DETAILS OF INTERVIEWEES

The personal details of interviewees within the three case studies is presented below, along side the corresponding research numbers assigned to respondents and used in the main text in order to preserve their identity.

The following information is used to match the personal profile of participants’ with the text lifted from their interview scripts which has been used to illustrate employee points and arguments in chapter seven. For the purposes of case study one, management and staff members at different sites to that of the main one in Luton are marked accordingly (see chapter five). All case study interviewees are employed on a full time, permanent basis.

CASE STUDY ONE: Management

335  Male, married, breadwinner with more than two income dependants, manager (with personnel responsibility), production channels, day shift, 20+ years service, union membership

359  Male, married, breadwinner, one income dependent, manager (with personnel responsibility), administration, day shift, 20+ years service, no union membership

529  Male, single, breadwinner, no income dependants, other manager, marketing and sales, day shift, 4-10 years service, no union membership, (umbrella unit)

616  Male, married, breadwinner with more than two income dependants, manager (with personnel responsibility), technical sales and application engineering, day shift, 4-10 years service, no union membership, (Tilbrook site)

617  Male, married, breadwinner, no income dependants, other manager, (personnel department), day shift, 11-20 years service, no union membership, (Tilbrook site)

621  Male, married, breadwinner with two income dependants, other manager, marketing and sales, day shift, 20+ years service, no union membership, (Tilbrook site)
622  Female, married, not the main breadwinner in household, more than two income dependants, manager (with personnel responsibility), sales and support, day shift, 4-10 years service, no union membership, (Tilbrook site).

CASE STUDY ONE: Office staff

331  Male, single, breadwinner, one income dependent, staff, production channels, day shift, 11-20 years service, union membership

370  Male, married, not the main breadwinner in household, two income dependants, staff, other production, (service and support), day shift, 4-10 years service, union membership

493  Female, married, not the main breadwinner in household, no income dependants, staff, administration, day shift, 20+ years service, no union membership, (umbrella unit)

500  Male, single, breadwinner, no income dependants, staff, administration, day shift, 20+ years service, no union membership, (umbrella unit)

552  Male, single, breadwinner, no income dependants, staff, administration, day shift, 4-10 years service, no union membership (umbrella unit)

605  Male, single, breadwinner, no income dependants, staff, marketing and sales, day shift, 4-10 years service, no union membership, (Tilbrook site)

610  Male, single, not the main breadwinner in household, no income dependants, staff, technical sales and application engineering, day shift, 4-10 years service, union membership, (Tilbrook site)

623  Male, married, breadwinner, more than two income dependants, staff, technical sales and application engineering, day shift, 4-10 years service, no union membership, (Tilbrook site).

CASE STUDY ONE: Manual

88   Female, married, breadwinner, no income dependants, hourly paid, other production, 2 shift, 20+ years service, union membership

96   Male, married, not the main breadwinner in household, two income dependants, hourly paid, production channels, 2 shift, 0-3 years service, union membership
140  Male, married, not the main breadwinner in household, two income dependants, hourly paid, production channels, 2 shift, 4-10 years service, union membership

210  Male, single, not the main breadwinner in household, hourly paid, production, 2 shift, 4-10 years service, union membership

220  Male, married, not the main breadwinner in household, no income dependants, hourly paid, production, 2 shift, 20+ years service, union membership

255  Male, cohabiting, breadwinner, more than two income dependants, hourly paid, production channels, 2 shift, 4-10 years service, union membership

262  Male, married, breadwinner, one income dependent, hourly paid, production channels, day shift, 20+ years service, union membership (Union representative)

297  Male, married, breadwinner, more than two income dependants, skilled trade, maintenance, day shift, 20+ years service, union membership.

CASE STUDY ONE: Nightshift

14  Female, cohabiting, not the main breadwinner in household, no income dependants, hourly paid, production channels, nightshift, 20+ years service, union membership

104  Male, married, not main breadwinner in household, one income dependent, hourly paid, production channels (team leader), nightshift, 11-20 years service, union membership

146  Female, widowed, breadwinner, no income dependants, hourly paid, production channels, nightshift, 11-20 years service, union membership.

CASE STUDY TWO: Management

149  Male, married, breadwinner, more than two income dependants, manager (with personnel responsibility), quality, day shift, 4-10 years service, no union membership.

CASE STUDY TWO: Office staff

142  Male, married, breadwinner, one income dependent, staff, manufacturing engineering, day shift, 0-3 years service, union membership
145 Male, married, breadwinner, one income dependant, staff, materials management/logistics, day shift, 4-10 years service, no union membership.

CASE STUDY TWO: Manual

13 Male, divorced, breadwinner, two income dependants, team member, production, 2 shift, 4-10 years service, union membership

51 Male, cohabiting, two income dependants, team member, production, 2 shift, 0-3 years service, no union membership

78 Female, married, not the main breadwinner in household, no income dependants, team member, materials management/logistics, day shift, 4-10 years service, union membership

86 Female, married, not the main breadwinner in household, one income dependent, team member, production, 2 shift, 4-10 years service, union membership

100 Male, married, not the main breadwinner in household, no income dependants, more than two income dependants, team member, quality, 2 shift, 0-3 years service, no union membership

106 Female, married, not the main breadwinner in household, team member, production, 2 shift, 0-3 years service, union membership

120 Male, married, not the main breadwinner in household, one income dependant, team member, quality, 2 shift, 4-10 years, union membership

122 Male, married, breadwinner, more than two income dependants, team member, production, 2 shift, 4-10 years service, union membership.

CASE STUDY THREE: Management

286 Male, married, breadwinner, with two income dependants, other manager, maintenance, shift, 11-20 years service.

321 Male, married, breadwinner, more than two income dependants, manager (with personnel responsibility), maintenance, non shift, 11-20 years service

331 Male, married, breadwinner, one income dependant, manager (with personnel responsibility), security, shift, 4-10 years service

363 Male, married, breadwinner, two income dependants, manager (with personnel responsibility) other maintenance (including storekeeping), non shift, 4-10 years service
384 Male, married, breadwinner, one income dependent, manager, (with personnel responsibility), technical projects and design, non shift, 11-20 years service

406 Male, married, breadwinner, two income dependants, manager (with personnel responsibility), technical projects and design, non shift, 20+ years service

492 Male, married, breadwinner, two income dependants, manager (with personnel responsibility), materials management/logistics, non shift, 4-10 years service

532 Male, married, breadwinner, more than two income dependants, manager (with personnel responsibility), materials management/logistics, non shift, 4-10 years service

539 Male, single, breadwinner, no income dependants, manager (with personnel responsibility), systems department, non shift, 0-3 years service

577 Male, married, breadwinner, one income dependent, manager (with personnel responsibility), other maintenance (including store keeping), non shift, 20+ years service

608 Male, married, breadwinner, with one income dependent, manager (with personnel responsibility), maintenance, non shift, 4-10 years service

CASE STUDY THREE: Office staff

69 Male, married, breadwinner, more than two income dependants, staff, other maintenance (including storekeeping) shift, 11-20 years service

86 Male, married, breadwinner, more than two income dependants, staff, administration, non shift, 4-10 years service

401 Male, married, breadwinner, more than two income dependants, staff, quality, non shift, 4-10 years service

411 Male, married, breadwinner with more than two income dependants, staff, technical support and projects, non shift, 4-10 years service (Works Committee Chairman)

543 Male, married, breadwinner, one income dependent, staff, systems department, non shift, 4-10 years service.
CASE STUDY THREE: Hangar/workshop staff (Manual)

223  Male, married, breadwinner, more than two income dependants, hangar/workshop staff, maintenance, shift, 4-10 years service

251  Male, married, breadwinner with more than two income dependants, hangar/workshop, maintenance, shift, 4-10 years service

281  Male, married, breadwinner, with one income dependent, hangar/workshop staff, maintenance, shift, 20+ years service, crew chief

307  Male, married, breadwinner, more than two income dependants, hangar/workshop staff, maintenance, shift, 4-10 years service

471  Male, married, breadwinner, one income dependent, hangar/workshop staff, other maintenance (including storekeeping), non shift, 0-3 years service

585  Male, married, breadwinner, no income dependants, hangar/workshop staff, other maintenance (including storekeeping), non shift, 4-10 years service

592  Male, married, breadwinner, one income dependant, hangar/workshop staff, maintenance, non shift, 4-10 years service, nightshift, crew chief

601  Male, single, breadwinner, no income dependants, hangar/workshop staff, maintenance, non shift, 4-10 years service, nightshift.
Appendix 16: CONGRUENCY OF QUESTIONNAIRE AND INTERVIEW RESPONSES; ORGANISATIONAL CHANGES IN SET ONE

Introduction

This section seeks to establish if the commitment responses after organisational changes in SET ONE provided by participants on the questionnaire are congruent with their attitudes expressed in the interviews. It makes reference to the statistical findings (where appropriate) presented in chapter seven and provides relevant examples from the transcripts to illustrate key points.

Using the key developed specifically for the purposes of the content analysis (see Figure 8.1, Chapter Eight), compatibility of questionnaire and interview responses in the current research, was established. The following section provides a summary of responses for organisational changes in SET ONE. Analysis of changes in SET TWO and SET THREE are shown in appendix 17. In the event the respondent has not experienced the change, does not know (questionnaires), or if the item was not discussed (interviews) a missing value is recorded.

Hammersely and Atkinson (1983;126) suggest that, "...interview data, like any other, must be interpreted against the background of the context in which they were produced". Thus, appropriate quotations extracted from scripts are documented as follows: research number allocated to individual, case study, questionnaire answer and interview response. For example, Figure 8.2 in Chapter eight is concerned with the issue of job re-organisation and the following is information is recorded, Engco;255, -, ↔. This indicates that participant 255 at case study one has reported on his questionnaire that his commitment had decreased after experience of job re-organisation. However, throughout his interview he largely talked about this change, identifying both the pros and cons. In this instance, an incompatible response overall is established.

Case study one

Organisational restructuring - Case study one

Table A16-1 shows that whilst the majority of questionnaire responses indicate that commitment has increased as a result of organisational restructuring at Engco, the interview responses do not necessarily suggest that the majority of participants talked up this change. Indeed, the table shows that the majority of interview
responses are located in the $\Rightarrow$ category. This suggests that employees' highlighted the positive outcomes as well as the negative consequences of this change throughout their interview, and hence it is acknowledged that there are differences between the interviewee's questionnaires and their personal accounts.

Table A16-1 Organisational restructuring  Table A16-2 Payment settlements

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Organisational restructuring</th>
<th>Payment settlements</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Table A16-1</td>
<td>Table A16-2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Questionnaire</strong></td>
<td><strong>Interview</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Symbol No of responses</td>
<td>Symbol No of responses</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$++$</td>
<td>5</td>
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<td>$+$</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td>26</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Despite this however, the pattern of interview responses is compatible with the overall questionnaire responses received from employees at case study one. For example, Chapter Seven, Section 7.4, Table 7-11 shows the $p$ value of the collective Engco scores of commitment after organisational restructuring in relation to the scale mean ($3 = \text{remained constant}$). Since no significant differences were found between the mean score and the remained constant indicator, it was concluded that commitment levels had not altered as a result of this organisational change.

Given that the majority of the interviewees have talked about the importance of organisational restructuring, it is suggested that the discussion evident in the interview transcripts is therefore more illustrative of the overall questionnaire response pattern obtained at Engco, than that of the sample of questionnaire respondents who participated with interviews.

**Payment settlements - Case study one**

Table A16.2 shows that the majority of questionnaire responses of interviewees' at case study one are located around the increased and remained constant area of commitment, with regard to the changes in payment settlements. The majority of the interview discussions however, indicate that this change has predominately been talked about.

This suggests that individuals at case study one have shown more favourable questionnaire responses, than they have in the interviews when discussing their attitude towards the organisation after pay changes have occurred.
Technological change - Case study one

Table A16-3 shows compatible response patterns between interview and questionnaire answers. In short, these indicate that the majority of subjects participating with both, indicated that their commitment has either, increased as a result of technological changes at Engco, or has remained constant.

Similarly, the findings of the statistical analysis presented in Chapter Seven, Section 7.4, Table 7-13 shows that commitment has increased amongst Engco employees based on the responses from the questionnaire. One manager for example stated that, "when I first joined Engco there was an instant technological change. A computer was a toy in my last post. When I joined Engco there was a much better attitude to doing a good job by using technology. We have technology that enables me to communicate with colleagues around the world. CC Mail has made a hell of a difference especially for me regarding document transfer, it sounds a simple thing but when I have been in meetings recently brainstorming, there is one consistent message and that is communication. Its extremely positive for me and the business" (Engco;616, +, ⊥).

Job re-organisation - Case study one

The spread of questionnaire responses from interviewees presented in Table A16-4 shows that commitment has reportedly increased as a result of job re-organisation. This finding is compatible with the analysis in Chapter Seven, Section 7.4, Table 7-14, which shows that, of the mean scores obtained from all Engco employees, statistical differences were apparent between these and the scale mean of 3 (p<0.05), (N= 94, mean = 2.69).
However outcomes of questionnaire and interview discussions presented in Table A16-4 are not consistent with each other. In particular, Table A16-4 shows that more employees were considered to be indifferent about the change, or used relatively equal amounts of positive and negative language to describe how the change had affected them, than were inclined to talk up their attitude towards the company following job re-organisation. For example, on office member of staff suggested that, “when I first came into this department there were five people in it, now there is two of us. Its a case of you get to do all the jobs including the ones you do not like or the whole thing goes kaput....It has made life more difficult, you just can't do a drawing without it being checked properly, we check each others job now and we have to do loads of other tasks, and people don't like to wait for things” (Engco; 623, +, ⊥).

Case study two

Organisational restructuring - Case study two

Commitment levels after organisational restructuring are spread relatively evenly between all the questionnaire and the three interview categories in Table A16-5, showing consistency between responses. One example where an office employee shows a consistent and positive pattern in his questionnaire and interview answers states, “the company has grown a hell of a lot since I have been here. What they have done is for the good. This site is the number one plant in Europe, rather than just the UK, for knowledge and expertise (Carco; 145, +, ⊥).”

Table A16-5 Organisational restructuring  Table A16-6 Payment settlements

<table>
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<tr>
<th>Organisational restructuring</th>
<th>Payment settlements</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Table A16-5</strong></td>
<td><strong>Table A16-6</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Questionnaire</strong></td>
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</tr>
<tr>
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</tr>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>+</td>
<td>2</td>
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<tr>
<td>-</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- -</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Missing</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>11</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Payment settlements - Case study two

In dealing with payment settlements at case study two, there is a clear consensus that commitment has remained unchanged from Table A16-6. For example, One
manual worker suggests that, "I am not hard up, I do not struggle with money. I am happy with the pay, but it is the fact that we do shifts, working the hours we do, we should get more. My husband gets more doing a nine to five factory job. Maybe we are one of the better paid around here, I do not know really, but I am never short" (Carco; 106, 0, 0).

Table A16-7 Technological change  Table A16-8 Job re-organisation

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Technological change</th>
<th>Job re-organisation</th>
</tr>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Table A16-7</strong></td>
<td><strong>Table A16-8</strong></td>
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<td>Interview</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Symbol</td>
<td>No of responses</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>++</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>+</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- -</td>
<td>0</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td>11</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Despite this, the mean scores of commitment levels after changes in pay obtained from the sample at Carco showed that commitment had increased when individuals had personally experienced this change and seen it happen to others, (Tables 7-12 and 7-16 in Chapter Seven, Section 7.4). This suggests that the sample drawn for purposes of interviewing is not necessarily representative of the larger audience participating with the questionnaire at case study two (at least with regards to this question).

Technological change - Case study two

The responses to changes in technology reveal that employees’ who participated in both methods of data collection have increased or unchanged levels of commitment. For example, one office worker states that, to him, technological changes mean, “new computers in the offices. Its continuous improvement which is what we keep striving for. It makes life easier...we are learning, all the time learning” (Carco; 145, + 0).

Job re-organisation - Case study two

With regard to job re-organisation, Table A16-8 shows that questionnaire and interview scores were similarly spread. An example where this is evident, is offered by one manual worker who states that, “I do different things, it is a lot
better than when I first came here. It was back in the stone age then, although saying that, some jobs still are. I suppose things are significantly better than they use to be, but my commitment has not changed because of this (Carco;122, 0, ⇑).

Case study three

Table A16-9 Organisational restructuring  Table A16-10 Payment settlements

<table>
<thead>
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<th>Organisational restructuring</th>
<th>Payment settlements</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Table A16-9 Questionnaire</td>
<td>Table A16-10 Questionnaire</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Symbol</td>
<td>No of responses</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>+ +</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>+</td>
<td>4</td>
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<tr>
<td>-</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Missing</td>
<td>2</td>
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</tbody>
</table>

| Organisational restructuring - Case study three |

The main finding is that questionnaire responses indicate no change in commitment following organisational restructuring at case study three. Similarly, the majority of questionnaire responses were located in the ⇑ category. This pattern of responses is illustrated in the following quotation, from a managerial member of the organisation. “Organisational restructuring means that we have moved departments, moved people, business process re-engineering, its something you deal with, its has not necessarily affected my commitment, you just deal with it” (Airco;539, 0, ⇑).

| Payment settlements - Case study three |

In brief, Table A16-10 shows that the majority of employees at case study three indicated on their questionnaire that no change had occurred in their commitment as a result of pay changes. Similarly, the majority of interview transcripts show evidence that these individuals have talked about both the positive and negative consequences of changes to their pay. However, a high level of continuity can not be identified as noticeably 38% of respondents talked down this change.

The reasons proposed for this, derived from the interview scripts, (see chapter eight), suggest that this is largely because employees perceived the negotiations...
with management about pay as coercive. One suggested that this has resulted in, "a level of fluctuation in my commitment, even if this is minor. Sometimes, when for example a change in our pay is coming up, everyone is on tender hooks, afterwards, they are on a downer, and a lot of my men look for work elsewhere, including myself" (Airco;251, 0, ò).

Table A16-11 Technological change Table A16-12 Job re-organisation

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Technological change</th>
<th>Job re-organisation</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Table A16-11</strong></td>
<td><strong>Table A16-12</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Questionnaire</strong></td>
<td><strong>Interview</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Questionnaire</strong></td>
<td><strong>Interview</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Symbol</strong></td>
<td><strong>No of responses</strong></td>
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<td>+ +</td>
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<td>Total</td>
<td>24</td>
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</tbody>
</table>

Technological change - Case study three

From Table A16-11, it is inferred that the majority of questionnaire responses have either increased or remained the same with regard to this change. Similarly, respondents have talked about and talked up this change in the interview discussions at case study three. This is consistent with the analysis performed on all the questionnaires obtained from Airco.

Chapter Seven, Section 7.4, Table 7-13, shows an increase in commitment amongst employees at case study three as a result of this change. One manager discusses the changes he has experienced in this area and the positive outcomes it has had for his job. "When I first came, everything was done by hand, now everything is logged and on the computer, its brilliant, we are linked to the Internet and its made my job easier and coming to work is better in general now" (Airco;532, +, ò).

Job re-organisation - Case study three

With regard to job re-organisation, similarities between responses are evident in Table A16-12 despite fourteen missing values (interviews). The majority of questionnaires however indicate no change in commitment and the majority of interviewees have talked about the key issues. Despite this, it is also acknowledged that the table shows some incompatibility between the number of
individuals who have suggested that their commitment has increased following job re-organisation, whilst only one talked up this change. This is further reinforced by examination of Table 7-14 in Chapter Seven, Section 7.4, which shows that of the questionnaires returned from case study three, commitment has increased following job re-organisation.

Conclusion

The purpose of undertaking the content analysis was to find out to what extent employees' responses from the two data collection methods would compliment each other.

Firstly, case study one, showed high levels of disparity between the responses using the two data collection methods, whereas individuals participating with both interviews and questionnaires at case study two showed the highest level of continuity between their questionnaire responses and language used in the interviews. Those at case study three also showed a high level of similarity in their answers, although some of the conclusions from the analysis are tenuous (for example, payment settlements).
Appendix 17: CONGRUENCY OF QUESTIONNAIRE AND INTERVIEW RESPONSES: ORGANISATIONAL CHANGES IN SET TWO AND SET THREE

Introduction

This section examines the congruency between responses after organisational changes in SET TWO and SET THREE by individual case study. It draws from the interview transcripts in order to illustrate evidence of disparity and compatibility between questionnaire and interview answers.

CASE STUDY ONE

Summary of changes in SET TWO

Table A17-1 Productivity workshops

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Productivity workshops</th>
<th>Case study one</th>
</tr>
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<tr>
<td>Table A17-1 Productivity workshops</td>
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<tr>
<td><strong>Table A17-1</strong></td>
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<td><strong>Questionnaire</strong></td>
<td><strong>Interview</strong></td>
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<td>Total</td>
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</table>

An equal amount of questionnaire responses suggest that commitment levels have increased or remained constant as a result of productivity workshops at Engco. However, the majority of interview accounts did not talk up the change as might be expected, but rather talked about the main issues. Thus, some divergence between responses from these methods is apparent. For example, “It was okay, the workshops were good. It never got pushed as hard as it could have been. We’d chat about it when we were in their, but it died a death on the factory floor. You had Quality Action Teams set up to assess continuous improvement. Some good came out of them, but I’m pretty unconcerned by it all really” (Engco;104,
Despite this somewhat apathetic view this employee has reported a slight increase on the questionnaire as a result of this change.

Summary of changes in SET THREE

Table A17-2 Redundancies and Table A17-3 Channelling

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Redundancies</th>
<th>Channelling</th>
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</thead>
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<td>Table A17-2</td>
<td>Table A17-3</td>
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<tr>
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<td>26</td>
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</tbody>
</table>

Redundancy and Channelling - Case study one

Overall, there is some evidence to indicate that employees have given more favourable answers about their commitment after redundancy and channelling on the questionnaire, than in the interviews. Commenting on the issue of redundancy, one manager reports that, "When I left to have a baby I applied for redundancy whilst on maternity leave, but my manager rejected me, he would not even pay me off to get out. Its funny, when I talk to people they say he speaks very highly of me, but we just did not get along when I worked for him. Now I am back, but the redundancies have not affected the department I work in now, its the busiest department in the company (Engco;621, +, ⬆). As in the example given above (productivity workshops) this employee’s questionnaire suggested an increased commitment level following change, although her interview account suggests that her own personal experience of this was predominately negative.
Case Study Two

Summary of changes in SET TWO

Table A17-4 Productivity workshops and Table A17-5 Team briefs

<table>
<thead>
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<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
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</table>

**Productivity workshops - Case study two**

There is little evidence of unified responses with regard to productivity workshops at case study two (as shown in Table A17-4). The majority of employees report no change in their commitment level on their questionnaires, but in the interviews, various perspectives were presented. For example, on manual worker suggested that "I have seen the way they change the lines, drastically. It does change the way people work, it puts unnecessary pressure on them. They juggle everything around". Despite this largely negative perspective about the productivity workshops, this individual, on his questionnaire, indicated no change in his overall commitment to the organisation (Carco; 51, 0, ⇔).

**Team Briefs - Case study two**

Whilst approximately one third of questionnaire responses from employees at case study two are located in each of the following categories (increased and decreased slightly and remained constant) individuals were more likely to talk down this change in the follow up interviews. Thus, congruity between responses can not be established.

This is illustrated in the following extract where the interviewee indicated a slight increase in commitment following team briefs, yet in the discussions talked down his attitude towards the company in light of this change. "Team briefs. You mean the MD’s feedback on how the company is doing. The company is supposed to be moving, but when you ask them questions at the team brief they answer them..."
without telling you anything. I think we have the right to know what is going on. This does not give me a positive view of Carco” (Carco; 106, +, 0).

Table A17-6 Job rotation

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Job rotation</th>
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<tr>
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<td>Missing</td>
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</table>

Job rotation - Case study two

Table A17-6 shows clear compatibility between questionnaire and interview responses with regard to job rotation. In short, it shows that job rotation has increased commitment levels at Carco and indeed the majority of responses suggest that positive language was used in describing this change in the interviews conducted with employees. This was also evident in the focus groups sessions conducted at the outset of the research with employees from case study two. These suggested that “job rotation is generally quite popular” (anonymous; manual employee; Carco).

Similarly, the following anecdotal evidence illustrates perspectives from manual employees for whom job rotation is a central part of their life at work. “Some of the lines, they work eight hours on one job. We rotate, otherwise you become brain dead. A lot of the work on our lines is standing up. It stops you getting bored too quickly and prevents repetition, strain and backache. To a certain extent there is only a certain amount of rotation you can do, we swap every one and a half hours. The other shift is every hour so you do one job twice that is a bit ridiculous. You can put some strain on your joints if you do a job for eight hours” (Carco; 51, +, +, +, 0). Another suggested, “…job rotation is a good idea, you can get bored and its ongoing training. Things are changing all the time, they can ask you to go on a different line and you can (Carco; 86, 0, 0).
CASE STUDY THREE

Summary of changes in SET TWO and SET THREE

Table A17-7 Team briefs and Table A17-8 multiskilling

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>CHANGES IN SET TWO</th>
<th>CHANGES IN SET THREE</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Team briefs Table A17-7</td>
<td>Multiskilling Table A17-8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Questionnaire</td>
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<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>24</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Team Briefs - Case study three

Overall, results of questionnaires in Table A17-7 suggest that commitment has not changed following team briefs at Airco. Moreover, results from the transcripts suggest that the majority of interviewees talked about this change. Congruity between results is therefore established. An example from one interviewee suggests that, “We have team briefs in the workshops. Because of these, there is more of a team spirit as we have a meeting with everyone. We can not always solve the problems, but we are talking about them. They are generally quite good...but my commitment to the company? Well I would not say that has been affected by them, no, not really, I think I just see them as part of the routine, having said that, I do not want to underestimate their importance to you” (Airco;577, 0, ⇔).

Multiskilling - Case study three

In both the questionnaires and interviews, there are a relatively equal number of values missing, (see Table 17-8). Overall individuals showed unchanged or favourable responses in both. One example offered by a member of office staff indicates increased commitment (on the questionnaire). He also discussed this change positively during the interview, “to a certain extent, I do, do things outside my job description, trying to learn different software packages is crucial to my job. If you can use people to do more, then this helps the business and the more you know, the better. If someone is off sick then they can be covered and it makes you more marketable if you have knowledge outside your area” (Airco;86, ++, ⌁).